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## AN ELEMENTARY

## MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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## BY

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AND

# ELIZABETH MARY WRIGHT 

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To the Revered MemoryOF
DR. HENRY BRADLEYANDDR. SIR JAMES MURRAYWHO DEVOTED THEIR LONG AND STRENUOUSLIVES TO PROMOTING THE STUDY OF ENGLISHWORD-LORE THIS MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMARIS RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED

## PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

The need of an elementary Niddle English Grammar written on scientific and historical principles must long have been felt by pupils and teachers alike, and it is with a view of supplying this need that the present Grammar has been written. In writing it we have followed as far as possible the plan adopted in the Elementary Old English Grammar, our object being to furnish students with a concise account of the phonology and inflexions of the Middle English period. And in order that the book may form a kind of basis for the modern English period, we have in almost all cases chosen the examples illustrating the Middle English sound-changes from words which have survived in Modern-English. It will thus link up with a similar book dealing with the phonology and inflexions of New English, which is already in an advanced stage of preparation, and which will be published next year.

In dealing with the Middle English dialects, we have, as far as is possible in an elementary Grammar, endeavoured to exhibit the phonological and inflexional features of each group of dialects without attaching too great importance to any one of them. In this part of the work we have made considerable use of the modern dialects, as they help to throw much light upon many points of Middle English phonology.

As the book is not intended for specialists in English philology, some more or less important details have
been intentionally omitted. All or most of them will doubtless be found in Morsbach's Mittclenglische Grammatik, Halle, 1896, and Luick's Historische Grammatik der englischen Sprache, Leipzig, 1914-21, if these two comprehensive grammars are ever completed, as well as some of them in Chaucers Sprache und Verskunst by B. ten Brink, third edition, edited by E. Eckhardt, Leipzig, 1920. We gratefully acknowledge our indebtedness to the above-mentioned works, and tu Björkman's Scandinavian Loan-vords in Midule English, Halle, 1900-2.

We are convinced that the student who conscientiously works through this book will find that he has gained a thorough general knowledge of Middle English sound-laws and inflexions, and has thereby, not only laid a solid foundation for further study of historical English grammar, but also for a fuller and more appreciative study of mediaeval English Literature.

In conclusion, we wish to express our sincere thanks to the Controller of the University Press for his great kindness in complying with our wishes in regard to special type, and to the Press reader for his valuable help with the reading of the proofs.

## JOSEPH WRIGHT. <br> ELIZABETH MARY WRIGHT.

OxTORD,
October, 1928.

## PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The rapidity with which a large first edition of this Grammar has been exhausted would seem to indicate that there was a real need for such a book among beginners of the subject at our universities.
In preparing this new Edition for press we have adhered strictly to our original plan, viz. that of furnishing students with a concise account of the phonology and inflexions of the Middle English period. From our long experience as teachers of the subject, we are convinced that this is the only satisfactory method. To have overburdened the book with a large number of details would only confuse the student and render him unable 'to see the wood for the trees'. Although we have preserved the original number of paragraphs, many of these have been enlarged, and others have been entirely re-written, especially in the phonology of the vowels of accented syllables and in the chapter on verbs.

In conclusion, we beg to express our heartiest thanks to the reviewers of the first edition for their useful suggestions, especially to Professor E. Ekwall in Beiblatt zur Anglia, vol. xxxv, pp. 226-8, Professor F. Holthausen in Literaturblatt für germanische und romanische Philologie, Jahrgang xlv, Nr. 10-12 (cols. 302-5), Professor E. Kruisinga in English. Studies, vol. vi, pp. 162-3, and Professor F. Wild in Englische Studien, vol. lix, pp. 96-9. And lastly, we gratefully acknowledge our indebtedness

## X

Preface
to the Handbuch der mittelenglischen Grammatik, Erster Teil : Lautlehre (Heidelberg, 1925), by our old friend the late Professor Richard Jordan, through whose untimely death the study of English Philology has suffered a great loss.

JOSEPH WRIGHT.
ELIZABETH MARY WRIGHT.
Oxford,
Norember, 1927

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## ABBREVIATIONS, ETC.

| AN. | $=$ Anglo-Norman |
| :--- | :--- |
| Angl. | $=$ Anglian |
| C.Fr. | $=$ Central French |
| dial. | $=$ dialect |
| ED.Gr. $=$ | English Dialect |
|  | $\quad$ Grammar |
| EM. | $=$ East Midland |
| ENE.Gr. $=$ | Elementary Histo- |
|  | $\quad$ rical New English |
|  | $\quad$ Grammar |
| EOE.Gr. $=$ | Elementary Old |
|  | $\quad$ English Grammar |
| Fr. | $=$ French |
| Goth. | $=$ Gothic |
| Ken. | $=$ Kentish |
| Lat. | $=$ Latin |
| M. or m. | $=$ Midland |
| ME. | $=$ Middle English |


| b | $=\mathbf{v}$ in vine, five |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\%$ | $=\mathrm{th}$ in then |
| 3 | $=g$ often heard in |
| D | $=\mathrm{B}$ in finger, think |

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { MHG. } & =\text { Middle High Ger } \\ \quad \text { man }\end{array} \quad \begin{aligned} & \text { Mod. } \\ & \text { N. Mor n. }\end{aligned}$ tionary.
NHG. = New High German
Nth. = Northumbrian
NW. = north-west(ern
OE. = Old English
O.Fr. = Old French
O.Icel. = Old Icelandic

ON. = Old Norse
S. or 8. = Southern

Sc. $\quad=$ Scottish
W. or w . = West

WM. = West Midland
WS. = West Saxon

| s. | $=s$ in measure |
| :--- | :--- |
| dx | $=j$ in just |
| s. | $=s h$ in ship |
| $x$ | $=c h$ in chin |
| $x$ | $=c h$ in German nacht, |

The sign - placed over vowels is used to mark long vowels. The sign c placed under vowels is used to denote open vowels, as $\bar{e}, \bar{¢}, \underline{\varepsilon} \mathbf{i}$, Qi. The sign. placed under vowels is used to denote close vowels, as $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$, ẹi, ẹu, ou. Simple $e$ in unaccented syllables denotes that the vowel was not pronounced, as come, hevenes, livẹde. The asterisk * prefized to a word denotes a theoretical form, as cladd from older *clāđd, clothed.

## INTRODUCTION

§1. Middle English embraces that period of the English language which extends from about 1100 to 1500 . The division of a language into fixed periods must of necessity be more or less arbitrary. What are given as the characteristics of one period have generally had their beginnings in the previous period, and it is impossible to say with perfect accuracy when one period begins and another ends. In fact many of the vowel-changes which are generally described as having taken place in early ME. did in reality take place in late OE., although early ME. writers often continued to use the traditional OE . spelling long after the sound-changes had taken place; this applies especially to æ̈, y̆, ěa, ěo. And just as it is impossible to fix the precise date at which one period of a language ends and another begins, so also it is not possible to do more than to fix approximately the date at which any particular sound-change took place, because in most languages, and more especially in English, the change in orthography has not kept pace with the change in sound.
§ 2. For practical purposes Middle English may be conveniently divided into three sub-periods:-(a) Early ME. extending from about 1100 to 1250. (b) Ordirary ME. extending from about 1250 to 1400. And (c) late ME. extending from about 1400 to 1500 .
(a) Early ME. 1100-1250. The chief characteristics of this sub-period are:-The preservation in a great measure of the traditional OE. system of orthography, and the beginnings of the influence of Anglo-Norman orthography. The change of $æ$ to a ( $\S 43$ ), a to $\bar{o}$ in the dialects south of the Humber ( $\$ 51$ ), the lengthening of $a, e, 0$ in open syllables of dissyllabic words (§ 77), the formation of a large
number of new diphthongs of the $i$ and $\cdot u$ type ( $\$ \S 104$, 105), the weakening of unaccented a, o, u to e (§ 134), the preservation for the most part of unaccented final ee (§ 139). The breaking up of the OE. inflexional system, especially that of the declensions of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. The preservation of greater remnants of the OE. declensions of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns in the South than in the North and the Midlands. Grammatical gender was almost entirely lost in nouns (§ 314). Few Anglo-Norman loanwords found their way into the dialects of the South, still fewer into those of the Midlands, and hardly any at all into those of the north Midlands, and of the North.
(b) Ordinary ME. 1250-1400. The chief characteristics of this sub-period are:-The gradual formation of extensive literary dialect centres; and in the fourteenth century, especially in the second half, the beginnings of a standard ME. which, excluding Scotland, became fully developed in the fifteenth century. The great influence of Anglo-Norman orthography upon the written language ( $\$$ § 7-21). Unaccented final ee had practically ceased to be pronounced in all the dialects. The limitation of the inflexion of nouns and adjectives chiefly to one main type in the North and the Midlands, and in the South to two main typesthe strong with the inflexions of the old a-declension, and the weak. The introduction of a large number of AngloNorman words into all the dialects, even into those of the North.
(c) Late ME. 1400-1500. In this sub-period we can observe the gradual disappearance of the local dialect element from the literature of the period through the spread and influence of the London literary language. The close approximation of the system of inflexions to that of New English. The gradual cleavage between the Scottish and the northern dialects of England.
§ 3. In the present state of our knowledge it is not possible
to give more than a rough-and-ready classification of the ME. dialects, because we are unable to fix the exact boundaries where one dialect ends and another begins. Nor shall we ever be able to remedy this defect until we possess a comprehensive atlas of the modern dialects such as has been produced by France and Germany of their dialects. An atlas of this kind would enable English scholars to fix the dialect boundaries far more accurately than is possible at present, and to show conclusively that there was no such thing as a uniform northern, north Midland, east Midland, west Midland, or south Midland dialect in the ME. period, but that within each principal division there were many sub-dialects each possessing clearly defined phonological peculiarities.
§ 4. ME. is usually divided into three large groups of dialects:-

1. The Northern Group, including the dialects of the Lowlands of Scotland, Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, Westmorland, the whole of Yorkshire except the south, and north Lancashire. Roughly speaking, the Humber and the Ouse formed the southern boundary, while the Pennine Chain determined its limits to the West.
2. The Midland Group, including the dialects of south Yorkshire, the whole of Lancashire except the north, the counties to the west of the Pennine Chain, the East Anglian counties, and the whole of the Midland area. It corresponded roughly to the Old Mercian and East Anglian areas. The Thames formed the southern boundary of this extensive group of dialects. This group is generally further subdivided into the north Midland, east Midland, west Midland, and south Midland dialects.
3. The Bouthern Group, including the dialects of the counties south of the Thames, Gloucestershire, and parts of Herefordshire and Worcestershire. This group is often further subdivided into the south Eastern dialects, also
sometimes called Kentish or the Kentish group of dialects, and the south Western dialects.
§ 5. So far as is possible in an elementary grammar we have endeavoured to exhibit the phonological and morphological features of each of the various groups of dialects without attaching too great importance to any one of them. And with this end in view considerable use has been made of the modern dialects, as they undoubtedly help to throw light upon many debatable points of ME. phonology which can never be satisfactorily settled in any other manner.

## PHONOLOGY

## CHAPTER I

## ORTHOGRAPHY AND PRONUNCIATION

## 1. ORTHOGRAPHY

§ 6 . The following brief sketch of ME. orthography is merely intended to draw the student's attention to the subject in a connected manner. To enter into it here with any degree of completeness would necessitate the repetition of much that properly belongs to other chapters. Long vowels were, of course, not marked as such in ME. manuscripts, but in order to avoid confusion they are here generally marked long.
§7. The ordinary ME. orthography is based partly on the traditional OE. orthography and partly on the AngloNorman (AN.). OE. ※̆, èa, and ěo continued to be written in early ME. long after they had changed in sound. æ had become a over a large area of the country in the early part of the twelfth century (cp. § 43), but it often continued to be written $æ$ and by AN. scribes e until well on into the second half of the thirteenth century. ea became $æ$ in Late OE ., but the ea often continued to be written until a much later date. And then the $æ$ had the same further fate as the ordinary OE. æ above. The old traditional spelling with $\not \approx$ was preserved in the Ormulum (c. 1200), iazamon (c. 1205), and the Proclamation of London (1258), but in other monuments it, as also $\overline{\text { ex }}$ from older ea, was generally written from about the end of the twelfth century. ēa had also become $\overline{\text { ex }}$, except in Kentish, by about the beginning of the eleventh century, although the ēa often continued to be written until a much later period. This change of $\bar{æ}$ to $\overline{\text { E}}$
was merely a letter change due to the influence of AN. orthography ; the $\bar{æ}$-sound itself remained in ME. until near the end of the fifteenth century when it became ẹ, see § 52, 2. Through $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\overline{\text { éa }}$ falling together in sound in late OE. the ēa was sometimes written for old $\overline{\text { æ }}$ in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and also occasionally much later. At a still later period this writing of ēa for $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ became the general way of expressing long open $\bar{\varepsilon}$ of whatever origin, cp. NE. leap, deal, eat, ME. leępen, dęlen, ęten, OE. hlēapan, dēlan, etan. The old traditional spelling with eo, ēo was often preserved in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, although the eo, éo had become e, ẹ in sound in the northern and east Midland dialects, and $\ddot{0}$, $ठ$ in the west Midland and southern dialects (except Kentish) in the twelfth century. And then through the influence of AN. orthography the $\mathbf{0}, \bar{\delta}$ sounds came to be written 0 , ue, oe and sometimes $u$, see $\S \S 65,198$; and conversely eo occasionally came to be written for old e (§ 44) in those dialects where eo became $e$ in early ME. The writing of $e$ for $\bar{æ}$ (= OE. $\overline{\mathrm{x}}, \overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{a})$ and of e for $\bar{e}(=O E . \bar{e}, \bar{e} o)$ led to confusion in ME. orthography owing to long open $\bar{e}$ and long close ẹ being written alike, cp . leden, ded $=\mathrm{OE}$. læ̈dan to lead, dēad dead beside fet, crepen $=$ OE. feet feet, crēopan to creep.
§ 8. Long and short $\check{\mathbf{y}}(=\underset{\mathbf{u}}{\mathrm{K}})$ became unrounded to $\stackrel{\text { I }}{1}$ over a large part of the country during the UE. period. The result was that inonuments written in these extensive areas during the ME. period have both $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ to represent old long and short 1. . In the late ME. period an attempt was made by some writers to restrict the use of $y$ to express old long i.
§ 9 . Many of the changes which the OE. vowel-system underwent in ME. were not due to sound-changes, but were merely orthographical changes introduced by Anglo-Norman scribes. Examples of such changes are:-In those areas where the OE. short $y(=u ̈)$ remained in the ME. period it came to be written $u$ (like the $u$ in Fr. lune), and the long
$\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ ( $=\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ ) came to be written $\mathbf{u}$, ui (uy) from about 1170 onwards ( $\S \$ 49,57$ ). After the writing of $u$ for $y$, and the $u$, ui (uy) for $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ had become general in those districts where the long and short $\overline{\mathrm{u}}-$ sound had remained, the $\mathbf{y}$ began to be written for $\overline{1}$, especially before and after nasals, $\mathbf{u}(=v)$, $\mathbf{w}$, and finally. This writing of y for $\frac{1}{1}$ gradually became very common, and by the time of Chaucer it was also used in other positions as well. From about the middle of the thirteenth century o came to be written for $u$ before and after nasals, $u(=v)$, and $w$. This writing of o for $u$ in these positions became pretty general towards the end of the thirteenth century. The object of using $\mathbf{y}$, o for i , $\mathbf{u}$ in the above positions was primarily to avoid graphical confusion. In late ME o was also generally written for u when followed by a single consonant + vowel. $\mathbf{v}$ was often written for $u$ initially, and $u$ for $v$ medially between vowels. The writing of ou (ow) for $\bar{u}$ became fairly common in the second half of the thirteenth century, and in the fourteenth century it became general. By the time of Chaucer it was generally written ow when final and frequently also in open syllables, especially before $1, n$, and $v$, but in other positions it was mostly written ou. e came to be written for $æ$ (later a), $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ (see above) in early ME., and through the influence of Central O.Fr. orthography ie was sometimes written for ẹ̀ in later ME., especially after the sound ẹ had become $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ or was on the way to become $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, see $\S \S 50,197,2$, and ENE. Gr. § 31.
§ 10. In later ME. ea was occasionally used for ę, oa (ao) for $\overline{0}$, and ou for $\bar{o}$ in the fourteenth century before the $\bar{o}$ had become $\bar{u}(\mathrm{cp} . \S 50)$; the diphthongs ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou were often written ay, ey, oy, aw, ew, ow finally and before n ; and ai (ay), el (ey), ōi (oy) were written for $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}$, $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ in the northern dialects, see § 121.
§11. During the ME. period some attempt was made to distinguish between long and short vowels in writing, but
only Orm made a systematic attempt to indicate long vowels by writing double consonants after short vowels. His system, however, broke down when a short vowel was in an open syllable. In this position he sometimes put a mark over the vowel, thus dalle valley, to indicate that the vowel was short. Orm's system was cumbersome, but it was not more so than some of the other attempts which were made to indicate long vowels. From the fourteenth century onwards long ē and $\bar{o}$ were often indicated by writing them double in closed syllables and when final, but single in open syllables, as dęęd dead, dẹẹd deen; but dęlen to deal, mệten to meet ; bọ̣t boat, fọ̣t foot; but grọpen to grope, brọper brother. a was rarely written aa in closed syllables. The reason why $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{o}$ were not written double in open syllables was doubtless due to the lengthening of early ME. a, e, o in open syllables in the first half of the thirteenth century ( $\$ 78$ ). These new long vowels were always followed by an e in the next syllable, and this e came to be regarded as the sign of a long vowel in the preceding syllable. And then later the e came to be used in words to which it did not etymologically belong for the purpose of indicating a preceding long vowel. Long and short $\frac{\text { u came to be dis- }}{}$ tinguished by writing the former ou (ow) and the latter $\mathbf{u}(0)$. By some later ME. writers an attempt was made to distinguish between long and short $\frac{1}{I}$ by writing the former $y$ and the latter i . This mode of indicating i was very common in Chaucer.
§ 12. In late ME. it became fairly common to double consonantsafter short stem-vowels in order to indicate that the preceding vowel was short, just as is the case in Modern German.
§ 18. The OE. consonant-system was very defective insomuch as each of the letters $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{s}$ and p was used to represent two or more sounds, see EOE. Gr. § 7. The ambiguity in the use of these consonants was chiefly due to sound-changes which took place during the OE. period
without the corresponding changes in the orthography. Germanic $\mathbf{f}, \mathrm{p}$ and s became voiced in OE. between voiced sounds, and Germanic $\mathrm{D}, 5$ became unvoiced when they came to stand finally, but no regular change took place in the orthography to indicate the change in pronunciation, see EOE. Gr. §§ 189, 172. Again Germanic k, g (which only occurred in the combination $n g$ ), $X, z$ and $n g$ became differentiated in OE. into gutturals and palatals, but the same letters were kept to indicate both kinds of sounds, see EOE. Gr. §§ 166, 168-70. Mainly through the influence of Anglo-Norman orthography many of the above ambiguities were got rid of in ME.
§ 14. c came to be used for the $\mathbf{k}$-sound before guttural vorvels and liquids, and $\mathbf{k}$ before palatal vowels and $\mathbf{n}$, and from the beginning of the thirteenth century ck beside $\mathbf{k k}$ came to be used to express the double $\mathbf{k}$-sound. The letter $\mathbf{c}$ was sometimes used for voiceless $\mathbf{s}$ initially before palatal vowels, and in AN. words both initially and medially, as citee, receiven, c was also sometimes used to express ts, as blecen, OE. bletsian to bless, milce, OE. milts mercy. The OE. combination cw was written qu. From about 1150 onwards it becanne common to write ch for the assibilated OE. palatal $\mathrm{c}(=\mathrm{ts})$, and cch (chch) when it was doubled.
§ 15. v was written initially in those ME. dialects where f had become voiced in this position, u later v came to be written medially for OE. voiced f , and v was often written for uinitially.
§ 16. In OE. the explosive $g$ and the spirant $g$ were written alike, but in ME. g came to be used exclusively for the explosive, and 3 for the spirant, as gọ̣d, glad, beside zard, zernen, early ME. b̧̧e $=0$. boga bow. For initial 3- the letters y . and i - were also used, as yaf, iaf $=$ zaf, 0 E . geaf he gave. At the end of words 3 was sometimes used for $\mathbf{z}(=t s)$, and in late ME. for voiced $s$, through confusion
with $\mathbf{z}$, and conversely $\mathbf{z}$ for $\mathbf{3}$. Some scribes also used $g$ for 3 initially. The assibilated OE. palatal $\mathrm{cg}(=\mathrm{dž})$ came to be written gg, but this was not an improvement, because OE. did generally distinguish in writing between the guttural and palatal explosive gg by writing the former gg and the latter cg, as in dogga dog, beside licgan to lie down. In Fr. words dž was written $j$ (also sometimes $i$ ) initially and $g(g g)$ medially, as juge, chargen, plegge.
§ 17. In order to distinguish between the pronunciation of the aspirate h and the spirant $\mathrm{h}=\mathrm{x}$, the h gradually became used for the aspirate only, and the spirant was represented by 3 (also sometimes by c, g), later gh (also ch, especially in the Scottish dialects). This rule had become fully established by the time of Chaucer, who usually has gh. And as French scribes did not have the combination $3 t$ (ht) in their own language they sometimes substituted st for it, as pret. miste for mizte might. OE. hw came to be writien $q u, q v, q u h, q w, q w h$ in the northern dialects, especially the Scottish, and generally wh in the other dialects.
§ 18. s was generally written for both the voiced and the voiceless s, but $z$ was occasionally used for the former, especially in late ME. sc was sometimes written for ss, as blisced blessecl, and z for ts, as milze, OE. milts mercy.
§19. The š-sound from OE. sc was generally written sch in early ME., and later also ssh, sh, and in Ken. ss, as ssrive, vless. Double šš was written schs, ssh, and also shs (§ 288).
§ 20. OE. p, $\delta$ continued to be written side by side until well on into the thirteenth century, and then the latter went out of use. In the fourteenth century th gradually came to be used beside p, but the b often continued to be written beside th, especially initially, throughout the ME. period. In the best manuscripts of the Canterbury Tales th is generally used. In the early fourteenth century $p$ and
y had become so closely alike in form that in some manuscripts (e.g. the Cotton MS. of the Cursor Mundi, c. 1340) they were indistinguishable, and in others a dot was sometimes placed over the $y$ in order to distinguish it from the $p$. After 1400 p fell more and more out of use, and in some manuscripts was represented only by the $\mathbf{y}$-form in demonstrative and pronominal words, as $\mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{e}}, \mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{t}}, \mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{nm}}, \mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{u}}=$ the, that, them, thou. Two of these, $\mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{e}}$ and $\mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{t}}$, were retained in printers' types during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and $y^{e}$ is still often used pseudo-archaically in shop-signs like Ye Olde Booke Shoppe. See N.E.D. sub y.
§ 21. The OE. rune $P(=w)$ continued to be used occasionally until the end of the thirteenth century, but the ordinary way of writing $u$-consonant was uu (also $v v$ in early ME.) and w.

## 2. PRONUNCIATION

## A. The Vowels.

§ 22. ME. had the following simple vowels and diph-thongs:-

Short Vowels a, e, i, o, u, ö, ü<br><br>Diphthongs ai, ęi, ẹi, q̨i, ui, au, ęu, ẹu, iu, qu, ọu

Nore.-With the exception of $\bar{\varepsilon}$ and $\bar{q}$ fthe short and long vowels had the same sound-values as in OE. where $\stackrel{\text { ce, }}{\text { y }}=$ ME. $\overline{\text { of }}$, \#. $\overline{\bar{c}}$ is used in ME. to represent two slightly different sounds, viz. a low-front-narrow vowel like OE. $\overline{\bar{x}}$, and a mid-front-wide vowel which arose in ME. by the lengthening of OE. e in open syllables, see $\S \S 52,78$. The sound represented by $\bar{q}$ did not exist in OE. For the Kentish rising diphthongs which arose from OE. $\overline{\text { éo, ēa, see } \S \S} \mathbf{6 4}, 67$.
§ 23. The approximate pronunciation of the above vowels and diphthongs was as follows:-
a like the a in OE. assa and NHG. gast, as asse, bladder, chapman, passen.
e like the e in NE. met, as bed, fellen, gest, helpen, slepte.
i like the i in NE. bit, as bidden, children, nizt night, sitten.
o like the o in NHG. Gott and nearly like the o in NE. dog, as dogge, gosling, hors, norp.
u like the $\mathbf{u}$ in NE. full, as dust, ful, sunne (sonne) sun, wulf (wolf), see § 48.

0 (gen. written 0 , ue, and sometimes u) like the 0 in NHG. götter, as chorl (churl), horte (huerte, hurte) heart, storre star, orpe (urpe) earth, see § 60.
$\ddot{u}$ (gen. written $u$ ) like the $\ddot{u}$ in NHG. füllen, as brugge briilge, duppen to dip, kussen to hiss, sunne sin, see § 49.
ā like the a in NE. father, as āle, bāken, nāme, rāven.
ę like the ai in NE. air, as lę̀den (OE. læ̈đan) to lead, lę̣pen (OE. hlēapan) to leap; ęten (OE. etan) to eat, mę̃te (OE. mete) meat, see §§ 52, 78.

ẹ̀ like the e in NHG. reh, as dệd deed, dệp, hệre, fệt, snēsen.
i like the $i$ in NE. machine, as biten, finden, lif, tide.
ọ like the a in NE. all, as bō̄te (OE. bāt) boat, cọld (OE. ceald) colll ; cọle (OE. col) coul, prộte (OE. prote) throut, see § 51 , note.

ọ like the o in NHG. bote and the eau in Fr. beau, as brộper, fột, lộken, sọ̣ne.
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ (gen. written ou, ow), like the ou in Fr. sou, and nearly like the oo in NE. food, as doun, hous, hou (how), pound.
$\bar{\delta}$ (gen. written 0 , ue, eo, and sometimes $u$ ) like the ö in NHG. schön, as cheose( $\mathbf{n}$ ) chuse( n ) to choose, duep (dup) deep, lof (luef, luf) dear, see § 85.
ū (gen. written u, ui, uy) like the $\ddot{u}$ in NHG. griun, as fur (fuir) fire, huden (huiden) to hide, mus (muis) mice, see § 57.
ai nearly like the ai in NE. aisle, as dai (day), hail, maiden, saide he said.

Early ME. ęi nearly like the ay in NE. day, as clęi, gręi, lęide he laid, plęien to play, węi, see § 107.

Early ME. ẹi with ẹ like the é in Fr. été, as dẹien to die, ẹie eye, flẹien to fl , see § 107, 6.
gi like the oy in NE. boy, as boi (bqy), choqis, joie, vois.
au nearly like the ou in NE. out, as drawen, fauzt he fought, saus he saw, tauzte he taught.
equ like the $n$. dial. pronunciation of the ew in few, as dęu (dęw), fęwe, hęwen, schęwen.

Early ME. ẹu with ẹ like the é in Fr. été, as hẹwe hue, knẹu (knẹw), nẹwe, pret. prẹu (brẹw), see § 112.

Early ME. iu (later written ew) nearly like the ew in NE. few, as sniwen to snow, spiwen, triwe true.
qu with $q$ like the o in NE. not, as bowe (OE. boga) bow, pp. fouzten, knqwen, squle, pguzte.
Early ME. ọu nearly like the o in NE. no, as bopwes branches, pl. inọwe cnough, plọwes ploughs, see § 114, 2.
ui ( $=$ the $u$ in NE. put $+i$ ) generally written oi, as enointen to anoint, point point, see § 207.

## B. The Consonants.

§ 24. The MC. consonant-system was represented by the following letters:-b, c, d, f, g, $3, \mathrm{~h}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}$, $\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{u}), \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$.

Of the above letters $\mathbf{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{v}(\mathbf{u})$, w, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ had the same sound-values as in Modern English. The remaining letters require special attention, see §§ 18-20.
c had a threefold pronunciation: 1. Before guttural (back) vowels and liquids it had the $\mathbf{k}$-sound, as cat, cọld, cuppe; clę̃e, craft. 2. Initially and medially before palatal vowels it had the sound of voiceless $s$ in Fr . words, as citee, deceiven. 3. It was occ. used to represent the combination ts ( $=0$.Fr. ts from Latin ce, ci, which later became $s$ in sound), as blecen $=O E$. bletsian to bless, milce $=$ OE. milts
mercy. The simple affricata was written ch, and when doubled cch (chch), as child, kichene ; crucche, wrecche.
g had a twofold pronunciation: 1. Initially it was a voiced explosive (stop), as gāte, glad, gnat, gọ̀d, grẹ̆ne. 2. Medially before vowels it had the sound dž (= the affricata $\mathbf{j}$ and dg in NE. judge) in Fr. words, as chargen, jugen. The combination ng had the sound ng beside ndž according as it represented OE. guttural or palatal ng, as long, singen, ping, beside crengen (cringen), sengen (singen); and similarly with double $\mathrm{gg}(=\mathrm{OE}$. guttural gg and palatal cg), as dogge, frogge, stagge, beside brigge, cuggele, seggen to say, and also in Fr. words, as plegge pledge.
3 had a threefold pronunciation: 1. Initially like NE. y in ye, as 3 ard, zernen, 30 ng . 2. In early ME. a voiced guttural or palatal spirant like the $g$ often heard in NE. sagen beside siegen, as boze later bowe bow, drajen later drawen, beside flẹzen later fleien to fly. 3. Finally and before t it was a voiceless guttural or palatal spirant like the ch in NHG. noch beside ich, as bur3 (burgh), dquu (dqugh), dǫuzter (doqughter), beside hẹ̀3 (hệh) high, fizten (fighten).

Initial $h$ (except in the combination $h w \cdot=x w \cdot$ ) was an aspirate like the h in NE. hand, as hand, hous. In other positions it was a voiceless spirant like the 3 in 3 above, which came to be written for it in early ME.
sch from OE. sc (gen. written sch in early ME., and later also ssh, sh, and in Ken. ss) was like the sh in NE. ship, as schaft, waschen, fisch; ssrive to shrive, vless flesh.
p (th) was used to express both the voiceless and voiced sounds like the th in NE. thin, cloth; father, then, as bap, ping; brộper, Ken. pet that.
z had the ts sound in early ME., as milze $=O$. milts mercy ; in later ME. it was also used for voiced s, especially in the Ayenbite, as zelver silver, pouzond.

Stress (Accent).
§ 25. The accentuation in native ME. words was essentially the same as in OE., that is, in all uncompounded words the chief accent fell upon the stem-syllable and always remained there even when suffixes and inflexional endings followed it. In compound words the chief accent fell upon the stemsyllable of the first component part if the second part was a noun or an adjective; and on the stem-syllable of the second part if this was a verb or derived from a verb.

## CHAPTER II

## THE OE. VOWEL-SYSTEM

§ 26. OE. had the following vowel-system :-


In the next chapter we shall trace the ME. development of the above simple vowels and diphthongs of accented syllables. And in doing so we shall first deal with the independent and then with the dependent changes which they underwent in ME. By independent changes we mean those which took place independently of neighbouring sounds, and by dependent changes those which depended upon or were due to the influence of neighbouring sounds. But before entering upon the subject it will be useful to state here certain dependent changes which took place during the OE. period, as some of them are of special importance for ME.
§ 27. The diphthongs ěa, ěo, ìo became monophthongs during the OE . period before $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{hs}$, ht ; before a liquid
$+\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}$; and after the initial palatals $\mathrm{c} \cdot, \mathrm{g} \cdot$, and sc. And then the resultant long or short vowels had the same further development in ME. as the corresponding older long or short vowels. See EOE. Gr. § 67 and notes.
§ 28. Before $\mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{h}+$ consonant ea became æ (= ME. a, $\$ \S 43,58)$ in Anglian, but e in late WS. and also in the eleventh century in Kentish, as sæh he saw, fæx hair, flæx flax, wæxan to grow, æhta eight, fæeht he fought, hlæhtor laughter, mæht might, næht night, beside seh, fex, flex, wexan, ehta, feht, hlehtor, meht, neht. A few of these latter forms occur in Chaucer, as flex, wex, wexe(n) beside waxe(n). See §§ 107, 110.
§ 29. After initial palatal c., g., sc- ea generally became æ in Anglian (= ME. a), but e in late WS., whence a beside e in ME., as chaf (OE. ceaf) chaff, zaf he gave, zat gate, schal shall, beside chef, $3 e f$, zet, schel.
§ 30. Before ht eo became 1 in later WS. (rarely y), Ken. and the south Midlands when not followed by a guttural vowel in the next syllable, but became $e$ in the north Midlands and the North (cp. EOE. Gr. § 67 and notes 1, 4), whence we have in early ME. riht beside reht (mod. n. dialects reit) right, but fehten (OE. feohtan) in all the early ME. dialects. The common form fizten was a ME. new formation.
§ 31. io became 1 in Anglian before $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{h}+\mathrm{s}$ or t , and before a liquid +c , as birce birch-tree, milc milk, mixen dunghill, gebirhta(n) to make light, rihta(n) to set straight, see § 62 and EOE. Gr. § 67, note 1.
§ 32. The OE. eo, io which occurred after initial palatal sc-, g. were probably never either rising or falling diphthonge. The e, imerely indicated the palatal nature of the preceding sc-, g. as is shown by the ME. forms, and in OE. itself sco- occurs beside sceo-, as schort (OE. scort beside sceort), and similarly ME. bischop, schot missile, \&c.; $30 n$ (OE. geon) yonder, Orm zoce (OE. geoc) yoke. And in like
manner OE. has scu-, iu. $(\mathrm{i}=3$ ) beside sceo. (scio.), geo-(gio-), as schulen (OE. sculon beside sceolon, sciolon) they shall, 3 ung, zong (OE. iung beside geong, giong) young.
§ 33. The OE. initial combinations scǎ-, scő- were also often written sceă., sceō. with e merely to denote the palatal pronunciution of the sc-, as sceacan beside scacan (ME. schāken) to shake, sceolde beside scolde (ME. schọlde beside the unstressed form schŏlde) should, sceöp beside scōp (ME. schộp) he created.
§ 34. The ēa from older $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ ( $=$ Anglian and Ken. $\overline{\text { en }}$ ) became $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ after the initial palatals $\mathrm{c} \cdot, \mathrm{g} \cdot$, sc- in some of the late WS. dialects, which like Anglinn and Ken. ē remained in ME. (§ 52), as cêp cheap, cēs he chose, gēfon they gave, gēr year, gēt he pourcd out, scēp sheep, scēt he shot = ME. chệp beside chęp, зệr, schệp, \&c.
§ 35. Before $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}$ èa became è through the intermediate stage $\ddot{\nless}$ in late Anglian and WS., which remained in early ME., as bēcen (earlier bēacen) beacon, ēc also, lēc leek, bēg ring, ēge eye, lēg he told lies, tēg rope, hēh (older hēah) high, tēh he drew. For the further development of the ē before $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}$, see § 107.
§ 38. In Anglian ēo became è before c, $\mathbf{g}, \mathrm{h}$, and $\mathbf{h}+\mathrm{s}$ or $t$, and then the $\bar{e}$ remained in early ME. like the $\bar{e}$ from ēo in other positions, see $\S \S \mathbf{6 5}, 107$, as rēca(n) to smoke, sēc (older sēoc) sick, flēga(n) to fly, flēge fy, pēh thigh, wēx he grew, lēht which later became lihht, liht a light.
§ 37. io became i in Anglian before palatal cand ht, as cicen, older *kioken from *kiukin chicken, lihta( $\mathbf{n}$ ) $=$ WS. liehtan to give light.
§ 38. weo-: The OE. initial combination weo-, of what. ever origin, became wu- (rarely wo.) in late WS., and woin late Northumbrian, but remained in Mercian and Kentish ( $=$ ME. we.), and then the - $u \cdot, \cdot 0 \cdot$, eeo had the same further -development in ME. as old u(§48), but generally written o in the combination wur-, o (§ 47), and eo (§ 80 ). These
three different developments were preserved in these areas in ME., as wurld, generally written world, and similarly work, worpen to throw, worp, worpen to bccomie; world, work, worpen, worb, worpen; werld, werk, werpen, werp, werpen. And we also have suster older swuster (OE. sweostor), swurd, generally written sword, beside soster older swoster, sword, swerd.
§39. wio : OE. io in the combination wio- generally became wu. in late WS. and Anglian, but remained in Kentish (= ME. e, i). And before gutturals it became i in Anglian (EOE. Gr. § 63 and note 2). The wu-forms generally remained in ME. In ME. we accordingly have wu-, wi. and we-forms representing the different areas, as bitwux, bitwix, bitwex bctwecn, cude (code, $\mathbf{o = u}$ ), cwide, cwede cul, cwuc, cwic, cwec alice, wuke, wike (§ 85), weke weck, wodewe ( $0=\mathrm{u}$ ), widewe (widwe) uidlow, wude (wode) woorl, see § 85.

## CHAPTER III

## THE ME. DEVELOPMENT OF THE OE. VOWELSYSTEM OF ACCENTED SYLLABLES

## 1. INDEPENDENT CHANGES

## A. The Short Vowels.

§ 40. OE. $æ$ became $a$, and y was unrounded to i during the ME. period in those areas where it had remained in OE. (§ 49), but the vowels a, e, i, o, u underwent no independent changes.

## a

§ 41. OE. a in closed syllables = ME. a, as asse (OE. assa), cat (OE. catte), sak (OE. sacc), and similarly asche, castel, crabbe, fals fulse, mattok, palme, stagge, waschen.
basken (ON. baбask) to bathe, casten (ON. kasta), flat (ON. flatr), happe (ON. happ) good luck.
§ 42. Before nasals Germanic a became rounded in early OE. to a sound intermediate between the 0 in NE. on and the a in NHG. mann. In the oldest OE. it was nearly always written $a$, in the ninth century it was mostly written o, but in late OE. it became pure a again except in some parts of Mercia (west Midlands) where it became full 0 , and has remained as such in many of the dialects in this area down to the present day. Examples in closed syllables before a single or double nasal, and a nasal + a voiceless consonant are : man, mon; pank, ponk; and similarly anker, bank, bigan, camp, can, pret. drank, hamme ham, plante, ram, ran, swam, swan, pret. wan, wanten. ransaken (ON. rannsaka). For OE, a(o) before a nasal +a voiced stop see §§ 72-4.

Note.-penne, pen then, whenne, when then, beside panne, pan, whanne, whan were the unstressed forms. The preterites cam he came, nam he took beside cọ̀m (OE. c(w)ōm), nọ̀m (OE. nōm) were ME. new formations.

## æ

§ 43. æ had become a sound lying between e ald æ (generally written e) during the OE. period in Kent and the districts bordering on it, and also in the sw. Midlands, as feder father, gled, smel, pet, wes, weschen to wash. From about 1300 the e was supplanted by a in the sw. Midlands, and also in Kent and the districts bordering on it from about 1400. This change of e to a was to some extent not a soundchange, but merely a letter-change imported from those parts of the country which regularly had a from older æ, as is evidenced by the preservation of the e-sound in some of the dialects, especially the Kentish, down to the present day. In all the other parts of the country OE. æ, of whatever origin, became a in the early part of the twelfth century,
although the $¥$ often continued to be written until a much later date, e. g. in the Proclamation of London (1258). Examples in closed syllables are: appel (OE. æppel, æpl), bap (OE. bæp), craft (OE. cræft), pat (OE. pæt), and similarly after, at, ax axe, bak, blak, fasten, fat vat, glad, glas, gnat, gras, pret. hadde (hafde) pp. had, harvest, hat, pap, sad, smal, staf, what, pret. bad (OE. bæd), and similarly bar, brak, brast, sat, spak, was. For OE. æ in open syllables see § 79, 3 .

Note. -1. ME. whether (OE. hwæper) is the unstressed form which became generalized. hedde (OE. hæfde) had, wes (OE. wæs) uas beside hadde, was were the unstressed forms. South Midland pret. sing. forms like breek, seet, speek were new formations with the long vowel of the plural levelled out into the singular. The northern form quās (quhās), and the Midland and southern whọs whọs (OE. hwæs) were new formations from the nom. quā (quhā), whō whọ̀ (OE. hwā ) who. Northern forme like efter, gres, seck (sekk) beside after, gras, sak sack were ON. loan-words, and they are still in common use in the modern dialects of this area, see Index to $E D$. Gr.
2. Forms like west Midland elder, fellen beside alder, fallen had e beside a also in OE., see EOF. Gr. § 57 note 1.

## e

§ 44. OE. e in closed syllables $=$ ME. e, as bed (OE. bedd), better (OE. bet(e)ra, bettra), helpen (OE. helpan), and similarly benche, bersten to burst, beste, delven, fresch, helle hell, helm, henne, melten, men, nest, net, quenchen, sellen, senden, steppen, swelten to die, tellen, preschen, wegge wedge, west, egg (ON. egg), legge (ON. leggr) leg. For OE. e before ld, nd, ng, see $\$ \S 71$, 78, 74.

Note.-In some parts of the se. Midlands carly OE. w (= the i-umlaut of a(0) before nasala, EOE. Gr. § 57) remained until the early part of the twelfth century, and then became a at the same time as ordinary OE. $\approx(\S 43)$, as ande end, man men, panewes
panes pans pennies, pence, sanden to send, \&c., but these and similar a-forms were ousted by the e-forms of the neighbouring dialects during the latter half of the fourteenth century.
i
§ 45. OE. $i=$ ME. $i$ in closed and generally also in open syllables (see § 85), and was often written $y$ before and after nasals, $u(=v), w$, and finally, as bidden (OE. biddan) to pray, bid, cribbe (OE. cribb), grim (OE. grimm), milken (OE. milcian), sinken (OE. sincan), ping (OE. bing), and similarly biginnen, bil axe, bitter, brid bird, bringen, chin, crisp, disch, drinken, finger, fisch, flicche flitch, his, is, lid, lippe, middel, ribbe, ring, schilling, schip, schrinken, sitten, spinnen, springen, stingen, stinken, swimmen, twig, pis, pridde third, winter; hider hither, liver, sive sieve, pider thither, witen to know; pret. pl. and pp. of strong verbs belonging to class $I$ (§ 396), as biten (OE. biton, biten), and similarly biden, driven, gliden, riden, risen, schinen, writen. hitten (ON. hitta) to hit, ill (ON. illr), skil (ON. skil), skin (ON. skinn). For OE. i before ld, mb, nd, see §§ 71-3.
§ 46. Late OE. $i$, of whatever origin, +ht remained throughout the ME. period in the northern and north Midland dialects, but in the south Midland and southern dialects it became lengthened to $i$ with gradual loss of the spirantal element from about the end of the fourteenth century, as niht, ni3t, night, night (early OE. neaht later niht), and similarly mizt sb., mizti adj., pret. mizte ; knizt (early OE. cneoht later cniht) boy, and similarly rizt; si3t (early WS. gesiehp later gesihp, siht) sight; dizten (OE. dihtan from Lat. dictāre) to set in order, and similarly plizt, wist thing, creature, \&c.
§ 47. OE. O in closed syllables = ME. o, as borwen (OE. borgian) to borrow, pp. holpen (OE. holpen), porn (OE.
porn), and similarly pp. borsten (brosten) burst, box, brop, colt, corn, flok, folk, folwen to follow, forke, fox, frogge, frost, god, hoppen, horn, hors, knotte knot, lok, morwe (morwen, morjen) morning, morrov, norp, ofte, orchard, oxe, port harbour, sorwe (sor3e) sorrov, stork, storm, top.

## $u$

§ 48. OE. $u=$ ME. $u$ in closed and generally also in open syllables (see §85). From about the middle of the thirteenth century $o$ came to be written for $u$ before and after nasals, $\mathbf{u}(=\mathbf{v})$, and $\mathbf{w}$. The writing of $o$ for $\mathbf{u}$ in these positions became pretty general towards the end of the century. In late ME. o was also generally written for $u$ when followed by a single consonant + vowel (§9). This use of o for $u$ is later than that of $\mathbf{u}$ for $\mathrm{y}=\ddot{\mathrm{u}}(\S 49)$, but earlier than the writing of ou for $\bar{u}(\S 56)$. Examples are: bukke (OE. bucca), ful (OE. full), hunger honger (OE. hungor), and similarly butter, clubbe (ON. klubba), cursen, zung zong young, huntere hontere, plukken, pullen, sum som some, sunne sonne sun, tunge tonge tongue, wulf wolf, wulle wolle $w o o l$, pret. pl. and pp. of strong verbs belonging to Class III (§§ 403-4), as runnen ronnen (OE. runnon, runnen), and similarly bigunnen bigonnen, drunken dronken, sungen songen, wunnen wonnen; cumen comen (OE. cuman) to come, dure dore (OE. duru) door, and similarly huni honi honey, luve love, nute note, sumer somer, sune sone son.

## y

§49. OE. $y$ appears in ME. partly as $i$, partly as $e$, and partly as $\mathfrak{u}$ (written $u$ from about 1100 onwards).

1. It became unrounded to $\mathbf{i}$ in late OE. or early ME. in all the northern counties, in a great part of the east Midland counties, including Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and the districts bordering on these counties, as well as in parts of the south-
western counties, especially Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Wiltshire.
2. It became $\mathbf{e}$ in Kent and parts of Middleses, Sussex. Essex, and Suffolk during the OE. period, and remained as such in ME. and also in many of the modern dialects of this area, see ED. Gr. § 109. In Chaucer the forms with e are nearly as numerous as those with i. A few of the e-forms have crept inte standard NE., as fledged (mod. n. dialects fligd), kernel, knell, left adj.
3. In all other parts of the country, including the west Midlands, it remained and was written u until about the end of the fourteenth century and then became unrounded to i ; see, however, § 125. The London dialect also belonged to the u-area in early ME. as is evidenced by the ü-forms in the Proclamation of London (1258). The writing of $\mathbf{u}$ for $\mathbf{y}$ is earlier than that of o for $\mathbf{u}(\S \boldsymbol{8})$, both of which are due to the influence of Anglo-French orthography.

Examples are : brigge bregge brugge (OE. brycg) brilge, dippen deppen duppen (OE. dyppan) to dip, kin (kyn) ken kun (OE. cynn) race, generation, kissen kessen kussen (OE. cyssan) to kiss, sinne (synne) senne (zenne) sunne (OE. synn) sin, and similarly birpe, chirche, cripel, dine din, dint, disi foolish, fillen, fixene vixen, first, hil, hippe, hirdel, kichene, king, kirnel, listen to plectse, listen to listen, lift left, mille, pit, rigge riilge, schitten to shut, sister (ON. syster). stiren, pinken to secm, pinne (pynne), winne (wynne) joy. For the writing of y for i see §45. For OE. y before nd see § 73.

## B. The Long Vowels.

§50. During the ME. period OE. $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ became $\bar{q}$ in the dialects south of the Humber, $\bar{o}$ became $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ in the dialects north of the Humber, and $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ was unirounded to $\bar{i}$ in those areas where it had remained in OE. (§57), but the vowels
$\overline{\text { x }}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, and $\bar{u}$ underwent no independent changes. In the course of the fifteenth century, however, the vowels $\bar{i}$, $\bar{u}$ (south of the Humber) began to undergo diphthongization, and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}, \bar{o}$ (south of the Humber) had become $\bar{i}, \bar{u}$ in sound before the end of the century, see ENE. Gr. §§ 71, 73, 75, 77.

## a

§ 51. OE. $\bar{a}$ had become long open $\overline{0}$ in all the dialects south of the Humber by about the year 1225. The change of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{\varrho}$ did not take place throughout this large area at one and the same time. In some dialects, especially the southern, it undoubtedly took place in the latter half of the twelfth century and in others later, e. g. it had not taken place in the east Midland dialect of Orm at the time he wrote the Ormulum (about 1200). But it must have taken place before the influx of early French loan-words like dāme, fâble, rāge (§ 195), and before the lengthening of early ME. 九 in open syllables, as nāme, māken, \&c. (§ 7e), otherwise these two types of words would also have been included in the change of $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ to $\overline{\bar{o}}$. The $\overline{\bar{q}}$ was sometimes written oa (ao) and from the fourteenth century onwards it was very often written 00 in closed syllables and when final. In the dialects north of the Humber the a remained until about the end of the thirteenth century, when it became long open ę, although the à was mostly retained in writing, and from the time of Barbour (1375) it was often written ai, ay (cp. § 121). Throughout this large area OE. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, the long $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ in early French loan-words, and early ME. ă in open syllables all fell together in $\bar{\varepsilon}$. This great characteristic difference between the ME. development of OE. $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ in the dialects north and south of the Humber has been preserved in the modern dialects right down to the present day. On the other hand the modern dialects north of the Humber still preserve the distinction in development between OE. ā and early ME. ò in open syllables ( $\$ 81$ ), whereas in the other dialects they
have generally fallen together just as in the standard language. Examples are: bọ̄n bọọn bān (OE. bān) bone, bọt bộ̣t bāt (OE. bāt) boat, grộpen grāpe (OE. grāpian) to grope, mọ̀re māre (OE. māra) more, tō tǫ̣ tā (OE. tā) toe, and similarly bộr, bộpe both, brộd, clộp, fọ̀m foam, gọn to go, gọst ghost, gọ̀t, họ̀ whole, họ̀m, họ̆t, lọ̆f, nộn none, ộn
 those, wọ voe, wọ̀t I know ; the pret. sing. of strong verbs belonging to class I (§ 396), as arọ̀s, bọ̀d, bọ̄t, drọ̆f, schọ̄n, slọ̄d, smọ̄t, strọ̀d, wrọ̀t.

Note.-The $\bar{\varphi}$ from OE. $\bar{a}$ was probably a low-back-narrowround vowel like the a in NE. all, whereas the ME. $\bar{q}$ which arose from OE. ob in open syllables was probably a mid-back-wide-round vowel (§ 81). Although the two sounds have fallen together in the NE. standard language they are still kept apart in some of the north Midland dialects, the former having become ue (oo) and the latter gi, as uəm ọm (OE. hām) home, but proqit (OE. prote) throat.

## æ

§ 52. In dealing with the history of OE. 距 in ME. it is necessary to distinguish between $\bar{\otimes}=$ Germanic $\overline{\text { e }}$ and the $\overline{\mathrm{m}}=$ the i-umlaut of $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$.

1. Germanic $\overline{\text { ® }}$ had become long close $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ in the non-WS. dialects in early OE., but by the end of the OE. period the ex had spread again to Middlesex, Essex, parts of the south Midland counties, and parts of East Anglia. From these latter areas words containing this $\bar{æ}-s o u n d$ gradually crept into most of the other areas during the ME. period as is evidenced by the modern dialects.
2. $\overline{\mathrm{m}}=$ the i -umlaut of $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ became long close $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ in Kentish during the OE. period, and remained as such throughout the ME. period. In all the other dialects the æ-sound ( $=\bar{\varepsilon}$ ) generally remained in ME. until near the end of the fifteenth century when it became ẹ, see § 63 note.

In consequence of the spreading of $\overline{\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}}$ in 1 , Chaucer sometimes has $\overline{\text { ę }}$ beside ẹ, as dęęd beside deẹd deed, generally rę̀den, wę̣re(n) beside drẹ̀de dreall, slẹ̣pen; and probably through the influence of Kentish ẹ in 2 he occasionally has ẹ̀ beside ề, as clệne, lệden, lệren to teach, beside clę̣ne, lę̀den, lę̣ren.

In those areas where the $\bar{æ}$-sound in 1 and 2 had remained throughout the OE. period the $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ was preserved in writing until about the end of the twelfth century, and occasionally even later, as in the Proclamation of London (1258). In the Ormulum (about 1200 ) it was also used to express Germanic $\overline{\bar{x}}$ as well, although this $\overline{\bar{X}}$ had become $\bar{e}$ in Orm's dialect hundreds of years before his time. This was due to Orm having adopted the classical WS. system of orthography. Through the influence of Anglo-Norman orthography the $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ was generally supplanted by $\bar{e}$ from about the end of the twelfth century, and from the fourteenth century onwards it was very often written ee in closed syllables and when final. After OE. ēa had been monophthongized to $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}(\S$ 63) the ēa came to be written sometimes for old $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ in the twelfth and early thirteenth centuries, and occasionally also in the fourteenth century. This change of $\overline{\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}}$ to $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ (ee), generally written $\bar{e}$ (ęe) in grammars, was not a sound-change, but merely an orthographical change. The sound itself, viz. a low-front-narrow vowel like the ai in NE. air, remained in ME.

In those areas where the long close ẹ had remained at the end of the OE. period, it also remained in ME. and was written e. From the fourteenth century onwards it was very often written ee in closed syllables and when final. In grammars it is generally written ẹ̣ (eee).

Examples of 1 are: dệd (Angl. and Ken. dēd)dệd (WS. dēd) deed, slẹ̄pen (Angl. and Ken. slēpan) slęppen (WS. slǣpan) to slecp, and similarly bệre bier, ẹl, ệven evening, hệr hair, hệring, lệten, mệde meadow, mẹ̀l mcal, repast, nệdle, rệden,
sệd, spệche, strệte, pệre there, prệd, wệpen, whệre, wệte wet ; pret. pl. of strong verbs belonging to classes IV ( §407) and V (§ 408), as bẹ̀ren, ẹtten, sệten, wẹ̀ren, \&c. mę̃den (WS. mæ̈den) mailen, pret. sę̨de (WS. sǣ̄e) he said.

Examples of 2 are: dệlen (Angl. and WS. dǣlan) dệlen (Ken. dēlan) to divide, clę̄ne (Angl. and WS. clē̃ne) clę̄ne (Ken. clēne), and similarly blę̄chen, brę̣de breadth, ę̨ni any, ệvre ever, hę̀len, hę̀te, hę̀p, lę̉den, lę̀ne lean, lę̀nen to lend, lę̀ren to teach, lę̀ven, rę̣chen, rę̣ren to rear, sę̣ sea, sprę̣den, swę̃ten, tę̨chen, whę̨te.

Note.-1. The $\bar{e}=0 E$. $\bar{\ngtr}$ was a low-front-narrow vowel like the ai in NE. air, whereas the MH. ę̨ which arose from OE. ě in open syllables was probably a mid-front-wide vowel ( $\S 80$ ). Although the two sounds have fallen together in standard NE. they are still kept apart in many of the north Midland dialects, the former having become io and the latter ei, as liad (OF. lǣđan) to lead, but eit (OE. etan) to eat.
2. In parts of the se. Midlands (Middlesex, Essex, Herts., \&c.) it became usual to write $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ for $\overline{\bar{c}}$ (=Germanic $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ and the i-umlaut of OE. $\bar{a}$, as dād, lāten; lāden, tāchen) from about 1100 until well on into the thirteenth century, and then the ā was gradually ousted by $\overline{\bar{c}}$. The writing of $\bar{a}$ for old $\overline{\mathfrak{e}}$ in these parts was only a letter-change. The $\overline{\bar{x}}$ could not have become $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ in sound, otherwise it would have fallen altogether with old $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$; and furthermore the modern dialects in these parts have no trace of ME. $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ for $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$, but see, however, Luick, Hist. Gr., pp. 345-6.

## $\bar{e}$

§ 58. OE. long close $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, of whatever origin, = ME. long close é (cp. §50). From the fourteenth century onwards it was very often written ee in closed syllables and when final, and in later ME. it was often written ie through the influence of French orthography. Examples are: 1. Germanic ē, as hẹ̄r hệre (OE. hēr) here, mẹ̀de (OE. mēd) mecd, rcivard. 2. The pret. of strong verbs belonging to class VII (§ 414), as lệt
(OE. lēt) he let, and similarly hệt he was called, slệp he slept. 3. The i-umlaut of OE. ō, as dẹ̀men (OE. dēman) to judge, fệt ( $O E$. fēt) feet, and similarly bệche, blẹ̄den, fẹden, fẹlen, gệs, grẹ̣ne, grệten, hệden, kệne keen, kệpen, mệten, quẹ̃ne, sệken (sệchen), sệmen, spệde success, swệ̀te, tệp, wệpen to weep. 4. In Latin loan-words, as bẹte (OE. bēte, Lat. bēta) beetroot, crệde (OE. crēda creed, Lat. crēdō $I$ believe). 5. OE. lengthened ē in monosyllables, as hẹ̀ he, mẹ̀ me, pệ thee, wẹ̀ we. For forms like bệken beacon, ệk also, lệk leek, see § 35.

## i

§ 54. OE. $\bar{i}=$ ME. $\mathrm{i}(\mathrm{cp} . \S 50)$ which was very often written $\mathbf{y}$ before and after nasals, $\mathbf{u}(=\mathbf{v}$ ) and $\mathbf{w}(\S)$ ), and in Chaucer $y$ is also very common in other combinations, as fif five (OE. fif) five, side (OE. side) side, tìme tỳme (OE. tìma) time, pin pỳn (OE. pinn) thine, wis wȳs (OE. wis) uise, and similarly blipe, iren, is ice, ivi, knif ( ON . knifr), lif, liken to please, lim, mile, pipe, swin, tide, while, whit, wif, win; in the present of strong verbs belonging to class $I$ (§ 396), as biten (OE. bītan) to bite, and similarly biden, chiden, driven, gliiden, rīden, schīnen, smïten, striden, prīven, wrīten.

## $\overline{0}$

§ 55. In the dialeets south of the Humber OE. long close $\overline{\mathrm{o}}=\mathrm{ME}$. long close $\bar{o}$ ( $\mathrm{cp} . \S 50$ ), also very often written 00 in closed syllables and when final from the fourteenth century onwards. In the dialects north of the Humber the ọ became If through the intermediate stage $\overline{3}$ about 1300 , and was generally written $u$ through the influence of Anglo-Norman orthography, and sometimes o, later also ui, oi (cp. § 121), but it was not written o before nassls, $u(=v)$, after $w$, and when final. Many of the northern dialects, especially the Scottish, have preserved the ü- or ö-sound down to the present day. Examples are: bộk băk later buik (OE. bōc) book, gọs glis later guis (OE. gōs) goose, lộken like(n) later
luike(n) (OE. lōcian) to look, and similarly blộd, brộd, brộk, brộm, brộper, cộk, cộl, dộm, dộn (dọ̀), fiộd, fọ̀de, fột, gộd, hộd, hộk, mộder, mọ̆ne moon, mọ̀nep, nọ̣n, ộper, pọ̀ rọ̆f, rọ̆k, rọ̄te, schọ, sọ̄ne, sọ̆t, spọ̄n, stọ̣l, tọ̆l, tọ̆p ; the pret. of strong verbs belonging to class VI (§ 411), as awộk, forsộk, schọ̀k, schọ̣p he created, stộd, swọ̄r, tọ̀k. Pret. sing. cọ̣m (OE. $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{w}) \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{m})$ ), nōm ( $\mathrm{OE} . \operatorname{nōm}$ ) he took, beside the ME. new formations cam com, nam nom.

## $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$

§ 58. $\mathrm{OE} . \overline{\mathrm{u}}=\mathrm{ME} . \overline{\mathrm{u}}$. Through the influence of AngloNorman orthography it was often written ou (ow) from the second half of the thirteenth century and became general in the fourteenth. By the time of Chaucer it was generally written ow when final and frequently also in open syllables, especially before $1, n$, and $v$, but in other positions it was mostly written ou (§ 9). Examples are: brū brow (OE. brū) brov, dūn doun down (OE. dūn) down, hūs hous (OE. hūs) house, mūp moup (OE. mūp) mouth, and similarly abouten about, broun, cloud, clout, cou (cow), croume crumb, douke duck, douve dove, foul, goune, hou (how), loud, louken to close, lous, mous, nou (now), oule (owle), our, out, ploume plum, proud, rouz rough, roum, schour, schroud, scoulen (ON. skūla), souken to suck, soup, toun, pou (bow), poume (poumbe) thumb, pousend.

## $\bar{y}$

§ 57. The development of OE. $\bar{y}$ in ME. went parallel with that of short $\mathbf{y}$ (§ 49), viz. it appears in ME. partly as $\bar{i}$, partly as ẹ, and partly as $\mathbb{f}$ (written $u$, ui, rarely uy from about 1100 onwards, see § 9 ).

1. It became unrounded to $\overline{1}$ in late OE. or early ME. in all the northern counties, in a great part of the east Midland counties, including Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and the districts bordering on these counties, as well as in parts of the south-
western counties, especially Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Wiltshire.
2. It became ẹ in Kent and parts of Middlesex, Sussex, Essex, and Suffolk during the OE. period, and remained as such in ME. In the modern dialects of this area the ẹ has become $\mathbf{i}$, as mis $=$ ME. mệs mice.
3. In all other parts of the country including the west Midlands, it remained and was written $u$, ui (rarely uy), until about the end of the fourteenth century and then became unrounded to i.

Examples are: bride brệde brüde (OE. brȳd) bride, fir fệr (vệr) für ( $O E$. fỳr) fire, hïden hẹ̀den hüden (OE. hȳdan) to hide, and similarly hide, hire, hīve, lis, mis, pride, whi why ; lipen (ON. hlȳða) to listen, mīre (ON. mȳrr) mire, skie (ON. skȳ cloud) sky.

## C. The Diphtiongs.

§ 58. All the diphthongs ěa, ěo, ǐo became monophthongs in late OE. except in Kentish, although they mostly continued to be written long after this sound-change had taken place. Ie, which only occurred in the WS. aren, had become monophthongized to $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$, I by the time of Alfred, although the le mostly continued to be written until a very much later date.

## 1. The Short Diplthongs.

## ea

§ 59. OE. ea, of whatever origin, became $¥$ in the early part of the eleventh century, although the old spelling with ea was often preserved in writing until a much later date. This æ fell together with old æ and along with it became a in the early part of the twelfth century (§ 43). Examples are: all (OE. eall) all, fallen (OE. feallan) to fall, barn (OE. bearn) child, and similarly calf (see § 284), callen, chalk, half, halle hall, pret. halp he helped, malt, salt,
scharp，swal（e）we stallow，wall；arm，dar（r）I dare，弓ard， hard，harm，sparke，sparwe sparrow，sward，swarm， warm ；chaf，jaf he gave，弓at gate，schadwe shadov，schaft， schal．
eo
§ eo．eo，of whatever origin，became $\delta$ in late OE．in all the dialects，although the eo was often preserved in writing until well on into the ME．period．The of then became un－ rounded to e during the twelfth century in the northern， east Midland，and south Midland dialects，but remained in the west Midland and southern dialects（except Kentish） until about the end of the fourteenth century，when it also became unrounded to e．In these latter dialects the ösound was written eo and later through the influence of Anglo－ Norman orthography o，ue and sometimes u．Examples are：herte，heorte horte huerte hurte（OE．heorte）heart； erpe，eorpe urpe（OE．eorpe）earth，and similarly berken to bark，＇cherl churl，derk，erl Earl，ernest，ferre far， kerven to carve，self（for silf，sülf see EOE．Gr．§ 311）， smerten，sterre star，sterven to die，zel（o）we yellow，hert hart，heven（e），seven（e），werk work．

## le

§ 61．WS．ie，of whatever origin，was monophthongized to $y, i$ by the time of Alfred，although it generally continued to be written until a very much later date，cp．§ 48 and EOE．Gr．§67．The chief sources of the ie were：1．The i －umlaut of ea after initial palatal co，g．，sc－； 2 ．the i －umlaut of ea which arose from breaking；3．the $i$－umlaut of io ；and 4．Germanic e after initial palatal c．，g．，sc．For 1,2 ，and 4 the other dialects regularly had e in OE．and ME．，but for 2 the west Midland had a（before $1+$ cons．）in early ME． which was later supplanted by the $e$ of the other dialects，and for 3 they had io（eo）in OE．and $\mathbf{i}(\mathrm{e})$ in ME．，see $\S$ e8．In ME．the $y$ had the same further development as old $y$（§ 4日）．

Examples are: chüle chile, chele cold, coldness; güst gist, gest guest; schüppen schippen, scheppen to create; chürren chirren, cherren to turn; dürne, derne dark, hidden ; üldre, eldre, aldre elder ; füllen, fellen, fallen to fell ; süllen sillen (WS. siellan, syllan, sellan), sellen to sell; 弓ürnen zirnen, gernen to desire; hürde hirde, herde shepherd; ürre irre, erre anger ; bigüten bigiten, bigeten to beget ; 弓üllen, zellen to yell.

## io

§ 62. io, of whatever origin, had become eo during the OE. period except in Northumbrian and a part of n. Mercian where the io remained. In ME. the eo had the same development as old eo ( $\S 60$ ), and the io became i, as melk, milk ( $0 \mathrm{E} . \operatorname{miol}(\mathbf{u}) \mathrm{c}$, meol(u)c) milk, and similarly selk, silk, selver, silver; hirde (Nth. hiorde) shephcrd, and similarly irre anger.

## 2. The Long Diphthongs.

## ēa

§ 63. ēa, of whatever origin, became $\overline{\text { æ }}$ in Anglian and WS. in the early part of the eleventh century, and thus fell together with old $\overline{\dddot{x}}=$ the i -umlaut of $\overline{\text { a }}$ (see $\S 52$ and note 1 ), although the éa was often preserved in writing until well on into the ME. period. Through the influence of AngloNorman orthography the $\overline{\text { ex }}$ was generally supplanted by $\bar{e}$ from about the end of the twelfth century, and from the fourteenth century onwards it was very often written ee in closed syllables and when final. This change of $\bar{\notin}$ to $\left.\bar{\varepsilon}(\varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon)^{\prime}\right)$, generally written $\bar{\varepsilon}\left(\varepsilon \in e^{\prime}\right)$ in grammars, was not a soundchange, but merely an orthographical change. The sound itself, viz. a low-front-narrow vowel like the ai in NE. air, remained in ME. until near the end of the fifteenth century when it became eè, see note. In Kentish ēa became a rising diphthong in the second half of the twelfth century, which was generally written ea, ia, ya, yea, and in the fourteenth
century e, rarely ye, which seems to indicate that by this time it had become long ē. Examples are : dę̣d, dead dyad dyead (OE. dēad) dead; lę̣pen, leapen lyapen lyeapen (OE. hlēapan) to leap, and similarly bęem, bę̣ne bean, bę̣ten, brę̀d, chę̣pe clieap, dę̣f, dę̣̂, drę̀m, ę̣re car, ę̨st, fię flea,
 stę̣p, strę̣m ; pret. chę̣s he chose.

Note.-In both native words (ep. §§ 52. 2, 80) and Fr. loanwords (cp. §§ 196, 205. 3, 217, 223) the eq, of whatever origin, became ẹ towards the end of the fifteenth century, that is, soon after old ẹ had become i (§ 50), see ENE. Gr. § 72.
§ 64. The non-WS. dialects had ẹ for early WS. ēa ( = Germanic $\overline{\text { 巴 }}, \S 52$ ) after initial palatal c-, g•, sc•, which remained in ME., as chệke chcek, 3ẹ̄r year, 3ẹ̀ven they gave, schệp shceq, cp. § 34.

## ēo

§ 65. ēo, of whatever origin, became $\bar{\delta}$ in Anglian and WS. in late OE., although the ēo was often preserved in writing until well on into the ME. period. The $\bar{\delta}$ then became unrounded to close ẹ during the twelfth century in the northern, east Midland, and south Midland dialects, but remained in the west Midland and southern dialects (except Kentish, see § 87) until about the end of the fourteenth century, when it also became unrounded to ẹ. In these latter dialects the $\bar{\delta}$-sound was written eo and later through the influence of Anglo-Norman orthography 0 , ue and sometimes $\mathbf{u}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{we}, \mathrm{cp} . \S 112$. The ẹ was very often written ee in closed syllables and when final, and in later ME. also often ie (§ $\theta$ ). Examples are: dẹp diep, deop duep dup (OE. dēop) deep ; pệf pief, peof puef puf (OE. pēof) thief, and similarly bẹ̆ a bee, bệden to bid, bẹ̄n to be, clệven to cleave, crệpen, dệr deer, fẹnd fiend, flẹ̀n to flee, flệs flecce, frệnd friend, frệsen, knẹ̀, lẹ̄f dear, lệsen to lose, rệd reed, rệken to smoke, schệten to shoot, sệke beside sike sick (§ 90), sện to see,
sệpen, snệsen, wệde recd; the pret. of strong verbs belonging to class VII (§ 414), as bệt he beat, hẹ̀ld he held, lệp beside lepte he lecupt, wệp beside wepte hc wept.

Note.-In some words the éo became a rising diphthong eó which in ME. became $\overline{0}$ by absorption of the first element. 'This often gave rise to double forms, as chọ̄sen, schọten beside chệsen, schēten; 弓ọ̄de lèside zẹ̀de (OE. ge-eốde beside ge-éode) he tent.

## ie

§ 68. WS. ie, of whatever origin, was monophthongized to $\overline{\mathbf{y}}, \overline{1}$ (cp. § 9 and $E O E . G r . \S 67$ ) by the time of Alfred, although it generally continued to be written until a very much later date. The chief sources of the ie were : 1 . The $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{um}$ laut of $\overline{\mathrm{i} O}=\mathrm{io}$ (ēo) in the other dialects (cp. § 67) ; and 2. the $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{umlaut}$ of $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{a}=\bar{e}$ in the other OE. and ME. dialects. In ME. the $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ had the same further development as old $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ (\$57). Examples are : dẹ̀re, düre dīre (OE. diore, dēore, diere) dcar, hẹ̄ren, hürren huiren (§ 9) hīren (OE. hēran, hieran) to hear, and similarly alẹesen to deliver, bẹ̄zen later beien (cp. § 107, 6) to lend, bilẹ̀ven to lelievc, chẹ̄se, ẹken to incrcase, nẹ̄de, slẹ̄ve, stẹle steel, stẹpel.

## io

§ 67. Old io had become ēo in all the dialects except the Kentish wefore the end of the OE. period, and then had the same further development in these dialects as old ēo (§ 65). On the other hand old ēo had become io (also written ia) in Kentish by the end of the OE. period, and then had the same further development as old io. The io became ie in early ME. Then it became a rising diphthong medially, written ie, ye and sometimes $i$, $e$, which became $\bar{e}$ in the fourteenth century, but remained finally and then later became ialso written $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$. Examples are: diep dyep (OE. dēop) deep, diere dyere (OE. diore, dēore, WS. diere) dlcar, and similarly liese lyese to lose, lyeve lệve dear, viend vyend
fiend, but bī bȳ (OE. bīon, bēon) to be, vlȳ (OE. flēon) to flee, vrì vrỳ (OE. frio, frēo) frce, zī zȳ to sec. See Luick, Hist. Gr., p. 338.

## 2. DEPENDENT CHANGES

(1) The Lengthenina of Short Vowels before Consonant Combinations.
§ 68. From our knowledge of ME. phonology it is clear that short vowels and short diphthongs must have been lengthened some time during the OE. period before certain consonant combinations, especially before a liquid or a nasal + a homorganic voiced consonant, that is, before ld , rd , nd, $\mathrm{mb}, \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{rl}, \mathrm{rn}$, and probably also before $\mathrm{rp}, \mathrm{rs}+$ vowel. This lengthening of short vowels and short diphthongs took place some time before the end of the ninth century. But the lengthening did not take place when the consonant combination was immediately followed by another consonant, as pl. lambru: lāmb lamb, comp. lengra : lāng long, heardra : hēard hard, pret. sende from *sendde : inf. sēndan to send, pl. cildru : cild clilld, hundred : hūnd hundred, pl. sculdru: scūldor shoulder, wundru: wūndor wonder, \&c.; nor in unstressed forms, as sceolde should, under, wolde would.
§68. In the transition period from OE. to ME., in early ME., and during the ME. period the long vowels were shortened again before some of the combinations, especially before $\mathbf{r d}, \mathrm{rl}, \mathrm{rn}, \mathbf{r p}$, and $\mathbf{r s}$, so that the combinations with which we are specially concerned are only ld, mb, nd, and ng. And even before these latter combinations shortening began to take place before mb , nd , and ng in the course of the late twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries.
§ 70. From what is said below it will be seen that whether the long vowels were preserved or became shortened again depended partly upon the nature of the following consonant
combination, partly upon the nature of the vowel, and partly upon difference of dialect. The lengthening before ld was generally preserved in all the dialects. Shortening had taken place before nd, ng, and rd (see below) in Orm's dialect before he wrote the Ormulum, as senndenn to send, brinngenn to bring, harrd hard. For OE. a(0) before nasals (§ 42) Chaucer has o before nd, ng, but $\bar{q}$ before mb, as hond, lond, stondon, but cọmmb, pret. clọ̀mb lie climbed, lṑmb, wṑmb. In his dialect long ẹ̣ ( $=\mathbf{O E}$. io (ēo), ē) remained before nd and ng, as fẹ̣nd fiend, hẹ̄ng he lung, and also i before mb , nd, as climben, finden, but i before ng , as bringen ; ū remained before nd, as ground, but was shortened before mb , ng , as pp . clomben ( $\mathrm{o}=\mathrm{u}, \S$ §) climbed, songen sung; a was short before rd, as hard, warde, but OE. lengthened ō remained long, as bọrd loard, hộrd hoarl, and similarly in Orm's dialect. For ę ( $=$ early OE. ea, later ēa) before rd he has ę̨, as bę̨rd beard, yę̧rd yarl, and similarly before rn, as bę̨rn child, fę̀rn fern, but for OE. ē he has e, as pret. herde (OE. hērde) he heard, pp. herd (OE. hēred), pret. ferde (OE. fērde) he lehaved. $\bar{i}, \bar{u}$ were shortened to $i, u$ in all the north Midland and northern dialects and are still short in all the modern dialects of this area, but remained long in the other dialects, as binden, pp . bounden. Long vowels and diphthongs before the consonant groups which originally caused lengthening were shortened in monosyllabic forms during the late OE. period in Kentish, but were preserved in the inflected forms, as lamb : lāmbe, hand : hānda, hund loound: hūndas, eald : ealde which in ME. became ealde, yalde (cp. § 63). This gave rise in ME. to many new formations through levelling out in different directions.
§ 71. 1 d : The lengthening before 1 ld was generally preserved in all the dialects.

Anglian ā from older a (= early WS. and Ken. ea, later ēa) remained in early ME. in the northern dialects, but in
the Midiand and some of the southern dialects it became $\bar{q}$ at the same time as old $\bar{a}$ became $q(\S 51)$. In the other southern dialects the later WS. ēa became ę at the same time as old ēa became ę, but the ēa remained a diphthong in Kentish (§ 63). A few of these southern forms with $\bar{e}$ are found in Chaucer, as hęlde to holl, węlde to rule, although the $\bar{e}$ had generally been ousted by the $\bar{\rho}$ of the other dialects in the early part of the thirteenth century. Examples are: cọld, northern cāld, southern chę̀ld, Ken. chealde cold, and similarly bọ̀ld, fọ̄1den, hǫlden, ọld, pret. sộde, tọlde, pp. sọld, tọld.
é, also written ee, as fẹld (early OE. feld, later fèld) ficld, chệlde cold sb., ệlde old age, 3ę̀lden to recompense, sẹld seldom, schệld shield, wẹ̀lden to wield.
i , as child (early OE. cild, later cild), and similarly milde, wilde.
ō, as gọ̣ld (early OE. gold, later gōld) = early NE. gūld, Gould, beside gŏld = NE. gold, and similarly mọlde moull; pret. schọlde, wọlde beside the unstressed forms schölde (Orm shollde), wolde ( 0 rm wollde).
§ 72. mb : cọ̀mb (cp. § 51), northern cāmb (early OE. camb, later cāmb), and similarly lọ̀mb, later lamb, formed from the pl. lambren, wṑmb (see § 128), pret. clọ̄mb he climbed.
$\bar{i}$, as clïmben clȳmben (early OE. climban, later climban).
$\bar{u}$, as dūmb doumb dumb, beside pp. clomben ( $\mathbf{o}=\mathbf{u}$ ) climbed.
§ 73. nd: Before nd all vowels were short or became shortened in the late twelfth and the early thirteenth centuries in the northern and north Midland dialects. In the other Midland and the southern dialects they all, except i ( = early OE. i, y) and $\bar{u}$, became shortened during the ME. period, but the approximate date of this shortening is difficult to fix.

The $\bar{q}$ from older OE. a (o) before nasals remained until well on into the ME. period in the south Midland and the southern dialects, and then became shortened to 0 , hence Chaucer has o, but we have a in the north Midland and the northern dialects. And then the forms with o were gradually ousted by those with a towards the end of the fourteenth century. Examples are : Early ME. họ̄nd, händ, later hond, hand; stōnden, stānden, later stonden, standen, and similarly band sb., pret. band he bound, land, sand, strand, \&c.

ẹ, as early ME. ệnde (early OE. ende, later ēnde) end, bẹnden to bend; later ende, benden, and similarly blenden, renden, spenden; sệnden, later senden, but pret. always sende from older *sendde, and similarly with the preterite of the other verbs. The ME. ẹ from OE. io ( $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathbf{0}$ ), see § 65 , seems not to have been regularly shortened before nd, as frẹnd (OE. friond, frēond) beside frend formed from the compound frendschipe (§ 92,2 ), but always fệnd (OE. fiond, fēond), because there was no compound beside it.
i , as blind, blind (early OE. blind, later blind), and similarly linde lime-tree, rinde, wind; inf. binden, binden (early OE. bindan, later bindan), and similarly finden, grīden, winden, \&c.; kīnde, mīnde.
$\bar{u}$, as grūnd (generally written ground), grund (early OE. grund, later grūnd), and similarly hound, pound, sound hicalthy, wounde wound, past participles like bounden, founden, wounden wound.
§ 74. ng : The OE. lengthened $\overline{\mathrm{i}}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ became short again in early ME. in all the dialects, as finger, ring, ping ; sung (3ong) young, hunger (honger), tunge (tonge) tonguc; inf. singen, pp. sungen, and similarly springen, stingen, wringen.

The OE. lengthened $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ( $\overline{0}$ ), $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ became short again in the latter part of the thirteenth ind early part of the fourteenth centuries, as lāng, lọng, later lang, long, and similarly
hongen to lang, strong, pong, wrong. lenger longer, lenpe (§ 263), mengen (mingen) to mix, streng (string) string, see § 132.
§75. Neither in OE. nor in ME. were short vowels lengthened when the consonant combination which usually caused lengthening was followed by a third consonant, see § 68. Examples are: Orm allderrmann : āld old ; comp. eldre eldere elder, seldere : sẹld seldom; pl. children childre : child, wildernesse : wild; sing. and pl. schuldre (Orm sing. schulldre) shoulder. dumbnesse : doumb dumb, whence the back-formation dumb; pl. lambre, lambren : lāmb, whence the back-formation lamb; timbre timber; slumbren. candle, gandre (OE. gandra), wandren; hindren, spindle; blundren, hundred, wundren, pl. wundres, from which a new singular wunder was formed. punder always had short $\mathbf{u}$, because it was from OE. punor. Pl. engles, whence new sing. engel (inycl. Many exceptions to the above arose in ME. throngh now formations from the simple forms which regularly had long vowels, as chîldhę̀de, hộde : chîld; frẹndli beside frendli : frệnd; sệlden (Ellesmere MS. seelden) beside selden: sệld, \&c.
§ 78. Long vowels also arose in early ME. through the loss of b in the medial combinations •pn., -pr. of worls which had accented and unaccented forms side ly side, as hền ( ON. hepan) hence, sền, sîn ( OE . sippan, sioppan) since, pĕ̌n ( ON. pepan) thence, wěn, earlier whepen ( ON . hvapan) whence, whĕr (OE. hwejer) whether, ör, early ME. $\mathrm{op}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{r}$. Then after the analogy of forms like ME. hider, pider, whider with i were formed hipen, pipen, whipen, which also became hî̀n, pîn, whî̀n. Cp. § 249.

## (2) The Lengthening of Short Vowels if Opbn Syllables.

§ 77. ME. short vowels, of whatever origin, were lengthened in open syllables of dissyllabic forms during the thirteenth century. The lengthening of $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{o}$ to $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$, $\bar{\epsilon}, \stackrel{q}{q}$ took place in all the dialects, whereas that of $i, u$ to $\bar{e}, \bar{̣}$ only took place in some of them. And as the lengthening of $a, e$, o took place earlier than that of $i, u$ and with an entirely different result, we shall deal with them in two separate groups.

1. a, e, o
§ 78. The lengthening of a, e, o to $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{q}$ took place somewhat earlier in the dialects north of the Humber than in those south of it, but in both areas the vowels had been lengthened before the end of the first half of the thirteenth century. In the dialects north of the Humber the new a fell together with old $\bar{a}(\S 51)$, but in the dialects south of it they were kept apart, because old ā had become $\bar{q}$ (§ 51) before the lengthening of a to a took place. The new $\overline{\bar{e}}, \bar{q}$ differed in quality from the ME. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ which arose from $\mathrm{OE} . \bar{\mp}, \overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{a}(\S \S 52,63)$, and the $\overline{\bar{q}}$ which arose from OE. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ( $\delta 51$ and note). The new $\bar{e}, \bar{q}$ were probably mid-front-wide like the long of the short $e$ in standard NE. men, and mid-back-wide-round like the first element of the diphthong in standard NE. so, and the older $\bar{e}, \bar{q}$ were low-front-narrow like the ai in standard NE. air and low-back-narrow-round like the a in standard NE. all. Although the two pairs have fallen together in standard NE. and may also have fallen together in the south Midland and southern dialects during the ME. period, they certainly did not fall together in the north Midland and northern dialects, because they are still kept apart in the modern dialects of this area, e.g. in Yks., Lanc., Derb., Stf. the new ę has become ei, but the old ę has become io or some such diphthong. The new
$\bar{q}$ has become $q \mathbf{q}$ and the older $\bar{q}$ has become uə, ọ or some such diphthong.

## $\bar{a}$

§78. 1. From OE. a, as bāken (OE. bacan), hāre (OE. hara), and similarly āpe, awāken, bāpen, cäre, drāke, hāten to hatc, lāke, māken, nāked, rāke, sāke, spāde, wāden, wāven. bāre (OE. masc. pl. bare) bare, đāle (OE. pl. dalu), gāte (OE. pl. gatu), and similarly blāde, glāde glad, grāve, lāte, smāle small, tāle. tāken (ON. taka), and similarly cāke, gāsen to gaze, gảpen to gape.
2. From OE. a (o) before nasals, as nãme, but nọ̀me in the west Midlands (OE. nama), see § 42, and similarly gāme, lāme, lăne, schā̀me, \&c.
3. From OE. æ, south-eastern dialects e (§ 43), as fader, fę̨der, vę̀der (OE. fæeder, feder) father, rāven, rę̀ven (OE. hræfen, hrefen) raven, see § 102 ; and similarly āker acre, ficld, brāsen brazen, hāsel, pl. pāpes, wāter, \&c.
4. From OE. ea, of whatever origin ( $\S 59$ ), as āle (OE. ealu) ale, bāle (OE. bealu) bale, evil, and similarly cokchāfer, māre mare, schāde, schāken, \&c.
Note. -1. In both native and Fr. loan-words (§§ 195, 210) the ā became fronted to $\overline{\bar{x}}(=\bar{e})$ in the fifteenth century, although the a was mostly retained in writing, see ENE. Gr. § 69.
2. For mäken, tāken the northern and north Midland dialects had mak, tak through early loss of the final en, and these forms are still preserved in the modern dialects of this area. The pret. and pp . mäde, mād (maad) for older mākede, māked arose from the loss of intervocalic $k$. From the new pret. and pp. was then formed a new present $m \bar{a}(\mathbf{n})$, after the analogy of which was formed a new present tā $(\mathbf{n})$ for tāken. These presents are also still preserved in the modern north Midland dialects.
3. hăven, hăvest, hăvep (hap) beside bihāven are the unstressed forms.

## อิ

§ 80. 1. From OE. e, as bępren (OE. beran) to bcar, mę̀te (OE. mete) meat, stęlen (OE. stelan) to steal, and similarly
bę̃re bear, brę̉ken, ę̀ten, ęven even, knę̄den, mę̀te meat, pęrre peur, spę̃ken, spęre speur; swęren, tę̀ren, trę̇den, wę̉ren to wour, wę̃ven. gę̀ten (ON. geta), lę̄ken (ON. leka) to leak. See §§ 11, 83 note.
2. From OE. eo, of whatever origin (§ 60), as bęver (OE. beofor) betwer, mę̀de (OE. meodu) mecud (drink), and similarly męle, smę̨re ointment, tę̧re tur, \&c. See § 63 note.

Note.-For bręken, gęten, 1ę̨ken the northern and north Midland dialects had brek, get, lek through early loss of the final en, and these forms are still preserved in the modern dialects of this area. For early west Midland and Southern forms like böre bear; ōten to eat, stōlen to steal, mōle meal, cp. § 60.

## $\overline{9}$

§ 81. The $\bar{q}$ from $O E$. 0 was very often written 00 from the forrteenth century onwards, as flogten floqten (OE. flotian) to float, bọlen (OE. polian) to bear, suffer; prọte (OE. prote) throutt, and similarly fǫle foal, hōpen, nōse, $\bar{q}$ pen, qver, rōse, smǫke. Pp. bǫren (OE. boren), and similarly brǫken, forlọren, stōlen, swọren sworn. cǫle (OE. col, gen. coles) with the vowel of the inflected form levelled out into the uninflected, and similarly hōle (OE. hol), see § 103.
§82. Lengthening also took place in dissyllables with two consonants belonging to the second syllible, as nāvle, also written nāvele (OE. nafola) narcl, wāvren, also written wāveren (ON. vafra) to waver; gen. 3ęstes beside nom. zest, from which was formed a new nom. 3ęst yeast, cp. § 97.
§ 83. Just as long vowels were shortened before single consonants in trisyllabic forms, so also short vowels remained unlengthened before a single consonant in trisyllabic forms, see $\S 87$. Examples are: fepere beside early ME. feper (OE. feper) fcuthcr, gaderen (OE. gaderian) to guther, and similarly berie bcrry, scateren, stameren, pe latere
(NE. latter) beside lāter (NE. later), \&c. bọ̄di (OE. bodig) looly, beside pl. bǒdies from which a new singular bǒdi was formed ; māni (OE. manig) beside early ME. pl. manie (OE. manige) from which a new singular mani was formed, and similarly with a large number of other words, as peni, popi; disi foolish, bisi busy, hevi, stedi, \&c.

Note.-Beside the accented form mani there was also an unaccented form moni which was very common, especially in the northern dialects, and which has been preserved in a large number of dialects down to the present day, see $E D$. Gr. p. 521.

## 2. i, u

§ 84. The result of the lengthening of $i, u$ to $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$ through the intermediate stage $\bar{i}$, $\bar{u}$ was entirely different from that of $a, e, o$ to $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{q}$. In the latter case there was only a change in quantity, but in the former case there was a change both in quantity and quality of the vowels. This change of $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}$ to $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$ took place in the dialects north of the Humber and in parts of the north Midland dialects in the latter half of the thirteenth century, and in the East Anglian dialects about a century later. In the Scottish dialects the ẹ, ọ were later written ei, oi (ui), see $\S 10$.
§ 85. In dealing with the lengthening of $\mathbf{i}, \mathrm{u}$ to $\bar{e}, 0 ̣ \mathrm{o}$ it is necessary to distinguish two types of words:-

1. Old dissyllabic forms which lost their final ee before lengthening in open syllables took place, so that in this type lengthening only took place in the inflected forms, as wik (OE. wice) weck : pl. wệkes, sun (OE. sunu) son : pl. sọ̃nes, from which new singulars were often made, as wệe, dộr, sọ̀n, \& c.
2. Old uninflected dissyllabic forms which became trisyllabic when inflected or had suffixes, as ệvel (OE. yfel, ifel) cvil : gen. iveles, sệker (OE. sicor) sccure : sikerli, sọmer (OE. sumor) summer : pl. sumeres, from which new
uninflected forms were often made, as bisi busy, mikel, widow ; sumer, bun(d)er, \&c.

Other examples of type 1 are: northern gif : gēves he gives, lif : lẹ̃ves he lives; schip, smip, wik : pl. schẹpes, smệpes, wệkes; cum : cọ̀mes he comes; dur door, wud wood : pl. dọ̃res, wọ̄des; and of type 2 : northern bệsi busy: bisiness, mẹ̀kel : mikelness, wẹ̀dow: pl. widowes. Enst Anglian clẹ̀pe(n) to call, lọve(n) to love; northern and East Anglian bệtel beetle, crẹppel cripple, wệvel wcevil, \&c. The past participles of strong verbs belonging to class I (§ 396) also regularly had ẹ, as drẹ̀ven driven, rẹ̀sen risen, wrẹten written, but they generally came to have i through new formations. Already in late OE. the past participles with -t- often had -tt. beside .t., as bitten, written beside biten, writen, which gradually gained the upper hand, and then the $-1 \cdot$ in this type of verb was extended analogically to the other verbs, as driven, riden, risen, \&c.

Note. - The $\overline{0}$ which arose from u became $\bar{i}$ in the northern dialects at the same time as old $\bar{o}$ became $\mathfrak{i}$ about 1300 , see § 55 .
(3) The Shortening of Long Vowels.
§ 86. Long vowels and long diphthongs were shortened before certain consonant combinations during the OE. period and especially in late OE.:-(a) Before combinations of three consonants, as pl. bremblas beside sing. brēm(b)el bramble. (b) Before two consonants in trisyllabic and polysyllabic forms, as enlefan from older "ǣnlefan eleven, hlammæsse beside older hlãfmæsse Lammas, samcucu (from *sāmi., older *sǣmi.) half dead, gen. twentiges: nom. twēntig tucenty, blissian beside older blibsian to rejoice, pl. deorlingas : dēorling dlarling. (c) Before double consonants $+r$, as gen. attres beside nom. àtor, whence new nom. attor beside ātor poison; blæddre,
næddre leside older blǣdre bladder, nǣdre adder, comp. hwittra : hwit white, gen. foddres beside nom. födor, whence new nom. foddor beside födor fodler, comp. deoppra : dēop deep, see EOE. Gr. § 146. (d) Before double consonants, as acc. ænne, enne beside older æ̈nne one, prittig beside older pritig thirly; wimman beside older wifman woman. (e) In trisyllabic forms before single consonants, as haligdōm : hālig koly, pl. ænige, •u : sing. $\overline{\text { æ̈nig any, pl. cicenu : sing. cicen chicken, whence new }}$ singular cicen, superne : sūp south, pl. heafodu : hēafod hearl. ( $f$ ) And in late OE, and early ME. long vowels began to be shortened before the consonant combinations which caused lengthening in early OE ., see § 68.
§ 87. In the following treatment of the shortening of long vowels, we shall, as a rule, not distinguish between shortenings which took place in OE. and those which only took place in ME. So far, then, as ME. is concerned it may be said that all long vowels, whether original long vowels or long vowels which arose from old long diphthongs, were shortened in late OE. and early ME. before double consomants and before all consonant combinations other than those which caused the lengthening of short vowels (§ 88). Long vowels were also shortened before single consonants in trisyllabic forms of which many arose in ME. from the development of svarabhakti vowels, as in brẹ̀peren from older brệpren ( $\$ \mathbf{1 5 2}, 1$ ), or were new formations made from the uninflected forms, as in the pl. wępenes for older wępnes formed from the sing. wępen weapon. This kind of shortening took place in the thirteenth century, as Orm still preserved the long vowels in this position. And just as long vowels were shortened in words of this type, so also short vowels remained unlengthened before single consonants in trisyllabic forms (§ 88).
§ 88. Before dealing with the shortening of the various separate long vowels before consonant combinations we will
deal with the shortening in trisyllabic forms, as clavere beside clōver (OE. clāfre) clover, see § 51 ; laverke later larke (OE. lāwerce) lark; erende beside older ęrende (OE. $\bar{\varpi}$ rende) errand, and similarly evere ( $(152,1$ ), pl. heringes, nevere, redili beside rę̨di, selinesse beside sę̣li, sệli happy, pl. wepenes from older wệpenes weapons; pl. stirọpes (OE. stīrāpas) stirrups ; breberen from older bręperen; slumeren : OE. slüma slumbcr. From the trisyllabic were often made new disyllabic forms with short vowel, as hering, redi, wepen, \&c., beside hę̄ring, rę̀di, wępen, \&c.
§ 89. In dealing with the shortening of long vowels before consonant groups it is necessary to take into consideration the question of chronology. When $\overline{\bar{æ}}$ was shortened in OE. it became $æ$ and then a in ME. (§ 43), but when ME. ę from OE. $\overline{\bar{\propto}}$ was shortened in ME. it became e, whence we have forms side by side in ME. with a and e. And similarly when ēa was shortened in OE. it became ea and then a in ME. (§ 59), but when ME. ę from OE. èa (§ 83 ) was shortened in ME. it became e, whence we have forms side by side in ME. with a and e. When ēo was shortened is OE. it becrme eo and then e in ME. (§ 60 ), and when ME. ẹ from OE. ēo (§ 65) was shortened in ME. it became e, so that in this case the result was the same.
§ 80. à became a, as axen, asken (OE. āxian, āscian) to ask, pp. clad from *clādd (OE. clāpod) clothed, hatte ( $O \mathrm{E}$. hātte) is or was called, halwen (OE. hā1gian) to hullow, halwes (OE. pā hālgan) Hallows, lammasse (OE. hlāfmæsse) Lammas. In comparatives like bradder: brād, brọ̀d, boside the new formation brọ̄der; hatter : hāt, họ̀t beside the new formation họter later hotter, see § 51.
§ 91 . $\overline{\text { e }}$ became a, e. It should be remembered that late OE. $\overline{\mathfrak{x}}$ is of threefold origin, viz. Germanic $\overline{\bar{x}}(\S 52)$, the i-umlaut of $\bar{a}(\S 52)$, and late OE . $\overline{\boldsymbol{æ}}$ from older ēa ( $\S$ 63). Germanic $\overline{\boldsymbol{\chi}}$ became ẹ in Anglian and Kentish in early OE., so that the shortening in these dialects is always e, whether
it took place in OE. or ME. $\overline{\mathrm{x}}$ the i -umlaut of a became ẹ in early Kentish (§52), so that the shortening is always $\mathbf{e}$ in this dialect. In all the dialects we have a or e from late OE. $\overline{\bar{x}}$ ( $=$ early OE. ēa) according as the shortening took place in OE. or ME. Examples are :-

1. bladder, bledder (late OE. blæddre older blǣdre) bludler, pret. dradde, dredde, pp. drad, dred dreaded, and similarly ampti, em(p)ti cmpty, medwe (OE. inflected form mǣ̃we) ljeside męde (OE. mǣd) meadow, nadder, nedder ulder, pret. radde, redde he read, pret. slepte, wrastlen, wrestlen to wrestle.
2. clansen, clensen (OE. clēnsian) to cleanse, fat, fet (OE. fätt) fat, and similarly clanli, clenli cleanly, helpe heallh, laddre, leddre ladder, lafdi, lefdi lady, pret. lafte, lefte he left, lasse, lesse less, lasten, lesten to follow, wrappe, wreppe wrath; pret. ladde, ledde (OE. lædde older lǣdde), pp. lad, led led, and similarly cladde, cledde, clad, cled ; pret. lente, pp. lent (OE. l̄̈ned) lent; spradde spredde, sprad, spred ; swatte, swette sweatcl ; ę̣ni (OE. æ̈nig) any beside ME. pl. anie, enie from which was formed a new singular ani, eni (cp. § 83).
3. biraft, bireft : birḕven (OE. berēafian) to deprive, rob, chapman, chepman (OE. cēapman), and similarly grattre, grettre greater, laper (OE. lēapor, gen. lēapres) lathcr, schepherde, pratte, prette he threatenci.
§ 92. Late OE. ẹ, of whatever origin, became e:-
4. $\bar{e}=\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{umlaut}$ of $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$, as pret. bledde (OE. bledde, older blēdde) he blecl, and similarly fedde, grette he greeted, kepte, mette; demde, forms like dẹ̀mde, wệnde he hopel were ME. new formations from the present ; blessen, breperen. twenti, ten (Orm tenn) is a back-formation from forms like tenpe, tenfọld.
5. ẹ = OE. èo (§ 65), as devei (OE. dēofol, gen. dēofles) devil, lemman (OE. lēofmann) sweetheart, and similarly deppre deeper; ferping, frendschipe, whence the back-
formation frend beside fręnd (§ 73), seknesse, stepfader; pret. fell (OE. fēoll) he fell, and similarly crepte, lepte.
6. Non-WS. ēo (io) = early WS. ie, as derling (OE. dēorling, dierling) darling, and similarly deppe clepth, derre dearer, pefte.
7. ON. ē, as felaze, felawe (0.Icel. fēlage) fellow.
8. OE. i-umlaut of ēa, as grettre (OE. grietra) greater.
§ 93 . i became i , as children, childre : child, fifte (OE. fifta) fifth, and similarly Cristmesse, cristnen, fifti, lizt light a light, lizt light light, litel, lütel (OE. lītel, lȳtel, gen. litles, lÿtles), whence the ME. new formation litel, lütel little, stiffer, whence the new formation stif (OE. stif) stiff, wimman, wisdọ̀m.
§ 84. ọ became 0 , as fodder (OE. fodor, gen. fōdres), gosling : gọ̣s, pret. schodde, pp. schod : schọ̣n to shoe, and similarly blostme, blosme blossom, bosme bosom, softe. For the late OE. combination oht from older oht see § 113, 5.
§ 95 . ū became u , as dust ( OE . dūst) dust, husbonde : hūs (hous), rust (OE. rūst) (see § 97), pursdai (OE. pūresdæg) O.Icel. pōrs-dagr Thursday, puzte (OE. puhte, older pūhte) it secmed, udder (OE. ūder, gen. ūdres).
§ 96. Late OE. $\bar{i}, \bar{e}, \mathrm{H}$ from early OE. $\overline{\mathrm{y}}$ (§ 57) were regularly shortened to $i, e$, ui (written $u$ ), as fist, vest, fuist (early OE. fȳst), and similarly filpe, pimel (early OE. pȳmel, gen. $\mathrm{py} \mathbf{y}$ mles) thimble, wischen ; pret. hidde, hedde, hüdde (early OE. hȳdde), pp. hid, hed, hüd (early OE. hȳded) hid, and similarly kidde, pp. kid made known.
§ 97. Long vowels were regularly shortened in closed syllables before such combinations as -sch, $\cdot$ st, but remained long in open syllables through the consonant combinations belonging to the second syllable. This gave rise to double forms in ME. according as the vowel of the uninflected forms was levelled out into the inflected forms or as the vowel of the inflected forms was levelled out into the un-
inflected forms. Regular forms were: flesch (OE. flēsc), gen. fięsches; brest ( $O E$. brēost), gen. brẹ̄stes, whence flesch, brest beside fięsch, brệst. At a later period one or other of the forms became generalized. Examples of the former are: blast (OE. blēst) blast, brest (OE. brēost), dust (OE. dūst), rust (OE. rūst), fist, vest, füst (early OE. fȳst), flesch (OE. flēsc), mesch (OE. mǣsce), wisch, wesch, wüsch (early OE. wyss). Examples of the latter are : gāst, gọ̆st (OE. gāst) ghost, Crist, ęst (OE. ēast) cast, prệst (OE. prēost) priest. For forms like brust breast, prust priest in the west Midland and Southern dialects, see §§ $60,65$.
§ 98. From numerous examples given in the previous paragraphs it will be seen that long vowels were regularly shortened in derivatives and compounds when the stemsyllable was followed by one or more syllables with a strong secondary accent, as in alderman : ọld, older āld, chapman : OE. cēap, Cristmesse : Crīst, frendli, frendschipe : frẹnd, halidai : OE. hālig holy, lavedi, lafdi (Orm laffdig) : OE. hlæ̈fdige lady, wildernesse : wilde, wisdọ̄m : wis, \&c. This rule was, however, very often broken through new formations made from the simplex, as frẹ̀ndli, kindnesse, wisli, \&c. Cp. § 75.
§ 99. Through causes which have never been satisfactorily explained a few ME. words have i beside e for the shortening of $\bar{e}, \bar{e}$, as briperen beside breperen, pret. fill beside fel (OE. fēoll) he fell, gritte beside grette he greeted (§ 425), hild beside older hệld he held (§ 414), kipte beside kepte ( $\S 424$ ), pifte beside jefte ( $(\mathbf{9 2}, 3$ ), hipbrembles beside hepbrembles (OE. heopbremblas) dog-roses, from which were formed the simplex hipe beside hepe (mod. dialects ep), hẹppe hip, and similarly siknesse beside seknesse (OE. sēocnes), whence sik beside sek, sệk, silinesse beside selinesse (OE. gesæ̈lignes), whence sill beside seli, sę̈li, sẹlli.
§ 100. Through causes which have never been clearly defined there was a tendency from about the beginning of the thirteenth century onwards in some dialects to shorten long vowels before a single consonant in monosyllables. And this kind of shortening became quite common in the fifteenth century. It is possible that the shortening started out from such monosyllables being used in the sentence before other words beginning with a consonant, and that then the shortened forms came to be used in other positions. Examples from the Ormulum are: dæpp (OE. dēap) beside d̄̄̄\} death, pret. drohh (OE. drōh) beside drōh he drew, comm (OE. $\mathrm{c}(\mathbf{w})$ ōm) he came, topp (OE. tōp) tooth, watt (OE. wãt) beside wāt he knows, \&c.; and from other ME. texts : bred bread, ded dead, fott foot, godd goorl, hedd head, peff thief, \&c. Forms like grat, gret (OE. grēat) great, hat hot, stif (OE. stif), swet sweet were new formations from the comparative gratter, gretter, \&c.
§ 101. Long vowels were also shortened in unaccented forms, as an (OE. ān) one, an, but beside būt (OE. būtan) except, nat, not (OE. nāwiht, nōwiht, nāht, nōht) nothing, not, scholde (Orm shollde, sollde) beside schọlde should, us (Orm uss) beside ūs, Orm pehh (OE. pēah) beside pohh (ON. *pöh) though, wham, whom beside whọ̀m (OE. hwām) whom, wolde (Orm wollde) beside wộlde would; and similarly with personal pronouns like mê, wề, pŭ, 孔ĕ̀, hê.

## (4) Variable Vowel Lengti in Sten-Syllables.

§ 102. In ME. dissyllabic nouns and adjectives ending in $\cdot e l$, em, -en, er the vowel in the second syllable belonged originally to the uninflected forms only, see EOE. Gr. § 96. But already in OE. the vowel in the uninflected forms was generally levelled out into the inflected forms when the stera-syllable was short, as nom. sing. æcer, cradol, efen, gen. æceres, crađoles, efenes beside æcres, cradles, efnes.

And so also in ME. we have side by side forms with and without the medial vowel, as akeres, cradeles, evenes beside akres, cradles, evnes. ME. short vowels in open stem-syllables regularly remained short in trisyllabic forms (§83), so that lengthening of the stem-vowel took place regularly in the uninflected forms only, but regularly remained short in the inflected forms. Then one of two things happened: Either the long vowel of the uninflected forms was levelled out into the inflected forms or the short vowel of the inflected forms was levelled out into the uninflected forms. This often gave rise to double forms in ME. itself, as crādel, wāter, ę̀ven, ōpen beside cradel, water, even, open, and similarly fâder beside fader from the inflected forms faderes, fadres. During the ME. period one or other of the doublets usually became generalized. And this difference in the stem-vowel of words of this type is reflected in standard NE. down to the present day, cp. acre, brazen, cockchafer, cradle, hazel, ladle, maple, raven, staple, taper; beaver (ME. bę̀ver beside bever), besom, evil, even, weasel; open; beside fathom, hammer, madder, saddle, shackle, swaddle, wattle; eleven, heaven, kettle, leather, nettle, seven, weather; bottom, copper, hovel, otter. The modern dialects have often preserved the forms which have not surviyed in the standard language, as brăzen, stăple, ěven, ǒpen.

The past participles of strong verbs, just like dissyllabic nouns and adjectives ending in en, had double forms in ME., as tãken, trệden, gę̣ten, brộken, stọlen beside tăken, trĕden, gĕten, brŏken, stŏlen (stöln). At a later period one or other of the forms became generalized, e.g. stems ending in $\cdot \mathbf{r},-\mathrm{d}$, -t generally had the short vowel, as borren (borrn). gĕten, sorden, and the others generally had the long vowel, as tāken, brộken, stōlen, \&c., which more or less agrees with the development in the NE. standard language. On the other hand the modern dialects, especially the
northern and north Midland, have usually generalized the forms with short vowels, as tăken, ĕten, brŏken, chŏzen, spŏken, trŏden, \&c.
§ 103. OE. monosyllabic nouns and adjectives containing an $æ(a), \mathrm{e}$, or o in the stem-syllable gave rise to double forms in ME. according as the vowel of the inflected forms was levelled out into the uninflected forms, or as the vowel of the uninflected forms was levelled out into the inflected forms. Examples of such double forms are:-bāre beside bar (OE. bær, gen. bares) lare, lāte beside lat (OE. læt, gen. lates) late, and similarly cǫle beside col (OE. col, gen. coles) coal, smāle beside smal, whāle beside whal, \&c. During the ME. period one or other of these forms became generalized. Examples of the former kind of levelling are : bāre, dāle, gāte, grā ve, lāte, smāle, tāme, whāle; cọle, họle loole, 3 ōke beside Orm's 30cc. And examples of the latter kind of levelling are: bak, bap, blak, bras, glad, glas, gras, pap, staf; brop, God, lok, \&c.
(5) The Formation of New Diphthongs in Me.
§ 104. One of the great characteristic differences between OE. and ME. is the monophthongization of the typical OE. diphthongs in ME. (§58), and the development of a large number of diphthongs of an entirely different type, the second element of which contained an $\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{y})$ or $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{w})$. Although late OE. had a small number of such diphthongs, e. g. dæi (Ken. dei) day, Ken. meiden beside older megden maiden, mēw, mēu seagull, gen. sā wle, sāule beside sāwol soul, cp. EOE. Gr. §79, the number became greatly increased through sound-changes which took place in early ME., especially the vocalization of intervocalic palatal and guttural 3, and the development of glides between a vowel and a following palatal and guttural $h(=x)$, written $h, 3$ or gh in ME.

In OE. the $-\mathbf{i}(\mathrm{y})$ and $\cdot \mathbf{u}(\mathrm{w})$ type of diphthong only occurred finally and before consonants, and this must also have been the case in the earliest ME. period, but already in early ME. diphthongs seem to have arisen before a following vowel through a change of syllabic division in the combination vowel +3 ( $=\mathbf{i}$-consonant) or $\mathbf{w}+$ vowel whereky the 3 or $\mathbf{w}$ was transferred from the second to the first syllable. When the first element was originally long it became shortened at the time the diphthong was formed. When such diphthongs are marked as long in ME. grammars the sign of length merely indicates that the first element was long before the formation of the diphthongs. It was very common, especially finally and before $n$, to write $\mathbf{y}$ for the second element of $\mathbf{i}$-diphthongs and $\mathbf{w}$ for the second element of u-diphthongs. The new diphthongs which arose in ME. were all falling diphthongs. On the other hand the Kentish diphthongs of the ME. period which arose from the OE. falling diphthongs ēa, īo (ēo) were rising diphthongs, see §§ 63, 67.
§ 105. The formation of new diphthongs in ME. was mainly due to the following causes :-

1. Intervocalic and final postvocalic $\mathbf{w}$ combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the u-tvpe in the first half of the twelfth century.
2. The vocalization of palatal and guttural 3 to $i$ - and $u$ consonant respectively. In the former case the $i$-consomant combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the i -type, and in the latter case a diphthong of the u-type was formed. The vocalization of palatal 3 to i -consonant took place already in late OE. after palatal vowels finally and before consonants, and in early ME. also medially between vowvels. The medial guttural $;$ began to become $\mathbf{w}$ after back vowels before the end of the twelfth century and then later it combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the u-type.
3. A great many of the ME. diphthongs arose from the development of a glide betwreen a vowel and a following palatal and guttural $h(=x)$ in the thirteenth century. In the former case the glide eventually became $i \cdot$ consonant, and in the latter u-consonant which combined with the preceding vowel to form diphthongs of the i- and u-type.

The new diphthongs which arose in the native element of the language in the early ME. period were:-ai, ei, au, $\rho_{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{eu}, \mathrm{qu}, \mathrm{ou}, \mathrm{iu}$. Through sound-changes which took place during the ME. period the number of diphthongs became somewhat reduced. The ei, of whatever origin, generally became ai about 1300 and thus fell together with old ai, although the ei was often retained in writing until a much later date. eu and iu fell together in iu about the end of the thirteenth century. In some dialects, e.g. Chaucer's, ou and qu feli together in qu in the early fourteenth century, but they did not fall together in all the dialects as is proved by their being still kept apart in many of the modern dialects, see ED. Gir. §§ 127-8, 166-8. To the above list of diphthongs may be added the qi, ui in French loan-words (§§ 208, 207).

## ai

§ 108. OE. $\mathfrak{\text { + palatal } g ( = 3 ) \text { became } æ i \text { partly in late }}$ OE. and partly in early ME, and then the æi became ai (§ 43), also written ay, as mai may (OE. mæg) he may, fai(e)r (OE. fæger) fair, hail (OE. hægl) hail, main (OE. mægen) power, saide (OE. sægde) he said, and similarly brain, dai (gen. sing. and the new nom. pl. daies dayes formed direct from the singular), fain, pret. lai, maiden, nail, snail, tail ; pp. said, slain.

Note.- In some parts of the North, Midlands, and the South a became ai before sch in the thirtcenth century, as aische (OE. msce, asce) ashes, waischen (OE. wascan) to wash, and the ai is
still preserved in some of the north Midland and south-western dialects down to the present day (ED. G): § 27).

## ei

§ 107. Early ME. ei, also written ey, was of various origins, and in most cases it became ai, also written ay, about 1300 .

1. From OE.e + palatal $\mathrm{g}(=3$ ), as wei (OE. weg) way, pp. lezen leizen lei(e)n ley(e)n (OE. legen) lain, plezen pleizen pleien (OE. plegian) to play, and similarly eie awe, rein beside Southern rẹ̣n (WS. rēn), seil sail, pp. sei(e)n sey(e)n (Anglian gesegen) seen, weien to weigh; leiest, leip, pret. leide beside Southern lệde (WS. lēde), pp. leid laid, The ME. northern and Midland infinitives leyen (lei, lai) and seyen (seyn, sei, sai) beside the southern regular forms leggen, seggen were new formations made from the second and third persons singular leyest, leip and seyest, seip, and similarly the first pers. singular, the regular forms of which would be legge (OE. lecge), segge (OE. secge).
2. From Ken. $\mathbf{e}+$ palatal $3=$ WS. $æ+$ palatal 3 (§ 43 ), as dei day, lei he lay, meiden, seide he said.
3. From Ken. $\mathbf{e}+$ palatal $\}=$ WS. $\mathbf{y}+$ palatal $\boldsymbol{3}$ (§ 49), as reie (Ken. rege, WS. ryge) rye, and similarly beien beyen to luy (see leyen above).
4. From late OE. e (= early WS. ea) +h or ht (§ 28), as eiste eighte (early WS. eahta) eight, and similarly feight he fought, leighter laughter, pret. seiz seigh (Chaucer also say) he saw, streight straight.
5. From OE. æ̈ or ēa + palatal g (=3), as clei cley (OE. clǣg) clay, neien (OE. hñ̄̈gan) to neigh; dreiz he endured, and similarly ei ey cgg, eiper either, grei, kei key key, pret. pl. leien they lay, seien (OE. sæ̈®gon) they saw, weie weighingmacline, whei whey, cp. § 35.
6. Late OE. ę, of whatever origin, $+\mathbf{g}(=3)$ or $\mathbf{h}$ (written $\mathrm{h}, 3, \mathrm{gh}$ in ME.) had various developments in ME. which
were due partly to the position of the 3 and $h$ in the word, partly to difference of dialect, and partly to new formations through levelling out in different directions:-

When the ẹs stood before a following vowel at the time of the formation of diphthongs it generally became ei in the North and Midlands, but $\bar{i}$, mostly written $y$, through the intermediate stage ī3 in some parts of the Midlands, especially the south Midlands including the dialect of Chaucer, and the South, but the modern dialects show that the i did not occur in the north Midlands, otherwise it would have become ai whereas they have i from older ee in words of this type. Examples are:-M. deien, S. dien dȳen (late OE. dēgian) to dye ; eie, $\overline{\mathrm{y}}$ (late OE. ēge, § 35) eye; fleien, flyyen (late OE. fiēgan) to fly, and similarly deien, dyen to die; dreie, drỳe tedious, dree; fleie, flỳe fly; leien, lỳen to tell lies; pret. pl. seien, sỳen they savo, from which was formed a new sing. sy beside the regular form seih, seiz (late OE. seh) ; teien, tȳen to tie ; wreien (cp. NE. be-wray), wrȳen to accuse. Cp. § 118.

Note.-In some parts of the North, Midlands, and the South e, of whatever origin, became ei before sch in the thirteenth century, as fleisch flesh (cp. § 97), freisch fresh, neisch tender, preischen to thresh, which has been preserved in some dialects down to the present day, see Index to $E^{\prime} D . G$ :
§108. In the northern and north Midland dialects the ể in the above and similar forms had come to stand finally through early loss of the following syllable. These dialects accordingly had ę̧ ( = ẹ̀x, generally written ẹgh), and later è with loss of the gh in pronunciation in the first half of the fourteenth century, as dệgh to dyc, ẹgh cye, fiẹ̆gh to Лly, lẹ̆gh he licd, later dẹ, ẹ, fiẹ, lẹ̀ which have regularly bocome dī, $\bar{i}$, fil, lid in the modern dialects of this area. But when the following vowel was preserved these dialects also had ei, like the Midland, as eien eies eyes, fleies he flies, leies he tells lics,
\&c. And then new formations often took place through levelling out in different directions, as flei formed from fleies, and flẹghes formed from flệgh; \&c.
§ 109. Medially before consonants and finally late OE. ęh (cp. $\S \S 35,38$ ) generally became eih, mostly written eigh, in the dialects south of the Humber, and then later igh in some of the southern dialects. When the ei came to stand before vowels through the addition of inflexional endings it became i. Regular forms were e.g. heigh (mod. n. Midl. dialects ei) ligh beside pl. hie, and then through levelling out in both directions either the ei- or the i-form, usually the latter, became generalized, as in Chaucer hïgh hȳ beside heigh, nïgh nỳ beside neigh (mod. n. Midl. dialects nei) nigh, near, and similarly slīgh slỳe slȳ beside sleigh (ON. slögr), pīgh beside peigh, heighte (mod. n. Midl. dialects eit) beside histe highte due to the influence of high.

In the northern and some of the north Midland dialects the ệh (generally written ệgh) remained in the above and similar forms, as pệh pệgh (mod. dialects pī) thigh.

## au

§ 110. ME. au, also written aw, was of various origins:-

1. From OE. antevocalic $a+w$ or $f(=v)$, as awel aul awl (OE. awul, awel) avl, clawe clau claw (late OE. clawu beside the regular nom. clēa), strau straw, formed from the OE. inflected forms like gen. strawes, and similarly rau raw; bawen (OE. bawian) to thaw; hawek later hauk (OE. hafoc), nauger (OE. nafogār) auger.
2. From OE. $\bar{a}+w$ in the dialects north of the Humber, as blawe blau (OE. blāwan) to blow, snau (OE. snāw) snow, auper (OE. āwper) either, and similarly crawe crau to crow, knawe knau to know, saule soul, slau slow. See § $113,1$.
3. From OE. $a+$ guttural $g(=3)$, as drawen (OE. dragan) to draw, pl. dawes (OE. dagas) beside daies, formed from
the sing. dai day, hawe (OE. hagu) haw, and similarly gnawen, lawe law, mawe stomach, sawe $a$ saw, pp. slawen from OE. slagen beside slain from slægen.
4. From OE. $\bar{a}+$ guttural $g(=3)$ in the dialects north of the Humber, as āzen awe (OE. àgan) to possess, a wen auen aun (OE. āgen) own, sawen (OE. sāwon) they saw from which was formed the singular saw, prawe (OE. prāg) space of time.
5. From Anglian æ (§ 43) = WS. ea before $h$ and $h t$, as saugh (Angl. sæh, WS. seah) he saw, faught (Angl. fæht, WS. feaht) he fought, and similarly aughte eight, laughter, maught might, naught night, straught straight, straughte he stretched. But the northern dialects did not develop a glide before $h$ and ht , as sa3 sagh, a3te aghte, fa3t faght, la3ter laghter, ma3t maght, na3t naght, sla3ter slaghter.
6. From late OE. æ (§ 48), a, older $\bar{æ}$, $\overline{\text { a }}$ before ht , as aught (OE. āht) aught, anything, rauzte raughte (OE. ræ̈hte, rāhte) he reached, and similarly tauzte taughte he taught, naust naught naught, nothing.

Notr.-A new au arose in late ME. through the development of a glide between a and a following $1+$ consonant. This glide eventually became full u-consonant, and then combined with the preceding a to form the diphthong au, as aull all, faull(e) to fall, haulf half, taulk(e) to talk, see ENE. Gr. § 102.

## ęu

§ 111. ME. ęu, also written ęw, was of various origins :-

1. From OF. 六 and ēa (§ 83 ) $+\mathbf{w}$, as slęupe (OE. slǣw) slolh, dęu dęw (OE. dēaw) dew, fęwe fęu (OE. fēawe) few, hęwen hęu (OE. hēawan) to hew, and similarly pret. ręu he rued, schęwen to show, pęu bęw custom. For the falling diphthong in the above and similar words Ken. also had a rising diphthong, writton yau, eau (eaw), as dyau, sseawy to show, see § 63.
2. From OE. ěow, as ęwe (OE. eowe) ewe, sęwen sęu (OE. seowian) to sew, stręwen (OE. streow(i)an) to strew.
3. From OE. antevocalic e $+\mathbf{f}(=v)$, as ęwte older evete (OE. efete) newt.

Note. - In a few words the OE. éa became a rising diphthong eâ which in ME. became $\bar{a}$ (later $\bar{q} \S 51$ ) by absorption of the first element. This gave rise to double forms like schowen beside schęwen to show ; and similarly with eów beside éow in sqwen, strǫwen beside sęwen, stręwen.

## ẹu

§112. The chief sources of eu, also written ẹw, are: OE. ēow (cp. § 65), and the Non-WS. ēow, iow = WS. iew (§ 86). The ẹu became iu about 1300 and thus fell together with iu from OE. iw (§ 116), although the eu was mostly retained in writing, but was also sometimes written iw, as briwen, \&c.

1. From OE. ēow, as brẹwen brẹu (OE. brēowan) to brew, and similarly chẹwen chẹu to chow, rẹwen rẹu to reu; pret. of the old reduplicated strong verbs (§ 414), as blẹu blẹw (OE. blēow) he blew, and similarly grẹu, knẹu, prẹu.
2. From Non-WS. io (ēo) $+\mathbf{w}=\mathrm{WS}$. ie $+\mathbf{w}$, as nẹwe niwe (Non-WS. niowe, nēowe) ncw, and similarly clẹwe clew, hẹu hẹw hẹwe hue, rẹupe ruth, trẹwe true, trẹwen to trow.

For forms like bruwen, ruwen, bluwe blwe blew, knuwe knwe kncw, huwe hwe hue, nuwe nwe new, truwe trwe trw true in the southern and west Midland dialects see § 65.

Note. --1. In a few words OE. initial ēow became a rising diphthong, as zou (OE. acc. ēow) you, zower zour (OF. ēower) your, and then later the 3 ou- became $3 \overline{\mathrm{u}}$-, although the old spelling was generally preserved.
2. In some words OF. medial éow became a rising diphthong eốw which in ME. became ou (ow) by absorption of the first element. This often gave rise to double forms in ME., as chọwen
beside chewen, and similarly fower foure four, rowen to me, trowen, troupe truth. For the later change of ou to $q u, \mathrm{cp}$. $\S 114,1$, and for the further change of qu to au in some dialects, as fauer faur, trawpe traupe, see § 113 note.

## Qu

§ 113. ME. Qu, also written 9 W , was of various origins:-

1. ME. $\bar{q}+\mathbf{w}=O E . \bar{a}+\mathbf{w}$ in the dialects south of the Humber (§ 5l), as blowen (OE. blāwan) to llow, sngw (OE. snāw) snovo, sǫwle sqृule (OE. sāwol, gen. sāwle) soul, and similarly crowe crow, cropwen, knowen, mowen, quper eilhcr; nquper neither, slow, rqwe row, sowen, prowen.
2. From OE. ot guttural $g(=3)$, as bque, bowe (OE. boga) bow, pp. flowen flǫu(e)n (OE. flogen) flown, pl. trowes (OE. trogas) troughs.
3. From early ME. $\bar{q}+3=0 \mathrm{O}$. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}+$ guttural $\mathrm{g}(=3)$ in the dialects south of the Humber (§ 51), as qwen (OE. āgan) to possess, qwen (OE. adj. āgen) own, prǫwe (OE. prāg) time, period; lqwe (O. Icel. lāgr) low.
4. From OE. $0+h$ or ht, as trqus trough (OE. troh, trog) trough, dǫuster doughter (OE. dohtor) daughter; pp. fousten foughten (OE. fohten) fought, and similarly pret. wroughte (but west Midland warhte wrahte), pp. wroqught.
5. From ōht which was shortened to oht during the OE. period, as qust qught (OE. ōht, oht) anything, pret. brouste, brqughte (OE. brōhte, brohte) he brought, pp. brquit brøught (OE. brōht, broht), and similarly nought naught, soughte, sought ; poughte, pought.

Note.-The $\overline{0} u$ in 1. became au in some dialects, especially in the Kentish and parts of the n., nw. and w. Midland in the fourteenth century; and the qu in 2. also became au in the $n w$. Midland. Examples are: blawe(n) to blow, knawe(n) to know, saule (Ken. zaule) soul, snau snow, brawe(n) to throw, \&c.; bawe bow, flawe(n) flown, \&c. See § 114, 1.

## p̣u

§ 114. ou, also written ow, was of various origins :-

1. From OE. $\bar{\sigma}+\mathbf{w}$, as blọwen (OE. blōwan) to bloom, blossom, flowen (OE. flōwan) to flow, and similarly glowen, grọwen, lọwen to low, rọwen, stọwe place. In some dialects, e. g. Chaucer's dialect, the ou became ou in the early part of the fourteenth century, and thus fell together with the quin in 113 , but they did not fall together in all the dialects as is evidenced by many of the modern dialects which still keep them apart. In the north and north-west Midlands, for example, the ou has become ou (fiqu, grou, \&c.), but the qu has become qa, $\bar{q}$ (kropa crow, nęa to know, \&c.) from older au, see § 113 and note.
2. From OE. $\bar{o}+$ final guttural $\cdot \mathrm{h}(=-x)$ and medial guttural $\cdot \mathrm{g} \cdot\left(=\cdot 3^{\circ}\right.$ ), cp. EOE. Gr. § 172 . It is necessary to distinguish between the final and the medial position, because the development in ME. was not the same in both cases :-
(a) Final ōh regularly became oouh (also written -ou3, -ough) which later became -qugh as in 1 . above, as bọugh (OE. bōh) bough, inọugh (OE. genōh) enough, bọugh (ON. *pōh) though, and similarly drough he drew, lough he laughed, plọugh, slọugh he slew, tọugh, \&c.
(b) Medial antevocalic -ōj- became ọu, also written -ow•, which then became - $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, although the -ou-, ow. were retained in writing through the influence of the Anglo-Norman system of orthography ( $\S 9$ ), as pl. bowes (OE. bōgas) boughs, drowen (OE. drōgon) they drew, and similarly lowen they laughecd, plowes ploughs, slowen they slew, \&c. Cp. § 120.
(c) Then new uninflected forms were often made by levelling out the ou (ow) $=\bar{u}$ of the inflected forms, as bow beside bough, drou drow beside drough, inou inow beside inough, plow beside plough, slow beside slough, \&c.
§115. The combinations ōh and .0̄3. had an entirely different development in the dialects north of the Humber. Here as in the paragraph above it is also necessary to distinguish between the final and the medial position :-
(a) Final -ōh, generally written -0̣3, -ọgh, remained until about the end of the thirteenth century, and then became - $\mathrm{Ggh}\left(=\mathbb{Z}_{\mathrm{X}}\right)$, although the old spelling was mostly preserved, see § 55, as bōgh, enōgh, plōgh, slögh he slew, \&c.
(b) Medial $\cdot \overline{0} 3$. became uiu through the intermediate stage óu (cp. §55) and was generally written ou (ow), and then in the fifteenth century the uiu became iu by the unrounding of the first element, and was generally written ew (cp. § 116), as pl. bowes, enowe, plowes, slowen, \&c., later bewes, enewe, plewes, slewen, \&c.
(c) Then new uninflected forms were often made by levelling out the ew ( $=\mathrm{iu}$ ) of the inflected forms, as bew, enew, plew, slew, beside the older forms bōgh, \&c.
iu
§ 116. The chief source of early ME. iu (written iw) is OE. $\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{w}$, as sniwen (OE. sniwan) to snow, spiwen (OE. spiwan) to spew, vomit, stiward (OE. stīweard older stig. weard) steward, Tiwesdai (OE. Tiwes dæg) Tuesday. But after eu had become iu about the end of the thirteent! century (§ 112) the iw came to be written ew in the above and similar words, as snewen, spewen, steward, Tewesdai.
§ 117. In the southern dialects of the south-western area $\bar{e}, \tilde{q}$ initially and after initial $h$. became the rising diphthongs $3 \bar{e}, w \bar{q}$, written $3 e \cdot y e \cdot$, wo-, who-, in the latter part of the fourteenth century, as 3 ęr yęr beside ęre ear in the other dialects, and similarly ję̨rb yę̨rb herb, 3ęsi yę̨si easy, jęven yęven even; whǫl beside hǫl, hāl sound, whole, in the other dialects, wọld beside ǫld, āld old in the other dialects, and
similarly whọ̀m home, whột hot, wọn onc, wộtes oats. And the rising diphthongs in the above and similar words have been preserved in the modern dialects of this area, see Index to $E D$. $G r$.
(6) The Monophthongization of ME. Diphthongs.
§118. In parts of the Midlands, especially the south Midlands, and the South, early ME. antevocalic ệ\} became $\overline{1}$ (mostly written y) through the intermediate stage is in the second half of the thirteenth century, see $\S 107,6$, as ie, $\overline{\text { y }}$ e (late OE. ēge older ēage) cyc, flīen, fiȳen (OE. flēogan, Anglian flēga(n)) to fly, dien, dỳen (late OE. dēgian) to dye, and similarly dien to die, sien they saw, tien to tie, \&c.
§119. Final and anteconsonantal eigh from OE. ēh became igh in some of the southern dialects, see § 109, as high beside heigh high, and similarly hïghte leight, nigh nigh, near, slīgh sly.
§120. In the dialects south of the Humber ME. antevocalic ọu from OE. $\bar{o}_{3}$ - became $\bar{u}$, written ou, ow ( $\S 9$ ) in the second half of the thirteenth century, see § 114, 2 (b), as pl. bowes (OE. bōgas) boughs, and similarly pl. inowe enough, drowen they drew, plowes ploughs, slowen they slew, \&c.
§ 121. In many Scotlish dialects, e. g. Barbour's dialect, the diphthongs ai, oi, ui (=Anglo-Norman ui for older oi), of whatever origin, became $\bar{a}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}$ in the latter part of the fourteenth century, although the ai, oi, ui were very often retained in writing. This led to the i being regarded as the sign of long vowels, and then old long vowels also came to have i written after them to indicate that they were long, as mair $=$ mãr more, seik $=$ sệk sick, boik buik = bük book (§ 55). Examples are : fär beside fair (OE. fæger, § 106) fair, hāl beside hail (OE. hagol) hail, mā beside mai (OE. mæg) he may, rāss beside raiss (ON. reisa) to raisc, trātour
beside traitour ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. acc. traitor), chọ̄ss beside choiss (O.Fr. chois) choice, jọ̄ beside joi (O.Fr. joie) joy, vọ̄ce beside voice, pūnt beside puint point, pūsoune beside puisoune (mod, northern dialects puizn) poison.
(7) Fusion.
§ 122. Fusion arose from the merging together of OE. $\bar{y}(=\hat{\mathrm{u}})+$ palatal 3 and $\overline{\mathrm{u}}+$ guttural 3 after the 3 had been vocalized to $\mathbf{i}$ - and $\mathbf{u}$-consonant (cp. §105,2). The fusion of $\frac{1}{1}+3$ took place partly in late OE. and partly in early ME., but the fusion of $\check{\bar{y}}+3$ and $\check{u}+3$ did not take place until the early ME. period. Examples are :-
3. OE. $\mathbf{i}+3$ became $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$, also written $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$, as nine (OE. nigon) ninc, liest lyest (OE. ligest) thou liest doon, and similarly stī pig-sty, stīle stile, tile tile.
4. OE. $\bar{i}+3$ became $\bar{i}$, as stīen stȳen (OE. stigan) to ascend, wi (OE. wig) battle, and similarly Fridai Friduy, hīen hȳen to hie, hasten; twïes (OE. twi้ga + adverbial gen. ending ees), Orm twigess twiggess twice, and similarly pries thrice.
5. OE. y $(\S 49)+3$ became uii, $i$, as lüie, lie, lỳe (OE. lyge) a lic, and similarly büiest, biest, bȳest thou buyest, rüie, rie, rȳe rye.
6. OE. $\overline{\mathrm{y}}(\S 57)+3$ became uii, $\bar{i}$, as drüie, drie, drȳe (OE. drȳge) dıy, büien, bien (OE. bīegan, later bȳgan, bigan) to bend.
7. OE. $u+3$ became $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$, later written ou , ow (§ $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ), as pl . mouen, mowen (OE. *mugon) they may, fuel, fou(e)l (OE. fugol) bird, fowl, and similarly 'sūp 3oup youth, sow(e) (OE. sugu) sow.
8. OE. $\overline{\mathbf{u}}+3$ became $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$, later written $\mathrm{ou}, \mathrm{ow}$, as būen bouen bowen (OE. būgan) to bend, bow, trūen trouen trowen (OE., Anglian tragian) to trust.
(8) Other Dependent Changes.
§123. The initial wur- in the late OE. combination wur + consonant from older wyr + consonant (EOE. Gr . §63) was generally written wor- in ME., as worchen, wurchen (early OE. wyrcan) to work, and similarly worm, wurm; worse, wurse; wort, wurt root.
§124. The initial combination wim- became wum- (also written wom.) in early ME., as wum(m)an (OE. wimman older wifman) zoman, although the old writing with wimwas often retained.
§ 125. In those parts of the country where OE. y remained in early ME. (§ 49) the $\ddot{u}$ about the beginning of the thirteenth century became $\mathbf{u}$ (often written $\mathbf{o}, \S \boldsymbol{9}$ ) before $\mathrm{s}(=\mathbf{s c h})$, tš ( $=$ ch in chin), ltš, ntš, and $\mathrm{dž}(=$ the $\mathbf{j}$ in just), as bluschen (OE. blyscan) to blush, crucche (OE. crycc) crutch, muchel later much(e) (OE. mycel) much, unche beside inche (OE. ynce) inch, cuggel (OE. cycgel) cudyel, and similarly rusche, prusche, wusch wish ; clucchen, kuchen kitchen, swuche later suche, whuch which; brugge bridge, rugge ridge.
§126. The $\ddot{u}$ in the above area also became $u$ in the neighbourhood of consonants which favoured rounding, viz. after labials and sch, before $\mathbf{r}$ and especially between such sounds as burpen burden (OE. byrpen) burden, churche (OE. cyrice, cirice) church, gurdel (OE. gyrdel) girdle, schuttel (OE. scytel) shuttle, and similarly churn, hurdel, hurst copse, schutten, \&c., see Luick, Hist. Gr. § 397.
§127. Before and after certain consonants e became i in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries in the North and some parts of the Midlands, especially the east and southenst Midlands, as bripren (mod. dialects briঠa(r)z) beside brepren, and similarly brist lreust, bristen to burst, zit yet, linp(e) length (cp. § 283), prist priest (cp. § 97), rist (mod.
dialects rist, rust) rest, strinp(e) strength (cp. § 263), togidre together (cp. § 98).
§ 128. Postconsonantal wQ from OE. wā (§ 51) became wọ in a great part of the Midlands in the thirteenth century, as twọ (OE. twā) two, whọ (OE. hwā) who, and similarly swọ̣pen to sweep, swọ̄t sweat, wọ̄mb (cp. § 72).
§ 129. ME. e, of whatever origin, became a before r belonging to the same syllable in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, although the e was very often retained in writing, as marre (OE. merran) to mar, starte (ON. sterta) to start, and similarly harvest, yard rod, staff; farre older ferre (OE. feorr) far, and similarly dark, harte heart, starre stur, starve to die ; darling (early OE. dēorling, later deorling), and similarly farping, starbord; parsoun ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. persone) person, parson, and similarly sarve to serve, sarvise, warre war, \&c.
§ 130. ri in the combination consonant + ri + dental became ir (ur) in the early part of the fifteenth century, as bird burd beside older brid birl, birne to burn, birste to burst, beside burne, burste, Cursmas (mod. n. dialects kāsmas) beside older Cristes messe Christmas, dirt durt, older drit, pirde purde, older pridde (OE. pridda) third.
§131. During the ME. period i was probably lowered in closed syllables, especially before and after labials, liquids, and nasals, to a mid-mixed-narrow vowel like the $e$ in German gabe. It was often written e, especially in the Midland and northern dialects, and in some dialects it became a full mid-front-wide vowel like the ein standard NE. set, as is shown by its development in the modern dialects, e.g. in the south of Scotland, n.Nhb., n.Cum., Dor. and w.Som., see ED. Gr. § 68. Examples are: bigenne(n) to begin, fenger, leppis lips, reng ring, sweftli, wekked wicked, welle will, wemmen women. What is written i often rhymes with e from the thirteenth century onwards, as childre : eldre, stille : telle, \&c.
§132. e became $i$ during the ME. period before nk, ng, palatal ng (= ndž) and ntš, as pinken (OE. pencan) to think, flingen (ON. flengja) to fing, inglisch (OE. englisc) English, singen (OE. sengan) to singe, drinchen beside drenchen (OE. drencan) to drown, and similarly link, winge (ON. vǣngr) wing.
§ 189. The o which arose from older $\overline{9}$ before ng (§ 74) became $u$ (generally written $0, \S 9$ ) during the ME. period in the west Midland dialects, and the u-sound or its further development has been regularly preserved in the modern dialects of this area, and has even spread to other areas, see ED. Gr. §32. Examples are: amonge, long, mongere merchant, song, strong, tonge a pair of tongs, brong, wrong, of which amonge and mongere have crept into standard NE.

## CHAPTER IV

## THE ME. DEVELOPMENT OF THE OE. VOWELS OF UNACCENTED SYLLABLES

1. The Weakening of Vowels in Unaccented Syllables.
§ 134. One of the characteristic differences between OE. and ME. is the weakening of the OE. vowels to $e$ in unaccented syllables, and its eventual disappearance in most cases. The weakening of $a, o, u$ to e had begun to take place in late OE., and final il had already become ee in the seventh century. It is impossible to determine what was the precise quality of this e. In final syllables it must have been a kind of $\partial$-sound and have varied in quality according to the nature of the surrounding sounds something like the a in standard NE. china, cathedral. This no doubt accounts for its being sometimes written $i$, $u$. These variations in writing were common from the end of the thirteenth century; the $u$ was especially common in the
west Midland dialects and the $\mathbf{i}$ in the northern dialects. Examples in final syllables are :-
(a) When final, as sọ̄ne (OE. sōna) sonn, eizte (OE. eahta) cight, nom. sing. of masc. $n$-stems, as dogge (OE. dogga) clog, the ending of the gen. pl. of nouns and adjectives, as stǫne (OE. stāna), gọ̣dre (OE. gōdra), the comparative of adjectives, as gretter(e) (OE. grietra) greater, dat. sing. of $u$-stems, as sune ( OE . suna). Nom. sing. of wa-, wō-stems, as bāle (OE. bealu, oo) evil, schāde (OE. sceadu, -o) shadlow, nom. sing. of short $\overline{0}$-stems, as tāle (OE. talu) tale, number, nom. acc. sing. of short u-stems, as sune sone (OE. sunu) son; OE. gearu, o reurly. pl. gearwe regularly became 弓are, jarwe, and then from the latter was formed a new singular jaru, and similarly buru burrow, holu hollow, naru narrow, schadu shadow, soru sorror, © c., see § 241. Nom. sing. of masc. jastems, as ende ( $O E$. ende), nom. acc. sing. of short i -stems, as dę̀ne valley, spę̨re spear (OE. dene, spere), nom. sing. of fem. n-stems, as tunge (OE. tunge) tongue, nom. acc. pl. of strong adjectives, as blĭnde ( OE . blinde), \&c.
(b) In final syllables ending in a consonant, as nom. acc. pl. of masc. a-stems, as stọnes (OE. stānas), acc. gen. dat. sing. and nom . acc. pl. of masc. and fem. n -stems, as doggen (OE. doggan), tungen (OE. tungan), the inf. of strong and weak verbs, as helpen, dęlen, māken (OE. helpan, dälan, macian), ending of the second and third pers. sing. of the present of the second class of weak verbs, as mākest, mākep (OE. macast, macap), the ending of the pres. plural of strong and reak verbs, as helpep, mãkep (OE. helpap, maciap). hę̄ved later hę̣d (OE. hēafod) head, sadel (OE. sadol), brộper, mọ̄der (OE. brōpor, mōdor), superlative of adjectives gladest (OE. gladost), pp. of the second class of weak verbs, as māked (OE. macod) made, the pret. pl. of strong and weak verbs, as bounden, mākeden (OE. bundun, -on, macodun, on), the dat. pl. of nouns and
adjectives, stọ̄nen, tungen, blînden (early OE. stānum, tungum, blindum, late OE. -un, -on, -an § 259), here the ending en mostly disappeared in early ME.
From the examples given in $(a)$ and $(b)$ it will be seen that the OE. stem-formative or inflexional endings $\cdot a, \cdot$ an, $\cdot$ as, -ast, -ap; -ol, -on, -or, -ost ; -u, -um (see § 258), un all became in ME. .e, -en, -es, eest, -ep; -el, -en, -er, -est; -e, -en.
(c) In medial syllables, as gen. sing. hevenes (OE. heofones), pret. sing. māked(e), pl. māked(en) (OE. macode, macodun, •on), \&c.
2. The Development of ME. Svarabhakti Vowels in Final Syllables.
§135. In late OE. or early ME. the vocalic nasals and 1 developed an e before them and then became consonantal, as bọ̄sem (OE. bōsm) bosom, hasel (OE. hæsl) hazel shrub, sweven (OE. swefn) dream, and similarly blossem, botem, hūsel Eucharist, setel seat, tọ̄ken token, \&c.
§ 138. Final eels became eles, as birieles berieles bürieles ( OE . byrgels) tomb, and similarly rẹ̃cheles rệkeles incense, rę̨deles rệdeles riddle, \&c.
§ 137. In late OE. and early ME. a vowel was developed between $\mathbf{r}$ and a following gutteral spirant, as ME. nom. sing. burus (OE. burug, buruh beside burg, burh), inflected form burowe (with $\mathbf{w}$ from older 3 , § 105), from which a new nom. sing. burough was formed, and similarly furough, holough hollow, marough marrow, sorgw(e) sorrov, \&c., cp. EOE. Gr. § 102.

## 3. Tee Weakening of Vowels in Syllables with

 a Secondary Accent.§ 198. The vowel in suffixal and derivative syllables was generally weakened to e just as in the inflexional syllables, but in some suffixal and derivative syllables which had
a secondary accent the vowel was not weakened to $e$. This was especially the case with derivatives in dŏm, èr(e) (denoting nomina agentis), fast, fø̨̄ld (-fâld), ful, -họ̄de (-hę̀de), -i (older -i $=0 \mathrm{E}$. -ig), -ing, -isch, lę̨s (OE. lēas), -lǐche, -ling, -lok (OE. lăc), -schipe, -sum, -ung, and -ward. The long vowels in the above were shortened during the ME. period. Examples are:-
kinedǒm, wisdŏ̌m; bākě̌re (OE. bæcê̌re), drinkêr(e) (OE. drincěre) ; stę̆defast (OE. stedefæst) ; Orm ānfald (OE. änfeald) ; pankful (OE. pancfull) ; chïldhọ̀de, •hę̀de (OE. cildhād) ; bodi, hǫli hāli (OE. bodig, hālig), hę̣ring (OE. hēring) herring, englisch (OE. englisc), faderlę̆s, họ̀mlẹ̆s (OE. fæederlēas, hămlēas) ; hevenlǐ̌ch(e) (OE. heofonlic) heavenly; schilling (OE. scilling); wedlobk (OE. wedlāc) ; frendschipe (OE. frě̌ondscipe); langsum longsum (OE. langsum) tedious; chęppung (OE. cēapung) trading; afterward (OE. æfterward).

The OE. ending ende of the present participle became -and(e) in the North (probably of ON. origin, O.Icel. ande), -end(e) in the Midlands, but ind(e) in the south-west Midlands, and -ind(e) in the South, as helpand(e), helpend(e), helpind(e) helping.

## 4. The Loss of Final ee.

§ 139. The loss of final ee took place at various periods and under various conditions, e.g. it ceased to be pronounced much earlier in the North than in the South, and much earlier in unaccented than in accented words, but it is only possible to fix approximate dates for its loss. This is in a great measure due to the laxity in the metrical construction of much of the ME. poetry and to the great conservatism exhibited by some of the best poets. The importance attached to metre and rhyme is sometimes exaggerated. What the student of the English language wants to know is not so much what poets like Orm, Chaucer, Barbour, \&c.,
wrote in their metre, as how they actually pronounced their words in speaking. Good metre is always a valuable auxiliary aid in helping to confirm results which have been arrived at by other means, but when it is used as the chief or sole means for arriving at results, we are merely making use of what might be called letter-language instead of spoken language.
§ 140. In treating the history of final ee in ME. it is important to remember that a large number of ME. words have a final e which did not belong to such words in OE., the e of the inflected forms having been levelled out into the uninflected forms, as bāre (OE. bær, pl. bare), bride (OE. brȳd), chępe ( OE. cēap), cǫle (OE. col, gen. coles), lǫre (OE. lār), nę̣dle nẹ̄dle (OE. nǣdl, nēdl), sệke (OE. sēoc) sick, tide (OE. tid), \&c., see § 103. This final ee had the same further development in ME. as in words with final ee from OE. -a, ee, -o, -u.
§ 141. The final -e disappeared or rather ceased to be pronounced earlier in dissyllabic forms with a short stemsyllable than in those with a long stem-syllable, as in bitẹ (OE. bite) bite, bit, sunẹ sonẹ (OE. sunu), beside nę̇dle nẹ̃lle, tide. In both categories of words the ee continued to be written long after it had ceased to be pronounced. In late ME. the e in dissyllabic forms with a short stemsyllable was generally omitted in writing, as in bit, son, but in dissyllabic forms with a long stem-syllable it was generally retained in writing to indicate that the preceding vowel was long. It ceased to be pronounced earliest in the Scottish and northern dialects, later in the Midland dialects, and latest of all in the southern dialects, especially the Kentish dialect. In all the dialects it disappeared in pronunciation earlier in nouns and verbs than in adjectives, and earlier in the strong than in the weak declension of adjectives.

In the Scottish and northern dialects it had ceased to be
pronounced in all forms by about the middle of the thirteenth century.

In the Midland dialects it had ceased to be pronounced in all forms by about the middle of the fourteenth century, but the loss of final ee in pronunciation began in some parts of this large area at a much earlier date. Already in the Ormulum (about 1200) it was often unpronounced when the next word in the same sentence began with a vowel, in the dat. sing. of strong nouns and adjectives, and in the imperative singular of verbs. In the poetry of the fourteenth century it had become optional to retain or omit the final -e in most forms. But the full process of its loss in pronunciation was not completed until about one hundred years later than in the Scottish and northern dialects.

As Chaucer ( $1340-1400$ ) is by far the most important ME. poet it will be useful to give here a brief summary of his retention and omission of the final ee. It should, however, be remembered that he was a very conservative poet, and that consequently his metrical forms are no sure guarantee of how he actually pronounced such forms in his spoken language. In his poetry the final ee was generally pronounced in dissyllabic forms with a long stem-syllable at the end of the line, but was often not pronounced in other positions. It was not pronounced in the following categories of forms:-In the pp. of strong verbs when the final $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ had disappeared, as comẹ, drivẹ, stọlee ; in the second pers. sing. of the preterite of strong verbs, as bệrẹ, tộkẹ, \&c.; in nouns with a short stem-syllable, as sonẹ, wonẹ custom, and also in the dat. singular of such nouns. It was generally pronounced in the following categories:-In the plural of attributive adjectives, and in the infinitive of verbs, as bęre, māke. It was sometimes pronounced and sometimes omitted in the following categories:-It was often omitted in the present indicative and the imperative, more seldom in the present subjunctive, and sometimes in the syncopated
forms of the singular and plural of the preterite of weak verbs. It was omitted in nouns with a short stem-syllable, but rarely in nouns with a long stem-syllable. In the dat. singular of nouns ending in a consonant it was generally omitted in pronunciation. It was often unpronounced in the singular of the weak declension of adjectives.

In the southern dialects the final -e ceased to be pronounced in all forms in the second half of the fourteenth century.
§ 142. The loss of final ee in trisyllabic forms can only be partially treated here as we shall have to return to it when dealing with ee- in medial syllables (§§ 153-4). It began to disappear in early ME. when the first syllable was long and the second syllable had a secondary accent, but the secondary accent in the second syllable remained longer in some types of words than in others, and in poetry the final -e often continued to be pronounced until the fifteenth century, whence such double forms as frendschipe, heizliche lighly, siknesse, pl. wurpie worthy, beside frendschip, hei3lich, sikness, wurpi. This explains why the final ee disappeared so early in the inflected forms of dissyllabic adjectives, as pl. 1ęred learnell, wurpi. The ee regularly remained in early ME. in verbs of the type lovẹde (OE. lufode), cp. § 153, but in verbs of the type mākede (OE. macode) it only remained for a time through the influence of dissyllabic preterites like dẹ̀mde (OE. dēmde) he judged, hêrde (OE. hīerde, hērde) he heard, cp. § 153.

## 5. The Loss of e in Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

§ 143. Endings like es, ed were in some dialects written -is (-ys), -id (-yd), -us, -ud, see § 134, and Chaucer sometimes used these $i$-endings for the sake of rhyme.
§ 144 e disappeared in early ME. between a diphthong and a following liquid or nasal, as drawn beside older
drawen, drazen (OE. dragen) drawn, fain (OE. fægen) joyful, fair (OE. fæger) beautiful, seil(OE. segel, segl) sail, and similarly hail, fqur four, pp. lein lain, leir lair, main power, awn $q$ wn own, rein ruin, pp. slein slain, tail, wain wagon.
§ 145. e also disappeared in early ME. in the combination vowel $+\mathrm{e}+$ consonant, as foul from older fuwel fuzel (OE. fugol) bird, fool (§ 122), twis twice, pris thrice, beside older twies, pries.
§ 146. es. This ending occurs in the gen. sing. of the strong declension of nouns and adjectives and in the plural of nouns except the weak declension, in adverbial genitives, in the second and third pers. singular and the plural of the present in the northern dialects. In the northern and north Midland dialects the e began to be syncopated in the early part of the fourteenth century and this process was completely carried out by the end of the century, as dai(e)s, wai(c)s, clā\}(e)s; adv. ell(e)s else, $\overline{\text { Q }} \mathrm{ns}$ once; verbs, as cum(e)s com(e)s, bęrr(e)s, \&c. When unsyncopated forms are found after the above date in monuments belonging to the Scottish and northern dialects, they are due to the imitation of Chaucerian forms. The syncope in nouns and adjectives took place much later in the Midland and southern dialects.
§ 147. een. This ending occurs in the weak declension of nouss and adjectives, in the infinitive, in the past participle of strong verbs, in the present plural of the subjunctive, in the preterite plural of strong and weak verbs, and in the Midland dialects in the present plural of the indicative. The final $n$ in some of these categories disappeared during the OE. period in the northern dialects. The final $n$ also generally disappeared early in the southern dialects, but see § 247. After the loss of the final $-n$ the e also gradually disappeared. When preceded by a diphthong the e was regularly syncopated in the infinitive, as lein leyn to lay, sein seyn to say. It was also syncopated between $\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{n}$, and

1-n in the past participle of strong verbs, as bọ̀rn, tộrn, stō̄1n, and also between a diphthong and the n , as pp . slain slayn (OE. slægen) slain, see § 144.
§ 148. er. This ending chiefly occurs in the comparative of adjectives. The OE. ending was $\cdot \mathrm{ra}$. In passing from OE. to ME. the glide vowel e was developed between a preceding consonant and the $r$ which gave in early ME. the ending eere. And then the final -e disappeared, whence the ordinary ME. ending eer, as OE. grietra = ME. gretter, OE. brādra $=$ ME. brāder brō̃er; and similarly with the ending of the gen. plural of strong adjectives (OE. -ra), cp. Chaucer oure aller cok, alderbest, alderfirst.
§ 149. -est. This ending occurs chiefly in the superlative of adjectives, and corresponds to the OE. ending est(a), -ost(a). In ME. the ee- was never syncopated.
§ 150. est, eep. These endings occur in the second and third pers. sing. of the present indicative, for the plural ending eep, see below. Here a distinction must be made between the different dialects. In the OE. period syncope was general in the strong verbs in WS. and Kentish, but in the Anglian dialects the forms without syncope were almost entirely generalized. This distinction was also preserved in the ME. period, that is, syncope regularly took place in the southern dialects, but generally not in the Midland dialects, and not at all in the northern dialects. In the Midland dialects syncope was far more common after long than after short stems. Chaucer has double forms in the third pers. singular, as comp, mākp, lovẹp, beside comep, mākep, lovep. Syncope did not take place in any of the dialects in the second pers. sing. of the second class of weak verbs, as lovest, lộkest, OE. lufast, lōcast. The e in the ending -ep of the plural of the present indicative was never syncopated in the southern dialects.
§ 151. eed. This ending of the pp. of weak verbs corresponds to the OE. endings eed, od. The ed regularly
remained in ME., but there are many new formations which were formed direct from the ME. preterite. Regular forms were: māked (OE. macod), kīped (OE. cȳped) made known, węred (OE. wered) defended, \&c. New formations were: hĕ̌rd ( OE . hiered, hēred) : hĕrde, maad : māde, beside the regular form māked, clept : clepte, beside the regular form clęped.

## 6. The Development of ME. Svarabhakti Vowels in Medial Syllables.

§ 152. Many words which were dissyllabic in OE. became trisyllabic in ME. through the development of a glide vowel between a consonant and a following liquid, nasal or $\mathbf{W}$ :-

1. An e was developed about 1200 in the combination open voiced consonant +2 liquid or nasal in dissyllabic forms with shortening of a preceding long vowel, as breperen beside older brẹppren, pl. develes beside older dẹ̄vles, evere (OE. 尹̄fre) ever, slumeren to slumber.
2. An o was developed between a liquid and a following w from older 3 (§298), as borgwen beside older borzen (OE. borgian) to borrow, and similarly folowen, halewen to hallow, morgwe morrow.

## 7. The Loss or Retention of Medial and Final e in Trisyllabic Forms.

§ 153. It is necessary to distinguish between trisyllabic forms with a short stem-syllable and those with a long stemsyllable. When the stem-syllable was short the medial e regularly disappeared, and when it was long the final ee disappeared. This loss of the medial or final e began to take place in early ME. Examples with short stem-syllables are: panne ponne (OE. panone) thence, pl. fadres (OE. fæederas), gen. and dat. sing. watres, watre (OE. wæteres, wætere),
pl. devẹles, hevẹnes, pl. munkes monkes (OE. munecas) from which was formed a new singular munk monk, and similarly hemp, mint coin, \&c. The forms with syncope are very common in the Ormulum, as pl. effne beside sing. efenn, gaddrenn, nipprenn to lumble, oppnenn, wattrenn, gen. werrldess beside nom. werelld world, but even in the Ormulum we occasionally find new formations, especially in the preterite of weak verbs, as lufede, oppnede, \&c.; in fact forms of the type lufde were rare in ME., because the medial e was mostly preserved through the influence of the $e$ in the past participle. It should be noted that the medial e in preterites like havẹde ( $O E$. hæfde), livẹde ( $O E$. lifde) was never pronounced in the spoken language. Examples with long stem-syllable are : pl. helpers, maiden(e)s beside the new formation maidnes, pret. māked (OE. macode), lộked (OE. lōcode), but preterites of the type lộked, māked preserved the final ee for a time through the influence of dissyllabic preterites like dệmde, hĕrde, cp. § 142. During the ME. period the above sound-laws became to some extent obliterated through analogical formations in both directions. In the northern dialects the loss of the final ee in forms with a short stem-syllable became more general. In the southern dialects the loss of the medial $e$ in forms with a long stem-syllable became more general. In Chaucer double forms are sometimes found side by side, as wę̣rẹce beside wę̣red, clepte beside clę̣ped. The trisyllabic forms are very rare in late ME. poetry. .
§ 154. In trisyllabic forms containing a secondary accented syllable it is necessary to distinguish whether the secondary accent was on the second or on the third syllable. When it was on the second the final ee regularly disappeared, but when it was on the third the medial e disappeared. Examples of the former are: Ormulum allmess (OE. ælmesse) alms, laffdiz (OE. hlæ̈fdige) lady, frendschip, hei3lich, sikness, beside older frendschipe, \&c., see § 142. This explains
why adjectives like englisch, họ̄li, ristfull, wurpi, \&c., superlatives like fairest, hardest, derivatives in -ung, -ing, \&c., remained uninflected in the oblique cases. Examples of the latter are: Fridai (OE. Frigedæg), kindom (OE. cynedōm), neighbour older nehhebour (OE. nēahgebūr), quinstrẹe beside older quinestrẹ̀ quince-tree. This syncope of medial $e$ is not common in early ME., and in the Ormulum it does not take place at all, but at a later date numerous analogical formations are found.

## 8. The Treatment of Unaccented e in Polysyllabic Forms.

§ 155. In forms of the type $\dot{x} \times \dot{x} \times$ the medial e disappeared in the first instance and then with the loss of the secondary accent in the third syllable the final ee also disappeared, as mínchène (OE. mynecenu), later mínchen nun, hérbèrwe (OE. hereberge) later hérber harbour, inn, wébstère (OE. webbestre) with ee- due to the influence of webbere, later wébster female weaver, and similarly bakster, dáisi(e) daisy, minter, sempster, \&c. Preterites like gaderede, scaterede and those of the type answèrède, wítnèssède preserved the stronger secondary accent and had the endings -ede, -ed, -de apparently used indiscriminately.

## 9. The Treatment of Vowels in Prefixes.

§156. In the treatment of prefixes it is necessary to distinguish between original nouns and adjectives on the one hand, and verbs on the other. In OE. as in the other Old Germanic languages original nouns and adjectives containing a prefix had the principal accent on the prefix. This rule was preserved in ME. and accordingly the prefixes generally underwent no change, ep. after-ward (OE. æfter-weard), unfair (OE. unfæger), \&c. On the other hand in OE. as in the other old Germanic languages verbs containing an
inseparable prefix had the principal accent on the verbal element. This rule was slso preserved in ME. with the result that prefixes containing a long vowel in OE. were shortened in ME., as abiden, arisen $=O E$. ābīdan, ărīsan, to.bręken $=\mathrm{OE}$. tō-brecan to break to pieces. With the exception of OE. æt-, be-, ge-, of., on-, ond-, the prefixes containing a short vowel generally underwent no change in ME., as forbę̨ren (OE. forberan) to forbear, fulfillen (OE. fulfyllan) to fulfl, misliken (OE. mislician) to displcase, undọ̣n (OE. undōn) to undo. æt- became at-, as athālden, -họiden to withhold. be became bi., as bicumen (OE. becuman), bihāten (OE. behātan) to promise. ge- became i- (also written $\mathbf{y}$-) through the intermediate stages $3 \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{i}$. , as iholpen (OE. geholpen), inọugh (OE. genōg, genōh) enough, iwis (OE. gewiss) certain. of., on., ond became a., as adoun (OE. ofdūne) down, abirst (OE. ofpyrst) thirsty, abouten (OE. onbūtan) about, along (OE. ondlong, andlang) along.

## 10. The Treatment of Unaccented Words.

§ 157. This subject has been partly dealt with under the shortening of long vowels, see § 101, and we shall have to return to it when dealing with the pronouns and auxiliary verbs. By referring to Chapter XI of the EOE. Gr. it will be seen that many of the pronouns had double forms in OE., and similarly in ME. we also have accented beside unaccented forms, as wě, ŭs, năt, nơt beside naust, ṇ̨uzt, ăn, ă beside ăn, ōn. Final -e disappeared in early ME. in unaccented forms, as zes yes, sộn soon, pan (pen), whan (when), \&c., beside the accented forms zese, sọne, panne (penne), whanne (whenne), \&c.; in the inflected forms of words like ān, min, pīn, \&c., and also between 1 or $n$, and $s$ in final syllables, as els else, hens hence, sins since, whens whence, beside older elles, hennes, sinnes (sipnes),
whennes. The ee in the def. article often disappeared when the next word began with a vowel, as pende the end, pọ̣pre the other. This elision of the e has become generalized both before vowels and consonants in all the modern English dialects from Northumberland to Nottinghamshire, that is, it has become p (never ð) or $\mathbf{t}$, see ED. Gr. § 312.

## CHAPTER V

## THE SCANDINAVIAN AND F'RENCH ELEMENTS IN ME.

## 1. THE SCANDINAVIAN ELEMENT IN ME.

§ 158. This is a wide and important subject and at the same time a difficult sulject, because of the very large number of words which were entirely alike or nearly alike in the Old English and Old Scandinavian languages. And we should now be unable to tell from which language they came if we had no English records before the invasions of the Scandinavians took place. The consequence was that an Englishman in those days would have no greater difficulty in understanding a Viking than a Yorkshire dialect speaker would have in understanding a Sumersetshire peasant of to-day. And we even possess historical evidence that the old Scandinavians looked upon the English language as one with their own. In Chapter VII of the Saga of Gunnlaugr Ornslunga it is stated that there was at that time (eleventh century) 'the same tongue in England as in Norway and Denmark'.
§ 159. The Scandinavian loan-words found their way into English in different strata and at different periods, which in some measure accounts for the same word appearing in various forms in ME., as gauk, gqwk, gộk cuckoo,
laus, loqus, lộs loose, naut, nqut cattle, \&c. These periods may be conveniently divided into:-

1. From 787 to about 860 . During this period the invaders merely made raids for the sake of plunder, and no loan-words worth mentioning came into the language.
2. From 860 to about 990 . During this period a very large number of Scandinavians settled permanently in this country, and the foreign idiom was spoken over large tracts of the country.
3. From about 990 to 1016. This was a period of political conquest and of the importation of large numbers of loanwords into the language.
4. From 1013 to 1042 England was entirely under Danish rule. During this period English was spoken at Court, and by this time the foreign idiom had practically ceased to be spoken. An important factor which helped to bring about the complete fusion of the Scandinavian settlers and the English was the Norman Conquest in 1066, when both the Scandinavians and the English combined together to combat the invader.
5. From 1050 to 1150 , when the English and Scandinavian peoples were completely merged together. This was the last and most important period of influx, and a very large number of loan-words found their way into the language during these years.
§160. The area over which the loan-words extended in OE. and ME. and still extends in the modern dialects was the northern, the north and east Midland counties down to East Anglia, and the north-western counties. The great bulk of the loan-words must have come into the language in the course of the tenth and especially the eleventh century, but they do not appear in great numbers in the literature until the ME. period. This was due to the fact that literature in late OE. was mainly written in the WS. dialect. We know that the Scandinavian influence was least of all in the
southern and south-western dialects, hence naturally very few loan-words would be found in the WS. dialect of the OE. period. Thus in Lajamon's Brut (about 1205), the language of which keeps up much of the traditions of the WS. literature, there are very few Scandinavian words, while in the east Midland Ormulum (about 1200) the Scandinavian element is considerable, viz. about 250 such words.
§ 181. The number of Scandinavian loan-words in ME. must have been very much greater than what appears in ME. literature. This is proved by the fact that the modern dialects contain thousands of such words including all parts of speech. In this connexion we will only mention one important piece of evidence showing how great the Scandinavian element is in the modern dialects. In the modern dialects OE. initial sc. ( $=$ sk.) has become sh- in native words just as in the standard language, as shade, ship, \&c., whereas in words of foreign origin it has remained in the dialects just as in the standard language, as scaffold, school, score, skill, skin, skirt, sky, \&c. Now if we exclude all sc- words of various origins which are common to the standard language and the dialects, it is a remarkable fact that the English Dialect Dictionary contains 1,154 simple words beginning with sc- (sk-).
§ 182. In this connexion it is important to remember that the dialects spoken by the Scandinavian settlors had for a time a life of their own side by side with the English dialects, whilst the Scandinavians were still regarded by the English as foreigners. During this period of the existence of Scandinavian dialects spoken on English soil, owing to the intercourse between the two nations, fresh loan-words were being continually introduced into English, and then in the course of time the two languages gradually became merged into one which was chiefly English in form, but very rich in Scandinavian words. This process was in a great measure brought about by intermarriage between Scandinavian and English
families. That this was so is clearly seen by the large number of proper names of persons of Scandinavian origin which are found in late OE. and early ME. charters and documents, and by the large number of double forms with practically the same meaning, the one being Scandinavian and the other native English, as aje (awe) : eie fear, deilen : dęlen to divide, egg : eie (pl. eyren) egg, frā (frọ) : fram from, garp: 3 ard yard, garden, grā : OE. grēg, ME. grei grey, gayt : gāt, gọ̄t goat, heil : OE. hā1, ME. hāl, họ̀ sound, whole, lagu:OE. ्̄ד law, lāten, lọ̄ten: lę̄ten, lệten (OE. l̄̄̄tan, lētan) to let, lqupen : OE. hlēapan to leap, laus (lous) : OE. lēas false, loose, naut (nqut) : OE. nēat cattle, scateren : schatern, skiften : schiften, sister : suster (OE. sweostor), swein : swān (swọ̆n) servant, NE. sky : heaven, trigg : OE. trēowe fidelity, pei : pā those, weik : OE. wāc weak, werre : worse, êpen : OE. wēpan to cry, \&c.
§ 103. With these few preliminary remarks we shall now proceed to state the more important phonological criteria by which the Scandinavian element in ME. can easily be recognized, and shall, as a rule, only give such illustrative examples as are to be found in well-known ME. texts, such as the Cursor Mundi (1300), Richard Rolle de Hampole's Pricke of Conscience (about 1349), Barbour's Bruce (1375), the Ormulum (1200), Genesis and Exodus (about 1250), the Lay of Havelok the Dane (1300), Robert of Brunne's Handlyng Synne (1300-30), Early English Alliteratice Poems (about 1350), \&c. And it should be noted that the Scandinavian loan-words which came into ME. underwent all further sound-changes in common with the native words containing the same sounds. As Old Icelandic is the best representative of the Old Scandinavian languages the older illustrative examples are here taken from that language. When the OE. or ME. word comes first in the comparisons given in the following paragraphs, it means that the word is of native
origin, but of Scandinavian origin when the O.Icel, word comes first.
§ 184. When a Scandinavian loan-word contained a short stem-vowel at the time it was borrowed we have no means of determining from the vowel alone whether the word was of Scandinavian or English origin, that is, the vowel fell together in sound with the corresponding OE. or early ME. vowel, as OE. eall, ME. al $(1)=0$.Icel. all-r all, OE. dragan $=0$. Icel. draga to drav, OE. sealt, ME. salt $=0$. Icel. salt, O.Icel. taka $=$ OE. tacan, ME. taken, later tāken. O.Icel. fela $=$ ME. felen, later fęlen to conceal, O.Icel. geta $=$ ME. gęeten beside the native form •3ę้ten to gel, O.Icel. hnefi = ME. neve, later nęve fist, O.Icel. ketill $=\mathrm{OE}$. cietel, ME. ketel, OE. sendan $=0$. Icel. senda to send. O.Icel. skinn $=$ OE. scinn, ME. skin, O.Icel. hitta = ME. hitten to hit. O.Icel. oddi $=$ ME. odde old, OE. open, ME. open, later $\bar{\varrho}$ pen $=0$. Icel. opinn, O.Icel. rottinn $=$ ME. roten rotten. OE. sum $=0$.Icel. sum.r some, OE . tunge $=$ O.Icel. tunga tongue. O.Icel. flytja $=$ ME. flitten, fliutten to fit, migrate, OE. cynn $=0$.Icel. kyn kin, kindred, O.Icel. stytta from older *stynta $=$ ME. stinten, stenten, stünten to stint, stop, see § 49, O.Icel. syster = ME. sister.
§ 185. From the examples of long vowels given below it will be seen that with the exception of Germanic $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Psi}}$ (§ 52) we have no means of determining from the long vowel alone whether the word containing it is of Scandinavian or English origin, as OE . đœ̄man, dēman, ME . dẹ̀men $=0$.Icel. døèma to judge, OE. ME. hēr $=0$. Icel. hēr here, O. Icel. sēr $=$ ME. sệr separately, OE. bitan, ME. bīten = O.Icel. bita to bite, O.Icel. tipinde $=$ ME. tipende tidings, news, O Icel. prīfa-sk = ME. prīven to thrive. OE. ME. fōt = O.Icel. fōt•r foot, O.Icel. bōn = ME. bộne request, O.Icel. rōt $=$ ME. rộte root. $\quad$ OE. ME. hūs $=0$.Icel. hūs house, O.Icel. būin•n = ME. boune ready, O.Icel. drūpa $=$ ME. droupen to droop. Pl. OE. mȳs, ME. mīs, mēs, mīs (§ 57)
$=$ O.Icel. mȳss mice, O.Icel. brȳnn $=$ ME. brin eyebrow, O.Icel. prȳsta = ME. prīsten, prệsten, prüsten to thrust.
§ 186. The treatment of Germanic $\overline{\bar{x}}$ is entirely different in O.Icel. and OE. In O.Icel. it became a, whereas in OE. it became $\overline{\mathrm{e}}(=$ ME. ẹ) in the Anglian and Kentish dialects, but remained in WS. Before nasals it became $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ (= ME. $\overline{\text { ọ }})$ in all the OE. dialects. In this case we have an excellent test. If a ME. word is of Scandinavian origin it has $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \overline{\mathbf{q}}$ (§51), if it is of English origin it has ẹ̀, è (§ 52), and ọ before nasals, as $0 . I$ Icel. grā-r $=$ ME. grā, grō beside $\mathbf{O E}$. grǣछ, ME. grei grey, O.Icel. hār $=$ ME. hāre, hōre beside OE. hēr, hēr, ME. hę̀r, hệr hair, O.Icel. lăta = ME. lāten, lộten beside OE. lǣtan, lētan, ME. lę̣ten, lẹ̄ten to let, O.Icel. rāpa = ME. rāpen, rōpen beside OE . rēdan to counsel, O.Icel. vāpn = ME. wāpen, wọ̀pen beside OE. wǣpen weapon, O.Icel. vǫrom from older *vārum = ME. wāren, wṑren beside OE . wæ̈ron we were, and similarly bāren, bọ̀ren we bore, gāven, gọ̃ven we gave, OE. mōna = ME. mọ̆ne $=0$. Icel. mãne moon. A similar distinction existed in ME. when the O.Icel. a corresponded to OE. ēa, of whatever origin, as 0. Icel. $\mathbf{f a} \cdot \mathbf{r}=\mathrm{ME}$. $\mathbf{\mp} \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{f} \overline{\mathrm{q}}$ beside OE . fēawe, ME. fęwe few, O.Icel. flā = ME. flā(n), fī̄(n), beside OE. flēan, ME. fię̀(n) to flay, O.Icel. slä = ME. slā(n), slọ̄(n), lueside OE. slēan, ME. slę̀(n) to slay.
O.Icel. ār with ā from Germanic ai = ME. ār, ōr beside OE. $\overline{\text { ® }}$ from ${ }^{*}$ airiz = ME. $\overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{r}$ earlier, formerly, before.
§ 187. A good test as to whether a ME. form is of Scandinavian or native English origin is to be found in the treatment of the Germanic diphthongs in the Scandinavian and English languages, especially the diphthongs ai, au, and the $i$-umlaut of the latter diphthong, as will be seen from the table given below. It should be noted that in O.Icel. the Germanic diphthong eu became a rising diphthong, viz $j \bar{u}$ before $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{g}, \mathbf{k}$, and jo in all other positions. At the time, however, when Scandinavian loan-words came into

English the diphthong from Germanic eu must have been a falling diphthong, because it had the same development in ME. as OE. ēo, that is, it became ẹ, so that no further notice of it will be taken here.

| Prim. | ai | au | eu |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| O.Icel. | ei | au | jō (jū) | ey |
| ME. | ei(ai) | ¢u | ẹ | ei(ai) |
| OE. | ¢ | ea | ēo | ie |
| ME. | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}(\overline{\text { ¢ }}$ ) | $\overline{\text { ex }}$ | ẹ | $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{e}_{\text {e }}$ |

§ 168. O.Icel. ei : bleik•r=ME. bleik, blaik beside OE. blāc, ME. blāk, blǫk llcak, freista = ME. freisten to ask, geit $=\mathrm{ME}$. geit, gait beside OE. gāt, ME. gāt, gọ̀t goat, heil( 1 ) = ME. heil, hail beside OE. hā1, ME. hāl, hōl sound, whole, heifir-n $=$ ME. heipen, haipen beside the OE. mutated form hæ̈ßen, ME. hę̣pen heathen, leika $=$ ME. leiken, laiken beside OE. lācan to play, leip-r = ME. leip, laip beside OE. lāp, ME. lāpe, lọpe loathsome, nei $=$ ME. nai, nay beside OE. nā, ME. nā, nō no, nay, steik = ME. steike steak, bei-r, feir(r)a, peim = ME. pei, peire, peim, NE. they, their, them beside OE. pā those, pāra (pǣra),〕ǣm (pām), veik•r = ME. weik, waik beside OE. wāc, ME. wāke, wộke weak.

Note. - The ei in the above and similar words became ai, also written ay, about 1300 (§ 107), and then in the dialects south of the Humber the ai became $\bar{\varepsilon}$ before $k$ about the end of the fourteenth century, as wę̨k beside older weik waik weak, and similarly blęk bleak, stęk steak.
§ 160. O.Icel. au: gaula = ME. gqulèn, gaulen to howl, hlaupa $=$ ME. lqupen beside OE. hlēapan, ME. lępen to leup, kaupa $=$ ME. coupen beside OE. cēapian, ME. chępen to luy, laus = ME. lọus(e), lọ̄s loose beside OE. lēas, ME. lęs false, untruc, naut = ME. naut, nọut beside OE. nēat, ME. nęte cattle, rauta $=$ ME. rquten to bellow. Cp. §§ 118 note, 159.
§ 170. U. Icel. ey : leysa $=$ ME. leisen, laisen beside OE. (Anglian) lēsan, ME. lẹ̀sen to loosen (see § 86), neyta $=$ ME. naiten to makc use of, treysta $=$ ME. treisten, traisten beside OE. *trȳstan, ME. trǐsten, trû́sten to trust.
§171. In order to keep together the various criteria by which Scandinavian loan-words can be recognized in OE. and ME. we shall also include here the consonants.
§ 172. Initial w disappeared in early Old Scandinavian before $\overline{0}$, पू and 1 , whence forms like œepa $=\mathrm{ME}$. द्̣pen beside OE. wēpan, ME. wệpen from *wōpjan to weep, ōkr $=\mathrm{ME}$. ọker beside OE. wōcor usury, orm.r snake $=\mathrm{ME}$. proper name Orm, NE. Ormsby beside OE. wurm, wyrm snake, worm, leita = ME. leiten, laiten to seek, look for, beside OE. wlātian to gare.
§ 173. Germanic đ remained in Old Scandinavian, but became d in prehistoric OE. (EOE. Gr. §§ 118, 133), whence O.Icel. gard-r enclosure, yard = ME. garp and many mod. n. dialects garth beside OE. geard, ME. zard, zerd yard, O.Icel. rā̄̆ $=\mathrm{ME}$. rāpen, rộpen beside OE. rǣdan, rēdan, ME. rę̣den, rệden to advise, counsel, O.Icel. tï̀̀inde $=$ ME. tipende, tīpinde beside ME. tidende, tidinde tidings, news: OE. tīd time.
§174. Old Scandinavian had no trace whatever of the palatalization of Germanic $\mathbf{k}$ when originally followed by a palatal vowel, whereas the $\mathbf{k}$ in this position became palatalized in prehistoric OE. (EOE. Gr. § 166), and then in late OE. or early ME. itbecame ass ibilated to tš, written ch, in all the dialects, see Hoops, Wissenschaftliche Forschungsberichte, pp. 78-9, but in other positions it remained both in OE. and ME. Examples are: O.Icel. bekkr = ME. bek beside OE. bece, ME. beche brook, O.Icel. kirkja = ME. kirke, mod. n. dialects kirk beside OE. $\operatorname{cir}(\mathrm{i}) \mathrm{ce}, \mathrm{ME}$. chir(e)che clurch, O.Icel. kirna $=$ mod. n. dialects kirn beside ME. chirne churn, O.Icel. kista $=$ mod. n. dialects kist beside OE. cest, cist, ME. cheste, chiste chest, O.Icel.
diki $=$ ME. dike beside OE. dic, ME. dich, NE. dike beside ditch, O.Icel. ketill = ME. ketel beside OE. cietel, ME. chetel kettle. But O.Icel. kald•r, early OE. ceald, cald, ME. cāld, cọld cold (see § 71), O.Icel. kalla, late OE. ceallian, ME. callen to call, O.Icel. kenna, OE. cennan, ME. kennen from *kannjan to linour, recognize. See § 285.
§ 175. Initial, medial, and final sk is a good test, because there can be no doubt that sk (sc) became sch in ME. native words, see §161. Examples are: O.Icel. skel = mod. n. dialects skel beside OE. sciell, ME. schelle shecl, O.Icel. skifta $=$ ME. skiften, mod. n. dialects skift beside OE. sciftan, ME. schiften to shift. O.Icel. aska = ME. aske beside OE. asce, ME. asche a.shes, fisk•r $=$ ME. fisk (Orm pl. fisskess) beside OE. fisc, ME. fisch fish.
§ 176. The Germanic initial spirant $\xi$ lecame the explosive $g$ in the Old Scandinavian languages, and also during the OE. period before guttural vowels, but remained in OE. before palatal vowels (EOE. Gi: § 168), whence we have O.Icel. g., but OE. and ME. g. beside $3^{\circ}$, as O. Icel. gaf $=$ ME. gaf beside OE. geaf, ME. zaf, zef he gatc, O.Icel. gapa $=$ ME. gāpen to yuun, gape, O.Icel. garn $=$ ME. and many mod. dialects garn beside OE. gearn yarn, O. Icel. gar'd.r enclosure, yud = ME. garp beside OF. geard, ME. zard, zerd yard. O.Icel. gat liole, opening = ME. gat, gāte (cp. § 292) beside OE. geat, ME. zat, zet, and many mod. dialects yat, yet gute, O.Icel. geta $=$ ME. gę̨ten to get, beside OE. only in compounds, as forgietan, ME. for3ę̌ten to forget.
§177. Germanic medial 33, of whatever origin, became gg in the prehistoric period of all the Germanic languages, which in OE. became differentiated into palatal gg (written cg ) and guttural gg under the same conditions as those by which Germanic $\mathbf{k}$ became differentiated into palatal and guttural $\mathbf{k}$ (§ 280). The guttural gg remained in OE. and ME., but palatal gg became assibilated to dž (written gg) in
late OE. or early ME., as OE. dogga, ME. dogge dog, but OE. licgan, ME. liggen (=*lidžen) to lie down. Examples are : O.Icel. bryggja $=$ ME. brigge and mod. n. and Midl. dialects brig beside OE. brycg, ME. brigge, brügge bridge, O.Icel. eggja $=$ ME. eggen to egg on, O.Icel. hrygg.r $=$ ME. and many mod. dialects rig beside OE. hrycg, ME, rigge, rügge ridge, back, 0. Icel. liggja $=$ ME. liggen and many mod. dialects lig beside OE. licgan, ME. liggen to lie down.

## 2. THE FRENCH ELEMENT IN ME.

§ 178. The French element which gained a permanent footing in ME. was far greater in amount than the sum total of all the other foreign elements, and it also differed very materially in its nature from those elements. The Scandinavian element consisted for the most part of everyday words, such as would be used by the common people, whereas the French element was largely composed of words representing a higher culture or state of civilization than either the Scandinavian or the native element, such as military, ecclesiastical, legal, hunting, and heraldic terms. This is accounted for by the fact that the Anglo-Normans belonged to the upper classes, whereas the Scandinavians belonged chiefly to the yeoman and agricultural classes. Hence it may be said that the French or Anglo-Norman element penetrated from the higher to the lower classes, whereas the Scandinavian element penetrated from the lower to the upper classes, in so far as such words were permanently incorporated into the standard language.
§179. As a result of the Norman Conquest French in England had become the language of the Court, of the nobility, of the clergy, and indeed of all who wished for and sought advancement in Church or State. Robert of Gloucester (1298) thus describes the important position of French in the England of his day: 'Lo! thus came England into Normandy's hand and the Normans could then speak
nothing but their own tongue. They spoke French as they did at home, and taught their children to do likewise, so that men of high rank in the country, who are their descendants, keep to that same tongue, which they inherited from them, for unless a man knows French, he is little esteemed. But the lower ranks still keep to English, their own native tongue. I believe there is no country in all the world, save England only, that keeps not to its native speech. But one knows well, that it is good to be able to speak both, for the more knowledge a man has, the greater his worth,' see Morris and Skeat's Specimens of Early English, Part II, pp. 8-9. In the same volume (pp. 240-2) another interesting passage bearing on this subject is to be found in John of Trevisa's translation of Higden's Polychronicon (1387). He records how the English 'birthtongue' has become 'impaired' by the admixture of too much French, for one reason because 'children in school, contrary to the usage and manner of all other nations, are compelled to neglect their own language and construe their lessons and hear things in French, and have done so, since the Normans came first into England '. But he goes on to tell us in an additional passage of his own authorship, that in the year of our Lord 1385 'in all the grammar schools of England, children neglect French, and construe and learn in English '.
§ 180. It has been estimated that the population of this country, including the Scandinavians, was about two millions at the time of the Norman Conquest, and that of these one-fourth were killed or otherwise disappeared during the Conqueror's reign, and that on the other hand at least 500,000 Frenchmen settled in England during his reign, so that there was for a time great danger lest the English language should be ousted by Norman-French. Had it not been for the strong infusion of Scandinavian settlers in England at this period, whose influence would tend towards
the preserv. ${ }^{\text {tion }}$ of the kindred Germanic tongue, this danger would probably not have been averted.
§ 181. But the French element in ME. is not wholly Anglo-Norman, there was also a certain infusion of Central French, or, as it is sometimes termed, Parisian French. For some time Anglo-Norman prevailed, but gradually it came to be regarded as an inferior dialect of Old French, and already in the thirteenth century and onwards into the fourteenth century, the educated and upper classes began to learn and to speak Central French. And Anglo-Norman practically died out as a spoken language. This brought about the introduction of a large number of Central French words into the standard ME. of authors like Chaucer, Lydgate, \&c. Nearly all the words introduced during the fifteenth century are from Central French. This admixture of the two French elements gave rise to many double forms in ME., the one being chiefly used by the lower and the other by the educated classes. And the difference between the forms manifested itself especially in the treatment of the vowels of unaccented syllables. Some of these differences are still reflected in the standard language and the dialects of the present day, as edjūkeit, edžūkeit : edikēt, -eat educate, fitša : fiəta feature, kpzn : kuzin cousin, væljū : valə vali value, \&c.
§ 182. French was the language used in the Courts of Law until 1362, in which year it was decreed by an Act of Parliament that all pleadings in the Courts should henceforth be conducted in English, because, as is stated in the preamble to the Act, French was 'become much unknown in the realm'. But the mongrel French known as 'Law French ' continued to exist for centuries later, and it was not finally abolished until 1731. The Proceedings in Parliamunt were recorded in French till 1483, when Richard III introduced a reform whereby the Statutes were for the first time drawn up in English. French or Latin was used at the

Universities, and it was not until 1349 that hoys in schools began to learn Latin through the medium of English instead of French.
§ 183. The French element only found its way gradually into literature, and its influx was always much greater in the South than in the North, a difference still reflected in the modern English dialects. The Peterborough Chronicle, which was continued until 1154, contains only fourteen French words. The total number of French loan-words up to the end of the twelfth century amounts only to about a hundred. Between 1250 and 1350 hundreds of words were introduced, and then, after about the year 1400 , the numbers began to decrease rapidly. As far as literature is concerned the period of greatest influx was between 1250 and 1400 , the highest point being reached during the second half of the fourteenth century. Chaucer employed a far greater number of French words than any other author of his day. As an illustration of the French element in early ME. literature may be quoted the number of French words found in three works belonging to different dialects of the early part of the thirteenth century :-The Ormulum (about 1200 ), consisting of more than 20,000 lines, contains only about 20 ; La3amon's Brut, Text A (about 1203), consisting of 32,241 short lines, and based upon Wace's Le Roman de Brut, contains only 87; and the Ancren Riwle (about 1210 ); consisting of about 200 printed pages, contains 500 . In conclusion it may be noted that French nouns and adjectives were generally taken over in their accusative forms ( 0 .Fr. generally : nom. sing. -s, acc. sing. nos- ; nom. pl . no s-, acc. pl. -s). In the verbs the strong stem-form of the present sing. sometimes became the type for the whole of the inflexion, but sometimes the weak stem-form of the plural became the type, hence in ME. we often have side by side double forms, as destruien beside destroyen, prẹven beside prộven, see §§ 198, 202.
§184. Now that some account has been given of the nature and amount of the French loan-words in ME. we will proceed to look at the subject from a philological point of view. Although it is true that after AN. and C.Fr. words were introduced into English they underwent all further changes in common with the native English words containing the same sounds, yet from a philological point of view it is necessary to know not only how the words were pronounced at the time they were introduced, but also to know what special phonological changes they underwent at the time of their introduction. But this knowledge can only be acquired by treating the subject in much the same manner as the native element is generally treated in passing from OE. to ME. By adopting this method of treatment some light can be thrown upon many phonological points connected with the native element in ME. By way of illustration a few such points may be mentioned here:-

1. However early AN. words containing long ā were introduced, they were not introduced early enough for the long $\bar{a}$ to fall together with OE. long $\bar{a}$ in ME. except in the northern dialects (§51). From this we can infer that OE. long ā began to be rounded to $\bar{q}$ at a very early period, cp. ME. cāve, damāge, đāme beside bột boat, stọ̀n, tọ toe.
2. The ME. $\bar{o}$ from AN. o in open syllables fell together with the OE. o in open syllables, as cộte coat, rọse rose beside prọ̄te (OE. prote) throat, họpen (OE. hopian) to hope, but not with the ME. ō from OE. $\bar{a}$, as in bọ̀t (OE. bāt) boat, stọn (OE. stān) stone. This is clearly proved by the difference in the development of the two kinds of $\overline{\bar{q}}$ in the modern dialects, koit, proit beside buat, stuan (§ 51 note).
3. And similarly the modern dialects show that the ME. ę from older ei in AN. words ( $(\mathbf{2 0 5}, 2$ ) fell together with the ME. $\overline{\bar{c}}$ from OE. $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ ( $=$ the i -umlaut of $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) and $\overline{\text { exa }}$ ( $\$ \S 52$, 83), but not with the $\bar{e}$ from OE. e in open syllables (§ 80).
4. The OE. ü-sound (written y) remained in the west Midland and southern dialects until the end of the fourteenth century and then became unrounded to $\mathbf{i}(\S 49,3)$, but the ii in closed syllables of AN. words was never unrounded to $i$ in the above dialects, but became $u$ during the ME. period (§ 193), which shows that the two kinds of $t \mathrm{i}$ had not precisely the same pronunciation otherwise they would regularly have fallen together. And in like manner the OE. $\mathfrak{u}$-sound (written $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ ) remained in the above dialects until the end of the fourteenth century, and then became unrounded to $i$ ( $\$ 57,3$ ), but the $\mathbf{Z}$, of whatever origin, in AN. words was never unrounded to i ; for it iu was substituted in all the dialects of England, see § 202.
§ 185. Before entering upon the history of the AN. simple vowels and diphthongs in ME. it will be useful to state here a few general principles concerning the vowel-system in general.
5. All the nasal vowels became denasalized and then these oral vowels generally had in ME. the same further development as the corresponding original oral vowels.
6. All final accented vowels were long or became long in ME.
7. All short vowels were lengthened in open syllables of dissyllabic forms.
8. Short vowels were lengthened in monosyllables before a single final consonant.
9. Short vowels were lengthened before a mute + liquid.
10. Short vowels were generally lengthened before st(§ 203).
11. Short accented vowels were lengthened before another vowel in dissyllabic words.
12. Vowels were short before consonant combinations other than a mute + liquid. They also remained short in open syllables of trisyllabic words.

The cause of the lengthening of the stem-vowel in type 4 was due to the inflected forms, just as in ME. native words
like cọle (OE. col, gen. coles) coal (§ 81), \&c. The stem-vowel in words of types 5 and 6 was in reality generally in an open syllable, because the following consonant combinations mostly belonged to the second syllable. There was a tendency to shorten the vowel again in types 5 and 6, especially when the final -e ceased to be pronounced, as propre, couple, double, trouble; arest, best beside bę̨st beast, forest, tempest, \&c.
9. Instead of the AN the O . Fr . vowel-system is sometimes taken as the basis for treating the AN. element in ME. When that is the case it should be remembered that several of the O.Fr. diphthongs underwent changes in AN.; the most important of the independent changes are given in the following table:-

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { O.Fr. } & \text { ai, ọi, } & \text { uii, } & \text { e, } \\
\text { AN. } & \text { ei, ui, } & \mathfrak{H}, & \bar{e}, & \mathbf{8}
\end{array}
$$

10. As a result of the AN. element in ME. two new diphthongs were added to those already existing in the native element, viz. qi and ui.
11. In dealing with the vowels we have to distinguish between : (1) the vowels of accented syllables, (2) the vowels of pretonic syllables, and (3) the vowels of post-tonic syllables and unaccented syllables generally.

## 1. The Vowels of Accented Syllabieg.

§ 186. The O.Fr. and AN. accented vowels in early borrowed words, which became post-tonic in ME. through shifting of the accent, remained for a time unchanged, and then later became weakened down through loss of the new secondary accent.

> a. The Short Voweels.
§ 187. The short vowels generally remained before the consonant combinations which had short vowels before them in native words. They also remained in open syllables of
trisyllabic forms. The short nasalized vowels became denasalized and then generally had the same further development as the old oral vowels. Examples are :-
§ 188. a :, as balle, cacchen, calme, charge, charme, large, part, scarce; angle, blank, cancre, frank, janglen, cp. § 211.
§189. AN. ę and e generally appear in ME. as ę, as accepten, castel, clerk, desert, detesten, dette dibt, distresse, lettre, medlen, pressen, taverne, werre war, but cę̨sen beside cessen to cease. The e was often lengthened before $\mathbf{r}+$ consonant, as pę̀rche, sę̣rchen, tę̨rme beside perche, serchen, terme, see § 186. assenten, attempten, defenden, membre, menden, presence, silence. This e became $i$ before $n k$ at the same time $e$ became $i$ in native words, as enke, inke ( 0. .Fr. enque), see § 132.
§ 180. i:, as consideren, deliveren, dische, epistle, finischen, punischen, resisten, riche ; prince, simple, cp. § 189.
§ 191. o :, as apostle, cofre, fors force, loggen to lodge, ordre, propre, robben, rollen. But the o was often lengthened before $\mathrm{r}+$ consonant, see $\S 200$.
§ 192. $u$ : O.Fr. § and $u$ fell together in $u$ in AN., and then the $u$ generally remained in ME., as discuvren, purpre purple, purse, puschen (poschen) to push, turnen, turtle; with $u=0$. Fr. o, as encumbren, numbre, summe, trumpe trumpet.
§ 193. AN. ui (written u) remained in early ME., but during the ME. period it became $u$, as juggen to judge, just, purgen to purge, sepulcre; humble.

## b. The Long Vovels.

§ 184. All final accented vowels became long. Short vowels were lengthened in monosyllables before a single consonant. Short accented vowels were also lengthened before another vowel in dissyllabic words. All vowels were
lengthened in open syllables of dissyllabic forms, and also before two consonants belonging to the second syllable.
§ 105. ā:, as blāme, cās case, cāve, debāte, escāpen, dāme, declāren, generā1, grāpe, lāke, pāle, pās; fâble, mirācle, tāble; āge ( $=$ *ā $\cdot d z ̌ e$ ), and similarly cāge, corāge, damāge, homāge, imāge; grāce ( $=$ *grā.tse), chācen, plāce, trācen, see § 79 note 1. But the ă in AN. arie $=$ C.Fr. -aire from Lat. arium remained short in open syllables, and also generally in ME. verbs ending in -arien, as adversarie, Februarie, necessarie ; carien, marien, tarien.
§ 198. O.Fr. ę, as bę̀k beak, condicionę̀l, eternęl, hostę̀l, nę̀t neat, prę̃chen, repęlen, requę̨ren to require, wę̣re beside werre war, but O.Fr. e before $\mathbf{r}+$ consonant, as pę̣rcen (pệrcen) to pierce, pę̣rle, rehę̣rsen to rehearse, sę̣rchen, tęrme, see §§ 63 note, 205.
§ 107. 1. $\bar{e}=0$. Fr. e, as appệren to ajpear, beautẹ leauty, clệr clear, daungệr, frệre brother, pệr pecr, pitệ pity, succệden. AN. •ẹje, •eie ( $=0$. Fr. -ẹ̣e from Lat. -āta.) became eie (•ey) in ME. O.Fr. -ẹ̀e also became ẹ̀ in forms introduced into ME., although the second e was preserved in writing, hence in ME. we often have double forms, as countreie and countrẹẹ, entreie and entrẹe, journeie and journeẹ, valeie and valeẹ vallcy.
2. O.Fr. ie became ẹ in AN. about 1150 and then the è remained in ME., sometimes written ie, as achẹ̀ven, fẹble, grệven to grieve, manệre, matẹ̀re, nệce niece, pẹ̄ce piece piece, preiệre prayer, relēven, rivệre, sệge siege; brệf, chệf, grẹ̣f grief gricf, meschệf mischicf; cp. § 50 ; contẹ̄nen, maintẹ̃nen, sustệnen. The verbs of this type were later remodelled after the analogy of verbs like ordeinen, see § 210.
§ 198. O.Fr. ue became 6 in AN. and then the 8 had the same further development in ME. as OE. éo (§ 05), that is, it became unrounded to $\bar{e}$ in all the dialects except the west

Milland and the southern dialects, but in these latter dialects it ulso became unrounded to ẹ about the end of the fourteenth century. It was often written eo and in the west Midland nud southern dialects also oe, ue, o, and $u$, see § 85 . Examples are: bệf beef, contrệven to contrive, dệl doel duel suthess, mệven to move, pệple poeple people pcople, prệf ${ }_{2}$ moof, prẹ̀ven, reprệven. The verbal forms had in O.Fr. ue in the first pers. singular and $\bar{o}$ in the first pers. plural, as muef, pl. mọvons. In ME. the strong form of the singular generally became the type for the whole inflexion, but sometimes the weak form of the plural became the type, hence in ME. we have side by side apprệven and apprọ̣ven, mệven and mộven, prệven and prộven, \&c. The ệ, ọ̣ were shortened to $e$, o before an $r$ in the following syllable, as keveren, koveren to cover, \&c.
§ 189. i : as arriven, bribe, companie, crȳen, defȳen, denỳen, delīt delight, desȳr, despisen, devisen, dinen, enticen, justise, malice, mercȳ, strīven; gentīl, leisir, prỳs, strïf; bīble, tigre; fin fine, basīn, gardīn, cp. § 50. The ialso became i before $n+$ dental, as pinte, but prince, \&c.
§ 200. ¢̣ (= Lat. au, ŏ) :, as clộke, clộsen, cộte, dispọsen, nọ̄ble, nộte, repōsen, reprọ̀chen, restọrren, rọ̆be, rọ̆se, suppg̣sen, tresōr; and also befure $\mathbf{r}+$ consonant, as fọ̆rce, fọ̀rge, pọrk, pọrr. Beside fọl fool, pȳre (0.Fr. povre) poor, trọ̃ne throne we have fộl, pộre, frọ̣ne. AN. -orie ( $=$ C.Fr. oire) became og̨rie in ME., as glọrie, memōrie, stǫrie, victōrie.
§ 201. $\bar{u}$ ( $=$ AN. u 0.Fr. o), as allowen, clamour, creatour, culour, devouren, devout, doute doubt, flour flower, goute, gracious, honour, houre, labour, poudre, sermoun, spouse, tour tower, touchen, vouchen; before $\mathbf{r}+$ consonant, as course, court, sours source ; before $\mathrm{mb}, \mathrm{n}$, nd, nt, nce, nge ( $=\mathrm{nd} \mathrm{z}_{\text {) }}$, as abounden, acount, amount, condicioun, count, encountren, lioun, mount, ounce, pardoun, ploungen, prisoun, pronouncen, renoun, rę̨soun
rcason, round, soun sound, toumbe, but always uncle. Cp. § 50. The $\bar{u}$ afterwards underwent shortening in couple, double, ploungen, touchen, troublen.
§ 202. $\vec{u}=1$. O.Fr. and AN. $\mathfrak{u}$ from Lat. ü. The pure ui-sound did not exist in any of the dialects of England at the time the AN. words containing this sound were introduced. There was a kind of $\bar{u}$-sound in the west Midland and some of the southern dialects, but it was different from the AN. sound, as is evidenced by the subsequent history of the two sounds both in ME. and the modern dialects (cp. § 57). For AN. was substituted what seemed to the English ear the nearest equivalent, viz. iu , and this is also the case in modern times when English people without a knowledge of phonetics attempt to reproduce Modern French $\mathbf{u}$. In the older loan-words it was generally written $\mathbf{u}$, as duren, usen, vertu, and later also eu, ew, iu , yw (cp. §§ 112, 118). Examples are: accūsen, bügle, düren, creatūre, củren, dūk duke, figủre, fortūne, mesüre, pŭr, rüde, refüsen, refüten, sügre sugar, stir, ûsen.
2. $=0$. Fr. uii (from Lat. $\bar{u}, \check{o}+\mathbf{i}$ ) became $\bar{u}$ in AN. for which iu was substituted in ME., written u (ui), eu, ew, $\mathrm{iu}, \mathrm{iw}$, as fruit frut, pu pew puw peiv, suit, cp. $\S \S 112,118$. The verbal forms had in O.Fr. uii in the first pers. sing. and pi in the first pers. plural. In ME. the strong form of the singular generally became the type for the whole of the inflexion, but sometimes the weak form of the plural became the type, hence in ME. we have side by side forms like anuien and ancien, destruien and destroien, vuiden and voiden.
§ 203. Before st we often have double forms just as in native English words (cp. § 97), and one or other of the forms became generalized, as chāste, hāste, tāsten, wāsten; bę̄ste, fęste feast, but arest, forest, tempest; Christ; bọsten, cọste coast, họst, pọst, rộsten, tộsten, but cost, costen ; crouste but later cruste ; jừst.
§ 204. In place of long vowel + a single consonant, we sometimes have a short vowel+double consonant, as chapelle : chapę̀le, passen : pās ; cessen : cę̣sen to cease, dette : dę̣te llelt, lettre : lę̄tre, plegge : plę̄ge pledgc, werre : wę̣re war ; quitte : quīte; loggen : lọgen to lodge, proffren : prọfren ; copple ( $0=u$ ) : couple; süggre : sügre sugar, \&c.

## c. The Diphthongs. <br> ai, ei

§ 205. O.Fr. ai and ei fell together in ęi in AN. and then the ei became ai in ME. at the same time as ei became ai in native words (§ 107). And then later the ai became $\bar{e}$ before consonants, especially before liquids, dentals, and $\mathbf{s}$, so that in ME. we often have ę beside ai, and ei.
Examples are:-

1. O.Fr. ai, as aiden, air, assaien to test, claimen, delai, gai, grain, lai lay, song, maire mayor, maistre, paien to pay, plain, rai, repairen, vain, waiten.
2. O.Fr. ei, as conveien, deceiven, despeir, displeien, heir, obeien, moneie, peine pain, preien to pray, receiven.
3. O.Fr. ai and ei, as decę̀ven, dę̣s (deis) table, disęse, ęse (aise) ease, encrę̨sen, fręle (fraile) frail, grę̣se, mę̣re (maire), pę̄s (pais) peacc, plę̀den, plę̀sen, recę̨t (receit) receipt, recę̄ven (receiven), sę̀sen (saisen) to seize, tręten. See § 63 note.

## 91

§ 208. AN. qi ( $=0$. Fr. qi from Lat, au $+\mathbf{i}$ ) remnined in ME., as chọis choice, clogistre, jǫie, nǫise, pǫisen to poise, rejoisen. The qi from older ei in C.Fr. loan-words also remained, as cq̨i, devg̨ir, emplǫyen, explǫit, \&c.
ui
§ 207. O.Fr. oi, ui (from Lat. $\overline{\mathbf{o}}, \mathbf{u}+\mathrm{i})=$ AN. ui which remained in ME. and also in NE. until the late sixteenth or
early seventeenth century, although it was generally written oi (oy), as acointen to acquaint, boilen, enointen, joint, point, poisen to poison, soilen, \&c. Forms like vg̨ice, mọist were from Central French.

## au

§ 208. O.Fr. and AN. au from older a +1 remained in early ME., and then later it became ā before labials, as assaut assault, fauchon falchion, faute fault, heraud, paume, later pāme palm of the hand, sauce, sauf later sāf safe, sauven later sāven, see § 213, 1.

## ẹu

§ 209. AN. ẹu ( $=$ O.Fr. ieu) remained in early ME. and then became iu at the same time that eu in native words became iu, written $u, e u, e w, i u, i w, ~ s e e ~ § 112, ~ a s ~ a d e w e ~$ adieu, Jew Jiw, reule rewle riule rule; and similarly O.Fr. ẹu from older ou, as corfew curfew, blew bliw blue, nevew nepliew.

## d. The Formation of New Diphthongs.

§ 210. Palatal $1^{\prime}$ and $n^{\prime}$ generally became il and in, and then the $i$ combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong or $i$ when the preceding vowel was $i$, as assailen, aveilen, barain barren, bataile, failen, fountaine, gainen, maille mail, montaine mountain, railen, travail, vitaille rictuals. atteinen, compleynen, feinen to feign, feint, merveile muvel, ordeinen, peinten, reine reign restreinen, veile. And then the ei became ai at the same time as ei in native words became ai (§ 107). Coloigne Colognc. ui (written oi) from O.Fr. ui, as boilen, joinen, oile, soile, spoilen. O.Fr. uii which became $\mathbb{G}$ in AN. and for which iu was substituted in ME., written u, ui (see § 202, 2), as impugnen, Juil Jul July, Juin Jun June. benigne benine, where -ign $=-$ in, and similarly resignen, signe,
vigne ; peril. When the diphthongs in the above and similar examples lost their secondary accent during the ME. period they were generally weakened down to e, although the old spelling was generally preserved.
Note.-Palatal 1, n were often expressed by $\mathrm{lj}_{\mathrm{j}}$ (written $\mathrm{l}_{3}, \mathrm{l}_{3} \mathrm{~h}$, 1y), $\mathrm{nj}^{(w r i t t e n} \mathrm{n}_{3}$ ) in the Scottish dialects, as batal3e, gan3e beside bataile, gaine; and in late ME. they were also sometimes expressed by $1 \mathbf{j}$, nj (written $\mathbf{l i}$, ni) in the Southern dialects, as talie, spaniel beside taile tally, spainel, see Jordan, ME. Gr. §§ $253,256$.
§ 211. Between a and a nasal belonging to the same syllable a glide was developed in AN., which in ME. combined with the preceding vowel to form the diphthong au, before final n , before $\mathrm{m}+$ labial, and $\mathrm{n}+$ dental $(=\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{d}$, t or $s, n+d \check{z}$ or tš), as aungel, aunte, balaunce, braunche, chaumbre, chaunce, chaunge, daunce daunse, demaun. den, distaunce, exaumple, garlaunde, graunten, haunten, jaumbe, laumpe, paun, plesaunt, servaunt, slaundre, tauny, vaunten. And then later the au became à before $\mathrm{m}+$ labial and $\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{dž}$ or ť̌, see § 213, 1.
§ 212. The $\overline{\text { a }}$ which arose from the above au before $n+d$ ry or tš became ai in some parts of the western and northern areas about the end of the fourteenth century, as chaynge change, raynge, straynge; braynche branch, staynche to stanch.

## e. Monophthongization.

§ 213. Before certain consonant combinations some of the diphthongs became monophthongs about the end of the thirteenth and early part of the fourteenth centuries :-

1. au became ā before labials, $n+d \check{z}$ or $t s ̌$, $\mathrm{dž}$ and $\mathrm{t} s$, as āngel, bāme older baum bawm balm, brānche, chāmbre, chāngen, jāmbe, lẳmpe; fāchon falchion, găgen, săfe, sẵvage, sã ${ }^{\text {an }}$ n to save, see §§ 208, 211.
2. ai, ui became a, u before š and $s+$ consonant, as abaschen older abaischen to abash, ascheler (O.Fr.
aisselier) ushtar, māster older maister, casche (O.Fr. caisse) ; buschel (0.Fr. buissel), cuschin older quischin cushion, cruschen older cruischen to crush.
3. ęu became $\bar{e}$ before labials, as fięme older flęume phlegm, rę̀me older ręume (reaume) realm.

## f. Vowel Contraction.

§ 214. Vowel contraction took place partly in AN. and partly in ME., especially when the second vowel or diphthong was $e, i, u$, or ei, oi, as sę̨l ( 0 .Fr. sëel) seal, vę̨l ( 0 .Fr. vëel) veal, chaine ( 0. Fr. chaëine), cọin ( $0 . \mathrm{Fr}$. cooin) quince, brawn (O.Fr. braoun), mirour ( 0. Fr. mireür), sür ( 0 . Fr. seuir) sure; O.Fr. third pers. sing. obeït he obeys, pl. obeissent, whence ME obeien beside obeischen, and similarly abaischen to abash, traien beside traischen to betray, rejqischen to rejoice.

Contraction also took place when intervocalic i.consonant disappeared, as dę̀n ( $0 . \mathrm{Fr}$. deien) dean, lę̨1 ( $0 . \mathrm{Fr}$. leiel) loyal, mę̀n (O.Fr. meien) mean, middle.

## 2. The Vowels of Pretonic Syllables.

§ 215. The O.Fr. and AN. pretonic vowels and diphthongs which became tonic (accented) through the shifting of the accent generally remained in ME. The short vowels were, however, generally lengthened before a following vowel and in open syllables of early borrowed words, but remained short in later borrowed words.

## a. The Simple Vowels.

§ 218. a, ã, au:, as amorous, baroun, bataile, carpenter, chapę̨e, chariot, gardin, manệre, palais, ravenous, taverne, travaien. ā-miable, ā-precock apricot, bācoun, bāsin basin, fiāvour, grācious, măsoun mason, nācioun nation, nāt t re nature, pācient, see $\S 70$ note 1. AN. ã was
denasalized to a before nd, nt, and ng, as anguische, language, mantel, standard. In other positions it had the same development as in accented syllables ( $\S 211$ ), as auncient, brandischen beside braundischen, chaumpion, chauncel, daungệr, raunsoun ransom.
§ 217. e, ę:, as lessoun, mercī, metal, nevew, perị beside peril, plesaunt, present, secounde; aventüre, engĩn, gentil, plentẹ, tempeste. lę̣sir, plę̀sir, rę̧sin grape, rę̧soun reason, see § 83 note. Before $\mathbf{r}+$ consonant we have e later a (§ 128), as gerlaund, merchaunt, merveile, persoune, sermoun, later garlaund, \&c.
§ 218. i, i:, as citệ, diner, finischen, pitẹ, scriptêre, vinẹgre. giaunt giant, lioun, squier. pilot, ivorie.
§ 219. 0 :, as comoun, folie folly, foreste, fortíne, gobelet, honouren, office, solas solace, torment.
§ 220. u, ū (written ou, ow), as buteler, butoun button, culour, glutoun, mutoun, sudain, supere. coward, dowere doure dowry, powere, towaile tovel; bountē, counseil, countrẹ, fountaine, mountaine.
§ 221. iu, in. iu remained in early ME., but became u during the ME. period (ep. § 125), and iu was substituted for if (cp. § 202), as duchesse, juggement, punischen, studien to study. cruel crewel, humilitẹ, humour, suretẹ, usage.

## b. The Diphthongs.

§ 222. The pretonic diphthongs generally had the same development in ME. as the tonic (accented) diphthongs except that ei underwent weakening in medial syllables.
§ 223. ai was generally monophthongized to ę, but forms with ai also occur in ME., as fętüre and faitüre feature, ręsoun and raisoun, sę̀soun and saisoun, see $\oint \oint 83$ note, 205 ; the ai remained before old palatal 1, as tailour tailor, see § 210 .
§ 224. ei :, as leisir leisure, preiẹ̄re prayer, veiāge ( 0. Fr. voiăge) voyage. curtesie beside older curteiste, orisoun
beside older oreisoun, venisoun beside older veneisoun ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. venoison).
§ 225. opi :, as jqious.
§ 226. ui (written oi) :, as oinoun onion, poisoun poison.
§ 227. $0 . \operatorname{Fr}$. $\mathrm{ui}=\mathrm{AN}$. u , for which the $\mathrm{iu} \cdot$ sound was substituted in ME. (§ 202, 2), as nuisaunce.
§ 228. au:, as auter altar, faucon falcon, saumoun salmon, sauvăge (see § 213, 1).
§ 229. eau, ẹu became iu (seo § 112), as beautẹ̄ beutẹ̃ bewtẹ̀ beauty; fewaile fuel, jewel jevel.

## 3. The Vowels of Post-tonic and Unaccented Syllables generally.

§ 230. The vowel in post-tonic syllables was always ee, as in chapę̨le, faute, justise, madāme, natüre, reine reign. The final ee in these and similar words disappeared in pronunciation earlier in ME. than the ee in words of English origin (cp. §§ 141-2). This was especially the case after st, ce (=s) and after vowels, as bę̨st(e), tempest(e), plăc(e), foli(e) folly, maladi(e), prei(e) prey. In this respect Chaucer was behind the spoken language of his time. In his poetry the final ee was preserved in pronunciation, and he never allowed words ending in ce $(=s)$ to rhyme with those ending in $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ nor those ending in $\cdot \mathrm{ye}(\cdot \mathrm{ie})$ with those ending in $\cdot \mathrm{y}$.

For the weakening down of long vowels and diphthongs which were accented in O.Fr. and AN., but became unaccented in ME. through the shifting of the principal accent, see $\S \S 186,210$.
§ 231. Initial e-disappeared before $s+$ tenuis, as Spaine, spȳen, staat beside estaat, stüdien, scāpen beside escāpen, squirel ( 0 Fr. escurel). Initial vowels also often disappeared before other consonants, as menden beside amenden, prentȳs leside aprentȳs, pistīl beside epistì.

Initial prefixes often disappeared, as fenden beside defenden, steinen beside desteinen to stain, sport beside disport, saumple beside ensaumple, \&c.
§ 232. Medial vowels often disappeared between consonants, as chimneie beside chimeneie chimney, kerchệf beside keverchệf, nortüre beside noritūre, pantrie beside panetrie pantry, palfrei beside palefrei, \&c., cp. § 154.

## CHAPTER VI

## THE ME. DEVELOPMENT OF THE OE. CONSONANT-SYSTEM

§ 233. OE. had the following consonant-system:Labial. $\begin{gathered}\text { Inter- } \\ \text { dental. }\end{gathered}$ Dental. $\begin{gathered}\text { Guttu. Pala- } \\ \text { ral. }\end{gathered}$

| Explosives | (voiceless p, pp |  | $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{tt}$ | c, cc | c, cc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | \{voiced b, bb |  | d, dd | $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{gg} \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{cg}$ |  |
|  | (voiceless f, ff | p, pp | s, ss | h, hh | $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{hh}$ |
|  | \{voiced f | , | s | g | g |

Nasals m, mm
$\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{nn}$
n
Liquids
1, 11; r, rr
Semi-vowel w
To these must be added the aspirate $\mathbf{h}$, and $\mathbf{x}$. The double consonants were pronounced long as in Modern Italian and Swedish, thus habban $=$ hab-ban to have, swimman $=$ swim-man to swim. On the doubling of consonants in late ME., see § 12, and ENE. Gr. §§ 53-4.
§ 234. Many of the changes which the OE. consonantsystem underwent in ME. were not sound-changes, but merely orthographical changes due to the influence of the Anglo-Norman system of orthography. Most of these changes have been stated in $\$ \S 13-20$, and others will be dealt with in the treatment of the separate consonants.

The sound-changes which the OE. consonants underwent in ME. were insignificant compared with the vowel-changes. In fact the consonants have changed comparatively little in the whole history of the language, whereas the vowels have been continuously on the change and still are so. It may therefore be said that the consonants in a language like English merely form, as it were, the framework of the language, and that the vowels are the clockwork or living organism. This is quite different from a language like French where the consonants equally with the vowels have undergone great and radical changes in passing from popular Latin to the French of the present day.
§ 235. Before ontering upon the history of the individual consonants in ME., it will be well to treat here several con-sonant-changes which are best dealt with collectively, viz. the voicing and unvoicing of consonants, the vocalization of consonants, assimilation, metathesis, the loss of consonants, and the development of glide consonants.

## 1. The Voicing of Consonants.

§ 238. The initial voiceless spirants $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{p}$ became the voiced spirants $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{z}$, $\begin{gathered}\text { in late } \\ \text { OE. or early ME. in Kentish }\end{gathered}$ and the southern, especially the south-western dialects, as vader, vat, vlesch, vrend; zaule zquie, zinne zenne zünne $\sin$, đat סet, סing. The modern dialects show that this voicing of the initial voiceless spirants must have taken place at an early period, because it is almost exclusively confined to native words, hence the change must have taken place before the great influx of Anglo-Norman words into these dialects. The use of the in tial voiced for the voiceless spirants is now obsolete in Ken., Sur., Sus., and obsolescent in s. Pem., Hamp., and the I. W., but it is still in general use in east Hrf., parts of Glo., west Brks., Wil., Som., and Dev. These modern dialects help to throw some light upon
the standard NE. voiced $\gamma$ (written th) in pronouns and the adverbs related to them. There is no indication either in ME. or NE. to show when the p- became voiced in such words, but the dialects of Sus., Ken., and s. Pem. show that it must have taken place pretty early, because in these dialects the $p$. has become d-, although the forms with d- are now obsolescent in the two latter counties. Examples are: dea their, there, dem, den, di the, dis. These forms with dshow that the voicing of the p - in pronominal and adverbial forms was older than the voicing of it in the other OE. words beginning with p. See E'D. Gr. §§ $278,310,320$.
§ 237. In simple words the voiceless spirants $\mathbf{f}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{p}$ became voiced between voiced sounds in early OE., although they were always retained in writing, and this rule was also preserved in ME., see EOE. Gr. § 139. Final -s and -p became voiced after vowels during the ME. period in unaccented syllables, although the $-\mathbf{s}, \cdot \mathrm{p}(-$ th) were retained in writing. And similarly in unaccented words like his, is, was.

## 2. The Unvoicing of Consonants.

§ 238. In early OE. the voiced spirants $\mathbf{v}$ (written f), 3 became voiceless $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{X}$ before voiceless sounds and finally, and this rule was also preserved in early ME., see §§ 288, 308, and EOE. Gr. §140. When final ee disappeared at an early period (§ 13e) $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{v}$ and $\delta$ became unvoiced to s , f and p , as bōpẹ, erpẹ, fropẹ, northern dialects ris to rise, gif to gite, luf to love, beside older rise(n), give(n), luve(n).

The $g$ in the combination $\mathfrak{g g}$ became $\mathbf{k}$ (written $\mathbf{c}$ ) before voiceless consonants in OE., but the $g$ was generally restored through association with forms where the $g$ was regular, as strencp beside strengp with $\mathbf{g}$ restored from strang strong (cp. EOE. Gr. § 140), whence such ME. double forms as lenkp, strenkp beside lengp, strengp, and forms with nk are still common in many of the modern dialects, see Index
to $E D$. $G r$. There was also a tendency for final ng to become gk in some of the ME. dialects, especially in the north-west Midland, as in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight: 3onk(e) young, rynk ring, pink thing, \&c., and such forms are still common in some of the dialects of this area, see ED. Gr. § 274.
§ 239. In early OE. d became $t$ before and after voiceless consonants. When two dentals thus came together, they became $t$ which were simplified to $t$ finally and after consonants (EOE. Gr. § 140). This rule also remained as a characteristic feature of the southern dialects in the ME. period, as bintst beside older bindest thou bindest, bitst beside older bidest thou prayest, bint from *bindp, older bīndep he linds, bit from *bidp, older bidep he prays, \&c. And in like manner the d also became t in the pp . of trisyllabic weak verls after the loss of the -e. in the final syllable, as punischt, witnest beside older punisched, witnessed, see § 155. In ME. as in the modern dialects (cp. ED. Gr. §§ 303-4) there was a tendency to unvoice d to $t$ in final unaccented syllables. This was especially the case in the preterite and past participle in the Scottish and west Midland dialects. For the unvoicing of d to t in the preterite and past participle of verbal stems ending in $\cdot \mathrm{ld}$, $\cdot \mathrm{nd}$, and $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$, see § 270. And in the west Midland dialects d also became $\mathbf{t}$ finally after $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}$ in monosyllables, as bę̣rt beard, felt field, pret. helt held, lont land, wint wind, \&c.; the $\mathbf{t}$ in these and similar words has been preserved in many of the dialects of this area down to the present day, see $E D$. Gr. § 302.

## 3. The Vocalization of Consonants.

§ 240. The prefix $j^{\mathrm{e}}$ - became i - through the intermediate stages $\mathrm{i} \cdot$, $\mathbf{j i}$-, which remained initially (also written $\mathrm{y} \cdot$ ), as iwis ywis (OE. gewiss) certain, iclad yclad clothca, but disappeared medially through the intermediate stage ee-, as neighbour, older nehhebour ( $O E$. nēahgebūr), see § 153.

Medial palatal 3 became $i$ between $r$ and a following vowel, as burie(n) birie(n) (OE. byr(i)gan) to bury, murie mirie (OE. myr(i)ge) pleasant, terie(n) (OE. tergan) to annoy, and similarly in French words, carie(n), contrarie, marie(n), studie( n ). Palatal 3 became vocalized to $i$ after vowels and then combined with a preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the i-type, see §§ 105, 299.
§ 241. When w came to stand finally after consonants it became vocalized to $u$, as pl. zarwe (OE. gearwe) from which was formed a new sing. zaru ready, and similarly holu hollow, naru narronv, \&c., see § 134 (a). Postvocalic old $w$ became vocalized to $u$, and then combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the u-type, as chẹwen (OE. cēowan) to chew, knǫwen (OE. cnāwan) to know, schęwen (OE. scēawian, later sceấwian) to show, beside northern chẹu (chęu), knau, schęu, see §§ 110, 2, 111. And in like manner w from OE. and early ME. guttural 3 became vocalized to $u$ after a guttural vowel and then combined with the preceding vowel to form a diphthong of the u-type, see §§ 105, 298.
§ 242. $\mathbf{v}$ was vocalized to $\mathbf{u}$ (generally written w) when it stood or came to stand before a consonant through the loss of a medial unaccented vowel (§ 153), as awkward from older *avkward, *avuk., pl. chaules (OE. ceeaflas) from which was formed a new singular chaul cheek, crawlen (ON. krafla) to crawl, ęwte older evete (OE. efete) newt, pl. hawkes (OE. hafocas) from which a new singular hawk was formed, nauger older naveger (OE. nafogār) auger.

## 4. Assimilation:

§ 213. Partial or total assimilation of dentals took place in unaccented particles, as and tat = and pat, atte $=$ at pe, patte $=$ pat pe, and similarly with pū thou after verbal forms with simplification of the tt , as artū art thou?, wiltū wilt
thou? ; these and similar forms are still a characteristic feature of the Modern northern and north Midland dialects, see ED. Gr. §404. In and nl became 11, as elle older elne (OE. eln) ell, mille older milne (OE. myln), ellevẹn(e) beside older enleven (OE. en(d)leofan) eleven. fm became mm, as lemman (OE. lēofman) sweetheart, wimman (OE. wimman beside wifman) woman. I became $m$ before $f$ and $p$, as comfort (O.Fr. confort), hemp (OE. henep), noumpere (O.Fr. nonper) umpire. pf became ff, as chaffare (OE. *cēapfaru) trade.

## 5. Metathesis.

§ 244. The metathesis of $r$ was common in QE., especially in the Northumbrian dialect. Already at that period antevocalic r often became postvocalic when a short vowel was followed by n , nn , s or $\mathrm{s}+$ consonant ( $E O E . G r . \S 143$ ). ME. examples are: bird (OE. brid), brizt (OE. beorht) bright, forst beside frost (OE. forst beside frost), hors (OE. hros), pirde (OE. pridda); asken beside axen $=0$. āscian beside āxian to ask.

## 6. The Loss of Consonants.

§ 245. Postconsonantal $w$ disappeared before back-rounded vowels, as alsō, ase (OE. ealswā), sø̄ (OE. swā), soche suche beside swich (OE. swylc), sord beside sword, sọte beside swọ̈te sweet adv., suster (OE. sweostor, § 38) sister, tọ̀ beside twọ̣ (OE. twā), pong beside pwong, họ̆ beside whọ (OE. hwā). It also disappeared in certain verbal forms with the negative prefix, as nas (OE. næs = ne wæs) was not, nille (OE. nille $=$ ne wille) will not, and similarly niste $I$ knew not, nọt $I$ know not, nolde $I$ would not, \&c.
§ 246. 1 disappeared in the Midland and southern dialects before and after ch $=$ OE. palatal $c$, as ęch (OE. ǣlc) each, muche moche, miche (OE. mycel) great, suche soche, siche, swich (OE. swylc), which whuch (OE. hwylc),
beside northern ilk, mikel, swilk, quilk. It also disappeared in the unaccented particle ase beside the accented form alsọ (OE. ealswā).
§ 247. Final -n disappeared early in dissyllabic and trisyllabic nouns and adjectives in the Midland and southern dialects, but was often or generally restored again from the inflected forms, as kinrẹ̄de, kindred (OE. cyn•rǣ̄en), ēve beside ệven evening, maide(n). It had disappeared in Northumbrian during the OE. period in words of more than one syllable. This law was fairly well preserved in the infinitive, the present and preterite plural subjunctive, the weak declension of nouns and adjectives, numerals and adverbs, but in strong nouns and adjectives including the past participles of strong verbs, the final $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ was generally reintroduced into the nom. singular from the inflected forms. It was also mostly reintroduced into the pret. indicative plural through the influence of the past participle, which itself was a new formation.

In early ME. the final -n disappeared in unaccented syllables except in the pp. of strong verbs in the northern and north Midland dialects. In the other Midland dialects it was mostly retained, especially in the present plural of the indicative, the infinitive, and the past participle of strong verbs. It was retained in the southern dialects in the weak declension of nouns and adjectives, whereas in the Kentish dialect it disappeared at an early period in the past participle of strong verbs, see § 147. Final -n disappeared in the indefinite article and the possessive pronouns when the next word began with a consonant, as $\bar{a}$, $\overline{9}$ ping ( $O E . \bar{a} \mathrm{n}$ ), n $\overline{0}$ ping (OE. nān) mí fader (OE. min). When the next word began with a vowel the n was run on to it, as mí nę̀m (OE. min ēam) my uncle.
§ 248. Final b disappeared after $m$ in the northern dialects about the beginning of the fourteenth century, as dum dumb, lam lamb. f disappeared in O.Fr. before final -s, as
nom. sing. baillis beside acc. baillif, whence ME. bailli beside baillif, joli besidejolif, pensi beside pensif thoughtful. The forms baily and pensy are still very common in the modern dialects. $\mathbf{v}$ from older $\mathbf{f}$ also disappeared before consonants, as hę̀d beside older hę̄ved (OE. hēafod) head, lādi from older lavdie, lavedie (OE. hlæ̈fdige) lady, larke from older laverke ( $\S 88$ ), lộrd from older lọverd (OE. hlāford, ard) lorl. The common forms par I need, parst, par, beside parf, parft, parf were due to association with dar I dare, darst, dar.
§ 249. t disappeared before st , between s and s or m , as best (OE bet(e)st), laste (OE. latost) last, Wessex (OE. West-Seaxan), blosme (OE blōstma beside blōsma) blossom. d disappeared before s, as answere (OE. andswaru), gospel beside older godspel, gossib beside older godsib. Pdisappeared at the end of the first element of compounds, as Norfolk (OE. Norb-folc), Sussex (OE. Sūpseaxan), wurschipe beside older wurpschipe worship. It also disappeared in the medial combinations $\cdot \mathrm{pn}$-, - pr- with lengthening of the preceding vowel, as hĕn (ON. hepan) hence, sĭ̀n, sĕ̌n (OE. sippan, sioppan) since, pĕ̌n (ON. pepan) thence, whềr whether, see § 78.
§ 250. Intervocalic $\mathbf{k}$ disappeared in the preterite and past participle māde, mād (maad) for older mākede, māked. From the pret. and pp. was then formed a new present $\mathrm{m} \overline{\mathrm{a}}(\mathrm{n})$ in the northern and north Midland dialects, after the analogy of which was also formed a new present tā (n) for tāken, see § 78 note 1. Final -ch disappeared in unaccented words and syllables in late ME., as I boside ich, ly beside older -liche, as in hevenly beside hevenliche. Initial hdisappeared before $1, \mathrm{n}, \mathbf{r}$, but these combinations were often written 1 h , nh, rh in early ME., especially in Kentish, as lęepen (OE. hlęapan) to leap, lauzen (Anglian hlæhha(n)) to laugh, neien (OE. hnǣgan) to neigh, nute (OE. hnutu) nut, rāven (OE. hræfn), ring (OE. hring).

## 7. The Development of Glide Consonants in ME.

§ 251. Glide consonants were developed, especially in the neighbourhood of nasals and $s$.

A b was developed between $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{r}$, as bremble (OE. brēmel, gen. brēmles) bramblc, schamble (OE. sceamol, gen. sceam(o)les), pimble (OE. pȳmel, gen. pȳmles), slumbren (OE. slŭ́merian), and also after $m$ in croumbe (OE. crūma) crumb, poumbe (OE. pūma) thumb. A p was developed between $\mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} \cdot \mathrm{t}$, as nempnen (DE. nemnan) to name, empti (OE. $\bar{¥} m \mathrm{~m}$ ig), and in French words like autumpne autumn, dampnen to damn, solempne solemn, tempten to attenpt.

A d was developed between 1-r, n.r, as alder (OE. alr, alor) ulder, pe alderbeste (OE. ealra betsta) the best of all, and similarly alderfirst, alderlast; kindred (OE. cynrēden), punder (OE. punor, gen. pun(o)res). jaundice beside jaunice (AN. jaunisse). A final tt was developed after n in AN. words, as auncient ( 0. Fr. ancien), and similarly fesaunt, tiraunt, ribant (riband) beside riban riblon. A $\mathbf{t}$ was developed between $\mathbf{s}$ and n in glistnen (OE. glisrian), listnen (OE. hlysnan) to listen, and after final -s, as ajainest beside older ajaines, bihę̧ste (OE. behǣs) vow, promise, hę̄st (OE. hǣs) command.

## The Semivowels.

## w

§252. OE. $P$ was still used occasionally until the thirteenth ceritury, but in early ME. w was generally written $u u$, more rarely $v v$, and in northern manuscripts $\mathbf{u}$ after dentals and $\mathbf{s}$. In late northern manuscripts it was often written $\mathbf{v}$. $\mathbf{w}$ was introduced from the AN. alphabet in the thirteenth century, and OE. cw came to be written qu.
§ 253. OE. w remained initially before vowels, and generally also initially before and after consonants, as warm (OE. wearm), weder (OE. weder) weather, wlank (OE. wlanc) proud, writen (OE. writan), twelf (OE. twelf), and similarly was, water, wẹpen to weep, wide, winter, wischen, wolf, wounde, wunder, and similarly in AN. words, as waiten, wāsten, werre war. \&c.; wlite fuce, form, wrecche wretched; dwellen, swimmen, twig; quệne (OE. cwēn) queen, uoman, quik (OE. cwic).

It also remained medially after consonants, as wid(e)we (OE. wid(e)we) vilow, medwe beside mę̨de (OE. gen. mæ̈dwe beside nom. mǣd) mealow, and similarly holwe hollor, schadwe, swalwe. For the vocalization and loss of $\mathbf{w}$ see §§ 241, 245.
§ 254. AN. w (= O.Fr. gu, later g, in words of Germanic origin) remained in ME., as rewarden, wāge, waiten, wāsten, werre uar.

The O.Fr. combination $\mathbf{q u}=\mathbf{k w}$ remained in ME. before $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{e}, \mathrm{i}$, but became $\mathbf{k}$ (c) before o , $\mathbf{u}$, as equal, qualitẹe, quarter, questioun; but cqi, likour.

Germanic $\mathbf{j}$
§ 255. Germanic initial j had become a palatal spirant like the y in NE. yet, you in the oldest period of the language. This explains why it was written $g$ in $0 E$., and 3 , later $y$, in ME., see EOE. Gr. §§ 150-1. The OE. sound remained initially in ME., as 3ě (OE. gĕ) ye, zę̨r 3 зẹr (OE. gēar, gēr) ycar, and similarly zet 3it yet, 3if if, 3ok 3ọke yoke, zong young, zoupe youth. See § 240.

## The Liquids.

## 1

§ 256. OE. and AN. 1 generally remained in all positions of the word, as loud ( $O E$. hlūd), fallen (OE. feallan), āle (OE. ealu), clę̣ne (OE clēne), all (OE. eall), dęl (OE. d̄̄̄l),
and similarly lamb, leẹpen, litel, loven ; fillen, sellen, tellen, wolle; blộd, flesch, folk, glad, helpen, milk, nệdle, silver, sq̣ule, stę̣len; foul, full, sadel; labour, langāge ; blāmen, calme, delai, failen, tāble ; crüel. For the loss of 1 see § 246.

## $\mathbf{r}$

§ 257. OE. and AN. r generally remained in all positions of the word, as roum (OE. rūm), bringen (OE. bringan), bę̨ren (OE. beran), hard (OE. heard), sterre (OE. steorra) star, fader (OE. fæder), and similarly rę̣d red, rein rain, rīden; arm, bāre, erpe earth, ferre far. grẹ̆ne, sprę̣den, strẹ̀m stream, trẹ, word, wrīten; better, fỳr five, mọ̆der; rāge, round; chaumbre, fọ̀rce, grāce, natūre, trouble; pur. For the metathesis of $\mathbf{r}$ see § 244.

## The Nasals.

m
§ 258. OE. and AN. m generally remained in ME., as mọ̄der (OE. mōdor) mother, clīmben (OE. climban), nāme (OE. nama), roum (OE. rūm), and similarly māken, man, min, moup; cọmb, cumen, swimmen, tīme; bọ̀sem, botem, brọ̆m, fapem, helm, worm; maladie, moneie; chaumbre, damāge, lampe.
§ 259. Final -m, when an element of inflexion, became $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ in late OE., as dat. pl. dagon, giefon, sunon beside older dagum, giefum, sunum; dat. sing. and pl. gōdon beside older gōdum. This change of final $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ to $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ was due to the levelling out of the $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ in the n -stems into the dative plural, and from which it was then extended analogically to the other stems. The $\cdot \mathbf{n}$ disappeared at an early period in ME. (cp. § 147). The old inflexional ending with $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ was preserved in the ME. isolated form whilom, the dat. pl. of OE. hwil time, used adverbially.

## n

§260. OE. and AN. dental n generally remained, as nāme (OE. nama), biginnen (OE. beginnan), sune (OE. sunu) son, stọn stone, and similarly nệdle, nizt; gnawen to gnaw, grệne, henne, hound, knệ, land, quệne, senden, sunne sun; chin, toun; natüre, nọ̄ble, nqise; aunte, chaunce, point ; baroun, vain. For the loss of final $\cdot n$ see §§ 147, 247.

## b

§ 261. OE. and AN. guttural r (written n) remained, as bringen ( $O E$. bringan), singen, pret. pl. sungen (OE. singan, sungon), tunge ( $O E$. tunge), and similarly drinken, finger, king, lang long, panken; anguische, frank, langāge, \&c.
 (written nch) and ndž (written ng), as benche (OE. benc), finch (OE. finc), penchen (OE. pencan) to think; sengen singen (OE. sengean) to singe.
§ 263. In many dialects the OE. palatal combinations epc, eng became ein before $d, t, p$ with $i$ to indicate the palatal nature of the $n$, the ei then later became $e$, as pret. meinde ( $O E$. mengde) he mixed, dreinte ( $O E$. drencte) he drowned, and similarly bleinte he deceived, seinde he singed, sleinde he slung, \&c., leinten, later lenten (OE. lengten, lencten) spring, Lent, leinpe, lenpe (OE. lengpu), streinpe, strenpe (OE. strengpu). The forms lenp strenp are still the usual forms in all the dialects of Scotland and the northern counties. Cp. §§ 238, 295.

## The Labials.

## p

§ 264. OE. and AN. p generally remained in all positions of the word, as pap ( $O E$. pæp), slę̣pen slệpen (OE. slǣpan, slēpan), dệp (OE. dēop), and similarly peni, pleien to play,
pound, prệst, proud; cuppe, harpe, helpen, lippe, spę̀ken, steppen, wệpen to wecp ; pret. halp, schip; part, plęsen to please, present; lampe, purple, spāce.

## b

§ 265. OE and AN. b generally remained in all positions of the word, as bęren (OL. beran), brę̨ken (OE. brecan), ribbe (OE. ribb), web (OE. webb), and similarly bap, binden, blak, bǫn, bringen; climben, clubbe, ebbe, webbe female veurer ; cōmb, doumb dumb, gossib; bę̀st, blāmen, boilen; chaumbre, labour, membre, tāble.

ME. hăven to have, hęven to ruise, heave, liven beside OF. habban, hebban, libban were new formations made from the present second and third pers. singular hafast, hafap, \&c.

## f

§ 263. OE. medial and final f had a twofold origin and a twofold pronunciation, see EOF. Gr. §§ 157-8.

1. Medially in combination with voiceless sounds, and finally, it was pronounced like NE. f, and corresponded to Germanic b and f, as wif ( $=$ OHG. wīb, NHG. weib), wulf ( $=$ OHG. wolf).
2. Medially between voiced sounds it was pronounced like the $\mathbf{v}$ in NE. vine, five, and corresponded to Germanic D and $f$, as giefan (OHG. geban), pl. wulfas (OHG. wolfa). In early ME. the OE. voiced $f$ was generally written $u$ (rarely V). In the Scottish and northern dialects $w$ was sometimes written for $\mathbf{v}$ in AN. words, as wertu, trawail

## 1. OE. Voiceless f.

§ 267. OE. initial and final $f$, and $f$ in combination with voiceless sounds, remained, as fader (OE. fæder), dęf (OE. dēaf) dc(if, fif (OE. fif) fice, after (OE. æfter), and similarly
ferre fur, finden, fiyyen to fly, folk, frẹsen to frecze, full; calf, lęef leaf, turf, twelf; gift, offren ; also in AN. words, as fāce, frut (fruit) ; brệf brief, strīf. Forms like five beside fif, grāve beside OE. græf, twelve beside older twelf were new formations from the inflected forms. For the voicing of initial f in Kentish and the southern dialects see § 236.

$$
\text { 2. OE. Medial } f=v \text {. }
$$

§ 268. OE. medial $\mathrm{f}=\mathrm{v}$ generally remained, as driven ( OE , drifan), havest, havep (OE. hafast, hafap), and similarly bę̀ver, given (ziven), heven, knāve, loven, rāven, seven, sterven to dic, wệven; also in AN. words, as valour, verai ; availen, avengen, serven. ffrom older $\mathbf{v}$ disappeared in the unaccented forms hast, hap beside the accented forms havest, havep. For other examples of the loss of $\mathbf{v}$ see § 248. For the unvoicing of $\mathbf{v}$ see § 238, and for the vocalization of $\mathbf{v}$ to $\mathbf{u}$ (generally written $\mathbf{w}$ ) see § 242.

## The Dentals.

## t

§ 269. OE. and AN. t generally remained in all positions of the word, as tāle (OE. talu), tunge (OE. tunge), bīten (OE. bitan), setten (OE. settan), what (OE. hwæt), and similarly tāken, tellen, tīme, toun, trẹ̣, twig; better, ęten, fizten to fight, herte, resten, sitten, swệte, preterites like grette he grceted, kepte, slepte; fọ̆t, mọst, nizt night ; tāble, tempest ; douten to cloubt, straunge ; delit delight.

Note.-1. c, z (also occasionally 3) were sometimes written for ts, as blecen (Orm blettsenn, OE. bletsian) to bless, milze, Orm millce (OE. milts) merry.
2. In late ME. th was sometimes written for t in French words, as autour (O.Fr. auteur) later authour, tęme (0.Fr. tesme) later thęme, trọ̀ne (0.Fr. trone) later tbrọ̆ne.
270. OE. and AN. d generally remained in all positions of the word, as dai (OE. dæg), drinken (OE. drincan), bidden (OE. biddan), bīnden (OE. bindan), fader (OE. fæder), dę̣d (OE. dēad), and similarly dẹp, dọuzter daughter, dwellen ; bodi, bladder, finden, fọlden, sadel, punder, weder weather, wilde; bed, fệld, god, hard, land, ọld, word; dāme, daungệr; maladie, pardoun; round. But single d between a vowel and a following vocalic $\mathbf{r}$ (written er) began to become © in native words from the beginning of the fifteenth century, as father, gather(en), wether weather, from older fader, gaderen, weder, see ENE. Gr. § 230. The $t$ in the preterite and pp . of verbal stems ending in $\cdot 1,-11,-1 d, \cdot r d, \cdot m, \cdot n$, $\cdot n d$ was due to the analogy of preterites and past participles like kepte, kept ; mette, met ; kiste, kist, where the t was regular, as bilte (OE. bylde), bilt; dwelte, dwelt; felte, felt ; girte, girt; dremte, dremt ; blente, blent blended, sente, sent. For the unvoicing of d see § 239.

> b
§ 271. OE. p ( ( $)$ had a twofold pronunciation, see EOE. Gr. § 139.

1. Initially, medially when doubled, and finally it was pronounced like the th in NE. thin.
2. Medially between voiced sounds it was pronounced like the th in NE. then.

In the fourteenth century th gradually came to be used beside p , but the p continued to be written beside th, especially initially, throughout the ME. period. In the best manuscripts of the Canterbury Tales th is generally used (cp. § 20 ).

## 1. Voiceless p.

§ 272. OE. voiceless ${ }^{\text {b }}$ generally remained, as ping (OE. ping), prę̄d prẹ̣d (OE. prēd) thread, kippe (OE. cȳppu)
lindred, dệp (OE. dēap) death, and similarly panken, penken pinken, porn; wrappe; bap, moup, tọ̣p. The pret. quod beside quob had d from the old plural. For the voicing of initial p in the Kentish and southern dialects see § 238, and of final •p in unaccented syllables, see § 237.
§ 273. p became t after voiceless spirants, as drouzte (OE. drūgop) drought, heizte (OE. hīehju) height, leste (OE. pȳ lǣs pe) lest, nosterl beside older nospyrl nostril, sizte (OE. gesihp) sight, pefte (OE. pēofp, pieff) theft.

## 2. Voiced p.

§ 274. OE. voiced p generally remained, as brộper (OE. brōpor), leper (OE. leper) leather, and similarly bāpen, biquę̧en, blipe, fapem, hę̀pen heathen, ọ̣per, sệpen to seethe, \&c. The pret. coude beside coupe could was a new formation after the analogy of the other preterites in -de. For the unvoicing of p see § 238.
§ 275. b became d before and after liquids, as aforden beside older aforpen (OE. geforpian), burdene beside older burpene (OE. byrpenn), and similarly fiddle, murdren to murder.

## The Sibilant s.

§ 278. OE. s had a twofold pronunciation, see EOE. Gr. § 139.

1. It was voiceless initially, medially when doubled, and in combination with voiceless consonants, and finally. In ME. the letter c was sometimes used for s initially and in AN. words both initially and medially (cp. § 24). sc was also sometimes written for ss , as blescen bliscen = blessen to bless. The OE. final -s which in ME. became voiced after voiced sounds in unaccented syllables ( $\S 237$ ) was sometimes written 3 , as hegge3 hedges.
2. It was voiced $(=z)$ medially between voiced sounds. In early ME. voiced $s$ was only occasionally written $\mathbf{z}$, but the $\mathbf{z}$ became more common in late ME.
3. Voiceless $\mathbf{s}$.
§ 277. OE. and AN. voiceless s generally remained, as senden (OE. sendan), spę̀ken (OE. specan, older sprecan), fist (OE. fȳst), kissen (OE. cyssan), hous (OE. hūs), and similarly sand, singen, slẹpen, smal, sonne sun, standen, strong, swệte sucet; asken, asse; hors, mous, was; sāven, cę̀sen to ccase, spāce, stout; deceiven, hǫst, passen ; cās case, pę̀s pcace. For the voicing of initial sin the Kentish and southern dialects, and of final es in unaccented syllables, see §§ 238-7.

Note.-Initial sl- was sometimes written scl-, as sclẹpen, sclain, sclender beside slệpen, slain, slender.
§278. AN. -(i)ss became -(i)sch- in ME., as punischen (O. Fr: punir : puniss-), and similarly anguische, cherischen, finischen, perischen, \&c. See § 289 note.

## 2. Voiced s.

§279. OE. and AN. voiced s remained, as frẹsen (OE. frēosan) to ficcze, risen (OE. risan). and similarly bệsme besom, chẹ̄sen to choose, rǫse; desir, plę̄sen, prisoun, visāge, visiten, \&c., cp. § 18. For the unvoicing of $z$ (written s) see § 238.

The Gutturals.
k
§ 280. Germanic $\mathbf{k}$ became differentiated inlo a guttural and a palatal k in OE., generally written c in both cases. For the cause of this differentiation see EOE. Gr. § 166.

## 1. OE. Guttural C.

§ 281. OE. guttural c remained in ME., and was generally written $c$ before guttural vowels and $1, r$, and $k$ before palatal vowels, n , and finally, and cw was generally written qu (§ 14),
as kichene (OE. cycene), kissen (OE. cyssan), cọ̄l (OE. cōl) cool, corn (OE. corn), cumen (OE. cuman), bāken (OE. bacan), sinken (OE. sincan), spę̃ken (OE. specan, oider sprecan), blak (OE. blæc), bọk (OE. bōc), and sımilarly biquệben, can, keie key, kẹ̄ne, kẹppen, king, clệne, clïmben, knệ, knộwen, cộld, cọmb, craft, crẹ̣pen, quệne, cou cow, cuppe; bręken, drinken, māken; stikke sticke, pikke picke (see §14) ; bak, dark, folk, milk, work; also written c in AN. words, as cacchen to catch, colour, commoun, doctour, escāpen, \&c.

## OE. Palatal c.

282. There is still some difference of opinion among scholars about what was the normal development of the OE. palatal $\mathbf{c}$ in ME. Some scholars assume that it became assibilated to tš in the Midland and southern dialects some time during the OE. period, but that in the northern dialects the palatalization was given up and that consequently no assibilation took place. They explain the tš-forms in the northern dialects as being importations from the other dialects, and conversely the $\mathbf{k}$-forms in the Midland and southern dialects as being importations from the northern dialects. This explanation can hardly be the correct one, because the tš-forms in the oldest records of the northern dialects are so numerous, and such common everyday words, that they cannot all have been importations from the other dialects, especially at such an early period. Other scholars assume that OE. palatal c became assibilated to ts in all the dialects (but see § 284), and that the $\mathbf{k}$-forms in ME. and standard NE. are either Scandinavian words (cp. § 174) or are due to Scandinavian influence caused by the Scandinavian element of the population substituting the k -sound for the tš with which they were unfamiliar, and that then some of these $\mathbf{k}$-forms gradually spread beyond the Scandinavian area. This explanation is probably the correct one. It is
also possible that forms like penken (OE. pencan) to think, pinken (OE. pyncan) to seem, sệken (OE. sēcan) to secl, beside penchen, pinchen, sệchen were new formations from the early OE. syncopated forms like pencp, pyncp, seecp (see EOE. Gr. § 319) with regular change from the palatal to the guttural c.
§ 283. In some southern texts ch was writlen for OE. palatal c in all positions as far back as the twelfth century. In the early ME. period the tš was written ch, and medially when doubled cch. Later it was written tch medially and finally. Examples are:-chẹwen (OE. cēowan) to chew, child ( $O E$. cild), chin (OE. cinn), chicken (OE. cīcen, gen. cïcnes), fecchen (OE. feccean beside fetian), tę̣chen (OE. tæ̈can) to teach, birche (OE. birce), and similarly chẹ̆ke, chẹ̣p, cheris cherry, chệse, chīden, chile; bệche becch, kichene, strecchen, chirche, crucche, hevenliche, spẹ̀che, wicche witch, wrecche; dich, pich.

Note.-In kerven (OE. ceorfan) to carre the $k$ of the pret. pl. and $p \mathrm{p}$. was levelled out into the present.
§ 284. Assibilation did not take place initially in the Anglian area before ME. ă from early OE. (Anglian) $\mathfrak{m}=$ WS. ea, as caf (Angl. cæf) : chaf (WS. ceaf) chaff, and similarly calf : chalf, cāld cọld : chāld chệld cold (§ 71), calk: chalk.
§ 285. In a number of words k - and ch-forms exist side by side. The $\mathbf{k}$-forms occur chiefly, but not exilusively, in the ME. period in those areas where Scandinavian influense was greatest, as ic ik : ich (OE. ic) I, ilk : ęch (OE. 尹̄lc) cach, lik : liche (OE. līc) like, mikel : miche muche (OE. mycel), sệken : sệchen (OE. sēcan), swilk : siche suche swich (OE. swylc), penken : penchen (OE. pencan) to think, pinken : pinchen (OE. pyncan) to seem, quilk : which (OE. hwylc), wirken : wirchen (OE. wyrcan) to work (cp. § 282). For further examples see § 174.

In AN. words we also sometimes have k - and ch- side by side, because in the dialects of north Normandy and Picardy the k - remained unassibilated, as calengen : chalengen to challenge, calice : chalice, catel : chatel property.
§ 288. Palatal Dc became ntš (written nch), as benche (OE. benc), penchen (OE. pencan) to think, and similarly finch, pinchen to seem, wenche, see § 262.
§ 287. In many dialects the palatal combination erpcbecame ein. before $t$, with $i$ to indicate the palatal nature of the combination, as dreinte ( $O E$. drencte) he drowned, leinten later lenten (OE. lengten, lencten) spring, Lent, see § 263.
§ 288. AN. ch (= tš) remained in ME., as chaumbre, charge, chaunce; achệven, pręchen to preach, touchen, $\& \mathrm{c}$.

## sc

§ 289. In the oldest period of the language $s c$, like $\mathbf{k}$, was guttural or palatal according as it was originally followed by a guttural or a palatal vowel (EOE. Gr. § 167), but some time during the OE. period the guttural sc became palatal, except in loan-words. sc became š in late OE. or early ME. In early ME. it was generally written sch or sometimes sh as in the Ormulum, also medially and finally ssh, sch, later sh, in the Cursor Mundi sc, and in Kentish ss. Examples are:-schaft (OE. sceaft), schẹld (OE. scield), schilling (OE. scilling), waschen (OE. wascan), fisch (OE. fisc), and similarly schāde, schal, scharp, schęwen to show, schinen, schort; asche, wischen; englisch, flesch. West Midland and south-western dialects aschen (OE. āscian, āxian, § 244) beside asken with later metathesis again of $\mathrm{ks}=\mathbf{x}$ in the other dialects, and similarly tusch beside tusk = OE. tusc beside tux. For sc in loanwords see §§ 161, 175.

Note.-In the northern dialects the s, of whatever origin, becames in unaccented syllables, as felasip fellowship, inglis

English, and similarly in AN. words, as blemis blemish, finis to finish, ©c. (cp. § 278). It also became sin unaccented words, as sal shall, suld should, which are still the usual-now accentedforms in the modern northern dialects, see $E D . G r$. § 337.

## g, 3

§ 290. Germanic 3 became $g$ after D during the prim. Germanic period. 3 j and 3 n became gg in West Germanic. Germanic 3 remained a spirant in all other positions in the oldest period of OE. Germanic initial and medial 3 became differentiated in prehistoric OE.into a guttural and a palatal voiced spirant under the same conditions as those by which Germanic $\mathbf{k}$ became differentiated into a guttural and a palatal explosive, see EOE. Gr. § 168.
§ 201. Initial guttural 3 remained in the oldest period of the language, but had become the voiced explosive $g$ before the end of the OE. period. And then the $g$ remained in ME. (c.. § 16), as gaderen (OE. gaderian) to gather, gāte (OE. pl. gatu), glad (OE. glæd), gọ̄d (OE. gōd), ground (OE. grund), and similarly gilden, gilt guilt, glọ̣̣ glove, god, gọn gān to go, gọ̀s, gnawen, gras. AN. g remained in ME. both initially and medially, as gai, grāce, tīgre, vigour.
§ 292. OE. initial palatal 3 remained a spirant ( $=$ the $y$ in NE. yet, yon) in ME., and was written 3 later $\mathbf{y}$, as 3 af (OE. geaf) he gave, zard, zerd (OE. geard), zẹlden (OE. gieldan) to recompense, and similarly zellen, zelwe yellow, zernen, zesterdai, forję้ten forziten. In OE. the guttural and palatal 3 often existed side by side in different forms of the same word, and then at a later period one or other of the forms became generalized, as OE . pl. gatu beside sing. geat, whence ME. gāte beside zat, zet (cp. § 178). And similarly ME. biginnen had its $g$ from the preterite and past participle. In a few words the English and Scandinavian forms existed side by side in ME., as forsę้̣ten forziten (OE. forgietan) beside gę̣ten (ON. geta), and
similarly 弓ę้ven, 弓iven beside given, northern gif, jift beside gift, see § 178.
§ 293. Initial 3i- became $i$ - (later written $y$-) through the intermediate stage i , as icchen, older 3icchen (OE. gicc(e)an) to itch, if beside older zif. And similarly the OE. prefix gebecame $3 i$ - and then later $\mathrm{i} \cdot(\mathrm{y} \cdot$ ), see $\S 240$, as iwis y wis (OE. gewiss) certain, inọus ynouz (OE. genōg, genōh) enough, and in past participles, as islain, iclad. This prefix of the pp . generally disappeared in the northern dialects and often also in the Midland.
§ 204. The g in the combination ng remained guttural or became palatal in OE. according as it was originally followed by a guttural or a palatal vowel or $\mathbf{j}$ (EOE. Gr. § 168).

OE. guttural $\operatorname{ng}$ (written ng ) remained in ME., as bringen ( OE . bringan), hunger ( OE . hungor), lang long (OE. lang, long), and similarly England, finger, singen, tonge tunge; king, ring, ping.

OE. palatal ng became assibilated to ndž (written ng) in late OE. or early ME., as crengen (OE. *creng(e)an) to cringe, sengen singen (OE. seng(e)an) to singe.
§ 295. In many dialects the OE. palatal combination -eng became ein- before $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{p}$ with i to denote the palatal nature of the n . The ei then later became e , as pret. meinde ( $O E$. mengde) he mixed, leinpe later lenpe ( $O E$. lengpu) length, streinpe later strenpe (OF. strengpu) strength, see §§ 238, 263.
§ 298. West Germanic gg became differentiated into guttural gg and palatal gg in OE. under the same conditions as those by which Germanic $k$ became differentiated into a guttural and palatal explosive.

OE. guttural gg remained in ME., as dogge (OE. dogga), and similarly frogge, hogge, stagge, and also in ON. loanwords like draggen to drag, druv, haggen to hew. waggen to wag, shake, \&c.
Ok. palatal gg (written cg, often also cge, cgi) became
assibilated to ď̌ in late OE. or early ME., and was written gge later dge, as brigge (OE. brycg), cuggele (OE. cycgel), and similarly egge, hegge, migge, rigge, wegge. The southern dialects had the regular forms in the verbs, as biggen büggen beggen (OE. bycgan) to buy, leggen (OE. lecg(e)an) to lay, and similarly liggen to lie down, seggen ziggen (Ken.) to say, but bỳen to buy, leien to lay, lyen to lie down, seien sai to say, in the Midland and northern dialects were new formations from the second and third pers. sing. of the present.

Note.-There is both in ME. ard in the modern dialects of the northern, Midland and eastern counties a number of words with the explosive $g$ where we should regularly expect ď̌, as brig, fligd fledged, lig to lie llown, rig back, ridge, seg sedge. 'The $\mathbf{g}$ in these words is no doubt due to Scandinavian influence as the forms only occur in those areas where that influence was strong, cp. § 235.
§ 297. The dž (written j, g initially and g, gg medially) remained in AN. words, as cāge, chargen; generāl, joinen, juge, juggen, plege plegge.
§ 298. OE. medial guttural 3 (written g) remained in early ME. after guttural vowels and liquids, but became vocalized to u-consonant (written w) before the end of the twelfth century except in Kentish where the change did not take place until about 1400 , and then the $\mathbf{w}$ combined with a preceding guttural vowel to form a diphthong of the u-type, but $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ (written ou, ow) if the preceding vowel was $\overline{\tilde{u}}$, as drazen, drawen (OE. dragan) to draw, ha3e, hawe (OE. hagu) haw, see § 110, 3 ; āzen, awe, qwen (OE. āgan) to possess, see $\$ 110,4$ and § 113, 3 ; boze, bque bowe (OE. boga) bow, pl. trozes, trowes (OE. trogas) troughs, see § 113, 2 ; pl. bọ̄zes, bọwes (OE. bōgas) boughs, drọ̄zen, drọwen (OE. drōgon) they drew, see § 114, $2(b)$; fuзel, fuel, fou(e)1 (OE. fugol) bird, fowl, see § 122, 5 ; būzen, būen, bouen bowen (OE. būgan) to bend, see § 122, 6 ; belowes
(OE. pl. belgas) bellows (cp. § 152, 2), ber3en, berwen (OE. beorgan) to protect ; folzen, folwen (OE. folgian) to follow, halzen, halwen (OE. hālgian) to hullov, morzen, morwe(n) (OE. morgen) morning, morrox, sor3e, sorwe (OE. sorh, sorg, gen. sorge) sorrow, swel3en, swelwen, swolwen (OE. swelgan) to swallow, wir3en, wirwen (OE. wyrgan) to strangle.
§ 209. The vocalization of palatal 3 to i-consonant took place already in late OE. after palatal vowels finally and before consonants, and in early ME. also medially between vowels, and then the i -consonant combined with a preceding palatal vowel to form a diphthong of the i-type, buti if the preceding vowel was 1 i, as mai (OE. mæg, later mæi) he may, mazen, main (OE. mægen) power, saide (OE. sægde) he said, see § 108 ; wei (OE. weg, later wei) way, plezen, pleien (OE. plegian) to play, see § 107, 1 ; clei ( 0 E. clǣg) clay, pret. pl. leien (OE. lल̈gon) they lay, see § 107, 5 ; dệjen, deien, dien (late OE dègian) to dyc, ẹ̀ze, eie, ye (late OE. ège) eye, flệen, fleien, flỳen (late OE. flēgan, earlier fiēogan) to $f l$, see $\S \S 107,6,108$; stizele, stile (OE. stigel) style, see § 122, 1 ; stizen, stien (OE. stigan) to ascend, see § 122, 2.

For the vocalization of OE. final -ig in unaccented syllables and of $g$ between $r$ and a following vowel see § 138, 240.

## h

§ 300. OE. initial $h$ (except in the combination hw) was an aspirate like the $h$ in NE. hand, but with a strong emission of breath between the $h$ and the following vowel or consonant. Initial hw was pronounced Xw , like the wh in many modern Scottish dialects. In all other positions $h$, including hh, was a guttural or a palatal spirant according as it was originally followed by a guttural or a palatal vowel or j, $\mathrm{cp} . E O E$. Gr. §§ 166, 174.
§ 301. OE. initial h remained in ME. before accented vowels, as hous (OE. hūs), hę̀len (OE. hǣlan) to heal, and similarly hām họ̀m home, hand hond, hard, hāre hare, helpen, herte heart, hound. But before unaccented vowels it often disappeared, especially in pronominal forms, as em, im, it beside accented hem thcm, him, hit ; and in unaccented forms it was sometimes wrongly inserted, as hart, his = art ( $\mathrm{\nabla}$.), is. This indicates that the h - either had a very weak articulation or had ceased to be pronounced.
§ 302. AN. initial $h$ was not pronounced, and accordingly it was often omitted in the writing of such loan-words as habit abit, hāste āste, heire eire heir, honest onest, honour onour, houre oure lour:
§ 303. OE. hw came to be written qu, qv, quh, qw, qwh in the northern dialects, especially the Scottish, and wh in the Midland and southern dialects (cp. §17). This difference in the spelling indicates that the x in Xw was pronounced with greater force in the northern than in the other dialects, and it is also attested by the modern dialects which have Xw in the former, but $\mathbf{w}$ in the latter, see ED. Gr. § 240. Examples are : what : quat quat quhat (OE. hwæt), whọ whō: quā quă quhā (OE. hwā), and similarly while, white, \& $c$.
§ 304. Initial h- disappeared before 1, n, r, but these combinations were often written $\mathbf{l h}$, $\mathbf{n h}$, rh in early ME., especially in Kentish, as lę̣pen (OE. hlēapan) to leap, nute (OE. hnutu) nut, ring (OE. hring), and similarly ladder, lauzen to laugh, lid, lọ̆ louf, lot, neien to neigh, rāven, \&c.
§ 305. Medial and final hs ( $=\mathrm{xs}$ ) had become ks (written $\mathbf{x}$ ) in the oldest period of the language, as waxen (OE. weaxan, Goth. wahsjan) to grow, six (OE. siex, six, Goth. saihs) six, and similarly flax, fox, oxe, \&c.
§ 300. Intervocalic $\mathbf{h}$ (=Germanic $\mathbf{x}$ ) disappeared in the prehistoric period of the language (EOE. Gr. § 144). OE.
medial hh was simplified to $h$ in ME. and was written $3,3 \mathrm{~h}$, $\mathbf{g h}, \mathbf{h}_{3}$, \&c., as lauzen laughen (Anglian hlæhha(n)) beside lizhen lihzen leihzen (early WS. hliehhan, later hlihhan, hlyhhan) to laugh, cquzen cqughen (OE. cohhettan) to cough.
§ 307. The h in the OE. combination ht was guttural or palatal according as it was preceded by a guttural or a palatal vowel, and this distinction was generally preserved in ME., see $\S \S 107,4 ; 110,5,6 ; 113,4,5$. In ME. the ht was generally written $3 t, 3 \mathrm{ht}$, ght, rarely ct. Examples are : dquister dopughter (OE. dohtor) daughter, pp. fquzten fqughten (OE. fohten) fought, pret. bquite bqughte he bought, pp. bquist bọught (OE. bohte, boht), and similarly brquite, brgu3t; squite, squzt ; wrquiste, wrǫuzt. aluzt aught, ast aght (OE. āht) uught, anything, pret. teiste teighte (OE. tǣhte) beside tauzte, tajte, Orm tahhte (OE. tahte) he taught, pret. faust, fazt (late Anglian fæht) beside feizt (late WS. feht) he fought, auste aughte, a3te aghte (late Anglian æhta) beside eizte eighte (late WS. ehta) eight, and similarly lauster laughter, slauzter slaughter, strauzte straughte he stretched. feisten feighten older fehten beside fizten (Orm fihhten) to fight. For examples of late OE. i + ht see § 46.

Note.-The palatal spirantal element began to disappear in pronunciation from about the end of the fourteenth century in the south Midland and southern dialects, and the guttural spirantal element began to disappear or become $f$ in these dialects during the fifteenth century.
§ 308. OE. postvocalic final $\cdot \mathrm{h}$, which was guttural or palatal according as it was preceded by a guttural or a palatal vowel, generally remained in ME. and was written $h, 3,3 h$, gh, and occasionally $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, see §§ 107,$4 ; 109$; 110,$5 ; 113,4$; and 114,115 . Examples are : dā̧ đāgh, dquz dǫugh (OE. dăh, dāg) dough, pret. sauz saugh, saz sagh (late Angliun sæh) beside seiz seigh (late WS. seh) he saw. trouz trough
(OE. troh, trog) trough. bouz bough later bous bqugh (OE. bōh) bough ( $\S 114,2$ ), and similarly inọus inọugh, plọuz plọugh, pọus pọugh though. heiz heigh beside hỉ hīgh (late OE. hēh) ligh, peiz peigh beside pīz pīgh (late OE. pēh) thigh. ME. fẹ̀ cattle, money beside feh feiz (OE. feoh, gen. feos) was a new formation from the inflected forms where intervocalic h regularly disappeared (EOE. Gr. § 144), and similarly schọ̣ (OE. scōh, gen. scōs) shoe.
§ 909 . OE. final $\cdot \mathrm{h}$ after liquids generally remained in ME., as purh pur3 (OE. purh) through, cp. §241. Forms like holu hollow beside hol3 (OE. holh, gen. holwes) were new formations from the inflected forms, and similarly with forms like sẹle (OE. seolh, gen. sēoles) a seal (cp. § 184 (a)).

## ACCIDENCE

## CHAPTER VII

## THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS

§ 310. ME. nouns have two numbers: singular and plural ; three genders: masculine, feminine; and neuter; four cases : nominative, accusative, genitive, and dative. The vocative is like the nominative, as in OE.
§311. In ME. as in OE. nouns are divided into two great classes, according as the stem originally ended in a vowel or a consonant. Nouns whose stems originally ended in a vowel belong to the vocalic or so-called strong declension. Those whose stems originally ended in -n belong to the so-called weak or n-declension. All other consonantal stems are generally put together under the general heading 'Minor Declensions '.
§ 312. In OE. nouns whose stems originally ended in a vowel are subdivided into four declensions. The first or a-declension comprises masculine and neuter nouns only, and includes pure a-stems, ja-stems, and wa-stems. The second or $\overline{0}$-declension contains feminine nouns only, and includes pure $\bar{o}$-stems, jō-stems, and wō-stems. The third or i-declension comprises masculine, feminine, and neuter: nouns. The fourth or u-declension comprises masculine and feminine nouns only. The neuter nouns of the adeclension had the same case-endings in the singular and plural as the masculine, except that the nominative and accusative plural of the neuter nouns ended in $\cdot \mathbf{u}(\cdot 0)$ or had no ending, and the masculine nouns ended in as. In the plural the genitive had the ending a (.en-a) and the dative the ending -um in all four declensions (see § 250).
§ 313. These declensions underwent such radical changes in passing from OE. to ME. that in ME. it is no longer practicable to classify the strong declension of nouns according to the vowels in which the stems originally ended. We shall therefore adopt the plan of subdividing it into three declensions according to the gender of the nouns in OE., viz. (1) the declension of masculine nouns, (2) the declension of neuter nouns, and (3) the declension of feminine nouns. The chief cause of the breaking up of the OE. system of the declension of nouns was that in passing from OE. to ME. all the OE. vowels of the case-endings were weakened to e (§ 134). The result of this weakening of all vowels to e was that many different case-endings fell together, and that in some instances different declensions fell entirely together, e.g. the feminine $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ - and $\mathbf{u}$-declensions, the declension of the masculine and feminine weak nouns.
§ 314. With this weakening of all the vowels to e is also closely connected the loss of grammatical gender in nouns, which was partly due to the breaking up of the old declensions themselves, and partly to the weakening or loss of the inflexional endings in the definite article, the demonstrative pronouns, and the adjectives. It was in a great measure due to the changes which these latter parts of speech underwent in late OE. and early ME. that grammatical gender had become lost in all the dialects by about the end of the fourteenth century ; cp. the opposite process in MHG. and NHG., where grammatical gender has been mainly preserved through the preservation of the inflexional endings in these parts of speech. This loss of grammatical gender did not take place concurrently in all the dialects. The process began much earlier in the northern than in the other dialects. Even in the OE. period both the gender and declension of nouns fluctuated considerably in the Northumbrian as compared with the other dialects. It had almost entirely disappeared in the Midland dialects by the end of the twelfth or
early part of the thirteenth century, in the south-western dialects by the middle of the thirteenth century, and in the south-eastern dialects, including Kentish, in the latter part of the fourteenth century.
§ 315. One of the most characteristic differences between OE. and ME. is the breaking up of the old system of declensions, the substitution of natural for grammatical gender, and the gradual spreading of the endings of the genitive singular and of the nominative and accusative plural of the old masculine a-declension to the types of nouns which did not regularly have these endings in OE., viz. to the ö-stems, the feminine and neuter i-stems, the $u$-stems, the $n$-stems, most of the other old consonant stems, and the plural of the old neuter a-stems. Some of these changes began to take place during the late OE. period, especially in Northumbrian. Even at that early period the plural ending as of the masculine a- and i-declensions was often extended to the neuter a-stems, the masculine short $u$-stems, and the masculine nouns belonging to the 'Minor Declensions', and in late Northumbrian it also began to be extended to the feminine $\overline{0}$. and i-stems as well as to the n -stems after the loss of the final -n in the tenth century. In late OE. the plural ending in en (.an) was sometinies even extended to old strong nouns. This was especially common in the southern dialects.
§ 318. This gradual extension of the s-plural was continued during the ME. period until it eventually became general for all classes of nouns except a few old neuter a-stems (§ 331), and mutated plurals like fẹt, men (§ 348), but this radical change in the formation of the plural did not take place at the same pace in all the dialects. In the northern and north Midland dialects it had spread to all classes of nouns by the end of the twelfth century. In the south Midland dialects it had become the general rule from about 1250 for strong nouns of all genders, and often also for weak nouns. Many
weak nouns, however, preserved the old plural ending in -n , which was also sometimes extended to the strong nouns, but by the time of Chaucer the s-plural had with few exceptions been extended to all classes of nouns. In the southern dialects the history of the formation of the plural was somewhat different from that in the other dialects. The neuter nouns of the a-declension took the plural ending es in early ME., but strong feminines and the masculine short iand $u$-stems gradually took the n-plural after the analogy of the weak nouns. During the thirteenth century the reverse process set in, and from then onwards the s-plural gradually encroached upon the $n \cdot p l u r a l$ and through the loss of the final ee.n towards the end of the fourteenth century it rapidly gained ground until in the fifteenth century it became general for all classes of nouns.
§ 317. In OE. the a- and the masculine and neuter i-stems regularly had the ending ees in the genitive singular, but the $\overline{0} \cdot$ and feminine i -stems had $\cdot \mathrm{e}$, the u -stems $\cdot \mathrm{a}$, and the n-stems -an, which became weakened down to ee, en in early ME. (§ 134). Parallel with the gradual extension of the s-plural to all classes of nouns also went that of the genitive ending -es, but genitives without -(e)s in those types of nouns which did not have it in OE. are occasionally found throughout the ME. period, and a few such genitives are still preserved in NE., as Friday, Lady day beside Thursday, the Lord's day. The e in -es was generally written, but not pronounced after secondary accented syllables of trisyllabic forms, as felawẹs, housbondẹs, bodiẹs, lādiẹs, \&c.
§ 318. During the ME. period the preposition of came to be used before the nominative and accusative singular to express the genitival relationship, and similarly the preposition to to express the dative.
§ 319. The nominative and accusative plural were always alike in OE. and so also in ME. In OE. the genitive plural of all strong nouns, of whatever gender, ended in $\cdot \mathrm{a}$ (= ME.
-e), except the pure $\overline{0}$-stems which had -ena (= ME. -ene) beside -a. The genitive plural of weak nouns ended in -ena ( $=$ ME. ene). And the dative plural of all nouns, of whatever gender and declension, ended in -um, late OE. un, -on, -an ( $=$ ME. -en), see § 259. The endings ene and -en remained for a time in ME. in those nouns which had the weak ending $\cdot \mathrm{en}$ ( $=$ OE. $\cdot \mathrm{an}$ ) in the nominative and accusative plural. But in those nouns where -(e)s had come to be used for the nominative and accusative plural, the -(e)s was gradually extended to the genitive and dative, that is to say the nominative and accusative came to be used for the genitive and dative.
§ 320. Trisyllabic inflected forms with ele, •en-, -ergenerally syncopated the medial -e., as foules, apples, wintres, fingres, fadres, mọ̆dres (cp. § 102). But when the medial el., -en., er. were preceded by $m, \mathbf{v}, \mathrm{p}$ the medial -e- was retained in writing, but not in pronunciation, as hamęres, devẹles, hevẹnes, brọ̣pẹres. All nouns ending in $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{b}$ changed these to $\mathrm{v}, \mathbf{z}$ (written $\mathbf{s}$ ), and $\delta$ (written p) in the inflected forms. Original medial double consonants were generally simplified when they came to stand finally, as gen. hilles, mannes, pottes beside nom. hil, man, pot. With rare exceptions the Anglo-Norman nouns were inflected in ME. like the native English nouns which in OE. belonged to the masculine a-declension, that is, the genitive singular ended in -es, the dative in -e, and the plural in es.

## A. THE VOCALIC or STRONG DECLENSION

## 1. Mabculine Noung.

§ 321. To this declension belong: (a) the OE. masculine a., ja-, and wa-stems; (b) the OE. masculine i-stems ; and (c) the OE. masculine u -stems. In OE. the nominative and accusative singular of the a-stems, the ja-stems with an
original short stem-syllable, and the long i- and u-stems generally ended in a consonant, as stān slone, dæg day, mearh horse, scōh shoe; hyll hill, mycg midge; dǣl part, giest guest, wyrm worm; fẹld ficld, sumor summer; but the nominative and accusative singular of the ja-stems with an original long stem-syllable, the short i- and u-stems ended in a vowel, as ende end, drincere drinker; wine friend, stede place; sunu son, wudu wood. This difference in the ending of the nominative and accusative singular was regularly preserved in nearly all the nouns in ME.
§ 322. In passing from OE. to ME. the following changes took place in the nom. and acc. singular: nouns like dæg came to end in a diphthong, as dai (pl. daies beside dawes), wei (OE. weg), which also sometimes took ee from the inflected forms, as daie (daye), weie (weye, Ormulum wejze). Nouns of the type mearh, scōh, mycg came to end in a vowel through having been remodelled after the analogy of the inflected forms, as męre (OE. mearh, gen. mēares), schọ (OE. scōh, gen. scōs), migge (OE. mycg, gen. mycges). In late ME. a mute ee was sometimes added to monosyllables ending in a single consonant and containing a long vowel in order to indicate that the preceding vowel was long, as stǫne stone, strę̣me streum, beside stǫn, strę̣m (§11). Final -u was weakened to ee (§ 134).
§323. ME. nouns ending in a consonant; and generally nlso those ending in a diphthong, took ees (also sometimes written -us, -is, -ys, see § 134) in the gen. singular, as stoqnes, daies beside dais, and those ending in a vowel took s , as schọ̄s, sę̄s scas. In early ME. the dat. singular ended in ee (§ 141). This ee was retained when the nom. and acc. ended in ee, but when they did not end in ee they came to be used for the dative also, as nom. acc. and dat. sing. stọn, schọ, dai. Trisyllabic forms containing medial eel-, en-, er. generally syncopated the medial $\cdot e \cdot$, as gen. apples, fingres beside nom. appel, finger (cp. § 102).
§324. Through the weakening of the OE. ending as to -es in ME. the ending of the nom. and acc. plural came to be like that of the gen. singular. The OE. gen. plural ending -a and the dat. ending -um (= late OF. -un, -on, an, §259) were weakened to ee and en which remained in the transition period, but already in early ME. they were supplanted by the nominative and accusative, and thus all cases of the plural came to be alike.
§325. stōn stone, engel angel, ende end, and sone son will serve as models for the nouns belonging to this declension.

| §326. |  | ME. | OE. | ME. | OE. |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. Nom. | Acc. | stōn | stān | engel | engel |
|  | Gen. | stōnes | stānes | engles | engles |
|  | Dat. | stōn(e) | stāne | engle | engle |
| Plural Nom. | Acc. | stōnes | stānas | engles | englas |
|  | Gen. | stōnes | stāna | engles | engla |
|  | Dat. | stōnes | stānum | engles | englum |

§327. Like stōn are declined a large number of nouns, as arm, bǫ̀t, brọ̄m, cọ-mb, craft, dọ̀m, fisch, gōst ghost, hail, hōm, hound, king, nail, rein ruin, rōp, roum room, schaft, stọl, storm, swan, trquih, wind, \&e.; and similarly old long wa-stems, as snǫw, dęw; old long i-stems, as dę̄1, dint, gest, flizt, plizt, wurm; old long u-stems, as fẹld, fọrd, porn, \&c. Nouns ending in a voiceless spirant changed it to the corresponding voiced spirant in the inflected forms. as bệf thirf, moup, gen. bẹves, moupes, and similarly löf louf, knif, staf, wolf, $\bar{q}$ p sath, pap. Medial double consonants were simplified when they came to stand finally, as gen. briddes, hilles, pittes, walles, beside nom. brid, \&c.
§ 328. Like engel are declined nouns ending in eel, een, -er, as appel, crādel, girdel, hunger, sadel, pimbel, punder. But when the eel, een, eer were preceded by $m$ or $v$ the medial ee. was written in the inflected forms, but was not
pronounced, as gen. hamẹres, hevẹnes, dat. hamęre, hevẹne: nom. hamer, heven.

| § 329. |  | ME. | OE. | ME. | OE. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. Nom. | Acc. | ende | ende | sone | sunu |
|  | Gen. | endes | endes | sones | suna |
|  | Dat. | ende | ende | sone | suna |
| Plural Nom. Acc. | endes | endas | sones | suna |  |
|  | Gen. | endes | enda | sones | suna |
|  | Dat. | endes | endum | sones | sunum |

And similarly męre māre horse, sę̣le seal (animal) ; old ja-stems like migge midge, rigge back, wegge wellge ; herde shepherd, whęte; bākere, drinkere, fischere; old short i-stems, as bile bill, bite, dęne valley, stiche; old short u-stems, as mę̀de mead, spite spit, 'veru', wode wude woorl.
§ 330. Nouns ending in a vowel other than ee had simply -s in the gen. singular and in the plural, and no ee in the dat. singular, as flę̨ flea, gen. flęes, dat. flę, pl. fięes, and similarly schọ shoe, sę sea, peni (inflected peniẹs, penes). dai and wei were also similarly inflected, as dais, dat. sing dai.

## 2. Nbuter Nouns.

§ 331. To this declension belong: (a) the OE. neuter a-,ja-, and wa-stems, and (b) the OE. neuter i-stems. These stems were inflected in OE. exactly like the corresponding masculine stems except in the nom. and acc. plural. In OE. the nom. and acc. plural of neuter stems ended either in $u$ or had no ending (EOE. Gr. § 188), whereas the masculine stems ended in -as (= ME. ees). Therefore in treating the neuter nouns it is only necessary to take into consideration the formation of the plural.

1. When the singular ended in a consonant the plural was generally formed by adding es after the analogy of the old masculine a-declension, as word, pl. wordes, and similarly
bak, barn, bọ̀n, bọ̀rd, horn, land, nest, schip, werk; lę̣f leaf, pl. lę̂ves, and similarly baj, hous, lif, \&c.; water, pl. watres, and similarly tọken, wonder, but pl. maidens never maidnes in Chaucer; ja-stems, as bed, pl. beddes, and similarly bil, den, kin, net, rib, web; long i-stems, as flêsch, pl. fięsches, and similarly fiệs fleece, hilt, \&c.

Monosyllabic nouns with a long stem-syllable denoting collectivity, weight, measure, and time generally remained uninflected in the plural just as in OE., as dẹ̀r deer, folk, nę̄t cattle, pound, schệp, swin, zę̨r sệr year, \&c., cp. NE. deer, sheep, swine, five-pound note. This rule practically agrees with that in the modern dialects. In all the modern dialects nouns denoting collectivity, time, space, weight, measure, and number when immediately preceded by a cardinal number generally remain unchanged in the plural, see ED. Gr. § 382.
2. When the singular ended in a vowel or a diphthong in ME. the plural took $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ after the analogy of the corresponding old masculine nouns, as cọle coal, pl. cōles, and similarly dāle, gāte, họle, zọ̆ke (§ 103), fẹ̀ (OE. feoh, gen. fēos) cattle ; old long ja-stems, as ệrende errand, flicche, stẹle steel ; old wa-stems, as męle meal, flour, tę̨re tar ; knệ, trệ, stręę beside straw (OE. strēa beside gen. "strawes) ; short i-stems, as sive sieve, spę̀re spear, \&c.

## 3. Feminine Nouns.

§ 332. To this declension belong: (a) the OE. $\overline{\mathrm{o}} \cdot$, jō., and wo-stems ; (b) the OE. feminine i-stems; and (c) the OE. feminine u-stems. After the OE. final vowels had been weakened to e the following changes took place in the types of nouns belonging to this declension : In the $\overline{\mathbf{0}} \cdot$ and $\mathbf{j} \overline{\mathrm{J}}$-stems which in OE. ended in a consonant the e of the oblique cases was levelled out into the nominative, as bộte advantage, squie, henne $=0$ E. bōt, sāwol, henn. In the wō-
stems we have double forms in ME. according as the old nominative or accusative singular became generalized, as short wō-stems schāde ( $=$ OE. nom. sceadu) beside schadwe ( $=$ OE. acc. sceadwe), sine ( $=$ OE. nom. sinu, sionu) beside sinewe ( $=$ OE. acc. sinwe) sinew; long wōstems, as mę̃de with ee from the inflected forms ( $=0 \mathrm{E}$. nom. mǣd) beside medwe medewe ( $=0 \mathrm{~F}$. acc. mǣdwe) meadow. In the i -stems the ee of the gen. and dat. was levelled out into the nom. and accusative, as quệne ( $=$ OE. nom. acc. cwēn, gen. and dat. cwēne). In the long u-stems the ee ( $=$ OE. -a) of the gen. and dat. was not levelled out into the nom. and accusative, as nom. acc. hand, flộr, quern $=0 E$. hand, flör, cweorn hand-mill. The e of the oblique cases was also not levelled out into the nominative or respectively into the nominative and accusative of other stems ending in -ing (-ung). $\cdot$ st, $\cdot 3 t$, as lerning, fist, mizt $=0 \mathrm{E}$. leornung, fȳst, miht. With the exception of the types of nouns just mentioned, all the other types belonging to this declension regularly have ee from older u in the nominative, as tāle ( $=$ OE. talu), love ( $=$ OE. lufu), \&c.
§ 333. In early Northumbrian, and then later also in WS. and Kentish, the acc. sing. of the $i$-stems often had -e after the analogy of the $\overline{0} \cdot$ stems. The genitive ending (e)s of the strong masc. and neut. nouns was gradually extended to the feminine, but throughout the ME. period forms without -s are sometimes found. Feminine nouns denoting animate objects generally had the ending -(e)s, whereas abstract nouns and nouns denoting inanimate objects mostly or often had simply $e$. The nom. and acc. of those nouns which in ME. ended in a consonant came to be used for the dative at an early period, as hand, lerning, fist, \&c. Chaucer has the dat. honde beside hond. The plural ending of the OE. masculine a- and i-declensions was gradually extended to the strong feminines. The strong feminines had begun to take the s-plural in Northumbrian already in the late OE. period,
as saules, dēdes, \&c. The strong feminines regularly formed their plural in -(e)s in Chaucer, but the southern dialects of the fourteenth century mostly had en after the analogy of the 11 -declension. Later on, however, the plural in these dialects also took the ending -(e)s. See §§ 315-17.
§ 334. tāle number, tale, while time, quệne queen, and hand will serve as models. for the nouns belonging to this declension.
§ 335.

| Sing. |
| :--- |
| Nom. |
| Ace. |
| Gen. |
| Dat. |
| Plural |

Nom.) tāles tala, ee whiles hwīla, ee quệnes cwēne, al
Cen. tāles tala, ena whiles hwila, ena quệnes cwēna Dat. tāles talum (§259) whiles hwīlum quẹ̃nes cwēnum
§ 336. Like tāle are declined the OE . $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$-stems with a short stem-syllable, as cāre, love, schāme, wrāke vengeunce; the OE. abstract nouns in -pu, as lengbe, strengpe; the OE. wō-stems with a short stem-syllable, as schãde (schadwe), sine (sinewe); and the OE. short $u$-stems, as dore dure, nōse.
§337. Like while are declined the OE. $\mathbf{0}$-stems which did not have $u$ in the nom. singular, as fetere, fepere, glọve, 1 ọre, nệdle, netele, sorwe, squile, wounde; the OE. jōstenis, as brigge bridge, cribbe, egge edge, helle, henne, sibbe relationship, sille, sinne; blisse, hinde doc, hōlinesse, reste; the OE. long wō-stems, męde (medwe), stọwe.
§ 338. Like quẹ̆ne are declined the OE . feminine i -stems, as benche, brïde, dệde, hïde, hīve, nệde neer, spẹ̃de success, tide.
§ 330.

| Sing. Nom. Acc. | hand | hand |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | hande(s) | handa |
| Dat. | hand(e) | handa |
| Plural Nom. Acc. | handes | handa |
| Gen. | handes | handa |
| Dat. | handes | handum (§ 259) |

Gen. hande(s) handa
Dat. hand(e) handa

Gen. handes handa
Dat. handes handum (§ 259)
§ 340. Like hand hond are declined the OE. feminine long u-stems, as flọr, quern hand-mill; the OE. abstract nouns in -ung (-ing) and nouns ending in $\cdot$ st, $\cdot \mathrm{ht}$, as blessing, ẹ̀vening, lerning, fist, mizt. The plural hend hands, which was common in the northern dialects, was of ON, origin (O.Icel. hend-r).

## B. THE WEAK OR N-DECLENSION

§ 341. This declension contained in OE. masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns. It contained a large number of masculine and feminine nouns, but only three neuter nouns all of which denote parts of the body, viz. ēage eye, ēare ear, and wange cheek. The only distinction between the masculines and the feminines in OE. was that the nominative singular of the former ended in $\cdot a$, and that of the latter in ee. After the a had been weakened to $-e$ in the nom. singular of the masculines the two classes of nouns had the same endings in all cases of the singular and plural. So that the early ME. case-endings were :-

|  | ME. | OE. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. Nom. | -e | -a, -e |
| Acc. Gen. Dat. | -en | -an |
| Plural Nom. Acc. | -en | -an |
| Gen. | -ene | -ena |
| Dat. | -en | -um (§ 259) |

The following changes took place:-The ee of the nom.
singular supplanted the en (=OE. -an) of the oblique cases of the singular, and then later -s was added for the gen. singular. The singular thus fell together with the old masculine, feminine, and neuter strong nouns whose nom. singular ended in $\cdot \mathrm{e}$ in ME. The extension of (e)s from the old strong masculines and neuters of the a - and i -declensions to the nouns of this declension took place earlier in the masculines than in the feminines. And in the masculines it took place earlier in nouns denoting animate objects than in those denoting inanimate objects. In Chaucer the old feminines generally have -(e)s in the gen. singular, but forms like gen. lādy, sonne, widwe also occur. The old -en plurals remained much longer in the southern and Kentish dialects than in the Midland and northern. In the former dialects the en plural was often extended to nouns which were strong in OE. and even also to Anglo-Norman words. This was especially common with the gen. plural ending ene ( $=$ OE. .ena) of the OE. $\bar{\sigma}$ and n -declensions. On the other hand the een plural was supplanted by the -(e)s plural at an early period in the northern and north Midland dialects. For the approximate dates at which the change from the weak to the strong declension took place in the separate dialects, see § 316.
§ 342. The three OE. neuter nouns ēage, ēare, wange $=$ ME. ềee, eye, $\overline{\mathrm{y}}$ ( (§ 107, 6), ęrre, wange (wonge) were inflected in ME. like the old masculine and feminine weak nouns. The old masculine and feminine contracted weak nouns were inflected in ME. just like the uncontracted nouns, as fię (OE. flēa) flea, pl. flęes, fię̃n, and similarly fọ foe, rō roe ; bę̀ ( 0 E . bēo) bee, pl. bẹ̀s, bện, and similarly slọ̃ sloe, tọ̀ too.
§ 349. Examples of OE. masculine nouns which belong to this declension in ME. are: āpe, asse, bę̣re, bơwe (OE. boga) bow, bukke, dogge, fọle, frogge, hāre, lippe, mọ̆ne, nảme, oxe, sterre star, poumbe thumb, \&c. And
of feminine nouns : asche, belle, bladdre, chệke, chirche, cuppe, harpe, herte, moppe, oule, pipe, sonne, swalwe, tonge tunge, brōte, widewe, wolle wool. lādi older lavdie, lavedie (OE. hlǣfdige) lost its final ee at an early period, cp. Orm's laffdiz (§ 154), and similarly pley (OE. plega).
§ 344. Only a small number of the old plurals in en are found in Chaucer, as hōsen, oxen; in \& few words he has weak and strong forms side by side, as aschen, bẹen, fleęn, fọgn, tǫǫ beside asches, bẹes, flęes, fǫos, togos, and in the old strong noun schọon beside schọos.

## C. THE MINOR DECLENSIONS

§ 345. The nouns belonging to these categories are all old consonant stems, and include nouns belonging to all genders. In treating their history in ME. we shall follow the same order as in the EOE. Gr. §§ 255-67.

## 1. Monosyllabic Consonant Stems.

## a. Masculine.

§ 346. The nouns of this type had umlaut in the dat. singular and the nom. acc. plural, otherwise the case-endings were the same as in the OE. masculine a-declension. In ME. a new dat. singular in e without umlaut was formed after the analogy of nouns like stọn, as fọte beside OE. fēt. The OE. umlauted form of the nom. acc. plural remained and alsa carne to be used for the dative, to which was then added the ending es to form a new genitive, as nom. acc. dat. fệt, gen. fẹ̀tes beside OE. nom. acc. fēt, gen. fōta, dat. fotum, and similarly man, gen. mannes, pl. men; wim(m)an wum(m)an wom(m)an, pl. wim(m)en, \&c.; tộp, pl. tệp.

## b. Feminine.

§ 347. The nouns of this type had umlaut in the dat. singular, and many also had it in the genitive, as dat. sing.
bēc, hnyte, gen. bēc beside bōce, hnute. These cases were remodelled in ME. after the analogy of the old a-declension, as nom. acc. bộk, note nute nut, gen. bộkes, notes, dat. bọke, note. In OE. the nom. acc. plural had umlaut, as bẹc, hnyte, otherwise the case-endings of the plural were the same as in the a-declension. Of the OE. nouns which belonged to this type five preserved the umlaut in the nom. acc. plural in ME., and these cases also came to be used for the old genitive and dative, as nom. acc. gen. dat. gẹ̀s beside OE. nom. acc. gēs, gen. gōsa, dat. gōsum ; and similarly lous, pl. līs; mous, pl. mis ; brẹ̀ch (OE. brēc beside sing. brōc) trousers ; cou, pl. kī ky beside $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{y}} \mathrm{n}$ kien with -n, en from the weak declension. In all the other nouns a new plural in es was formed from the singular after the analogy of nouns like stọn, pl. stōnes, as nom. acc. gen. dat. bọ̆kes, beside OE. nom. acc. bēc, gen. bōca, dat. bōcum; and similarly buŗ buruz borough, pl. burzes burwes; fur3 furu3 furrow, pl. furzes furwes; gọtes beside gę̨t goats; nite, pl. nites; nizt, pl. niztes beside nizt nights ; note, pl. notes nuts ; $\overline{\mathrm{o} k}, \mathrm{pl}$. $\overline{\mathrm{c} k} \mathrm{kes}$ oaks; turf, pl. turves.

## c. Neuter.

§ 348. The only noun belonging to this type in OE. was scrūd garment. Already in OE. it had come to be declined like the long neuter a-stems except that the dat. singular was scrȳd beside scrūde. In ME. it was declined like an ordinary old neuter a-stem with dat. in -(e) and plural in -es, as schroud, pl. schroudes.

## 2. Stems in -b.

§ 349. Of the four OE. nouns belonging to this type only two were preserved in ME., viz. mọnep (OE. mōnap), and aile ale (OE. ealu, gen. and dat. ealop). In OE. mōnap was declined like a masc. a-stem except that the nom. ace.
plural was mōnap. In ME. a new plural in es was formed after the analogy of nouns like stọnes, as mọ̆n(e)pes beside the uninflected form mọ̃nep. āle remained uninflected in ME.

## 3. Stems in -r.

§ 350. To this type belong the nouns of relationship: fader (OE. fæder), brọ̣per (OE. brōpor), mộder (OE: mōdor), dǫuzter (OE. dohtor), suster soster (OE. sweostor), sister (ON. syster).
The plural of fæder was inflected like a masculine a-stem. The nom. acc. pl. fæderas regularly became fadres faderes in ME. and was then used for the gen. and dat.also. In OE. the sing. was fæder in all cases, but the gen. had fæderes beside fæder, and similarly in ME. nom. acc. dat. fader, gen. fader beside fadres.

The uninflected forms brọ̄per, mọ̄der, dquzter of the nom. acc. and gen. singular came to be used for the old umlauted forms brēper, mēder, dehter of the dat. singular, so that the singular of these nouns generally remained uninflected in ME., but sometimes, however', a gen. brọ̣pẹres, mộdres, doquztres is also found.

The OE. nom. acc. pl. mōdor, dohtor regularly became mọder, dquzter in ME., and were then used for the old gen. and dative, but beside these forms there also occur plurals in -es after the analogy of fadres, \&c., and in een after the analogy of the weak declension, as mọ̆dres, mọ̆dren; douztres, dquistren. brọper also has three plural forms all of which are new formations, viz. brệper formed after the analogy of words like tọ̣p, pl. tệp; brọ̣pẹres formed after the analogy of words like fader, pl. fadres ; and brệẹeren formed from brẹper with en from the weak declension.
suster soster (OE. sweostor), sister (ON. syster) remained uninflected in the singular just as in OE. This word like mọ̃der has also three plural forms in ME., viz.
suster, soster, sister, and the plural forms in een, ees, as sustren, sustres.

## 4. Masculine Stems in -nd.

§ 351. OE. had several nouns of this type of which only two were preserved in ME., viz. frệnd friend (OE. frēond) and fệnd enemy, fiend (OE. fēond), see § 73. In OE. the dat. sing. and nom. acc. pl. had umlauted beside unumlauted forms, as dat. sing. friend beside frēonde, pl. friend beside frēondas, otherwise the nouns of this type were inflected like masculine a-stems. In ME. the umlauted form of the dat. singular disappeared, so that the singular was inflected just like an old masculine a-stem. In early ME. the umlauted plural form frẹnd (OE. friend) was preserved, and then later the -es plural frẹ̃ndes (OE. frēondas) became generalized for all cases, and similarly with fệnd.

## 5. Neuter Stems in os, es.

§ 352. This declension originally contained a large number of nouns, all of wh.ch, with the exception of six, passed over into other declensions in the prehistoric period of the language. The six nouns which remained are: cealf calf, cild child, æg egg, lamb lamb, speld splinter, and the pl. breeadru crumbs, the last two of which disappeared in ME.

The singular of cealf, cild, ǣg, and lamb was inflected in OE. like an a-stem, and similarly also in ME. In OE. the plural of these nouns was cealfru, ægru, lambru, and cild beside cildru. The ending -ru regularly became -re in ME., to which was added $n$ in the southern dialects after the analogy of the weak declension, as calvren, eiren, lombren, children beside childer. In the northern dialects we also have children beside childer, but in the other words a new plural in es was formed direct from the singular, as calves, lambes, egges from ON. egg, and then the es plural gradually spread to all the dialects.

## CHAPTER VIII

## ADJECTIVES

## 1. THE DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES

## a. The Strong Declension.

§ 353. In OE. the strong declension is divided into pure a., $\overline{0} \cdot$-stems, ja., jō•stems, and wā•, wō•stems like the corresponding nouns. The original i- and u-stems passed over almost entirely into this declension in prehistoric OE. In OE. the declension of the ja-, jō-stems and wa•, wō-stems only differed from that of the pure a-, $\bar{o} \cdot$ stems in the masc. and fem. nom. singular and the neuter nom. acc. singular, and even here the ja-, jō-stems with an original short stemsyllable and the wa., wō-stems with a long stem-syllable were declined like pure a-, ō-stems, see EOE. Gr. §§ 270, 279, 284. The ending of the nom. singular of the various types was accordingly in OE. :-

| Masc. | Neut. | Fem. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| - | - | ,$--\mathrm{u}(\cdot 0)$ |
| -e | -e | $\cdot \mathrm{u}(\cdot 0)$ |
| $-\mathrm{u}(\cdot \mathrm{o})$ | $-\mathrm{u}(\cdot \mathrm{o})$ | $\cdot \mathrm{u}(\cdot 0)$ |

After the ending -u ( -0 ) had been weakened to $\cdot \mathrm{e}(\S 134(a))$, the masc. neut. and fem. singular of the adjectives of these types ended in a consonant or in e -, as short $\mathbf{a}$-, $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$-stems: glad (OE. masc. and neut. glæd, fem. gladu, -0), and similarly blak, smal, \&c.; long a-, ō-stems and long wa-, wō-stems : brọ̄d broad (OE. masc. neut. and fem. brād), and similarly cǫld, dę̄d dead, dę̣f deaf, hard, lang (long), rę̄d red, rist, wīs; slọw (OE. slāw with -w from the inflected forms) ; pl. fęwe (OE. fēawe few); ja•, jō-stems: clę̣ne
(OE. masc. and neut. clǣne, fem. clǣnu, .o), and similarly blīpe, grệne, kệne, newe, rīpe, pinne, \&c.; frẹ̄ (OE. frēo fice) ; short wa-, wō-stems: narwe (OE. masc. neut. and fem. nearu, gen. masc. and neut. nearwes) with $\mathbf{w}$ from the old inflected forms, and similarly falewe (fale) fallow, zelwe (3elowe) yellow, \&c.

A certain number of OE. adjectives with a short stemsyllable came to end in ee in ME. through the levelling out of the inflected forms, as bāre beside bar (OE. bær, gen. bares), and similarly lāte, smāle beside lat, smal, see § 103. And as OE. final -ig was weakened to $i$ in ME. all the adjectives of this type also ended in a vowel in ME., as hevi (OE. hefig), and similarly blộdi, hŏ̆li, \&e., see § 138.
§ 354. The OE. endings of the oblique cases were :-

|  | Masc. | Neut. | Fem. |
| ---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Sing. Acc. | -ne | $=$ Nom. | -e |
| Gen. | -es | -es | -re |
| Dat. | -um | -um | -re |
| Plural Nom. Acc. | -e | - -u $\mathbf{r}(\cdot 0)$ | -a, $\cdot$ e |
| Gen. | -ra | -ra | -ra |
| Dat. | -um | -um | -um |

In late OE. and early ME. the endings -um (see § 259), $\cdot u(\cdot 0), \cdot a$, and $\cdot$ ra were regularly weakened to -en, ee, re ( $\S 134$ ). A few of the old case-endings are occasionally found in early ME., viz. the ending of the acc. mase. singular ne, the gen. and dat. fem. singular ee (-ere), and a few isolated forms of the gen. plural were still preserved in Chaucer, as oure aller cok, alderbest, alderwerst, alderfirst, see §148. Apart from these isolated forms of the gen. plural, the form of the masc. nom. singular had become generalized for the whole of the singular, and the form of the nom. acc. plural had become generalized for the whole of the plural before the end of the first half of the thirteenth century. We accordingly arrive at the following scheme for the
inflexion of strong adjectives in what might be termed standard ME. :-
(a) Monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant remained uninflected throughout the singular, and had ee throughout the plural, as brọ̃d, gọ̄d, glad, pl. brọ̄de, gọ̄de, glade.
(b) Adjectives which ended in a vowel in OE. or which came to end in a vowel in ME. (§ 140) remained uninflected throughout the singular and plural.
(c) Dissyllabic adjectives including past participles ending in a consonant remained uninflected throughout the singular and plural through loss of the old final ee in the plural, as bitter, litel, bounden, cursed, \&c., see § 142.

The Anglo-Norman adjectives were generally inflected like the native English adjectives.

## b. The Weak Declension.

§ 355. In OE. the weak declension of adjectives had the same case-endings as the weak declension of nouns except that the gen. plural had the strong ending ra beside the weak ending ena. The nom. singular of the masculine ended in -a, and that of the feminine and neuter in $\cdot e$, as gōda, gōde; clǣna, clǣne; nearwa, nearwe. Through the weakening of the final $\cdot$ a to ee the nom. singular came to be alike for all genders in ME.
§ 356. The endings of the oblique cases were :-

|  | Masc. | Neut. | Fem. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. Acc. | -an | -e | -an |
| Gen. | -an | -an | -an |
| Dat. | -an | -an | -an |
| Plural Nom. Acc. | -an | -an | -an |
| Gen. | -ena | -ena | -ena |
| Dat. | -um | -um | -um |

In late OE. and early ME. the endings -an, ena, um (see § 259) were regularly weakened to een, eene, and even these
two endings had ceased to be in use after about the beginning of the thirteenth century. In ordinary standard ME. the only distinction preserved between the old strong and weak declensions of adjectives is in the singular of monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant, as strong sing. gọid, pl. gộde ; weak sing. gọ̃de, pl. gọ̃de. In all the other types of adjectives there was no longer any distinction betiveen the strong and weak declensions.

## 2. THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

§ 357. In OE. the comparative and superlative belonged to the weak declension except that the neuter nom. acc. singular had the strong beside the weak form in the superlative, but in ME. they ceased to be inflected at an early period, cp. § 154. In OE. the comparative had or had not umlaut in the stem-syllable according as the ending -ra corresponded to Germanic -izõ̃ or -ozoõ, and similarly in the superlative est $=$ Germanic $\cdot$ ist beside ost $=$ Germanic -ōst., see EOE. Gr. § 291, as

| eald old | ieldra <br> giengra <br> geong young | ieldest <br> giengest <br> gingra |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| grēat great | gringestra | grietest |
| lang long | lengra | lengest |
| but earm poor | earmra | earmost |
| glæd glad | glædra | gladost |
| lēof dear | lēofra | lēofost |

The •ra and -ost regularly became $\cdot$ re (•ere) and est in late OE. and early ME. ( $\S \S 148,149$ ), so that in ME. the comparative was generally formed by means of -re (-ere), later (e)r, and the superlative by -(e)st, as

| hard | harder | hardest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fair | fairer | fairest |
| clę̣ne | clę̨ner | clęnest |

§ 358. Only a small number of OE. adjectives had umlaut in the comparative and superlative, and even some of these did not have it in ME. .The most important ME. examples are :-

| gręt <br> lang (long) |
| :---: |
| nei3, ni3 near |
| ¢̣ld <br> strang (strong |

gretter (OE. grietra) grettest
lenger lengest beside
nęre (OE. nēahra) next (OE. niehst) nerre (OE. nēarra) nêst (Angl, nēst) elder strenger
longest next (OE. niehst) eldest strengest

Note.-The usual ME. comparative and superlative of zung young were zungre, er, zungest formed direct from the positive, but beside these there were also the regular forms zingre (OE. gingra), zingest (OE. gingest) from which a new positive zing was formed, and which was common throughout the ME. period.
§ 359. Long vowels were regularly shortened in the comparative ( $\S 90$ ), and then the short vowel was often extended to the superlative, and sometimes even to the positive, as

| grę̆t | gretter | grettest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hōtt | hotter | hottest |
| lāte | latter | last |
| stif | stiffer | stiffest |

In later ME. the comparative and superlative were generally formed direct from the positive, as gręter, grę̨test beside older gretter, grettest ; and similarly ḡlder, ōldest beside elder, eldest ; lāter, lātest beside latter, last (§ 249) ; \&c.
§ 360. Anglo-Norman monosyllabic and dissyllabic adjectives also formed their comparative in er and superlative in -est, but adjectives of more than two syllables generally formed their comparative and superlative by prefixing mogre, mogst to the positive.
§ 301. A certain number of adjectives in ME. as in OE. and NE. form their comparatives and superlatives from a different root than the positive:-
gộd
ẹvel, ill, badde
muche(1), mikel
litel, lite
better
werse, wurse
mǫre (māre) lasse, lesse
best (§ 249)
werst, wurst (§ 123)
męest (mōst, mãst) lęst(e)
§ 362. In a certain number of OE. words the comparative was originally formed from an adverb or a preposition, with a superlative in um-, -uma. The simple superlative suffix was preserved in OE. forma = Goth. fruma, ME. be forme the firsi, from which was formed in ME. the new comparative former. In prehistoric OE., as in Gothic, to -um- was added the ordinary superlative suffix -ist- which gave rise to the double superlative suffix -umist-, as Goth. frumists first, hindumists hindmost. In OE. -umist. regularly became -ymist-, later -imest-, emest-, -mest-, as inne within, innera, innemest. In ME. the ending -mest came to be associated with męst, later mōst (māst) with $\overline{\mathbf{q}}(\overline{\mathrm{a}})$ from the old comparative, whence such ME. forms as formę̃st, formōst, formāst, beside formest, and similarly inmōst (innermōst), soupmōst, ŭtmōst (uttermōst), \&c.

## 3. NUMERALS

## a. Cardinal Numrrals.

§ 363. Apart from the regular phonological changes the cardinal numerals also underwent other changes in passing from OE. to ME. The following are the most important changes to be noted:-
$\bar{\phi} \mathrm{n}$ (northern $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{n}$ ), but $\bar{\phi}$ (northern $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) before words beginning with a consonant, was used as a numeral ; and the early shortened form an (§101), but a before words beginning with a consonant, was used as the indefinite article (§ 247).
twọ, twọ, tọ̣ (northern tuā) = OE. fem. and neut. twā, came to be used also for the masculine; and similarly twein(e), tweie (= OE. masc. twēgen) came to be used also for the feminine and neuter.
prẹ̄ $=$ OE. fem. and neut. prio, prēo, came to be used also for the masculine.

In OE. the cardinals 4 to 19 generally remained uninflected when they stood before a noun, whereas, if they stood after a noun or were used as nouns, they were inflected as follows: nom. acc. masc. and fem. •e, neut. -u (•o), gen. •a, dat. •um. The inflexional ending ee was also preserved in ME., especially when the numerals stood after the noun or were used alone, whence the ME. double forms five, sevene, \&c., beside fif, seven, \&c.

The regular OE. forms used for expressing the decades 70 to 120 , as hundseofontig, hundeahtatig, hundnigontig, hundtēontig, hundendleofantig, hundtwelftig were supplanted by the new formations seventi, \&c., hundred and ten, hundred and twenti. The form hund, which along with the units was used to express the hundreds 200 to 900 , was gradually supplanted by hundred. In OE. the decades, hundred (hund), and pūsend were nouns and governed the genitive case. In ME. they were almost exclusively used as adjectives,
§ 364. The ME. cardinals are: $\bar{\phi} \mathrm{n}, \bar{\phi}$ (northern $\bar{a} n, \bar{a})$, twō, twọ, tọ̆ (northern tuā), tweine, tweie ; prẹ̀ ; four(e), fowre (cp. § 112 note 2) ; fif, five ; six(e), sex(e) (Angl. sex); seven(e) ; eizte, auzte (northern a3t(e)), see §§ 107, 4, 110,5; nizen(e), nine ; tẹ̀ne beside the shortened form ten (§ 92 ); ellevẹn(e), elevẹn(e), enleven (cp. § 243) ; twelf, twelve; prettệne, prittẹ̄ne; fqurtệne; fiftẹ̃ne; sixtẹ̄ne; seventẹ̃ne; eiztetẹ̃ne; nizentẹ̀ne, ninetẹ̄ne; twenti, pretti (pritti), fourti, fifti, sixti, seventi, eizteti (eizti), nizenti (nin(e)ti), hundred beside hundrep (ON. hundrap), bousend.

## b. Ordinal Numerals.

§ 365. In passing from OE. to ME. some of the ordinals underwent analogical changes besides the regular phonological changes. From about the end of the thirteenth century onwards the French form secounde was used beside the English form ọper. Several of the ordinals were new formations formed direct from the corresponding ME. cardinals, as sevenpe, ninhbe, teňnje, prettẹ̀npe (brittẹ̃npe), \&c., beside the regular forms sevepe (OE. seofopa), nizepe (OE. nigopa), tệpe (OE. tēopa), pretteẹpe prittệpe (OE. prēotēopa), \&c. Besides these new formations there were also others ending in de which were partly or entirely due to ON. influence, as sevende ( 0 .Nth. seofunda, siofunda, O.Icel. sjaunde), nizende, nīnde ( 0. Icel. nionde), tĕnde (O.Icel. tionde, tīunde), prettĕ̌nde, prittĕ̌nde ( $0 . I$ Icel. prettānde), \&c. hundred and pousend had no ordinal forms in ME. just as in OE.
§ 366. The ME. ordinals are: first, fürst, ferst, verst ( $0 \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{fyrest}$ ), ộper (secounde), pridde (pirde), fqurbe (ferpe, firpe), fifte, sixte, sevepe (sevenpe, sevende), eiztepe (e3tende, northern ajtand), nizepe (nizende, ninde, ninje), tệpe (tĕ̌npe, tĕ̀nde), ellefte (ellevende), twelfte, prettệpe (prittệpe, prettě̌nje, prittěnde), and similarly fqurtệpe, fiftệe, sixtệbe, seventệpe, \&c., twentibe, prittipe, \&c.

## c. Other Numerals.

§ 367. The ME. multiplicative numeral adjectives were formed from the cardinals and the suffix $\cdot$ fogld ( $=$ OE. .feald),包nfold beside the loan-word simple, twō-, twọ-fōld beside the loan-word double, pręefọld, \&c., fęlefǫld, manifōld.
§ 368. Adverbial multiplicatives are: ōnes, ānes, ęnes (OE. gen. ǣnes), twies, pries. The remaining multiplicatives were expressed by sỉpe, times, as fif sỉpe (OE. fif sijum), times, \&c., fęlesỉpe, mani sīpe.
§ 369. For the first, second, third, \&c., time, were expressed by sïpe, time and the ordinals just as in OE., as je pridde sipe (OE. priddan sipe).
§ 370. The distributive numerals were expressed by bil along with a cardinal, or by two cardinals connected by and, as ọ̀n and ọnn, prệ and prẹ̀ ; bǐ prẹ̃, bĭ twelve, \&c.

## CHAPTER IX

## PRONOUNS

## 1. PERSONAL

§ 371. The old accusative forms mec, pec, ūsic and ēowic of the first and second persons singular and plural had been supplanted by the old dative forms mê, pĕ̃, ūs, ēow already in late OE., so that the old datives were used to express both cases in ME. also. And in ME. the old accusative forms of the masculine and feminine and the old accusative plural forms of the third person were also supplanted by the old dative forms. The old genitives ( $\mathrm{OE} . \min$, pin, pl. üre, ēower; his, hiere (hire), pl. hiera, hira, heora) lost their genitival meaning in fairly early ME. except in isolated phrases like ūre nọn nonc of us, üre aller of all of us. The old genitival meaning came to be expressed by the preposition of and the dative of the personal pronouns. The old dual forms nom. wit, 3 it ; acc. dat. unc, inc; gen. uncer, incer occur in Lazamon, Ormulum, Genesis and Exodus, Havelok, and The Owl and the Nightingale, but gradually disappeared in the latter half of the thirteenth century.

## a. The First and Second Persons.

§ 372. Singular : Nom, accented form : northern ik, ic, Midland and southern ich (§ 235), but also ic until the beginning of the thirteenth century. The unaccented form
i began to be used in the northern and Midland dialects from the twelfth century onwards．At this early period $\mathbf{i}$ only occurred when the next word began with a consonant， but the i gradually came to be used also when the next word began with a vowel，and by about 1400 it had become the only form used in these dialects．Chaucer generally has i both for the accented and unaccented form．He rarely used ich．From i was formed at a later period a new accented form $\mathbf{i}$（ $=$ NE．ai），but the old unaccented form $i$ has leen preserved in many modern dialects in interrogative and subordinate sentences．The form ich was in use throughout the ME．period in the southern and south－western dialects． The forms ich（uch，utchy）along with contracted forms ch＇am，\＆c．，were formerly used in the modern dialects of Dor．，Som．，and Dev．，and these forms are still used by old people in a small district of Som．close to Yeovil on the borders of Dor．Contracted forms were also common in the Elizabethan dramatists in the speech of rustics，as in King Lear chill $I$ will，chud $I$ woild．Accusative and dative mê．
Nom．pū（pou）beside the unaccented form pŭ，which became tou（tŭ）when attached enclitically to a verb，as hastou，tư̆ hast thou，wiltou，tŭ wilt thou（cp．§ 243）．This form with t－ has also been regularly preserved in interrogative and sub－ ordinate sentences in many of the modern dialects．Thou in its various dialect forms is still in general use in most of the modern dialects of England，but not in Scotland，to express familiarity or contempt，but it cannot be used to a superior without conveying the idea of impertinence．Accusative and dative pě．．From the thirteenth century onwards 3e⿱丷天（yë） began to be used for pou as the pronoun of respect in addressing a superior，and in the form $\overline{1}$（generally written ee）it has survived in most of the south Midland and southern dialects down to the present day．During the fourteenth century you also came to be used for both pou
and pee, and then in the fifteenth century ye also came to be used for the acc. pē and you.

Plural : nom. wě, acc. and dat. ūs (ous) beside the unaccented form ŭs ( $=$ NE. us) ; nom. 3ê (OE. gĕ), also written zee, ye(e), zhe, yhe, \&c., acc. and dat. 3ou (3ow) you (for numerous variant spellings see N. E. D. s. v.) from OE. eốw older êow (§ 112 note 1).

## 乙. The Third Person.

§ 373. Masculine Singular : nom. hĕ beside the unaccented forms ha, a, rarely e (still preserved in the modern dialects in the form ə). The dat. him had supplanted the old acc. hin(e) in the northern and Midland dialects by about 1150, and in the southern dialects in the early part of the fourteenth century. But in the south Midland and southern dialects it must have remained in colloquial use throughout the ME. period, as is evidenced hy the modern dialects of this area. en, un ( $=$ ən), the unaccented form of OE. hine, is still in general use in the modern dialects of the south Midland, southern, and south-western counties as the unaccented form of 'im. It is also used of inanimate objects and in West Som. of feminine animals though never of women. Dative him.
§ 374. The Neuter Singular: Nom. Acc. hit (OE. hit) beside the unaccented form it ( $\S 301$ ). it began to appear so early as the twelfth century, and in the fifteenth century supplanted the old accented form in the standard language. hit is still used in the modern dialects of Scotland and Northumberland. Dative him, which was never used for the accusative.
§ 375. The Feminine Singular: The nom. had several forms in ME. which arose partly from OE. hīo (hēo), Anglian hie she, and partly from the OE. feminine demonstrative sīo (sēo), Anglian sie the, that.

Subj. strong and weak verbs sing. ee, pl. en. OE. $\cdot \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{pl}$. -en.

Pp. : strong verbs een, weak verbs eed (•d), •t.
The personal endings of the preterite indicative were lost fairly early in the northern dialects, so that the singular and plural had the same form throughout, as spak, māked, \&c., whereas the other dialects preserved the old difference between the singular and plural as in Chaucer. In the northern dialects the preterite indicative came to be used at an early period for the subjunctive, as northern band beside Midland and southern bounde, pl. bounden. This change had also taken place in the Midland dialects before Chaucer's time. The past participle was rarely inflected even in early ME. The prefix ze, later i-, y- (§ 240) disappeared early in the northern dialects, and mostly also in the Midland dialects. It remained longest in the southern dialects. It has been preserved in the form $\partial$ - in many of the modern south Midland and south-western dialects. For eed in the past participle of weak verbs the northern dialects generally had -id, the Scottish -it, and the west Midland -ud (-ut), see §§ 134, 239 ; and similarly in the preterite after the loss of final ee (§ 141).
§ 393. The final $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ of the infinitive disappeared in the OE. period in Northumbrian, whereas in the pp. of strong verbs it remained throughout the ME. period in the northern dialects. It also disappeared fairly early in the infinitive and pp. of strong verbs in the Midland and southern dialects, and in the indicative present plural of the Midland dialects, as well as in the plural of the present subjunctive, the plural of the preterite indicative and subjunctive of all the dialects, cp. § 247.

## A. STRONG VERBS

§ 394. In ME. as in OE. the strong verbs are divided into seven clasees. Before giving examples of the various
classes of strnng verbs, it will be useful to state here in a connected manner some of the changes which these verbs underwent in general during the ME. period:-

1. In the present of verbs belonging to the third, fourth, and fifth classes the ě of the first person singular and of the plural was levelled out into the second and third persons singular, as helpe, helpest, helpeb $=0 E$. helpe, hilp(e)st, hilp(e)\}; bę̨re, bę̨rest, bę̨rep $=0 E$. bere, $\operatorname{bir}(\mathrm{e})$ st, $\operatorname{bir}(\mathrm{e})$ p; ęte, ętest, ętep $=0 \mathrm{E}$. ete, $\mathrm{it}(\mathrm{e})$ st, itep, $\mathrm{it}(\mathrm{t})$.
2. The unmutated forms of the first person singular and of the plural of the present were levelled out into the second and third persons singular, except in a few monosyllabic forms of the southern dialects, as falle, fallest, fallep $=$ OE. fealle, fielst, fielp, but southern gō, gę̀st, gęp $=O E$. gā, gæèst, gāp.
3. Verbs which had double consonants in the first person singular and in the plural of the present levelled out the double consonants (except bb, gg) into the second and third persons singular, as falle, fallest, falle\} $=O E$. fealle, fielst, fielp; sitte, sittest, sittep $=0 \mathrm{E}$. sitte, sitst, $\operatorname{sit}(\mathbf{t})$.
4. The old form of the second person singular of the preterite was generally preserved in early ME. in the Midland and southern dialects, as bounde, spệke spệke beside band (bond), spak of the first and third persons singular, but in the northern dialects the form of the first and third person singular became generalized for the singular at an early period, and similarly later in the Midland and southern dialects, which at a still later period often added -est from the present of the second person singular. Chaucer has the old beside the new form, as songe ( $=$ sunge), bęre bệre beside drank, spak.
5. In the northern dialects the preterite singular had begun to be levelled out into the plural already at the beginning of the fourteenth century, whereas in the Midland and southern dialects the old distinction between the stem.
vowels of the singular and plural forms was generally preserved throughout the ME. period, but even in Chaucer the singular was sometimes levelled out into the plural. On the other hand the form of the plural was sometimes levelled out into the singular in the Midland and southern dialects, as sệte), sę̨t(e), pl. sệten sę̀ten, beside northern sat, pl. sat(e).
6. In the second class of strong verbs the preterite plural was generally remodelled on the past participle, as crōpen for older crupen (OE. crupon), pp. crọpen (OE. cropen) crept.
7. In OE. the preterite singular and plural of the seventh class of strong verbs had $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ or ēo, but as ēo became ẹ̣ in ME. all the verbs of this class, which remained strong in ME., had ẹ in the preterite, see § 65.
8. In the northern dialects the preterite indicative came to be used at an early period for the preterite subjunctive, which was generally also the case in Chaucer.
9. The final $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ of the past participle remained throughout the ME. period in the northern dialects, whereas in the other dialects it disappeared fairly early, as northern cumen, tāken, beside ycome, ytāke in the other dialects.
10. The participial ending en became $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ after liquids, and after long vowels and diphthongs, as stọln, bọ̀rn, swōrn; leyn, seyn, slayn (§§ 144, 147).
11. Only a few verbs preserved the operation of Verner's Law (EOE. Gr. §§ 115, 116), as wệren węrren : was, forlọ̆r(e)n : forlẹ̀sen, sǫ̃den : sệ̣en.
12. As early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries many of the OE. strong verbs had begun to have weak beside the strong forms, and some verbs had become entirely weak before the end of the ME. period. All the French verbs were weak in ME. except strīven' (O.Fr. estriver). ON. verhs remained strong or weak according as they were strong or weak in ON.

Full Conjugation of a ME. Strong Verb.
§ 395. The early ME. inflexion of bilnden will serve as a model for the conjugation of strong verbs generally.

## Present.

Indicative.
S. and

Ken. E.M. W.M. N. OE.
Sing.1. binde binde binde binde binde
2. bintst bindest bīndes(t) bindes bindest, bintst
3. bint bindep, es bindep, es bindes bindep, bint
Plur. bindep binden binden, es bindes bindap Subjunctive.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Sing. bî̀nde } \\ \text { Plur. bînden }\end{array}\right\}$ in all the dialects, OE. binde, pl. binden. Imperative.
Sing. bînd in all the dialects, OE. bind.
Plur. N. bindes, but bindeb in the other dialects, OE. bindap.

Infinitive.
N. binde, but binden in the other dialects, OE. bindan.

## Present Participle.

N. bindand, M. bīndende, S. and Ken. bīndinde, OE. bindende, cp. § 301.

Preterite.
Indicative.
S. and Ken.

Sing. 1. bond
2. bounde

3 , bond
Plur. bounden
M.
band (bond) band
bounde band band (bond) band bounden band(en) bunden

Subjunctive.

|  | S. and Ken. | M. | N. | OE. <br> Sing. <br> bounde <br> blur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bounden | bounde <br> bounden | bande <br> band(en) |  |  |
|  |  | Participle. |  |  |
|  | Bebounden |  |  |  |

## The Classification of Strong Verbs.

Class I.

| § 398. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { OE, } \\ & \text { ME. } \end{aligned}$ | i | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ (§ 51) | i | i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | i | $\overline{\mathrm{q}}$ (N. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) | i | i |
|  |  | biten | bột (N. bāt) | biten | biten |
|  |  | driven | drộ (N. drāf) | driven | dri |

And similarly abiden (biden), agrisen to be horrified, arisen (risen), bistriden, biswiken to deceive, cliven to adhere, fliten to quarrel, gliden, gripen to grip, seize, riden, rinen to touch, rīven ( ON . rīfa) to tear, schinen, schrīven, slìden, sliten to siit, smiten, striden, striken, striven (O.Fr. estriver), priven ( $O N$. prifa), writen, wripen to twist. On preterites like bộte, arộse ( $\mathbf{s}=\mathbf{z}$ ), drọve beside older bọt, arōs, drọ̆f, cp. §§ 140, 268, 277; and on early shortenings like droff(e, schroff(e see § 100.
§ 387. As early as the fourteenth century many of the verbs in the preceding paragraph had begun to have weak beside the strong forms either in the preterite or past participle or in both, as bited(e, bited ; schined (e, schined ; and similarly with grīpen, schriven, striken, strīven, priven; and with shortening of the stem-vowel, as slitte, y -slit (cp. §§ 87, 83), and similarly with fliten, sliden, sliten, smiten. Some verbs passed over entirely into the weak conjugation, as dwinen to disappear, dwined(e, dwined; spiwen (§ 116), spiwed(e, spiwed; siken sichen (OE. sican) to sigh, pret. sǐ3te, pp. y-sǐ3t formed after the analogy
of verbs like squite, $\mathbf{y}$-soquzt ( $\$ 426$ ) : sệken sệchen to seck, from the preterite and pp. was formed the new present sihen sijen sighen in the fourteenth century ; \&c.
§ 398. sỉen, sien syyen $=0$ E. sigan $(\S 122,2)$ to $\operatorname{sink}$, fall ; pret. sing. sā 3 , $\mathfrak{s} \overline{3} 3$, sę̧, sey ( $(107,5)$ beside late ME. weak seit seyt seyit; pp. y-sigen (sezen). stīen, stien stȳen $=0$. stigan (§ 122, 2), steien to ascend; pret. sing. stā , stawe (§ 110, 4), stẹ̀z (stei3) beside weak stidẹe, stìede, stī3ed(e, stę̄zed(e, pl. stizen, stīen stȳen (§ 122, 1), stọ wen (§ 113, 3); pp. stizen, stien stȳen, stōjen beside weak stīed, steied. wrện (OE. wrēon) to cover ; pret. sing. wrę̨ 3 (wrei3), pl. wrizen, wrien wrȳen ; pp. wrizen, wrien wrȳen. pẹ̀n (OE. pēon) to thrire; pret. sing. bę̧3 (pei3), pl. pēzen (pqwen); pp. pēzen (fowen). The pret. sing. sę̧, stę̨3 (stei3), wrę̀ (wreiz) were formed after the analogy of class II (§401), and pệ̄s (OE. pēon, 弓āh, pigon, pigen) went over entirely into this class.

| Class II. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| §399. OE. | èo | ēa | u | 0 |
|  | è | $\overline{\text { en }}$ | $\bar{q}$ (u) | $\overline{9}$ |
|  | fiẹten to fow | fięt | flọten (fluten) | flọten |

In early ME. the pret. plural regularly had $u$, but later the verbs of this class generally had $\overline{\bar{q}}$ from the past participle ; and similarly brẹwen ( $\S 112,1$ ) to brev, chẹwen (chọwen, cp. § 65 note) to cherv, clệven to cleave, crệpen to creep, sệten to pour, rẹwen to rue bệden to lid, command, pret. sing. bę̃d beside bedd with early shortening (cp. §100), bộd (see § 384,5), and bad due to mixing up of bidden (§ $\mathrm{4}^{10}$ ) with bệden, pl. buden, bọ̃den, bedden (see § 394,5), pp . bộden, late ME. bodden with shortening of the stemvowel. schẹ̄ten (schūten, schọ̀ten, cp. § 65 and note) beside schott(en with early shortening to shoot, pret. sing. schẹ̀t, pl. schọ̄ten beside schotten; pp. schộten, later schotten,
schot. Many of the above verbs had weak beside the strong forms as early as the fourteenth century, as pret. and pp. brẹwed(e, brẹud, brued; clẹ̄ved(e (clefte, cleft with shortening of the stem-vowel, see § 92, 2) ; and similarly crệped(e (crepte, crept); flệted(e (flette); rẹwed(e; schotte, schott.
§ 400. sệpen to seethe, pret. sing. sępp, pl. sọden (suden) beside weak sệped(e, pp. sọ̃den (sộpen); chẹ̄sen (chüsen, chọ̄sen to choose, cp. § 65 and note), pret. sing. chę̄s ( $=\mathbf{O E}$. cêas), chās, chọ̄s ( $=$ OE. ceắs), pl. cǫren (curen), chǫsen, chę̨sen (cp. § 394,5) beside weak chẹ̄sed(e, chüsed(e, pp. cōren, cơrrn, chōsen; and similarly frẹsen to freeze, forlệsen lẹ̀sen to lose (weak pret. and pp. also leste, lest ; loste, lost). For the consonant changes due to Verner's law see EOE. Gr. § 116.
§ 401. drȩ̣en, dreien (drīen drȳen, cp. § 107, 6) to endure, pret. sing. drę̨3 (dreiz § 107, 5), pl. druzen, drę̧en (dreien) with ę (ei) from the singular (cp. § 394,5), pp. drǫzen, drôwen (cp. § 113, 2) ; lȩ̣en, leien (lizen, lien lȳen) to tell lics, pret. sing. lę̨ (lei3), pl. luzen (lowen, ou $=\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, see § 122, 5), lǫwen besile weak lệzed(e, leized(e lized(e, lȳed(e, pp. lọ̧en, lo wen beside weak līzed, lied; tę̀n (OE. tēon) to draw, pret. tę̧ (teiz), pl. tuzen (towen, cp. § 122, 5), pp. tọ̧en, tọwen. ME. fiẹn (OE. flēon) to flee and flẹ̄zen (OE: flēogan) to fly became mixed up in the present, as flẹ̀n (flien flyen), pret. sing. flę̧ (fleiz), flā3(e (flaw(e), pl. fluzen (flowen), fiōzen (flow wen) beside weak fięde, fledde with early shortening (cp. § 100), pp. fiōzen (flowen), flown (ficqun) beside weak fledd; pres. flȩ̣en (Ormulum flȩ̧̣henn), fleien, flien fiȳen, fiẹn, pret. sing. flę̧ (fleiz), fī̄z(e (flaw(e), flow(e with $\mathbf{o w}$ from the plural and pp., pl. fluzen (flowen, § 122, 5), fiǫzen (fiowen) beside late weak pret. flȳde, pp. flọzen (fiọwen).

būzen bouzen (büen bouen bowen, § 122,6) to bove, bend pret. sing. bę̄3 (bei3), pl. buzen (buwen, bouen bowen ( $\$ 122$, 5 ), beside weak bouzed (e, bouwed(e bowed(e, pp. bēzen, bowen $1 \S 113,2$ ) beside weak bowed; schūven (schouven, schove(n)) to pussh, shove, pret. sing. schę̣f, schọ̆f (§ 301, 5) beside weak schoved(e, schufte, pp. schōven (schuven) beside weak schowved, schuft; sūken (souken) to suck, pret. sing. sę̨k, sọ̀k $(\S 394,5)$ beside weak souked $(\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{pl}$. suken, sộken, pp. sǫ̀ken (sŭken) beside weak souked; and similarly sūpen (soupen) to sup; unlūken (unlouken) to unlock.

## Class III.

§ 403.
OE. i

ME. i
drinken
spinnen
a (o)
a (0) , § 42
drank (dronk)
span (spon)
u
u
$\mathbf{u}(0=u) \quad u(0=u), \S \rho$
drunken drunken
spunnen spunnen

And similarly with other verbs containing a nasal + consonant other than d or b, as schrinken, sinken, stinken, swinken to labour, toil; clingen, dingen (ON. dengja) to beat, strike, flingen (ON. flengja), ringen, singen, slingen (ON. slöngva), springen, stingen, swingen, pringen to throng, press; bilimpen to happen, swimmen; biginnen (N. pret. also bigoupe, see note); blinnen to cease, rinnen (ON. rinna) to run, winnen. To this subdivision properly belong also irnen, ernen, urnen (WS. iernan, Angl. eornan to run, see EOE. Gr. § 340 note), pret. sing. arn(e, orn(e (OE. arn, orn), pl. and pp. urnen, ornen beside weak pret. ernde, also arnde ( pp . y -arned, arnd) from the OE. weak causative verb ærnan; and rennen (ON. renna) to run, pret. sing. ran (ron), pret. pl. and pp. runnen (ronnen) beside weak pret. rende, renned(e, pp. renned.

Some of the above verbs had weak beside the strong forms, especially in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, as
sinked, stinked, swinked; dinged, swinged; swimde ( pp . swimmed).
Note.-1. The pret. bigan (bigon) was often used as a kind of auxiliary verb with loss of the prefix and unvoicing of the g - to k -, whence the common forms con in the west Midland and can in the northern dialects. And then in Scottish the new can became mixed up with old can (§435) and gave rise to the analogical pret. koup(e) beside bigan, bigoup(e), see N.E.D. s.v.
2. The ME. for to buin comprises forms from four different types of stem:-(1) bern-, the OW. strong intransitive verb WS. biernan, Angl. beornan; (2) brinn-, the strong intransitive verb OE. *brinnan (ON. brinna) ; (3) barn-, the OE. weak causative verb bærnan; (4) brenn-, the ON. strong verb brenna. The old strong forms of the preterite and pp. do not appear later than Lazamon (c. 1205), and the distinction between transitive and intransitive was soou lost, the four types being used indiscriminatively in meaning though their usage varied in different dialects, the brinn-, brenn- types belonging chiefly to the areas more strongly influenced by Scandinavian. In late ME, and onvards into the sixteenth century the most common type was brenn-. Examples are:-(1) beornen, birnen, bernen, pret. sing. born, pl. burnen beside weak bernde; (2) brinnen; pret. brinde, brint(e, brynned(e, pp. brind, brint; (3) barnen, pret. barnde; (4) brennen, pret. brenn(e)de, brende, brent, pp. brend, brent.
§ 404.
$\bar{i}(i, \S 73) \quad$ a $(0) \quad \bar{u}(\mathbf{u}, \S 73)$ binden band(bond) bounden (bunden) bounden (bunden)

And similarly finden, grinden, wilnden; climben (§ 72), pret. sing. clōmb, clāmb (§ 72), pl. cloumben, clumben, clāmben (§ 394, 5) beside weak climed(e, pp. cloumben, clumben (clomben, $\mathbf{o}=\mathbf{u}$ ). For bound(e, found(e beside band (bond), fand (fond), see § 304, 5.
§ 405.

| e | a | $0(u)$ | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| helpen | halp | holpen (hulpen) | holpen |

The verbs of this type regularly had $u$ in the preterite
plural in early ME., but later they generally had o from the past participle as in Chaucer. Nearly all of them had begun to have weak beside the strong forms as early as the fourteenth century, and some of them had become entirely weak before the end of the ME. period. And similarly berken, delven, kerven to carve, melten, smerten, sterven, swellen, swelten to dic, werpen to throw (cp. § 38), zellen, zelpen to boast; bersten (bresten) to burst (cp. § 120), preschen. Cp. § 129.
§ 406. berjen, berwen (§ 298) to protect, preserve, pret. sing. barz, pl. bur(e)zen, borzen (borwen), pp. borjen (borwen) ; swelzen (swelewen, -owen, -awen, swolezen, swolewen, -owen) to swallow, pret. sing. swal(u)3, swalewe beside weak swel(o)wed(e), swolewed(e), swolzed, pp. swolzen (swolwen, swelzen) beside weak swelewed, -owed, see EOE. Gr. § 102; wurpen, worpen (OE. weorpan, § 38) to become, pret. sing. warb (wurb, worb), pl. wurben, worpen (OE. wurdon), pp. worpen, wurpen (OE. worden), see EOE. Gr. § 116 ; zẹlden (southern zilden) to recompense, pret. sing. ऊǫld (N. 乡āld, S. उęld § 71), pl. zūlden (3ọ̆lden), pp. 3ọ̄lden (cp. § 71) beside weak jẹ̄lded(e, pp. zẹlded; fizten (fe3ten, feizten) to fight, pret. sing. faust, fa3t (§ 110,5 ), feist ( $(107,4$ ), pl. fu3ten (fousten), pp. fö3ten, fquiten (§ 113, 4) ; breiden (OE. bregdan, § 107, 1) to brandish, pret. sing. braid breid (OE. brægd, § 106) beside weak breide braide, pl. brudden (OE. brūdon), pp. brozden (OE. brogden), broiden beside weak braided, breided, broided; freinen (OE. fregnan, frignan) to ask, inquire, pret. sing. frain frein beside weak frained(e), freined(e).

Class IV.
§ 407.
OE. e
ME. $\bar{\varepsilon}$
bęren to bear
æ $\overline{\text { æ }}(\overline{\mathbf{e}})$ § 52
a ę (ẹ̀)
bar bęren (bę̄ren)

0
$\bar{q}$
bōren bọ̆rn

And similarly hę̀len to conceal，quęelen to die，schęęren to shear，stęlen to steal，tęren to tear．cumen（comen）to come， pret．sing．cọ̄m（cam，§ 55），pl．cọ̀men（cāmen），pp．cumen （comen）；nimen to takie，pret．sing．nọ̀m（nam，§ 55），pl． nộmen（nāmen），pp．numen（nomen），see § 42 note．

## Class V．

§ 408.


And similarly mę̨ten to measure，biquępen，quę̧pen；pret． sing．quab，quad；quop，quod with d from the old pret． plural（Verner＇s law），and o with early rounding of a to 0 ； quod was the prevailing form from about 1350 to 1550 ； wę̉en（weien，§ 107，1）to carry，pret．sing．wai（wei）； was（wes，§ 43 note），pl．wę̨ren wệren（wāren，wǫren， § 166）．Some of these verbs had also weak beside the strong forms，as pret．and pp．kned（de，mett（e，wei（e）de（pp． y．węzed，weied，§ 107，1）．
§ 409．A number of verbs originally belonging to this class went over into class IV，as brę̉ken，brak，bręeken （brệken，brāken），brộken；and similarly drẹppen to kill， spę̀ken，trę̉den（also weak tred（d）ed（e），węven to weave， wręken to avenge；also pp．knōden，quọpen．
§ 410．ęten to eat，pret．sing．ęt，ẹt（OE．死，ēt）beside the new formation at，pl．ęten，ẹten，pp．ęten，late ME．also étten（ěttyn）；and similarly fręten to devour，late ME．also weak pret．and pp．fręted．弓ę้ven，ziven beside given（ Orm gifenn），N．gif to give（§ 178），pret．sing．弓af，弓ef，弓afe，弓ave， 3of，zove beside gaf，gaf（f）e，pl．弓ę̃ven，弓ę̄ven，弓āven，3ōven （cp．§168）beside gẹ̀ven（Orm gæfenn），pp．弓ě้ven，3ōven， ziven（Orm zivenn）beside given（Orm also givenn），see
§§ 178, 292. gę̀ten, giten (ON. geta) to get, pret. sing. găt(t, get (§ 29), pl. gę̨ten, gệten (getten, gă้t(t)e(n)), pp. gę้ten (getten, git(t)en, gǫ้t(t)en), see § 176. forję̀ten, forsiten beside forgę̃ten to forget, pret. sing. forzat beside forgat, pl. forsęten, forjệten beside forgę้ten, pp. for3ę้ten beside forgę̨ten. bidden (OE. biddan), also bedden (cp. §§ 92,1 , 399) in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries to pray, beg, bid, pret. sing. bad (badd, bed(d, badde) beside będ (OE. bēad, see § 399), pl. bę̄den, bẹ̄den, pp. bę̄den beside early ME. bidden. sitten to sit, pret. sing. sat, also later satte, pl. sę̧ten, sệten, also later sat(t)en, pp. sę̃ten, later ME. also setten, sitten, satt(e. liggen, lien, lin (\$§ 122, 1, 296) to lie down, pret. sing. lai (Orm la33), cp. § 106, lei, pl. lę̧en, lȩ̣en, leizen, leien (laien), pp. leien (lein, lain), lien, līn. sę̃n (Ken. zī, $\mathbf{z \overline { y }}$ ) to see, pret. sing. sa3, sauз saugh (§ 110,5 ), saw (§ 110,4 ), se3, seiz seigh, sey (Chaucer say), § 107, 4, si3, sī sȳ (§ 107,6 ), pl. sawen (§ 110,4 ), sājen, sauzen, sęzen, sǫwen, sẹ̄zen (Orm sæ弓henn), seien, sien sȳen (§ 107, 6), pp. sęwen (OE. sewen), sawen (OE. sawen, see $E O E$. Gr. § 350 ), sei(e)n sey(e)n (OE. Anglian gesegen), sę̣n (OE. adj. gesiene, gesēne visible).

Class VI.
§ 411.

| OE. | a | $\bar{o}$ | $\bar{o}$ | æ (a) |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| ME. | $\bar{a}$ | $\bar{o}$ | $\bar{o}$ | $\bar{a}$ |
|  | fāren to travel | fọ̣r | fọ̀ren | fāren |

And similarly āken to ache, bāken, forsāken, grāven to dig (pret. sing. grọ̃f), lāden to load, schāken, schāven, wāden, wāken (N. wak, wakke), tāken (ON. taka), N. tak beside N. and n. Midland tā(n, pret. also tọ, pp. tān, see § 250. Several of the above verbs had weak beside the strong forms as early as the fourteenth century, as āked(e, forsāked(e, grāved(e, schāked(e, schầved(e, tāker(e.
§ 412. hę̄ven (OE. hebban, § 265) to raise, heave, pret. sing. hộf, họ̄ve (cp. §§ 140, 267) beside the analogical forms haf, have, hẹ̄f, hệve, weak hę̄ved(e, pl. họ̀ven, hệven, pp. hōven (after the analogy of class IV, § 407), hę̣ven, weak hęved. scheppen, schippen (OE. scieppan) beside the new formation schāpen (from the pp.) to create, pret. sing. schọ̀p, also schệp after the analogy of class VII (§ 414) beside weak schapte, schipte, schupte, pl. schộpen, pp. schāpen beside weak schāped. standen (stǫnden), pret. sing. stọ̀d, pl. stọ̄den, pp. standen (stọnden). steppen, stāpen, stappen to proceed, pret. sing. stọ̄p, stẹ̀p after the analogy of class VII (§ 414) beside weak stapped(e, stapte, pl. stọ̣pen, pp. stāpen. swę̨ren (OE. swerian) to swear, pret. sing. swọ̀r beside the analogical forms swar, swệr, weak swẹered, swāred, pl. swộren, pp. swǫren, swörn after the analogy
 (Ken. weschen, wesse(n), § 280) to wash, pret. sing. wǒsch (wěsch) beside weak wasched, wesched, pl. wŏschen (wěschen), pp. waschen (weschen), beside weak wasched (wesched). waxen to grow, pret. sing. wox (ép. § 94), wax after the analogy of class IV (§407), wex (OE. wēox), pl. woxen, wexen, pp. waxen, woxen.
§ 413. drazen, drāzen, drawen (§ 103, 3), early ME. also dreizen, dreien to draw, pret. sing. drộ3, drọu3, drọw (§ 114, 2), drew, Sc. drewz drewch (§ 115), pl. drọ̄jen, drọwen, drewen, pp. drāzen, drawen, also dreien, $\mathrm{dr}^{- \text {in }}$ (drayn). And similarly gnazen, gnāzen, gnawen to gnaw. fię̄n (OE. fleean) to flay, pret. sing. flọ̄3 (OE. flōg, flōh), flou also flew ( $\S$ 115), pl. flọ̧en, flouzen, flowen, flewen, pp. flāzen, flawen (OE. flagen), flain(e) (OE. flægen, § 106). slę̃n (OE. slēan), N. slãn, slā (ON. slā, § 168), slọnn(e, beside the analogical forms slāze(n), slayn, pret. sing. slộ3, slọuそ, slọw, slew (§ 115), pl. slọ̧en, slọwen, slewen, pp. släzen, slawen (OE. slagen), slain, slein (OE. slægen, slegen, FOE. Gr: § 358), slān, slộn from the present.
lazen (Orm lahzhenn), lâzen, lauzen, lauzwen (Anglian hlæhhen, cp. § 110, 5), lezen, lę̨zen, leizen, lizen (WS. hliehhan, cp. § 306) to laugh, pret. sing. lọ̣, lọu3, lọw, N. leuz(e, lugh(e, see §§ 114-15, beside weak lājed(e, lâ uzed(e, leized(e, N. laust, luzt, pl. lọ̧en, lọwen, pp. la̧en, lā̧en, lauzen.

## Class VII.

§ 414. To this class belong those verbs which originally had reduplicated preterites. In OE. they are divided into two subdivisions according as the preterite had $\bar{e}$ or $\bar{e} o$. But as ēo regularly became ẹ in ME. (§ 65) all the verbs of this class, which remained strong, have ẹ. The pret. sing. and pl. have the same stem-vowel. The verbs are here arranged according as in OE. the present had: $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\bar{x}}, \overline{\mathrm{o}}$, ea, $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathbf{w}, \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathbf{w}$, $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, ēa.

1. OE. $\bar{a}$ : hṑten, N. hāten (OE. hātan) to lid, order; call, name. In OE. the passive was expressed by hātte is or was callecl, pl. hātton (FOE. Gr. §316). In ME. the active hōten, pret. hẹ̄t (OE. hēt), hest, hist (OE. hēht) came to mein both to call and to be called. From about 1200 the pret. he3t, hist often took final ee like the weak verbs. And both hệt and hizt passed over to the past participle. Further hest(e, hizt(e came to be used also for the present. From the strong preterite hệt a new ME. present hẹten with weak preterite hette was formed in the early fourteenth century. Thus the common ME. forms are: hōten, hāten, hệten, pret. sing. hẹ̈t, hest(e, hist(e beside weak hette, pp. hōten (hāten, hatten), hẹ̀t, hist.
schōden, schęden Orm shǣdenn (OE. scādan, scēadan) to separate, pret. schẹ̃ beside weak schadde, schedde (cp. § 91), pp. schọ̀den, schę̀den beside weak schad(d, sched (d, late ME. also schedded.
2. OE. $\overline{\text { ® }}$ ( $\overline{\mathrm{e}})$ : lęeten (lệten) to ltt, pret. lẹ̀t, lett, lat, pp. lę̨ten (lệten), letteu, latten. slępen (slẹ̀pen) to sleep, pret. slệp beside weak slẹ̀ped(e (slẹ̣ped(e), slepped(e, slepte,
pp. slę̨pen (slệpen) beside weak slę̄ped (slẹ̄ped), slapt, slept (cp. § 91).
3. OE. $\overline{\text { on }}$ : fọn (OE. fōn) beside the new formation fangen (fongen) from the past participle to seize, pret. fěng (OE. fēng), also the new formation fong, beside weak fanged(e (fonged(e), pp. fangen (fongen) leside weak fanged (fonged). họ̣n (OE. hōn) beside the new formation hangen (hongen) from the past participle to hang, pret. hĕng (OE. hēng), hing (cp. § 89), pp. hangen (hongen).
4. OE. ea: fallen (OE. feallan) to fall, pret. fẹ̀(1, felil, fil(1 (§ 99), pp. fallen. walken (OE. wealcan) to roll, pret. wëlk (OE. wēolc, cp. § 92, 2). pp. walken beside weak pret. and pp. walked.
fộlden, N. fallden, S. fęlden (OE. fealdan, § 71 ) to fold, pret. fệld beside weak fǫ̣lded(e, \&c., pp. fộlden, \&c. beside weak fọlded. họ̄lden, N. hälden, S. hę̣lden (OE. healdan, § 71) to hold, pret. hệld, held (helt), hild (hilt), see § 99, pp. hōlden, \&c. wǫlden, N. wālden, S. węllden (OE. wealdan, § 71) to rule, pret. wẹld(e, wělt(e beside the new formations wọlde, wāld(e, wę̀ld(e, pp. wọlden, \&c., in later ME. also weak pret. and pp. wẹlded.
5. OE. āw : blopwen blouwen, N. blauwen, blau (OE. blāwan) to blow, pret. blẹw (OE. blēow, § 112, 1), also we:lk blowed(e, pp. blewen, N. blawen, beside weak blowed. And similarly crowen, knowen, mowen, søwen, prowen. swǫpen, swộpen ( $(128$ ) beside the new formation swẹpen to sweep, pret. swẹp beside the new formations swọp(e, swộp(e, weak swệped(e, swepte, pp. swọpen, swọ̣pen, weak swọped, swọ̣ped, swệped.
6. OE. ōw, ōg: grọwen (OE. grōwan, see § 114, 1) to grow, pret. grẹw beside weak grọwed(e, pp. grọwen. And similarly blọwen (weak pret. also bloude) to blossom, flowen to flov, rọwen to row. swọ̧en, swọwen (OE. swōgan, § 114, 2 (b)) to sound. pret. swệ $\overline{3}$, swei $(\S 107,6)$, pp. swọ̄zen, swọwen.
7. OE. ē : wẹpen (OE. wēpan, Goth. wōpjan) to wcep, pret. wệp beside weak wepte (§ 92, 1), pp. wộpen (OE. wōpen) beside weak wept.
8. OE. êa : bę̨ten (OE. bēatan) to beat, pret. bệt beside shortened form bett, and weak bęted(e, bette, pp. bę̨ten beside weak bett(e. hęwen (OE. hēawan) to hew, pret. hẹw (hẹu) beside weak hęwed(e, pp. hęwen beside weak hęwed. lę̣pen (OE. hlēapan) to leap, pret. lẹ̣p (OE. hlēop), lep(pe beside weak lẹped(e, lĕpte, pp. lọppen after the analogy of class IV (§ 407, cp. also § 409).

## B. WEAK VERBS

§ 415. The weak verbs, which for the most part are derivative and denominative, form by far the greater majority of all verbs. In OE. they are divided into three classes according to the endings of the infinitive, pret. indicative, and past participle. These endings are : -

| Inf. | Pret. | P.P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -an | -ede, -de, -te | .ed, -d, -t |
| -ian | - ode | .od |
| -an | .de | .d |

Each of the classes I and II contained a large number of verbs, whereas class III only contained four verbs, viz. habban to have, libban to live, secgan to say, and hycgan to think, the last of which did not survive in ME.
The OE. normal endings of the present of these three classes were:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { I. Sing. } e \text {, -est, eep, pl. -ap, inf. -an } \\
& \text { II. ", -ie, •ast, -ap, " .iap, " -ian } \\
& \text { III. ", ee, ast, } a \mathrm{ap}, \text {, } \cdot a p \text {, ,, } \cdot \mathrm{an}
\end{aligned}
$$

WS. generally had syncopated forms in the second and third person singular of verbs belonging to class I, as setst, set(t) for older setest, setep, and these syncopated forms also remained in the ME. southern dialects. The OE. verbs of class I containing an r preceded by a short vowel had an -i - in the present first pers. singular, the present plural, the present subjunctive singular and plural, the present participle, and the infinitive, as werie, weriap; werie, werien; weriende, werian to defend. In ME. the Midland and northern dialects generalized the forms without -i., whereas the Kentish and southern dialects retained the -i., as M. and N. wę̨re, S. wěrie, \&c., and similarly an(d)sweren, dệren to injure, ę̨ren to plough, fę̨ren to carry, stiren to stir.

After the -a- had been weakened to ee. (§ 134 (b)) the endings of class I and class III became alike; in class II the Midland and northern dialects generalized the endings without -i., so that in these dialects the present of all three classes fell together, whereas the endings -ie, -iep, -ien remained in the Kentish and southern dialects. For the personal endings of the present in the various ME. dialects see § 381. The verbs of class I which had double consonants in the first person singular and the plural generally levelled out the double consonants (except bb, and gg = OE. cg) into the second and third person singular, as sette, settest, settep $=0 \mathrm{E}$. sette, setst, set(t); telle, tellest, tellep $=0 E$. telle, tel(e)st, tel(e) b. In the Midland and northern dialects the verbs containing -bb., .cg. in OE. were remodelled in ME. from the second and third persons singular, as bien bȳen to buy, aswẹ̀ven to stupefy, leien to lay, beside OE. bycgan, aswebban, lecgan; and similarly haven, liven, seien saien to say, beside OE. habban, libban, secgan of the third class.
§ 416. The OE. normal endings of the preterite and past participle of the three classes were:-


The OE. verbs of class I generally had eede in the preterite when the stem-syllable was originally short, but de when the stem-syllable was originally long, and -te after voiceless consonants. Those verbs which had te in OF. had it also in ME. In ME. we also often have te after $1, m, n$, and in stems ending in $\cdot \mathrm{ld}$, $\cdot \mathrm{nd}$, $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$ with shortening of a preceding long vowel, see § 270. Already in OE. the preterite of class III was the same as the preterite in de of class I. And after the $\cdot 0 \cdot$ had been weakened to $\cdot \mathrm{e}$ - in class II the preterite of this class became the same as the preterite in eede of class I. So that in early ME. the preterite sing. of all weak verbs ended either in -ede or -de (-te), and the plural in -eden or -den (-ten). The endings of the preterite indicative and the preterite subjunctive regularly fell together in ME. except that the indicative had est in the second person singular.
§ 417. In ME. the final ee disappeared at an early period in those verbs which preserved the medial ee- of eede, as loved (a new formation for lovẹde), māked, panked, beside hěrde, bledde, kiste. The final ee of the singular and the final en (§ 147) of the plural of all weak verbs disappeared at an early period in the northern dialects, and likewise the -est of the second pers. singular often disappeared, so that in these dialects all forms of the singular and plural came to be
alike. The final ee also ceased to be pronounced at an early period in the Midland and southern dialects, although it continued to be written long after it had ceased to be pronounced, but the ending est ( $\$ \mathbf{1 5 0}$ ) of the second person singular generally remained. For the loss or retention of medial and final e in trisyllabic and polysyllabic forms see §§ 154-5.

## Class I.

§ 418. Before beginning to treat the history of the preterite and past participle of the OE. first class of weak verbs in ME. it will be advisable to state here certain vowel and consonant changes which took place partly in OE. and partly in ME. :-

1. Long vowels were shortened before certain consonant combinations (§87), as blẹ̄den to bleed, bledde, ybled; clę̣en to clothe, cledde, cladde, ycled, yclad; fẹlen to fecl, felte, yfelt; hẹ̀ren to hear, hĕrde, yhĕrd; kẹppen to keep, kepte, ykept ; kīben to make known, kidde, ykid; lę̄den to lead, ledde, ladde, yled, ylad; mệten to meet, mette, ymet.
2. $d$ became $t$ after voiceless consonants in OE., and when two dentals thus came together they became tt which were simplified to $t$ when final (§ 239), as drencte : drencan to submerge, cyste : cyssan to kiss, grētte : grētan to greet, and similarly in ME.
3. Double consonants were simplified in OE. before and after other consonants, as cyste : cyssan, fylde : fyllan, gewielde : gewieldan to overpower, gyrde: gyrdan to gird, sende : sendan, reste : restan (EOE. Gr. § 145), and similarly in ME.
4. After liquids and nasals, and in stems ending in ld, $\cdot n d$, $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$ we often or generally have t in the preterite and past participle, whereas OE. had d, see § 270 ; as bilte (OE. bylde), bilt built; dwelte, dwelt; felte, felt; girte, girt;
dremte (drempte, cp. § 251), dremt ; blente, blent blended, sente, sent.
5. On preterites and past participles like dreinte, ydreint : drenchen ; meinde, ymeind : mengen, and similarly blenchen to finch, quenchen, sprengen, \&c., see § 263.
§ 419. The OE. verbs with an original short stem-syllable had ede in the preterite and -ed in the past participle, as werien to clefend, werede, gewered; fremman to perform, fremede, gefremed, and similarly derian to injure, erian to plough, ferian to carry, styrian to stir, dynnan to resound, \&c., see EOE. Gr. §§ 367-8. If through analogical formation the stem-syllable became long in ME. the preterite and past participle regularly had -ed, but if the stem-syllable remained short the preterite regularly had -de and the past participle -ed, as wę̣ren, wę̣red, ywę̣red ; frę̣men, frę̣med, yfręmed, but stiren, stirde, ystired; dinen, dinde, ydined, but there were numerous analogical formations in both directions, see § 153. On the preterite and past participle of verbs like an(d)sweren, gaderen, see § 15.5 .
§ 420. Verbs with an original long stem-syllable which in OE. had de in the preterite and eed in the past participle generally had these in ME. also, as dę̣len, dę̣lde, ydęled, dẹ̀men to julge, dệmde beside the new formation dẹ̀med(e), ydẹmed, see EOE. Gr. § 373. The ee. in the past participle wns very often syncopated, which in OE. only took place in the inflected forms, as ydęld, yhêrd : hēren to hear, and similarly deien dien to die, hę̀len, lę̀ren to teach, stę̣ren to steer, see § 151.
§ 421. When the stem-syllable ended in -d preceded by a long vowel the long vowel was shortened in the preterite and past participle ( $\S$ el, 2), and when the ee- in the past participle had disappeared the dd was simplified to d, as btẹden, bledde, ybled; lę̣den, ledde, ladde, yled, ylad; and similurly chiden, fệden, hïden, spệden, \&c.
§ 422. When the stem ended in $\mathbf{v}, 1, m, n$, or $n d, 1 d$, rd
the preterite and past participle generally had $\mathbf{t}$ in ME.. as lēven to leave, lefte, yleft beside ylệved; and similarly clệven to cleave. fẹlen, felte, yfelt; lę̃nen to lend, lente, ylent; senden, sente, ysent; and similarly benden, blenden, wenden. bilden, bilte, ybilt; girden, girte, ygirt, see § 270.
§423. $\mathrm{p}+\mathrm{d}$ became dd which was simplified to d in the past participle, as clę̧pen to clothe, cledde, cladde, ycled, yclad; kijen to make known, kidde, ykid.
§424. Verbs which had the preterite in te in OE. also had it in ME., as kissen, kiste, ykissed beside ykist; kẹpen, kepte, ykệped beside ykept; and similarly with the following verbs which were strong in OE., but became weak in ME.: crệpen to crcep, lępen to lcap, slệpen, slęppen to sleep, wẹpen to weep.
§ 425. When the stem ended in $t$ the $t$ was simplified to t in the past participle, as mệten, mette, ymet, and similarly grệten, swę̨ten to sureut. When the stem ended in st, nt the tt was simplified to t in the preterite and past participle, as resten, reste, yrest ; and similarly casten, lasten, stinten, pirsten, \&c.
§426. OE. had a certain number of verbs belonging to class I which had umlaut in the present but not in the preterite and past participle, see EOE. Gr. § 379. Many of these verbs preserved this characteristic in ME., as byen (biggen, beggen, bliggen $=O E$. bycgan, § 49) to buy, bouzte, yboust. tellen, tọlde (telde), ytọld (yteld) ; and similarly sellen. ME. new formations were: dwelde, dwelte, ydwelled, ydwelt; and similarly quellen to kill. ręcchen to reach, rauzte, yrauzt; and similarly lacchen to catch, seize, strecchen, and the AN. loan-word cacchen. tẹ̆chen, tauzte, ytauzt. sệken (sệchen), squzte, ysouust ; and similarly bisệken (bisệchen). bringen, brǫuzte, ybrouzt. penken, pinken (penchen), pquite, ypquzt. me pinkep it seems to me, me puzte, pouste. wirken, wirchen,
worchen, wurchen (early OE. wyrcan, see § 123), pret. wroquite (§ 113, 4), west Midland war3te, wra3te (OE. worhte), pp. ywrouzt (OE. geworht), cp. § 244.
§ 427. The conjugation of the preterite of węren to defend, hệren to hear, tellen to count, and kissen to kiss will serve as models of all verbs of class I:-

## Indicative.

| Sing. | 1. wę̣red(e) | hěrde | tọlde | kiste |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2. wẹredest | hĕrdest | tọldest | kistest |
|  | 3. wēred(e) | hêrde | toplde | kiste |
| Plur. | węred(en) | hěrden | tọlden | ist |

Subjunctive.

| Sing. | wệred(e) | hêrrde | tộlde | kiste |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plur. | wę̣red(en) | hêrden | tọlden | kisten |

## Class II.

§ 428. It has been shown in \$ 415 that the ME. inflexion of the verbs belonging to this class regularly fell together with that of verbs of the type węren (OE. werian) of class I, as present singular panke, pankest, pankep, plural panken, -es; preterite singular panked(e), pankedest, panked(e), plural panked(en) ; and similarly asken (axen), clensen, clộpen, enden, folwen, grọpen, halwen to hallov, hāten, họ̣pen, lernen, liken to please, lộken, offrren, schęwen (schopen, § 111 note) to show, sorwen to sorrow, grieve, spāren, spellen to relate, pọlen to bear, suffer, wundren, \&e., but loven, pret. lovęde beside loved(e), see § 153. Only a small number of verbs had syncopated beside unsyncopated forms in the proterite and past participle, as birę̧en (OE. berēafian), birefte, bireft, beside birę̣ved(e), birę̄ved; clę̣pen
(OE. cliopian, cleopian) to call, clepte, yclept beside clępped(e), yclęped; māken, māde, ymād, ymaad (§ 250) beside māked(e), ymāked; pleien (OE. plegian) to play, pleide, ypleid beside pleied(e), ypleied.

## Class III.

§ 429. ME. only preserved three of the four OE. verbs belonging to this class- (§ 415), viz. haven (OE. habban), liven (OE. libban), sei(e)n sai(e)n (OE. secgan = ME. S. seggen, Ken. ziggen) to say. The presents of these verbs were new formations, from the second and third persons singular which in OE. had a single consonant, as hafast (hæfst), hafap (hæff). In ME. the preterite and past participle lived(e) (OE. lifde), ylived (OE. gelifd) beside the preterite livede were new formations after the analogy of the second class of verbs, see § 153. The preterite saide beside the southern form sę̨de corresponded to OE. sægde bøside sǣede. The verb haven (habben) has a large number both of contracted and uncontracted forms, for which see N. E.D. s.v. The following are the more common forms of the present and preterite indicative, the infinitive and the past participle:-

## Present.

Sing. 1. habbe, have, ha
2. havest, hast
3. havep, hap

Plur. habbep, -en, es, havep, have(n), han

Inf. habbe(n), have(n)

Preterite.
hafde, havẹde, had(d)e
(see § 43 note)
had(d)est. had(e)st hafde, havęde, had(d)e had(d)e(n)
pp. yhaved, yhadde, (y)had

## AN. or O.Fr. Verbs in ME.

§ 430. All the AN. verbs were weak in ME. except striven ( $0 . F \mathrm{Fr}$. estriver), which became strong. The ME. verbs were generally based on the AN. strong or accented stem-form of the present, as accuisen, awaiten, blämen, carien, claimen, escăpen, marien, stiudien, \& c.
§ 431. The verbs in if generally had the extended stemform -isch- (§ 278), as banischen, finischen, punischen, vanischen, \&c., but obeyen, sę̀sen to seize, and rejọisen did not have the extended stem-form. Some ME. verbs were based on the weak or end accented form of the present, as deceiven, preien, preisen to praise, serven, deneien beside denȳen, coveren beside keveren, mọven beside mệven, prọ̣ven beside prệven, see § 188.
§ 432. The preterite was formed in eed, pl. ed(en), and the past participle in -ed (see $\S \S 153,155$ ), except when the stem ended in a long vowel or diphthong, as blâmen, blămed; defenden, defended; assenten, assented; finischen, finisched; marien, maried; pręchen to preach, pręched, \&c. When the stem ended in a long vowel the preterite, but not the past participle, had a syncopated beside an unsyncopated form, as crȳen, crȳde beside crȳed, pp. crȳed; and similarly defyen, espyen, \&c. When the stom ended in a diphthong both the preterite and past participle had syncopated and unsyncopated forms side by side, as preien to pray, preide, preid beside preied, preied; and similarly anoien, bitraien, paien, \&c.

## C. MINOR GROUPS

## 1. Preterite-Presents.

§ 433. These verbs were originally unreduplicated strong perfects which acquired a present meaning like Gr. oi $\delta a=$ OE. wāt I know. In prim. Germanic a new weak preterite,
an infinitive, a present participle, and in some verbs a strong past participle, were formed. They are inflected in the present like the preterite of strong verbs, except that the second person singular has the same stem-vowel as the first and third persons, and has preserved the old ending et (EOE. Gr. § 324). The following verbs of this type were preserved in ME. and are here arranged according to the class of strong verbs with which they are related:-
§ 434. Class I: N. wāt I know, wās(t), wāt (cp. § 100), M. and S. wọgt, wǫ̀st, wọ̀t, pl. wite(n (wą̣t, wột), wute(n, cp. § 38 ; inf. wite(n, wute(n ; pres. parb. witand(e), witend(e), witind(e), witing(e) ; pret. wiste, wuste; pp. wist. For forms like nọ̀t, nāt, pret. niste, see § 245.
§ 435. Class III : an, on I grant, also the new formations unne, unnest, unne from the plural, pl. unnen; pret. üpe (oupé) ; pp. unned.
N. can, canst, can, pl. can, M. and S. can (con), canst (const, cunne), can (con), pl. cunnen (connen); inf. cunnen (connen) ; subj. cunne (conne) ; participial adj. N. cunnand cunning ; pret. coupe, coude (§ 274) ; pp. coup.
dar I dare, darst, dar, pl. durren (dorren); inf. durren ; pret. dorste beside the new formation durste with $u$ from the inf. and pres. pl. ; pp. durst. parf (par, § 248) I need, parft (purve), parf (par), pl. purven; pret. porfte (OE. porfte) beside purfte formed from the inf. and pres. plural, porte (purte).
§ 438. Class IV: M. and N. sing. and pl. mun, mon shall, will, pret. munde, monde; ON. inf. muna to remember.
N. sing. and pl. sal (§ 289 note) shall, M. and S. schal (Ken. ssel), schalt, schal, pl. schulen beside the new formation scholen with o from the preterite, whence were formed the new singular schul, schol; subj. schule, pret. N suld, M. and S. schőlde beside schọlde (§ 71), and schulde formed from the pres. plural.
§ 437. Class V : mai may (Orm ma33, OE. mæg, § 108)
beside mei mey (OE. meg.. ${ }^{\text {107, 107 }}$ ) I, he can, mizt (late OF. miht) beside ma3t, mau3t, Orm mahht (early OE. meaht, § 110, 5), mei3t (§ 107), later ME. maist(e thou canst, pl. mazen, mājen, mawen (§ 110,3), also N. mai (may), muzen (Orm muzhenn), muwen, mowen, mown (moun), mow (mou, mū), see § 122, 5 ; subj. maze (mawe), muze (Orm muzhe), muwe (mowe); pres. part. mazende (Ken. mezende), mowende, mouwinge, mowing; inf. muzen (Orm muzhen), mowen, mown (moun), mow (mou); pret. mizte (Orm mihhte), mo3t(e, muste, mouste.
§ 438. Class VI : một may, must, mọ̀st, một beside later ME. unaccented mut(t, must, mut(t, pl. mộten ; pret. mọ̆ste beside the early ME. shortened and unaccented forms moste, muste, pl. mộsten beside mosten, musten.
§ 439. Class VII: N. sing and pl. āz āgh possess, oren,
 (qu3), pl. ō̧en, 凤wen (§ 113, 3) ; inf. N. äze(n), early M. āzen ( $O$ rm ājhenn), M. and S. $\bar{q} 3 e n, ~ q w e n$; pret. N. ẳzt(e) ăght(e), early M. ă äzte, auste, M. and S. ouzte; pp. āzen, qwen.

## 2. Anomalous Verbs.

§440. a. The Substantive Verb.
Present.
N.
M. and S.
am (em)
art (ert)
is
$\operatorname{are}(\mathbf{n})$, arn
bẹ
bist (bẹ̄st)
bip (bẹ̀p)
Plur. bẹs
Subj. bẹ, pl. bẹ̄s
bẹ̀n, bệp
bệ, pl. bę̣n, bệp

Preterite.
M.

Sing. 1. was (wes), was (wes) § 43 note
2. was (wes) wẹ̃re (wōre), § 168
3. was (wes) was (wes)

Plur. P.P. bẹ̄n
wēren (wo

bẹ̄n
wę̨ren
bę̄n, ybẹ̆

## S.

was (wes)
węre
was (wes)

Note. -The es of the present second and third persons sing. in the northern dialects is of ON. origin (ON. es art, is). es was then extended to the first pers. sing. and to the plural ; of the same origin is the pl. form er $(\mathrm{e})=\mathrm{ON}$. ero they are, and ern with the OE. ending -n (OE. earon, aron). The OE. pl. forms sind (sint), sindon they are lingered on in ME. until the thirteenth century, and then became obsolete, as sind (sint), sinden (Orm sinndenn). The ē in the M. and S. sing. forms bệst (OE. bist), bẹp (OE. bip) was due to levelling out the ẹ from the other forms where it was regular.
§ 441. b. The Verb dọn to do.

## Present.

N.

Sing. 1. đọ
2. dộs
3. dọ̀s

Pl. dọ̀s
Imper. dọ, pl. dọ̄s
M.
\$.
đọ
dộst
dọ̄?
dọn độ, pl. độ?
dọ
dệst (dọ̄st)
dệ? (dop)
dọ̣
dọ, pl. dọ̣’

On the forms of the second and third pers. singular, see § 394, 2.

Pres. Part. : early ME. dọ̃nde, later N. dọand(e, M. dọ̣ende, S. dọinde, dọing(e, cp. § 891.

Preterite: dide, dede, dude (OE. dyde, see § 49) inflected like a weak preterite. P.P. dọ̀n, ydọ̄n, S. ydọ.
§442. c. The Verb gān (g̨̣n) to go.
Present.
N. M. S.

| Sing. 1. gā | g 9 | g9̄ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. gās | gọst | gę̧st (gọst) |
| 3. gās | gọp | gęp (gộ) |
| Plur. gās | gọn | g ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ p |
| Imper. gã, pl. gās | gẹ, pl. gẹp | $g \bar{q}, \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~g}_{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{p}$ |

On the forms of the second and third pers. sing., see § 904, 2.

Preterite: 3 ệde ( 3 º̣de, § 65 note), and wente. P.P. gān, gọ̀n, ygọnn.
§ 443 . d. The Verb willen vill.
Present first and third pers. sing. wille, wil(e (OE. wille, third pers. wile, wille), welle, wel(e, wel(1 (OE. Anglinn welle) beside the new formations wole, wolle, wule, wulle from the preterites with $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{u}$, and similarly second pers. sing. wilt (OE. wilt) beside wolt, wult, pl. willen, wilen, wiln, -ep, welen, wel(e, well(e beside wol(1)en, wul(l)en, ep; inf. willen, wilen (Orm wilenn) ; pret. wölde (wollde, wold), wọlde ( $\$ \S 71,101$ ) beside wulde formed after the analogy of schulde (§ 438), wilde formed direct from the present, northern and west Midland walde (OE. Anglian walde) ; pp. wolld(e.

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