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## HISTORICAL OUTLINES

## of

ENGLISH A CCIDENCE


## HISTORICAL OUTLINES

OF

## ENGLISH ACCIDENCE,

COMPRISING

CHAPTERS ON THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE LANGUAGE, AND ON WORD-FORMATION.

BY THE

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## PREFACE.

Many writers on the structure and history of English, in spite of the plain evidence to the contrary, have regarded our language as one that has sprung up, comparatively speaking, within a very recent period. Some have dared to carry it as far back as Chaucer's time, because he has usually been spoken of as "the well of English undefiled." Others again, not so bold, have deemed it quite sufficient to date the rise of the English language from the time of the greatest of Elizabethan writers. By not regarding the earlier stages of our language as English, all the necessary helps to a rational treatment of its grammatical forms and idioms have been cast aside. The Saturday Review has, very rightly, raised its voice rather loudly against the absurdity of such a view, and has properly insisted upon the right of all periods to be designated as English,-the very oldest term for our language, and one that is identified with its earliest history and with the very best writers of all its periods, from Alfred the Great down to the
present time. This outcry against an absurd nomenclature has been productive of good results, as is seen in the growing tendency that manifests itself nowadays to study the older stages of English, for the sake of the light they throw upon its later and more modern periods; and in very many of our public schools, the upper forms possess a very creditable acquaintance with some of our old English worthies, and are enabled by the knowledge they have thus acquired to get a satisfactory account of the peculiarities and anomalies of modern English.

The unsatisfactory state of most of our English Grammars is perhaps due to the limited knowledge of their writers, ${ }^{1}$ and to their unwillingness to avail themselves of the help afforded by the remains of our early literature. English Grammar, without a reference to the older forms, must appear altogether anomalous, inconsistent, and, unintelligible. In Germany, the grammar of our language has been studied and treated scientifically, in the order of its historical development, by means of our early literature, and it has also been illustrated by the results of Comparative Philology. To the most recent of the German works on our language, that by Professor Koch -the most orderly and scientific English grammar yet written-I have been greatly indebted in the compilation of the present volume, especially for the chapters on word-

[^0]formation and the Appendices I. and II. I have also made much use of the lectures of Professor Max Müller on "The Science of Language," and those of Professor Whitney on "Language, and the Study of Language." I have, I hope, turned to good account the many old English works that have been issued from time to time by our Book Clubs, especially those published by the present Early English Text Society; ${ }^{1}$ but the size of my book obliged me to admit only so many old English illustrations as were absolutely necessary for the full explanation of the forms under consideration. I have endeavoured to write a work that can be profitably used by students and by the upper forms in our public schools; a very elementary book formed no part of my plan. I hope, however, to have leisure to write a more elementary work than the present one, as well as to compile " Historical Outlines of English Syntax," as a supplement to this "Accidence."

To my own shortcomings I am fully alive, as I know from my experience as a teacher how difficult it is in linguistic matters to make one's statements plain and simple as well as accurate ; I have, however, been more anxious to write a useful than a popular book, and for the convenience of English students I have sacrificed the scientific method of treating English adopted by Koch,

[^1]to the more practical one followed by Mätzner in his "Englische Grammatik." Koch commences with a hypothetical primitive Teutonic speech (Grundsprache), and traces our language chronologically through all its stages up to its present form.

In Appendix II. the reader will find an abstract (with some few additions) of Koch's historical scheme of the "Accidence," exhibiting the chief inflexional forms of the English language in its earlier stages. I have added comparative Tables of Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, and can vouch for their correctness only so far as my own reading goes. The classification is Koch's.

King's College, London,<br>December 1871.

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My own schemes of the Grammar of the Old English Southern dialect will be found in the "Ayenbite of Inwyt," "Old English Homilies" (First Series), and "An Old English Miscellany;" of the East Midland, in the "Story of Genesis and Exodus," and "Old English Homilics" (Second Series); ${ }^{1}$ of the West Midland, in "Early English Alliterative Poems"-(all published by the Early English Text Socicty) ; of the Northern, in Hampole's "Pricke of Conscience" (Philological Society).

## CONTRACTIONS.

Abs. and Achith. = Absalom and Achitophel.
Allit. = Alliterative Poems (ed. Morris).
Areop. = Milton's Areopagitica (ed. Arber).
Ayenbite $=$ Ayenbite of Inwyt (ed. Morris).
B. and F. $=$ Beaumont and Fletcher.

Boeth. = Boethius.
C. Tales $=$ Canterbury Tales.

Compl. of L. Lyfe $=$ Complaint of a Lover's Lyfe (attributed to Chaucer).
Confess. Amant. $=$ Confessio Amantis (Gower).
Coriol. $=$ Coriolanus.
Cosmog. = Cosmography (Earle).
Cymb. = Cymbeline.
Dan. = Danish.
E. E. Poems = Early English Poems (ed. Furnivall).
E. E. Spec. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).
F. Q. $=$ Faerie Queene.

Gen. and Ex. = Story of Genesis and Exodus (ed. Morris).
Ger. $=$ German.
Gest. Rom. = Gesta Romanorum (Early English Version).
Goth. $=$ Gothic.
Gr. = Greek.

Icel. $=$ Icelandic.
Lat. $=$ Latin.
La3. $=$ La3amon's Brut (ed. Madden).
Med. Lat. = Mediæval Latin.
Mel. = Anatomy of Melancholy (Burton).
Mid. H. G. = Middle High German.
O. E. = Old English.
O. E. Hom. = Old English Homilies (ed. Morris).
O. F. $=$ Old French.
O. H. Ger. = Old High German.
O. N. $=$ Old Norse.

Orm. = Ormulum (ed. White).
O. Sax. = Old Saxon.
P. L. = Paradise Lost.
P. of C. = Pricke of Conscience (ed. Morris).
P. of P. = Pastime of Pleasure (Hawes).

Pilgrimage $=$ Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode (ed. Aldis Wright).
Prov. E. = Provincial English.
Robt. of Gl. = Robert of Gloucester.
Sansk. = Sanskrit.
Shep. Cal. = Shepherd's Calendar.
Spec. E. E. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).
Swed. $=$ Swedish.
Tr. and $\mathrm{Cr} .=$ Troilus and Cressida.
Trist. = Lay of Sir Tristram (ed. Scott).

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## ERRATA.

Page 95, §79, col. 7, for mus read mŷs.
Page 128, footnote I, dele from We to beyond, and add, anent $=$ O.E. anefent $=o n$-efin, on-emn $=$ even with, against, \&c.

Page 171, footnote 1. The theory of Rückumlaut, or a return to an original sound which has undergone umlaut, though adopted by most German philologists, cannot be defended. Mr. Sweet has, in the Acadenty, very clearly explained the apparent vowel-change in such weak verbs as told, sold, \&c.

The Gothic saljan, to sell, represents the primitive form of the verb in which umlaut has not taken place, as it has in O. Eng. sellan ( $=$ selian). In the infinitive mood and present tense the suffix $i$ dropped out after umlaut had taken place; but in the preterite salde ( = salide), sold, the $i$ dropped out without causing umlaut, so that the root-vowel was thus preserved.

Page 176 , line 12, for § 283 read 282.
Page 228, line 8, an-hungred is not found in the oldest English, but is met with in subsequent periods.

Page 229, line 1r, for many read navy.

## HISTORICAL OUTLINES

## or ENGLISH ACCIDENCE.

## CHAPTER I.

## FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES.

I. Words are articulate sounds used to express perception and thought. The aggregate of these articulate sounds, accepted by and current among any community, we call speech or language.
2. The language of the same community often presents local varieties; to these varieties we give the name of dialects.
3. Grammar treats of the words of which language is composed, and of the laws by which it is governed.
4. The science of Grammar is of two kinds: (a) Descriptive Grammar, which classifies, arranges, and describes words as separate parts of speech, and notes the changes they undergo under certain conditions.
(b) Comparative Grammar, which is based on the study of words, goes beyond the limits of Descriptive Grammar; that is, beyond the mere statement of facts. It analyses words, accounts for the changes they have undergone, and endeavours to trace them back to their origin. It thus deals with the growth of language.

Descriptive Grammar teaches us that the word loveth is a verb, indicative mood, \&c. Comparative Grammar informs us, (1) that the radical part of the verb is low (or luf), denoting desire (cp. Lat. lubeo); (2) that the suffix $-t /$ is a remnant of a demonstrative pronoun signifying he, that, of the same origin as the $-t$ in lube-t.
5. Comparative Grammar has shown us that languages may be classified in two ways: (I) According to the peculiarities of their grammatical structure, or the mode of denoting the relation of words to one another; (2) according to historical relationship.
6. The first mode of classification is called a morphological one. It divides languages into, (1) Monosyllabic or Isolating; (2) Agglutinative ; (3) Inflectional or Polysyllabic.

These terms also represent three periods in the growth of languages -that is to say, that language, as an organism, may pass through threc stages. (I) The monosyllabic period, in which roots are used as words, without any change of form.

In this stage there are no prefixes or suffixes, and no formally disinguished parts of speech.

The Chinese is the best example of a language in the isolating or monosyllabic stage.
"Every word in Chinese is monosyllabic ; and the same word, without any change of form, may be used as a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a particle. Thus ta, according to its position in a sentence, may mean great, greatness, to grow, very much, very.
"We cannot in Chinese (as in Latin) derive from ferrum, iron, a new substantive forrarius, a man who works in iron, a blacksmith; ferraria, an iron mine, and again ferrariarius, a man who works in an iron mine; all this is possible only in an inflected language." - Max Muller.
(2) The agglutinative period. In this stage two unaltered roots are joined together to form words; in these compounds one root becomes subordinate to the other, and so loses its independence. ${ }^{1}$ Cf. man-kind, heir-loon, war-like, which are agglutinative compounds. The Finnish, Hungarian, Turkish, the Tamul, \&c., are agglutinative languages.

The Basque and American languages are agglatinative, with this difference, that the-roots which are joined together have been abbreviated, as in the Basque ilhun, "twilight," from hill, dead + egun, day. In the Mexican language their compound terms are equivalent to phrases and sentences, achichillacachocan, "the place where people weep becailse the water is red; "from alt, "water;" chichiltic, "red;" tlacatl, "man;" and chorea, "weep."

It has been proposed to call these languages polysynthetic or incorporating. It is remarkable that most of these languages show that the people who speak them are deficient in the power of abstraction.

[^2](3) The inflectional period, in which roots are modified by prefixes or suffixes, which were once independent words. In agglutinative languages the union of words may be compared to mechanical compounds, in inflective languages to chemical compounds.

In most living languages we find traces of all these processes, and are thus enabled to see how gradually one stage leads to another. Take, for example, the following :-

> He is like God $=$ monosyllabic.
> He is God-like $=$ agglutinative.
> He is God-ly $=$ inflectional.

Here the syllable $l y=$ like, originally a word, has dwindled down to a formative elemout or suffix.
7. The classification of languages according to historical relationship is a genealogical one.

Historical relationship may be shown by comparing the grammar and vocabulary of any two or more languages; if the system of grammatical inflexions bear a close resemblance to one another, and if there be a general agreement in the employment of those terms that are least likely to have been lost or displaced by borrowed terms (such as pronouns, numerals, words denoting near relationship, \&ic.), then it may be safely asserted that such languages are related to one another.

Historical relationship, then, rests upon, ( 1 ) the similarity of grammatical structure ; (2) the fundamental identity of roots.
8. Comparative Grammar teaches us that the English language is a member of a group of allied languages, to which the term Teutonic has been given.

The Teutones were a German tribe conquered by Marius : hence the terms Teutonicus and Theoticus were subsequently applied to all German-speaking people.
The Germans still call their language Deut-sch. ${ }^{1}$
The origin of the term is found in Old High German diot, people, duit-isc, national. In the oldest English theod and theodise $=$ people (cf. Umbrian Latin tuticus, from tuta, a city). The Teutons were the people, in contradistinction to the Romans and others, whom they called Welsh, or foreign.

The name Gernan was probably given to the Teutons by some continental Keltic tribes. By some philologists the word German is said to mean howlers, shriekers (from Keltic gairn-a, to cry out), on account of their warlike shouts.

[^3]9. The Teutonic dialects may be arranged in three groups or subdivisions:-
(1) The Low German ; (2) the Scandinavian ; (3) the High German.

The English language is a Low German dialect, and is closely allied to the dialects still spoken on the northern shores and lowlands of Germany. This relationship is easily accounted for by the emigration of the Angles, Saxon, and other Low German tribes from the lowlands of Germany situate between the Rhine and Baltic coasts.
I. To the Low German division belong the following languages:-
(x) Gothic, the oldest and most primitive of the Teutonic dialects, of which any remains are known, was spoken by the Eastern and Western Goths, who occupied the province of Dacia, whence they made incursions into Asia, Galatia, and Cappadocia.
The oldest record of this dialect is found in the translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulphiias (born 318, died 3S8), the greater part of which has perished, though we still possess considerable portions of the Gospels and St. Paul's Epistles, some pieces of the Old Testament, and a small portion of a Commentary.
(2) Frisian. (a) Old Frisian as preserved in documents of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; (b) Modern Frisian, still spoken in Friesland, along the coasts and islands of the North Sea between the Weser and the Elbe, and in Holstein and Sleswick.
The Frisian is more closely allied to English than the rest of the Low German languages.
(3) Dutch. (a) Old Dutch (as seen in documents from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century) ; (b) Modern Dutch, spoken in Holland and Belgium.
(4) Flemish. (a) Old Flemish, the language of the Court of Flanders and Brabant in the sixteenth century; (b) Modern ${ }^{\circ}$ Flemish.
(5) Old Saxon, or the Saxon of the Continent, spoken between the Rhine and Elbe, which had its origin in the districts of Munster, Essen, and Cleves.
There is a specimen of this dialect in a poetical version of the Gospels (of the ninth century), entitled the Heljand (O. E. Heiland) $=$ the Healer or Saviour.

The Old Saxon is very closely related to English, and retains many Teutonic inflexions that have disappeared in other Low German dialects.
(6) English. (a) Old English; (b) Modern English; (c) Provincial English ; (d) Lowland Scotch.
II. To the Scandinavian division belong the following tongues:
(1) Icelandic; (2) Norwegian ; (3) Swedish ; (4) Danish.

The Icelandic is the purest and oldest of the Scandinavian dialects. The Old Icelandic, from the eleventh to the thirteenth century, is often called Old Norse, a term that properly applies only to Old Norwegian.

Iceland was colonized by the Northmen, who established a Republic there, and were converted to Christianity A.D. 1000.
III. To the High German division belongs Modern German, the literary dialect of Germany, properly the speech of the southeast of Germany, Bavaria, Austria, and some adjacent districts.

It is divided into three stages-
(a) Old Hight German, comprising a number of dialects (the Thuringian, Franconian, Swabian, Alsacian, Swiss, and Bavarian), spoken in Upper or South Germany from the beginning of the eighth to the middle of the eleventh century.
(b) Middle High German, spoken in Upper Germany from the beginning of the twelfth to the end of the fifteenth century.
(c) Modern High German, from the end of the fifteenth century to the present time.

Lather ennobled the dialect he used in his beautiful translation of the Bible, and made the High German the literary language of all German-speaking people. The Low German dialects of the Continent are yielding to its influence, and, in course of time, will be wholly displaced by it.
10. If we compare English and modern German we find them very clearly distinguished from each other by regular phonetic changes: ${ }^{1}$ thus a $d$ in English corresponds to a $t$ in German, as dance and tanz; day and tag; deep and tief; drink and trink. A $t$ in English agrees with an $s$ or $z$ in German, as is shown by foot and fuss;

[^4]tin and zinn; to and zu; two and zwei; water and wasser. A German $d$ is equivalent to our th, as die and the; dein and thine; sad and bath, \&ic.

Not only English, but all the remaining members of the Low German family, as well as the Scandinavian dialects, are thus distinguished from High German.
II. The Scandinavian dialects differ from the other members of the Teutonic family in the following particulars :-
(I) The definite article follows its substantive, and coalesces with it.

In O. Norse $i n n=$ ille ; in=illa; itt=illud : hence hani-nn, the cock ; giöf -in, the gift ; fat -it, the foot.

In Swedish and Danish en (mas. fem.) and et (neut.) $=$ the.
Sued.-Konung-err, the king.
Darn.-Kong-en, ,, ,,
bord-et, the table.
(2) The reflex pronoun sik (O. N.), sig (Swed. and Dan.), ${ }^{1}$ Lat. se, $=s i l f$, coalesces with verbs, and forms a reflexive suffix : as O.N. at filla $=$ fall down, and sik $=$ self, produce the reflexive (or middle) verb at fallask.
$S k$ is still further worn down to $s t$, and when added to the verb renders it passive, as O. N. at kalla, to call ; at kallast, to be called.

In English we have borrowed at least two of these reflexive verbs; namely, $b u-s k$, from the Icel. $b u-a$, to prepare, make ready, direct one's course, and $b a-s k$ ( $=b a k-s k$ ) from Icel. baka, to warm, which is identical with Eng. bake.
12. Comparative Philology has also proved to us that the Teutonic dialects form a subdivision of a great family of related languages, to which the term Indo-European has been applied.

When we recollect that the Indo-European family comprehends nearly all the languages of Europe, and all those Indian dialects that
${ }^{1}$ From the following table it will be seen that sik is accusative:-

|  | O. Norse. | Swedish. | Danish. | Dutch. | German. | Latin. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom....... | wanting sin | wanting | $\ldots$ |  | sein |  |
| Gen....... | sin ser | $\underset{\text { sig }}{\text { wanting }}$ | sig | $\underbrace{\substack{\text { zijh }}}_{\text {zijuns }}$ | sein | suibi |
| Acc. ...... | sik | sig | sig | zich | sich | se |

have sprung from the old Hindu language (Sanskrit), the term is by no means an inappropriate one. It has been proposed, however, by eminent philologists, that the term Aryan should be used in its place. The word Aryan is a Sanskrit word, meaning honourable, noble. It was the name by which the old Hindus and Persians, who at a very early period had attained a high degree of culture and civilization, used to call themselves in contradistinction to the uncivilized races or non-Aryans of India whom they conquered.

Vestiges of the old name are found in Iran, Armenia, Herat, \&c.
There are two great divisions of the Indo-European family : A. European ; B. Asiatic.

## A. European Division.

I. The Teutonic Languages, of which we have already spoken.

## II. The Keltic Languages.

(a) Cymric Class. - (I) Welsh; (2) Cornish (died out about the middle of sixteenth century) ; (3) Bas-Breton.
(b) Gadhelic Class.-(1) Erse or Irish ; (2) Gaelic, spoken in the Highlands of Scotland; (3) Manx (the dialect spoken in the Isle of Man).

## III. The Italic or Romanic Languages.

(a) Old Italian dialects, as the Oscan (of South Italy), the Umbrian (of N.E. Italy), Sabine.
(b) The Romance dialects, which have sprung from the Latin. (1) Italian ; (2) French ; (3) Provençal ; (4) Spanish; (5) Portuguese; (6) Rhæoto-Ronaanic (or Roumansch), spoken in Southern Switzerland ; (7). Wallachian, spoken in the northern provinces of Turkey (Wallachia and Moldavia).
The Wallachian is divided by the Danube into two dialects, the Northern and the Southern. It owes its origin chiefly to the Roman colonies sent into Dacia by Trajan.

## IV. The Hellenic Languages.

(1) Ancient Greek (comprising the Attic, Iome, Doric, and Æolic dialects).
(2) Modern Greek (comprisius several dialects).

The Albanian dialect is a representative of the language spoken by the Illyrians, who probably occupied the Greek peninsula before the Hellenic tribes.

All that can be positively stated about it is that it belongs to the Indo-European family, and is closely related to Greek.

The Albanians inhabit part of the ancient Epirus and Illyrium. They call themselves Skipetars or mountaineers, and the Turks call them Arnauts ( = Arbanites).

## V. The Sclavonic Languages.

(a) South-east Sclavonic.
(1) Old Bulgarian (or Old Church Slavic) of the eleventh century.
(2) Russian ; (a) Russian Proper ; (b) Little Russian or Kuthenian.
(3) Illyric, comprising, (1) Servian ; (2) Kroatian ; (3) Slovenian (of Carinthia and Styria).
(b) Western Branch.
(4) Polish.
(5) Bohemian.
(6) Slovakian.
(7) Upper and Lower Sorbian (Lusatian dialects).
(8) Polabian (on the Elbe).

## VI. The Lettic Languages.

(r) Old Prussian (the original language of N.E. Prussia).
(2) Lettish or Livonian (spoken in Kurland and Livonia).
(3) Lithuanian (spoken in Eastern Prussia).

The Turkish, Hungarian, Basque, Lappish, Finnish, and Esthonian do not belong to the Indo-European family.

## B. Asiatic Division.

## VII. The Indian Languages.

(I) Sanskrit (dead).
(2) Prakrit (Indian dialects, preserved in Sanskrit dramas).
(3) I, Pali (the sacred language of the Buddhists); 2, Cingalese, spoken in the Island of Ceylon.
(4) Modern Indian dialects descended from Sanskrit, as Hindī, Hindustanī, Bengalī, Mahrattī.
(5) Gypsy dialect. (The Gypsies are of Indian origin.)
Sanskrit is the oldest and most primitive of the existing IndoEuropean tongues.
VIII. The Iranian Languages.
(I) Zend (or Zand), the language of the Zoroastrians, preserved in the Zend-Avesta, or sacred writings of the old Persians, parts of which are at least a thousand years old.
(2) The cuneiform inscriptions of Darius and Xerxes and their successors (of the Achæmenid dynasty), the oldest of them being about five centuries before Christ.
(3) Pehlevi or Huzvaresh, the language of the Sassanian dynasty (A.D. 226-651).
(4) Parsi or Pazend, spoken in a more eastern locality than the Pehlevi, about the time of the Mohammedan conquest.
(5) Modern Persian, which differs but little from the Parsi, arose after the Mohammedan conquest. Its first great national work, Shah-Nameh, was written by Firdusi (died 1020).
The Armenian, Ossetic (spoken in the Caucasus), Kurdish (spoken by the mountaineers of the border land between Persia, Turkey, and Russia), Afohan (or Pushto), the language of Bokhara, are all clearly related to Sanskrit and Persian, but it has not yet been decided to which group they severally belong.
13. All the Indo-European languages are descended from one common stock ; that is to say, all the Indo-European languages are dialects of an old and primitive tongue which no longer exists.

The people who spoke this tongue must have lived together as one great community more than three thousand years ago. Tradition, as well as the evidence of language, points to the north-eastern part of the Iranian table-land, near the Hindu-Kush mountains, as the original abode of this primitive people. ${ }^{1}$

[^5]We must not suppose that they formed one strongly-constituted state, but were probably divided into distinct tribes, united solely by the general bond of race, by similarity of manners, religion, and language.

The language of the primitive Indo-Europeans had its local varieties or dialects, which were distinguished by certain euphonic differences; and these differences, after the Indo-European tribes left their ancient abode and separated, would become more marked, and other changes would take place, so that these dialects would assume the aspect of languages at first sight wholly unconnected.

By the aid of Comparative Philology we find that it is possible to classify and arrange the phonetic differences of the various IndoEuropean languages, and to reduce them to certain rules, so that we are enabled to determine what sound in one language corresponds to that of another. ${ }^{1}$

Pliilological rescarch has found "that the primitive tribe which spoke the mother-tongue of the Indo-European family was not nomadic alone, but had settled habitations, even towns and fortified places, and addicted itself in part to the rearing of cattle, in part to the cultivation of the earth. It possessed our chief domestic animals -the horse, the ox, the sheep, the goat, and the swine, besides the dog; the bear and the wolf were foes that ravaged its flocks; the mouse and fly were already its domestic pests.
"The region it inhabited was a varied one, not bordering upon the occan. The season whose name has been inost persistent is the winter. Barley, and perlhaps also wheat, was raised for food, and converted into meal. Mead was prepared from honey, as a cheering and inebriating drink. The use of certain metals was known; whether iron was one of these admits of question. The art of weaving was practised; wool and hemp, and possibly flax, being the materials employed. Of other branches of domestic industry little that is definite can be said; but those already mentioned inply a variety of others, as co-ordinate or anxiliary to them. The weapons of offence and defence were those which are usual among primitive peoples-the sword, spear, bow, and shield. Boats were nanufactured, and moved by oars. Of extended and elaborate political organization no traces are discoverable; the people was doubtless a congeries of petty tribes, under chiefs and leaders rather than kings,

[^6]and with institutions of a patriarchal cast, among which the reduction to servitude of prisoners taken in war appears not to have been wanting.
"The structure and relations of the family are more clearly seen ; names of its members, even to the second and third degrees of consanguinity and affinity, were already fixed, and were significant of affectionate regard and trustful interdependence. That woman was looked down upon as a being in capacity and dignity inferior to man we find no indication whatever.
"The art of numeration was learned, at least up to a hundred; there is no general Indo-European word for 'thousand.' Some of the stars were noticed and named. The moon was the chief measurer of time.
"The religion was polytheistic, a worship of the personified powers of nature. Its rites, whatever they were, were practised without the aid of a priesthood."-Whitney.
14. Next to the Indo-European the most important family of languages is the Semitic, sometimes called the Syro-Arabian family, of which the chief divisions are as follows :-
(a) The Northern or Aramaic, comprehending, ( I ) the Syriac (ancient and modern) ; (2) the Assyrian and Babylonian.
(6) The Central or Canaanitic, including, (1) Hebrew, Phonician, Samaritan, and Carthaginian or Punsic.
(c) The Southern or Arabic, comprehending, (1) Arabic and Maltese ; (2) Himyaritic (once spoken in the S. W. of the peninsula of Arabia), and the Amkaric and other Abyssinian dialects ; (3) the Ethiopic or Geëz (the ancient language of Abyssinia).
It has not yet been shown that the Semitic languages, although inflectional, are historically connected with the Indo-European family.

It has not been decided whether the Hamitic family, containing, (1) the ancient Egyptian and Coptic ; (2) Galla; (3) Berber; (4) Hottentot, \&c., have any historical connection with the Semitic.
15. The other languages of the world fall into various groups.
A.-The Alatyan or Scythian, comprehending, (1) Hungarian; (2) Turkish; (3) Finnish and Lappish ; (4) the Samoyed dialects ; (5) Mongolian dialects ; (6) Tungusian dialects (as Manchu).
B.-I. The Dravidian or Tamulic (including Tamul, Telegu, Malabar, Canaries). II. The languages of N.E. Asia (including the dialects of the Corea, the Kuriles, Kamchatka, \&c.). III. Fapanese, and dialect of LooChoo. IV. Malay-Polynesian or Oceanic languages (comprehending the dialects of Malacca, Fava, Sumatra, Melanesia, \&c.). V. The Caucasian dialects (Georgian, \&c.).
C.-South African dialects.
$\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}$, and C are agglutinative in their structure, but have no historical connection with each other.
D.-I. Chinese. II. The language of Farther India (the Siamese, Burmese, Annamese, Cambodian, \&c.). III. Thibetan.
These are monosyllabic or isolating in structure.
E.-I. Basque. II. The aboriginal languages of South America-all polysynthetic in structure.

## CHAPTER II.

## GRIMM'S LAW.

16. I. If the same roots or the same words exist in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Keltic, Slavonic, Lithuanian, Gothic, ${ }^{1}$ and Old High German, then, wherever the Sanskrit or Greek has an aspirate the Gothic has the corresponding fat mute.
II. If in Sanskrit, Greek, \&c., we find a flat mute, then we find a corresponding sharp mute in Low German, and a corresponding aspirate in High German.
III. If the six first-named languages show a sharp mute, the Gothic shows the corresponding aspirate, and Old High German the corresponding flat mute.

Table of Comparative Sounds.

| Sanskrit. | Greek. | Latin. | Gothic and Low Germ. Languages. | Old High German. | Modern High German |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bh * (h) | $\phi$ | f * (b) | b | p | p |
| dh (dh) | $\theta$ | f* (d, b) | d | t | t |
| gh (h) | $\chi$ | h, (f) | g | k | g |
| b | $\beta$ | b | p | f | $f$ |
| d | $\delta$ | d | t | $z$ | s, 2 |
| $g$ | $\gamma$ | g | k | ch | ch |
| p | $\pi$ | p | f, b | f, v | $f$ |
| t | $\tau$ | t | th | d | d |
| k | $k$ | c | $\mathrm{h}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{h}^{*}$ | h |

[^7]ILLUSTRATIONS OF GRIMM'S LAW.
I. Sansk. b/2; Gr. $\phi$; Lat. $f(b)$; Goth. $b$; O. H. Ger. p.


| $\text { bhi (to } \overline{\text { fear }} \text { ) ...... }$ | $\phi$ a ${ }^{2}$ ós <br> $\phi \div$ Bouat $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | fngus | $130 \hat{k} \mathrm{a}$ | puocha $\qquad$ | beech. <br> O.I. bevir, biver (shake). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| blaram (to whirl) | ßрє́ $\mu \omega$ | fremo | O. N. brim (surge) | - | O. E.brecm(fierce), brim (celge). |
| bhrâj <br> bhu $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | $\phi \lambda \hat{\gamma} \gamma \omega$ <br> $\phi v^{\prime} \omega$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | fulgeo, flagro .... fu-i ................ | - | pi-m (Ger. lion). | bright (Prov. Eng. blunk, spark). be (O.E. lee-om). |
| II. Sansk. $d$; Gr. $\theta(\phi)$; Lat. $f(d, b)$; Goth. $d$; O. II. Ger. t. |  |  |  |  |  |
| duhitri ............ | Ovزátทр............ | - | dauhtar........... | ```tohtar (Ger. tochter)``` |  |
| dvâra ( $=$ dhvâra) | Oipa. | fores | daur $\qquad$ | tor $\qquad$ | cloor. deer. |
| - - | $\theta \eta \rho(\phi \eta \rho) \text {.......... }$ | fera $\qquad$ do in con-do, \&c. | dius | tior (Ger. ther).. <br> (ier. thun | do. |
| dhâ ................. | тіөпин............... <br> 0є́ $\mu$ เs ................ | do in con-do, ©c. | dôms........ ...... |  | doom. |
| dha (to shake, blow) | Oט́w, $\theta \dot{v} \in \lambda \lambda \alpha, \theta u \mu \delta s$ | fumus, suf-fio.... | dauns (smell) .... | tunst (storm) .... | dust. |
| dhri (to support) <br> dhrish. | $\theta p a ̂ v o s(b e n c h) . .$. <br> $\theta$ app $\varepsilon$ عiv | firmus <br> fortis $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | ga-daursan ...... | tarran | dare, durst |


| Sanskrit. | Greek. | Latin. | Gothic. | O. II. Gcr. | English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vadhu (wife) (cp. Zend. vad, to lead) indh (to burn) ... madhya. ruh ( $=$ rudh ), to grow $\qquad$ rudhira (blood).. | are $\omega$. <br> $\mu \in \sigma \sigma o s$ <br> épuopós $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | æstas, ades medius <br> ruber, rufus $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | midja | wette. <br> eit (fire) $\qquad$ $\qquad$ miti (Ger. mitte). <br> ruota (Ger, rute). <br> rôt (Ger, roth)... | wed, wife. <br> O.E. ad. mid-dle, midst. rood, rol. red. |

III. Sansk. $g h(h)$; Gr. $x$; Lat. $h(f, g)$; Goth. $g$; O. H. Ger. $k$.


|  | $\chi \delta \rho \tau$ ог............. | co-hors, hertus... | garis (house)..... | karto (Ger. garten) | garclen, yard orchard (= ortyard) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hyas* | $\chi$ ¢ө́s ............... | heri, hesternus... | gistra............. | këstar (Ger. gestern) | yester-day. |
| vah* (to carry)... | úzos....... ....... . | trahere <br> vehere $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | diragan vigs (way) | trakan waggan (currus).. | drag. waggon, wain wag. |
|  | $\epsilon\}$ | - | aigan.............. | cikan. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { owe } \\ & \text { agan). } \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $\chi^{\text {ain }}$..............$~$ | canalis, cunic |  | ğinêm (I yawn).. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { yawn (O.E. } \\ & \text { gene). } \end{aligned}$ |
| nakha | $\not \subset \nu v \xi . .$ | - | nagls | Ger. nagel......... | $\begin{aligned} & \text { nail } \\ & \text { nagel). } \end{aligned} \text { (O.E. }$ |
| stigh (to mount). | $\sigma \tau \epsilon \chi \chi \omega$.......... | - | steiga (I go up)... | Ger. steigen...... | O.E. stigen(styc). | * $H$ has grown out of $g h . \quad+k / 2$ originally $g h$.

IV, Sansk. $b$; Gr. $\beta$; Lat. $\delta$; Goth. $p$; O. II. Ger. $f_{\text {. }}{ }^{*}$
 * The initial $b$ is rare in Teutonic words. In Sans., Gr., and Lat. $b$ has been developed from other sounds
V. Sansk. $d$; Gr. $\delta$; Lat. $d$; Goth. $t$; O. H. Ger. $\varepsilon$ (Ger. $s, z$ ).

| Sanskrit. | Greck. | Latin. | Gothic. | O. II. Ger. | English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| asru ( $=$ dasru)... | סdккри.............. | $\underset{\text { cruma) }}{\operatorname{lacruma}}(=\text { da. }$ | tagr .............. | zahar, zähre...... | tear. |
| dah (to burn)..... |  | lignum ........... | - - |  | - |
| dir............. | 8íw | duo | twai .............. | zuei (Ger. zwei).. | two, twain. |
| svid (to sweat) ... | ¿\%¢¢́s | sudare | sweitan | svizzan | to sweat. |
| das'an.............. | סéka .............. | decem | taihun | zc̈han (Ger. zchn) | tcn, tithe. |
| dant............. |  | dens | tunthus ........ ... | zand (Ger. zahn). | tooth (O.E. toth $=$ tonth). |
| swâdu | ทסi's | suairs | sutis | suozi (Ger. siiss). | sweet (O.E. |
|  | ¢ठ¢ | edere | itan | ëzan (Ger. cssen) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { swot). } \\ & \text { eat. } \end{aligned}$ |
| vid. |  | videre | witan.............. | wizan (Ger. wissen) | wit (wot, wist). |
| dam ......... | бандん | domare | tamjan ........... | zëman, zëhmen... | tame. |
| dama (house) <br> druma (wood) |  | domus | timr (timber)..... | Ger. zimmer...... | timber. <br> tree. |
| druma dar (tear) diod... ... |  | - | triu tairan................. | zëran.. |  |
| dis' (to show) ... |  | dico | teiha ............... | teigôm (I show). | teach. |
| nîda (nest) <br> hridaya | карঠ̇a | nidus. cor (co |  |  | nest. heart. |
| kratu (power) ... | крй́tos |  | hardus | harti $\qquad$ | hard. |
| pâda .............. | taús ( $\pi 0$ óds) | pes (pedis) | fôtus | vuoz (Ger. fuss).. | foot. |



| Sanskrit. | Greek. | Latin. | Gothic. | O. H. Ger. | English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| prî (to please, to love) <br> prath (to extend) <br> pat-tra (wing), from pat, to fly <br> prach (ask) $\qquad$ | $\pi \rho a \dot{u} s$ <br> $\pi$ тarús $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\pi \tau \epsilon \rho \delta \nu, \pi \in ́ \tau о \mu \alpha_{1} .$. | planus ( $=$ platnus) penna (=pesna), peto $\qquad$ quercus (= percus) <br> precor................ | frijôn <br> favs $\qquad$ $\qquad$ fraihnan, fragan. | freund, freuen (to be glad) <br> fedara (wing) ... <br> fôh. $\qquad$ <br> foraha föhre) <br> Ger. fragen <br> (Ger. $\qquad$ | friend (O.E. freon, to love). flat. <br> fea-ther ( $=$ feth. ther). <br> few (O.E. feawa). <br> fir. <br> O.E. fregnan, frain. |
| VII. Sansk. $t$; Goth. th; O. H. Ger. $d$. |  |  |  |  |  |
| tvam <br> $\operatorname{tam}(a c c$. <br> tri $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | $\tau u ́$ <br> $\tau \delta \nu$ <br> $\tau \rho \in i$ is $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | tu $\qquad$ is-tum, ta-lis, ta-m tres $\qquad$ | thu <br> tha-na <br> threis $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | du $\qquad$ d-ën (Ger. den)... <br> dri (Ger. drei).... | thou thú). three. (O.E. the (thi-s, than-t). |



| Sanskrit. | Greck. | Latin. | Gothic. | O. H. Ger. | English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kalya (healthy)... <br> hrid ( $=$ krid) <br> $s^{\prime}$ vas'ura <br> s'âlâ* (house) <br> s'i (to lie) <br> s'van .. $\qquad$ <br> s'vela (white) | ra入ós. <br> киро́ía <br> éкupós $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ калla ............... <br> $\kappa є \grave{\mu} \mu$ เ. ................ <br> $\kappa \lambda \epsilon ́ \pi \tau \omega, \kappa \lambda \epsilon \in \pi \tau \eta s$ <br> $\sigma \tau \lesssim \zeta \omega$. $\qquad$ <br> кv́ $u v$, кuvós $\qquad$ | cor (cordis) socer. cella, domicilium quies, civ-is ...... <br> clepo <br> in-stigare canis $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | hails <br> swaihra <br> haims (village)... <br> hliftus (thief) ... <br> stikan <br> hunths <br> hweits $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | Ger. heil <br> Ger. schwager ... <br> Ger. heim <br> Ger. stecken. hund. huiz $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | whole, heal (O.E. hál, hol.) <br> heart. <br> O. E. sweor. <br> hall. <br> home (O.E. <br> hím.) <br> shop-lifter (O.E. <br> lift, to steal.) <br> stick. <br> hound. <br> white wheat. |
| * The Sanskrit $s^{\prime}$ has been developed from an original guttural. <br> IX. Sansk. $j(g)$; Gr., Lat. $g$; Gothic $k$; O. H. G. ch. |  |  |  |  |  |
| jnâ. | $\gamma^{\gamma \nu \hat{\omega} \mu \mathrm{c} . . .}$.......... | gnosco ........... | kunnan........... kan .............. | Ger. kennen, können chan ............. | ken, con, know. can. |


17. No satisfactory explanation has yet been given of this permutation of consonants throughout the Indo-European family of languages, " nevertheless we have no reason to believe it of a nature essentially different from the other mutations of sound ${ }^{3}$ of equally arbitrary appearance, though of less complication and less range, which the history of language everywhere exhibits."-Whitney.

The changes of sounds just noticed have arisen from what Max Müller terms dialectic growth. Even in the history of our own language we find traces of similar changes, as vat, in winc-vat, is the old Southern English form for the Northern fat, a vessel.

In the dialects of the South of England, we may still hear dirsh = thrush; drash $=$ thrash.

The aspirate dental $t / 2$ has become $s$ in the third person singular of verbs, as he loveth $=$ he loves. But this was once a dialectical peculiarity.
18. There are other changes that must not be confounded with the permutations coming under Grimm's Law : the chief are those that arise from an endeavour to make the work of speaking easier to the speaker, to put a more facile in the stead of a more difficult sound or combination of sounds, and to get rid of what is unnecessary in the words we use.
"All articulate sounds are produced by effort, by expenditure of muscular energy, in the lungs, throat, and mouth. This effort, like every other which man makes, he has an instinctive disposition to seek relief from, to avoid ; we may call it lazincss, or we may call it economy-it is in fact either the one or the other-according to the circumstances of each separate case ; it is laziness when it gives up, more than it gains ; economy when it gains more than it abandons." -Whitney.

These wearing down processes are often called euphonic ${ }^{2}$ changes Max Müller terms them the results of phonctic decay.

Thus, as he remarks, nearly all the changes that have taken place in our own language within the last eight centuries come under this class of changes.
(i) Softening of gutturals at end of words, as silly from scelig, godly from godlic $=$ godlike, barley fron bar-lic.

[^8]In laugh, cough, \&c. the guttural is represented by a labial aspirate (cp. O. E. thof = though; thruf, thurf $=$ through). A similar change is seen in Lat. frio, frico, as compared with Gr. xpi $\omega$, Sansk. gharsh, to rub; Lat. formus, warm; Sansk. gharma, and Gr. $\quad$ єр $\mu$ ús.

Trough is pronounced in some parts as troth, just as we hear children saying fum for thumb, and nuffing for nothing. The Russians put $f$ regularly for th, turning Theodore into Feodor or Fedor (cp. Gr. exp, Lat. fera, Eng. deer).

In dough and plough (also in dry, buy, O. E. drige, bugge) the guttural sound is altogether lost, just as it is in many Sanskrit words, as mah for magh, to become great ; duh for dugh, to milk, \&c. (cp. anser for hanser $=$ ghanser, Gr. $\chi$ ท́v).
$G$ has been softened down to $j$ in ridge, edge, bridge, \&c. from O.E. rigg, egg, brigs.

In bat and mate a $t$ supplies the place of an original $k$ (cp. O.E.bak $=$ bat, make $=$ mate, fette $=$ fechche $=$ fetch, scratte $=$ scrachche $=$ scratch).
(2) Softening of initial gutturals, as child for cild, \&c.
(3) Substitution of $d$ for th, as burden for burthen, murder for murther, \&-c.
(4) Loss of letters, as woman for wif-man (cp. goody for goodwife, huzzy for huswife), lord for hláford, king for cyning, mole for moldwarp, stranger for estrangier $($ Fr. $)=$ extrancus (Lat.), \&c. (cp. loss of $n$ before th in English words, tooth for tonth, mouth for munth, \&c).
(5) Insertion of letters, $b, d$, as slumber for slumer-ian, thumi, limb, for thum, lim (cp. number from numerus, and the insertion of $p$ after $m$ in Latin), thunder for thuner, hind for hine (cp. soun. for soun, from Lat. sonus; and cinder, tender, from Lat. cinis, tener;
 Gr. á $\nu \delta \rho \in s$ for ä $\nu \rho \in s)$.

It must be recollected that certain letter-changes are brought about under the influence of neighbouring sounds, as English cob-wseb for ${ }^{*}$ O. E. cop-web, where the influence of $w$ has changed the $p$ into a $b$; orchard $=$ O.E. ort-yard $=$ ort-geard: so we find in the sixteenth century goujeer for good year.

When two consonants come together the first is often assimilated to the second, or the second to the first, thus $d$ or $t+s$ will become $s$,
as O.E. god-sib has become gossip. So gospel, grunsel, foster $=$ godspel, ground-sel, fodster; chaffare $=$ chapfare; cup-board is pronounced cubboard; Lat. ad-fero $=$ affero, \&ic. ; puella $=$ puerella, \&c.

When two dentals come together, the first is sometimes changed into a sibilant, as mot-te $=$ moste $=$ most, and wit-te $=$ wiste $=$ wist (cp. Lat. hest from O.E. hat-an, to command; missus for mittus from mitto; esum $=$ edtum from edo).

Sometimes $s$ becomes st, as O.E. whiles $=$ whilst, hoise $=$ hoist, \&c.

When two consonants come together, the first is made like the second or the second similar to the first, ${ }^{1}$ as wept $=$ weceped, kembd and kempt $=$ kembed $=$ combed; so we have clotpoll and clodpoll ( cp . Lat. scriptus = scrib-tus). To a similar principle must be ascribed the loss of the guttural sound of $h$ or $g h$ before $t$; thus might ( $=$ mihth $), n i g h t(=n i h t h): \mathrm{cp}$. It. otto for octo.

[^9]
## CHAP'TER III.

## HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

19. We must bear in mind, ( 1 ) that English is a member of the Indo-European family; (2) that it belongs to the Teutonic group; (3) that it is essentially a Low German dialect ; (4) that it was brought into Britain by wandering tribes from the Continent; (5) that we cannot use the terms English or England in connection with the country before the middle of the fifth century.
20. According to the statements of Bede, the Teutonic invaders first came over in A.D. 449, and for about 100 years the invasion may be said to have been going on. In the course of time the original Keltic population were displaced by the invading tribes, who became a great nationality, and called themselves Englisc or English. The land they had won they called Ængla-land (the land of the Angles) or England.

Bede makes the Tentonic invaders to consist of three tribesAngles, Saxons, and Jutes. The Saxons, he tells us, came from what was known in his time as the district of the Old Saxons, the country between the Elbe and the Eider.

The Angles came from the Duchy of Sleswick, and there is still a district in the southern part of the duchy, between the Slie and the arm of the Baltic, called the Flensborg Fiorde, which bears the name Angeln.

Bede places the Jutes to the north of the Angles, that is, probably the upper part of Sleswick or South Jutland.

There were no doubt a considerable proportion of Frisians from Greater and Lesser Friesland. Bede mentions the Frisians (Fresones) among the natives from whom the Angles were descended.

The settlements are said to have taken place in the following order :-
I. Jutes, under Hengest and Horsa, who settled in Kent and the Isle of Wight and a part of Hampshire in A.D. 449 or 450 .

> II. The first division of the Saxons, under Ella (Alle) and Cissa, settled in SUSSEx, in 477 .
III. The second body of Saxons, under Cerdic and Cynric, in Wessex, in 495.
IV. The-third body of Saxons in Essex, in 530 .
V. First division of the Angles, in the kingdom of East Anglia (Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and parts of Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire).
VI. The second division of the Angles, under Ida, in the kingdom of Beornicia (situated between the Tweed and the Firth of Forth), in 547.

Two other kingdoms were subsequently established by the Angles -Deira (between Tweed and Humber), and Mercia, ${ }^{1}$ comprehending the Midland counties.

Teutonic tribes were known in Britain, though they made no settlements before the coming of the Angles. In the fourth century they made attacks upon the eastern and south-eastern coast of this island, from the Wash to the Isle of Wight, which, on that account, was called "Littus Saxonicum," or the Saxon shore or Saxon frontier ; and an officer known as the Count of the Saxon Shore (Comes Littoris Saxonici per Britannias) was appointed for its defence. These Teutonic invaders were known to the Romans and Celts by the name of Saxons; and this term was afterwards applied by them to the Teutonic settlers of the fifth century, who, however, never appear to have called themselves Saxous, but always Englisc or English.

2I. The language that was brought into the island by the LowGerman settlers was an inflected speech, like its congener, modern German. It was, moreover, an unmixed language, all its words being English, without any admixture of foreign elements.

The Old English borrowed but very few words from the original inhabitants. In the oldest English written language, from the ninth to the end of the elewenth century, we find scarcely any traces of Keltic words.

In our old writers, from the thirteenth century downwards, and in the modern provincial dialects, we find more frequent traces of words of Keltic origin, and a few still exist in modern English.
22. The English were converted to Christianity about A.D. 596, and during the four following centuries many Latin words were

[^10]introduced by Roman ecclesiastics, and by English writers who translated Latin works into their own language.

This is called the Latin of the Second period. What is usually designated the Latin of the First period consists of words that have had no influence upon the language itself, but are only to be found in names of places, as castra, a camp, in Don-caster, Chester, \&c.
23. Towards the end of the eighth century the Northmen of Scandinavia (i.e. of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden), who were then without distinction called Danes, ravaged the eastern coast of England, Scotland, the Hebrides, and Ireland.

In the ninth century they gained a permanent footing in England, and subdued the kingdoms of Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia.

In the eleventh century Danish sovereigns were establislied on the English throne for nearly thirty years.

Chronologically the facts are as follows:-
In 787 three ships of Northmen appeared and made an attack upon the coast of Dorsetshire.

In 832 the Danes ravaged Sheppey in Kent.
In 833 thirty-five ships came to Charmouth in Dorsetshire, and Egbert was defeated by the Danes.

In 835 the Welsh and Danes were defeated by Egbert at Hengestesdun.

In 855 the Danes wintered in Sheppey.
In 866 they wintered in East Anglia.
In 868 they got into Mercia as far as Nottingham, and in 870 they invaded East Anglia.

In 871 the eastern part of Wessex was invaded by the Danes.
In 874 the Danes entered Lincolnshire.
In 876 they made settlements in Northumbria.
In 878 Alfred concluded a treaty with Guthorm or Guthrum, the Danish chief, and formally ceded to the invaders all Northumberland and East Anglia, most part of Essex, and the north-east part of Mercia.

In 991 the Norwegians invaded the east coast of England and plundered Ipswich ; they were defeated at the battle of Maldon. Before 1000 the Danes had settled in Cumberland. ${ }^{1}$

In 1013 Svein, King of Denmark, conquered England; and between the years IOI3 and 1042 a Danish dynasty ruled over England.

[^11]24. The Danish and English are allied tongues, and consequently there is an identity of roots, so that it is by no means an easy matter to detect the Danish words that have found their way into English.

In the literature of the tenth and eleventh centuries we find but few traces of Danish, and what little there is occurs in the scanty literature of Northern English, and not in the dominant English of the South. We know, too, that in the north and east of England the Old English inflections were much unsettled by Danish influence, and that in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries nearly all the older inflections of nouns, adjectives, and verbs had disappeared, while in the south of England the old forms were kept up to a much later period, and many of them have not yet died out.

There are numerous traces of Scandinavian words-( 1 ) in the local nomenclature of England ; (2) in Old English literature of the north of England ; (3) in the north of England provincial dialects.

In modern English they are not so numerous. It may be sufficient for the present to say that there are a few common words of undoubted Danish origin, as are, till, until, fro, froward, ill, bound (for a place), busk, bask, \&c.
25. The next great event that affected the English language was the Norman invasion in 1066, by which French became the language of the Court, of the nobility, of the clergy, of literature, and of all who wished for or sought advancement in Church or State. ${ }^{1}$

An old writer tells us that gentlemen's children were taught French from their cradle; and in the grammar-schools boys were taught to construe their Latin into French. Even uplandish men (or rustics) tried to speak French in order to be thought something of, so low did the English and their language fall into disrepute.

In the universities Latin or French was ordered to be used. French was employed in the courts of law, and the proceedings of Parliament were recorded in French.

[^12]The great mass of the people, however, clung to their mothertongue, and from time to time there arose men who thonght it a meritorious work to write in English, for the benefit of the " unlered and lewed," who knew nothing of French.

It must be recollected that the Norman invaders did not carry on an exterminating war against the natives as the Saxons did against the Keltic inhabitants, nor were they superior in numbers to the English; and therefore, as might be expected, there came a time when the two races-the conquering and the conquered-coalesced and became one people, and the language of the majority prevailed. While this was taking place French became familiar to the English people, and very many words found their way first in the spoken and then in the written language. But after this coalescence of the two races Norman-French became of less and less importance, and at last ceased to be spoken.

In I349 boys ceased to learn their Latin through the medium of French, and in 1362 (the 36 th year of Edward III.) it was directed by Act of Parliament that all pleadings in the law 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.
Norman-French had suffered too by being transported to English soil, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries had become a mere provincial dialect, in fact a corrupt sort of French which would no longer pass current as the "French of Paris."

These changes were brought about by political circumstances, such as the loss of Normandy in King John's reign, and the French wars of Edward III. (1339), which produced a strong anti-Gallican feeling in the minds of both Anglo-Normans and English.
26. We have seen that Norman-French is sprung from the Latin language brought into Gaul by the Romans. It has, however, preserved (I) some few Keltic words borrowed from the old Gauls; ${ }^{1}$ (2) many Teutonic terms introduced by the Franks, who in the fifth century conquered the country, and imposed their name upon the country and language ${ }^{2}(3)$ a few Scandinavian words brought into the language by the Northmen who settled in Normandy in the tenth century.

But the Norman-French was essentially a Latin tongue, and it added to English another Latin element, which is usually called the Latin of the third period.
27. From the revival of learning in the beginning of the sixteenth century up to the present time we have introduced a large number

[^13]of words from Latin. These have been called the Latin of the fourth period.
28. Greek words have also found their way into the language, but have been borrowed more sparingly than Latin.

The Latin element, then, comes to us either indirectiy or directly. That introduced by the Norman-French comes indircetly, and has in very many instances undergone great change in spelling. Latin words of the fourth period are borrowed direct from the Latin, and have not suffered much alteration. A few examples will make this clear:-

| Latin introduced by <br> Norman-French. | Latin borrowed direcily <br> from the Latin. | Latin. |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| balm | balsam | balsamum |
| caitiff | captive | captivus |
| coy | quiet | quietus |
| feat | fact | factum |
| fashion | faction | factio |
| frail | fragile | fragilis |
| lesson | lection | lectio |
| penance | penitence | penitentia |
| sure | secure | securus |
| trait | tract | tractus |

Compare, too, entestor and antecessor; sampler and exemplar; benison and benediction; chalice and calyx; conceit and conception; constraint and construction; defeat and defect; forge and fabric; malison and malediction; mayor and major; nourishment and nutriment; poor and pauper ; orison (prayer) and oration; proctor and procurator; purveyance and providence ; ray and radius; respite and respect; sir and senior; surface and superficies, treason and tradition.

Loyal and legal; privy and private; royal and regal; strait and strict.

Aggries: and aggravate; couch and collocate; construe and construct; esteem and estimate; paint and depict; purvey and provide; rule and regulate.

A few words from the Greek have suffered similar charge, as frensy, blame (cp. blaspheme), fantom (cp. fantasm), story (cp. history).
29. Our language has naturalized miscellaneous words from various sources besides those already mentioned.
(1) Hebrew.-Abbot, amen, cabal, cherub, jubilee, pharisaical, Sabbath, seraph, Shibboleth.
(2) Arabic.-Admiral, alchemy, alkali, alcohol, alcove, alembic, almanac, amulet, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, atlas,
azure, bazaar, caliph, chemistry, cotton, cipher, dragoman, elixir, felucca, gazelle, giraffe, popinjay, shrub, syrup, sofa, sherbet, talisman, tariff, tamarind, zenith, zero.
Arabia exercised powerful influence upon European culture in the Middle Ages. Many words in the above list, as admiral, artichoke, assassin, popinjay, \&c., have come to us through one of the Romance dialects.
(3) Persian.-Caravan, chess, dervish, emerald, indigo, lac, lilac, orange, pasha, sash, shawl, turban, taffety.
(4) Hindu.-Calico, chintz, dimity, jungle, boot, muslin, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, paunch, pundit, rajah, rice, rupee, rum, sugar, toddy.
(5) Malay.-(Run) a-muck, bantam, gamboge, orang outang, rattan, sago, verandah; tattoo and taboo (Polynesian) ; gingham (Java).
(6) Chinese-Caddy, nankeen, satin, tea, mandarin.
(7) Turkish.-Caftan, chouse, divan, fakir, janissary, odalisk, saloop, scimitar.
(8) American.-Canoe, cocoa, hammock, maize, potato, skunk, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, wigwam, yam.
(9) Italian.-Balustrade, bandit, brave, bust, canto, carnival, charlatan, domino, ditto, dilettante, folio, gazette, grotto, harlequin, motto, portico, scaramouch, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, umbrella, vista, volcano, \&c.
(10) Spanish.-Alligator, armada, cargo, cigar, desperado, don, embargo, flotilla, gala, mosquito, punctilio, tornado, \&c.
(iI) Portuguese.-Caste,commodore, fetishism, palaver, porcelain, \&c.
(12) Frenck.-Aide-de-camp, accoucheur, accouchement, attaché, au fait, belle, bivouac, belles-lettres, billet-doux, badinage, blasé, bon mot, bouquet, brochure, bonhomie, blonde, brusque, busk, coif, coup, début, débris, déjeuner, dépôt, éclat, élite, ensemble, ennui, etiquette, entremêts, façade, foible, fricassée, goût, interne, omelet, naïve, naïveté, penchant, nonchalance, outré, passé, persiflage, personnel, précis, prestige, programme, protégé, rapport, redaction, renaissance, recherché, séance, soirée, trousseau.
(13) Dutch.-Block, boom, boor, cruise, Ioiter, ogle, ravel, ruffle, scamper, schooner, sloop, stiver, yacht, \&c.
(I4) German. - Landgrave, landgravine, loafer, waltz, cobalt, nickel, quartz, felspar, zinc.
30. Taking the actual number of words from a good English dictionary, the sum total will be over 100,000 . Words of classical origin are calculated to be about twice as numerous as pure English words ; hence some writers, who have only considered the constituent parts of cur vocabulary, have come to the conclusion that English is not only a mixed or composite language, but also a Romance language. They have, however, overlooked the fact that the grammar is not mixed or borrowed, but is altogether English.

We must recollect that in ordinary conversation our vocabulary is limited, and that we do not employ more than from three to five thousand words, while our best writers make use of about twice that number.

Now it is possible to carry on conversation, and write numerous sentences, without employing any borrowed terms; but if we endeavour to speak or write without making use of the native element (grammar or vocabulary), we shall find that such a thing is impossible. In our talk, in the works of our greatest writers, the English element greatly preponderates.

3I. It will be interesting as well as useful to be able to distinguish the English or Low German elements from the Romance terms.

Pure English are-
I. I. Demonstrative adjectives ( $a$, the, this); pronouns (personal, relative, demonstrative, ©c.) ; numerals.
2. All auxiliary and defective verbs.
3. Prepositions and conjunctions.
4. Nouns forming their plural by change of vowel.
5. Verbs forming their past tense by change of vowel.
6. Adjectives forming theirdegrees of comparison irregularly.
II. I. Grammatical inflections, as-
(a) Plural suffixes (-s and -en) and ending of possessive case.
(b) Verbal inflections of present and past tenses, of active and passive participles.
(c) Suffixes denoting degrees of comparison.
III. I. Numerous suffixes-
(a) Of Nouns, as -hood, -ship, -dom, -th ( $-t$ ), -ness, -2ng, -ling, -kin, -ock.
(b) Of Adjectives, as -fiul, -ly, -ent, -ish, -some, -ward.
(c) Of Verbs, as -en.
2. Numerous prefixes, as $a$, $a l$, be, for, ful, on, over, out, under.
IV. Most monosyllabic words.
S. The names of the elements and their changes, of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily actions and posture, the commonest animals, the words used in earliest childhood, the ordinary terms of traffic, the constituent words in proverbs, the designation of kindred, the simpler emotions of the mind, terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective, and anger, are for the most part unborrowed. ${ }^{1}$

## Of English Origin.

I. Heaven, sky, welkin, sun, moon, star, thunder, lightning, fire, weather, wind, storm, blast, cold, frost, heat, warmth, cloud, dew, hail, snow, ice, rime, rain, hoarfrost, slect, time, tide, year, month, day, night, light, darkness, twilight, dawn, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, winter, spring, summer, harvest.
II. World, earth, land, hill, dale, ground, bottom, height, water, sea, stream, flood, ebb, burn, well, spring, wave, waterfall, island.
III. Mould, sand, loam, clay, stone, gold, silver, lead, copper, tin, iron, quicksilver.
IV. Field, heath, wood, thicket, grove, tree, alder, ash, beech, birch, elm, fir, oak, lime, willow, yew, apple, pear, plum, berry, crop, corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, acorn, sloe, bramble, nut, flax, grass, weed, leek, wort, moss, reed, ivy, clover, flax, bean, daisy, foxglove, honeysuckie, bloom, blossom, root, stem, stalk, leaf, twig, sprig, spray, rod, bow, sprout, rind, bark, haulm, hay, straw, ear, cluster, seed, chaff.

## Of English Origin.

V. Hare, roe, hart, deer, fox, wolf, boar, marten, cat, rat, mouse, dog, hound, hitch, ape, ass, horse, mare, nag, cow, ox, bull, calf, neat, sheep, buck, ram, swine, sow, farrow, goat, mole.
VI. Bird, fowl, hawk, raven, rook, crow, stork, bittern, crane, glede, swan, owl, lapwing, starling, lark, nightingale, throstle, swallow, dove, finch, sparrow, snipe, wren, goose, duck, hen, gander, drake.
VII. Fish, whale, shark, eel, herring, lobster, otter, cockle.
VIII. Worm, adder, snake, bee, wasp, fly, midge, hornet, gnat, drone, humble-bee, beetle, chafer, spider, grasshopper, louse, flea, moth, butterfly, ant, maggot, frog, toad, tadpole.
IX. Man, woman, body, flesh, bone, soul, ghost, mind, blood, gore, sweat, limb, head, brain, skull, eye, brow, ear, mouth, lip, nose, chin, cheek, forehead, tongue, tooth, neck, throat, shoulder, arm, elbow, hand, foot, fist, finger, toe, thumb, nail, wrist, ankle, hough, sole, shank, shin, leg, knee, hip, thigh, side, rib, back, womb, belly, navel, breast, bosom, barm, lap, liver, maw, sinew, skin, fell, hair, lock, beard, whiskers.

Of Romance Origin.
Animal, beast, squirrel, lion, tiger, mule, elephant, dc.

Eagle, falcon, heron, ostrich, vulture, mavis, cock, pigeon.

Salmon, sturgeon, lamprey, trout.

Serpent, lizard, alligator.

Corpse, spirit, perspiration, countenance, stature, figure, palate, stomach, moustache, palm, vein, artery, intestines, nerves.

## Of English Origin.

X. Horn, neb, snout, beak, tail, mane, udder, claw, hoof, comb, fleece, wool, feather, bristle, down, wing, muscle.
XI. House, yard, hall, church, room, wall, wainscot, beam, gable, floor, roof, staple, door, gate, stair, th-eshold, window, shelf, hearth, fireside, stove, oven, stool, bench, bed, stall, bin, crib, loft, kitchen, tub, can, mug, loom, cup, vat, ewer, kettle, trough, ton, dish, board, spoon, knife, cloth, knocker, bell, handle, watch, clock,looking-glass, hardware, tile.
XII. Plough, share, furrow, rake, harrow, sickle, scythe, sheaf, barn, flail, waggon, wain, cart, wheel, spoke, nave, yoke.
XIII. Weeds, cloth, shirt, skirt, smock, sack, sleeve, coat, belt, girdle, band, clasp, hose, breeches, drawers, shoe, glove, hood, hat, stockings, ring, pin, needle, weapon, sword, hilt, blade, sheath, axe, spear, dart, shaft, arrow, bow, shield, helm, saddle, bridle, stirrup, halter.
XIV. Meat, food, fodder, meal, dough, bread,loaf, crumb, cake, milk, honey, tallow, flesh, ham, drink, wine, beer, ale, brandy.
XV. Ship, keel, boat, wherry, hulk, fleet, float, raft, stern, stem, board, deck, helm, rudder, oar, sail, mast.

## Of Romance Origin.

Palace,temple,chapel, tabernacle, tent, chamber, cabinet, parlour, closet, chimney, ceiling, front, battlement, pinnacle, tower, lattice, table, chair, stable, garret, cellar, furniture, utensils, goblet, chalice, cauldron, fork, nap (-kin), plate, carpet, tapestry, mirror, curtain, c̣utlery.

Coulter.

Garment, lace, buckle, pocket, trousers, dress, robe, costume, pall, boot, cap, bonnet, veil, button, target, gauntlet, mail, harness, arms.

Victuals, provender, flour, lard, greasc, butter, cheese, beef, veal, pork, mutton, roast, boiled, broiled, fry, bacon, toast, sausage, pie, soup, spirits.

Vessel, galley, prow.

## Of English Origin.

XVI. Father, mother, sister, brother,son, daughter,husband, wife, bride, godfather, stepmother.
XVII. Trade, business, chapman, bookseller, fishmonger, \&c.; pedlar, hosier, shoemaker, \&c.; outfitter, weaver;baker, cooper, cartwright, fiddler, thatcher, seamstress, smith, goldsmith, blacksmith,fuller,tanner,sailor, miller, cook, skinner, glover, fisherman, sawyer, groom, workman, player, wright.
XVIII. King, queen, earl, lord, lady, knight, alderman, sheriff, beadle, steward.
XIX. Kingdom, shire, folk, hundred, riding, wardmote, hustings.
XX. White, yellow, red, black, blue, brown, grey, green.
XXI. Fiddle, harp, drum.

## Of Romance Origin.

Family, grand (-father), uncle, aunt, ancestor, spouse, consort, parent, tutor, pupil, cousin, relation, papa, mamma, niece, nephew, spouse.
Traffick, commerce, industry, mechanic, merchant, principal, partner, clerk, apprentice, potter, draper, actor, lamdress, chandler, mariner, barber, vintner, mason, cutler, poulterer, painter, plumber, plasterer, carpenter, mercer, hostler, banker, servant, journey(man), labourer.

Title, dignity, duke, marquis, viscount, baron, baronet, count, squire, master (mister), chancellor, secretary, treasurer, councillor, chamberlain, peer, ambassador, captain, major, colonel, lieutenant, general, ensign, cornet, sergeant, officer, herald, mayor, bailiff, engineer, professor, \&c.
Court, state, administration, constitution, people, suite, treaty, union; cabinet, minister, successor, heir, sovereign, renunciation, abdication, dominion, reign, government, council, royal, loyal, emperor, audience, state, parliament, commons, chambers, signor, party, deputy, member, peace, war, inhabitant, subject, navy, army, treasurer.
Colour, purple, scarlet, vermilion, violet, orange, sable, \&ic.
Lyre, bass, flute, lute, organ, pipe, violin, \&c.
XXII. All words relating to art, except singing and drawing, are of Romance origin.
XXIII. Familiar actions, feelings, qualities, are for the most part unborrowed.

Of English Origin. Of Romance Origin.
Talk, answer, behave, bluster, gather, grasp, grapple, hear, hark, listen, hinder, walk, limp, run, leap, \&c. \&c.

Converse, respond, reply, impel, prevent, direct, ascend, traverse, \&c.
XXIV. The names of special action, qualities, \&c., are mostly pure English ; general terms are Latin, as-
Warmth, flurry, mildness, heat, Impression, sensation, emotion, ' wrath, \&c.
Even, smooth, crooked, high, brittle, narrow, \&c.
disposition, temper, passion, \&c. fragile, \&c.
32. The Romance element has provided us with a large number of synonymous terms by which our language is greatly enriched, as-

| benediction | and | blessing |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| commence | " | begin |
| branch | ," | bough |
| flour | ", | meal |
| member | " | limb |
| gain | ", | win |
| desire | " | wish |
| purchase | ", | buy |
| gentle | , | mild |
| terrer | , | dread |
| sentiment | ," | feeling |
| labour | , | work |
| flower | , | bloom |
| amiable | ", | friendly |
| cordial | , | hearty |

33. Sometimes we find English and Romance elements compounded. These are termed Hybrids.
I. Pure English words with Romance suffixes:-

Ance. Hindr-ance, further-ance, forbear-ance.
Age. Bond-age, cart-age, pound-age, stow-age, tonn-age.
Ment. Forbode-ment, endear-ment, atone-ment, wonder-ment.
Ry. Midwife-ry, knave-ry, \&c.
Ity. Odd-ity.

Let. $\}$ Stream-let, smick-ct.
Ess. Godd-ess, shepherd-ess, huntr-ess, songstr-ess.
Able. Eat-able, laugh-able, read-able, unmistake-able.
Ous. Burden-ous, raven-ous, wondr-ous.
Ative. Talk-ative.

## II. Romance words avith English endings :-

Ness. Immense-ness, factious-ness, savage-ness, with numerous others formed from adjectives in ful, as merci-fulmess, use-ful-ness, \&c.
Dom. Duke-dom, martyr-dom.
Hood. False-hood.
Rick. Bishop-rick.
Ship. Apprentice-ship, sureti-ship.
Kin. Nap-kin.
Less. Use-less, grace-less, harm-less, and many others.
Full. Use-ful, grate-ful, bounti-ful, merci-ful, and numerous others.
Some. Quarrel-some, cumber-some, venture-some, humour-some.
Ish. Sott-ish, fool-is $h$, fever-ish, brut-ish, slav-is $h$.
Ly. Round-ly, rude-ly, savage-ly, and innumerable others.
III. English words with Romance prefixes:-

En, Em. En-dear, en-thral, em-bolden.
Dis. Dis-belief, dis-burden.
Re. Re-kindle, re-light, re-take, re-seat.
IV. Romance words with English prefixes:-

Be. Be-siege, be-cause, bc-powder.
Under. Under-vakue, under-act, under-price.
Un. Un-stable, $u n$-fortunate, and very many others.
Over. Over-turn, over-value, over-rate, over-curious.
For. For-pass, for-prise, for-fend.
After. After-piece, after-pains.
Out. Out-prize, out-faced.
Up. Up-train.

## CHAPTER IV.

## OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS.

34. Before the Norman Conquest we find evidence of two dialects, a Southern and a Northern.

The Southern was the literary language, and had an extensive literature ; in it are written the best of our oldest English works. The grammar of this dialect is exceedingly uniform, and the vocabulary contains no admixture of Danish terms.

The Northern dialect possesses a very scanty literature. An examination of existing specimens shows us, (1) that this dialect had grammatical inflections and words unknown to the Southern dialect ; (2) that the number of Danish terms are very few.

Some writers think that these differences are due to the original Teutonic tribes that colonized the north and north-east of England. As these tribes are designated by old writers Angles, in contradistinction to the Jutes and Saxons, this dialect is called Anglian.

The chief points of grammatical difference between the Northern and Southern dialects are :-
(I) The loss of $n$ in the infinitive ending of verbs, as, N. cuoetha $=$ S. cwethan, to say. $\mathrm{N} . d$ rinc- $a=\mathrm{S}$. drinc-an, to drink.
(2) The first person singular indicative ends in $u$ or $o$ instead or e, as,

> N. Ic getreow-u=S. getreow-e, I believe, trow. N. Ic drinc-o $=$ S. drinc-e, I drink.
(3) The second person singular present indicative often ends in $-s$ rather than -st, and we find it in the second person singular perfect indicative of weak verbs-
N. $\begin{array}{r} \\ u \\ \text { ge plantad-es }=\text { S. ge plantod-est, thou hast planted. }\end{array}$
(4) The third person sing. frequently ends in $s$ instead of $t$.
N. he gewyrces = S. gewyrcath, he works.
N. he onsaces $=$ S. onsecath, he denies.
(5) The third plural present indicative and the second person plural imperative often have $-s$ instead of $-t h$.
N. hia onfoas = S. hi onfoath, they receive.
(6) The occasional omission of $y$ e before the passive participle.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { N. hered }=\text { S. geherod, praised. } \\
& \text { N. bledsed }=\text { S. gebletsod, blessed. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(7) Occasional use of active participle in and instead of end. N. drincande $=\mathrm{S}$. drincende, drinking.
(8) The use of aren for syndon or synd $=$ are (in all persons of the plural).
In nouns we find much irregularity as compared with the Southern dialect.
(9) Plurals end in $a, u, o$, or $c$, instead of -an. 1

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { N. heorta }=\text { S. heortan, hearts. } \\
& \text { N. witeg-u }=\text { S. zvilegan, prophets. } \\
& \text { N. ego }=\text { S. eagan, eyes. } \\
& \text { N. nome }
\end{aligned}
$$

(10) -es is sometimes found instead of $-\ell$ as the genitive suffix of feminine nouns.
(II) the and thio are sometimes found for se (masc.) and seo (fem.) $=$ the.
(12) The plural article tha sometimes occurs for the demonstrative pronoun $h i=$ they.
We see that 10, 11, 12, are really changes towards modern English.
35. After the Norman Conquest dialects become much more marked, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we are able to distinguish three great varieties of English.
(I) The Northern djalect, which was spoken in Northumberland, Durham, and ${ }^{\circ}$ Yorkshire, and in the Lowlands of Scotland.
(2) The Midland dialect, spoken in the whole of the Midiand shires, in the East Anglian counties, and in the counties in the west of the Pennine chain; that is, in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Shropshire.

[^14](3) The Southern dialect, spoken in all the counties south of the Thames; in Somersetshire, Gloucestershire, and in parts of Herefordshire and Worcestershire.
It is not difficult to distinguish these dialects from one another on account of their grammatical differences.

The most convenient test is the inflection of the verb in the present plural indicative.
(4) The Southern dialect employs eeth, the Midland -en, as the inflection for all forms of the plural present indicative.:
The Northern dialect uses neither of thesse forms, but substitutes -es for -eth or -en. ${ }^{1}$

The Northern dialect has its imperative plural in -es; the Southern and Midland dialects, in eeth.

## Examples.

Plural Pres. Up-steghes (up-go) hilles and feldes down-gas
(down-go).2 Thir (these) kinges rides forth thair rade (road). ${ }^{3}$
And gret fisches etes the smale (small). ${ }^{4}$
The mar thou drinkes of the se
The mare and mar(e) threstes ye. ${ }^{5}$
Now we wyn and now we tyn (lose). ${ }^{6}$
Imp. Oppenes (open) your yates (gates) wide. $7^{7}$
Gais (go) he said, and spirs (inquire) welle gern (earnestly).
Cums (come) again and tels (tell) me. ${ }^{8}$
Plural Pres. We habbeth (have) the maystry. ${ }^{9}$
Childern leueth Freynsch and construeth and lurnet/ an (in) Englysch. ${ }^{10}$
Imp. Lusteth (listeneth) . . . lateth (let) me speke. ${ }^{11}$
Adraweth $\overline{0}$ oure (your) suerdes (swords). ${ }^{12}$
Plural Pres. Loverd we ar-en (are) bothe thine. ${ }^{13}$
Loverd we sholen the wel fede. ${ }^{14}$
And thei that fallen on the erthe, dyen anon. ${ }^{15}$
Imp. Doth awei 3 oure $\overline{5}$ atus (gates) and beth rerid out 3 ee everlastende 3 atis. ${ }^{16}$

\footnotetext{
I We do not find -s often in the first person. Often all inflections are dropped in the plural, as in modern English.
${ }^{2}$ Specimetws of Early English, p. 91.

5 1b. p. 154 .
9 Ib. p. 342.
${ }^{13}$ Ib. p. 47.
${ }^{6} \mathrm{Ib}$. p. $17^{8}$.
${ }^{10}$ Ib. p. 339.
${ }^{14}$ Ib. p. $4^{8}$.

| ${ }^{3} \mathrm{lb} . \mathrm{p} .129$. | 4 Ib. p. 152. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $7 \mathrm{Ib} . \mathrm{p} .88$. | $8 \mathrm{Ib} . \mathrm{p} .130$. |
| ${ }^{11}$ Ib. p. 36. | 12 lb . p. 66. |
| $15 \mathrm{lb} . \mathrm{p} .202$. | $16 \mathrm{Ib} . \mathrm{p} .94$ |

36. The Midland dialect, being widely diffused, had various local forms. The most marked of these are: (I) the Eastern Midland, spoken in Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Suffolk; (2) the West Midland, spoken in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Cheshire, Shropshire.

The East Midland conjugated its verb in the present singular indicative like the Southern dialect-

| Ist pers. hop-e | I hope. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2nd |  |
| 3rd ", hope-st | thou hopest. |
| 3op-cth | he hopes. |

The West Midland, like the Northern, conjugated its verb as follows:-

> Ist pers. hope. ${ }^{1}$
> 2nd " hop-es.
> 3rd ", hop-es.
37. There are many other points in which these dialects differed from one another.
(i.) The Southern was fond, as it still is, of using . $v$ where the other dialects had $f$, as vo $=f a=$ foe ; vinger $=$ finger. In the old Kentish of the fourteenth century we find 2 for $s$ : as zinge $=$ to sing ; zede $=$ said.
(ii.) It preferred the palatal $c h$ to the guttural $k$ in many words, ${ }^{2}$ as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { riche }=\text { Northern rike }=\text { kingdom } . \\
& \text { zech }= \\
& \text { crouche }=
\end{aligned}, \quad \text { sek }=\text { sack. } . \quad \text { croke }=\text { cross. }
$$

(iii.) It often had $\bar{o}$ and $u$ where the Northern dialect had $\bar{a}$ and $i$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {,hul }=\text { Northern }=\text { hil. } \\
& \text { put }=, \quad=\text { pit. } \\
& \text { bôn }=, \quad=\quad \text { ban }=\text { bone. } \\
& \text { liff }=, " \quad=\text { laf }=\text { loaf. } \\
& \text { on (oon). ", } \quad=\quad a_{n}=\text { one. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In its grammar the Soathern was'still more distinctly marked.
(a) It preserved a large number of nouns with plurals in $n$, as sterren $=$ stars, cyren $=$ eggs, $k u n=$ kine, \&c. The Northern dialect had only about four of these plurals, namely, $\operatorname{eghen}(=$ eyes), hosen, oxen, and schoon(=shoes).

[^15](b) It kept up the genitive of feminine nouns in $c,{ }^{3}$ while the Northern dialect employed only the masculine suffix $s$, as in modern English.
(c) Genitive plurals in eene ${ }^{2}$ are very common, but do not occur at all in the Northern dialect.
(d) Adjectives and demonstrative pronouns retained many of the older inflections, and the definite article was inflected. Many pronominal forms were employed in the South that never existed in the North, as ha (a) $=$ he; is = them ; is = her.
(c) Where the older language had infinitives ending in $-a n$ and $-i a n$, the Southern dialect had -en or $-e$ and $-i e^{3}$ The Northern dialect had scarcely a trace of this inflection.
$(f)$ Active participles ended in -inde ( $y n d e$ ) ; in the North is. -ande (and). ${ }^{4}$
$(g)$ Passive participles retained the old prefix ge (softened down to $i$ or $y^{5}$ ); in the North it was never used.
(h) It had many verbal inflections that were unknown to the Northern dialect, as -st (present and past tenses), -en (plural past indicative), $e$ (second person plural past indicative of strong verbs).
(I) The Northern dialect had many plural forms of nouns that were wholly unknown to the Northern dialect, as - Brether $=$ brethren, childer $=$ children, $k y=$ cows (kine), hend = hands.
(2) That was used as a demonstrative as at present, without reference to gender. In the Southern dialect that was often the neuter of the definite article.
(3) Same (as the same, this same) was used instead of the Southern thilke, modern thuck, thick, or thucky.
(4) Thir, ther (the plural of the Scandinavian article), the these, was often used.
(5) The pronominal forms were very different. Thus instead of the Southern heo $(h i, h i i)=$ she, this dialect used sco, scho, the older form of our she. It rejected the old plural pronouns of the third person, and substi-

[^16]tuted the plural article, as thai, thair, thaim (tham), instead of hi (heo, hii), heore (here), heom (hemi); ures, yhoures, thairs, quite common then as now, were unknown in the South.
6. $A t=$ to was used as a sign of the infinitive mood; sal and suld $=$ schal and schuld.
7. The Northern dialect had numerous Scandinavian forms, as-

| hethen, hence | $=$ | South | h henne |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| thethen, thence | $=$ | " | thenne |
| whethen, whence |  | " | zuhennes |
| sumt | = | ", | as |
| fra | $=$ | " | fram $=$ from |
| $t i l$ | = | " | to |
| by | = | , | tun $=$ town |
| minne | = | " | lesse $=$ less |
| plogh | $=$ | ", | sul3 $=$ plough |
| nefe (neve) | = | " | frust $=$ fist |
| sterne | = | " | sterre $=$ star |
| bygs | = | " | bere = barley |
| low | = | " | ley $=$ flame . |
| werre | $=$ |  | zuyrse $=$ worse |
| slik | = | " | swich $=$ such |
| gar | $=$ | " | do. |
| \&c. |  | c. | \&c |

38. The East Midland dialect had one peculiarity that has not been found in the other dialects, namely, the coalescence of pronouns with verbs, and even with pronouns, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { caldes }=\text { calde }+e s=\text { called them } \\
& \text { tedes }=\text { dede }+e s=\text { put them } \\
& \text { hes }=\text { he }+e s=\text { he + them } \\
& \text { get }=g e+i t=\text { she + it } \\
& \text { mes }=\text { me }+e s=\text { one (Fr. on) + them. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The West Midland dialect had its peculiarities, as $h o=$ she ; hit $=1$ ts ; shyn $=$ shuln (plural).
39. We must bear in mind that the Midland dialect was the speech that was most widely spread, and, as we might expect, would be the one that would gradually take the lead in becoming the standard language. There were, as we have seen, many varieties of the Midland dialect, but by far the most important of these was the East Midland. As early as the beginning of the thirteenth
century it began to be cultivated as a literary dialect, and had then thrown off most of the older inflections, so as to become, in respect of inflectional forms and syntactical structure, as simple as our own.

In this dialect Wicliffe, Gower, and Chaucer wrote, as well as the older and well-known authors, Orm and Robert of Brunne. It was, however, Chaucer's influence that raised this dialect to the position of the standard language. In Chaucer's time this dialect was the language of the metropolis, and had probably found its way south of the Thames into Kent and Surrey.

At a later period the Southern dialect had so far retreated before it as to become Western rather than Southern; in fact, the latter designation was applied to the language-which had become the standard one.

George Puttenham, writing in 1589 , speaks of three dialects-the Northern, Western, and Southern. The Northern was that spoken north of the Trent; the Southern was that south of the Trent, which was also the language of the court, of the metropolis, and of the surrounding shires; the Western, as now, was confined to the counties of Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Wiltshire, \&c. ${ }^{1}$

[^17]
## CHAPTER V.

## PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

40. All living languages, in being handed down from one generation to another, undergo changes and modifications. These go on so gradually as to be almost imperceptible, and it is only by looking back to past periods that we become sensible that the language has changed. A language that possesses a literature is enabled to register the changes that are taking place. Now the English language possesses a most copious literature, which goes as far back as the end of the eighth century, so that it is possible to mark out with some distinctness different periods in the growth or history of our language.

## I. The English of the First Period.

$$
\text { (A.D. } 450-1100 \text {.) }
$$

(a) The grammar of this period is synthetic or inflectional, while that of modern English is analytical. ${ }^{1}$
(b) The vocabulary contains no foreign elements.
(c) The chief grammatical differences between the oldest English and the English of the present day are these :-
(1) Grammatical Gender.-As in Latin and Greek, gender is marked by the termination of the nominative, and alsn by other case endings. Substantives and adjectives have three genders-masculine, feminine, and neuter.
(2) Declensions of Substantives. -There were various declensions, and at least five cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative or instrumental. distinguished by various endings.
(3) The Definite Article was inflected, and was also used ooth as a demonstrative and a relative pronoun.
(4) Fronouns had a dual number.
(5) The infinitive of Verbs ended in -an, the dative infinitive in -asme (-enne).
(6) Only the dative infinitive was preceded by the preposition to.
(7) The present participle ended in -ende.
(8) The passive participle was preceded by the prefix ge-.
(9) Active and passive participles were declined like adjectives.
(10) In the present tense plural indicative the endings were, (1) -ath; (2) -ath; (3) -ath.
(II) In the present pl. subjunctive they were $-o n,-o n,-o n .{ }^{1}$
(12) In the preterite tense plural indicative the endings were -on (sometimes -an).
(13) The second person singular in the preterite tense of weak verbs ended in -st, as lufode-st $=$ thou loved-est ; the corresponding suffix of strong verbs was $-e$, as-
at-e, thou atest or didst eat. slep- $e$, thou slept-est.
(14) The future tense was supplied by the present, and shall and will were not usually sinse auxiliaries.
(15) Prepositions governed various cases.

## II. The English of the Second Piriod.

(A.D. IIOO to about 1250.)
41. Before the Norman Conquest the English language showed a tendency to substitute an analytical for a synthetical structure, and probably, had there been no Norman invasion, English would have arrived at the same simplification of its grammar as nearly every other nation of the Low German stock has done. The Danish invasion had already in some parts of the country produced this result; but the Norman invasion caused these changes, more or less inherent in all languages, to take place more rapidly and more generally.

The first change which took place affected the orthography; and this is to be traced in documents written about the beginning of the twelfth century, and constitutes the only important modification of the older language.

This change consisted in a general weakening of the terminations of words.
i. The older vowel endings, $a, o, u$, were reduced to $e$.

This change affected the oblique cases of nouns and adjectives as well as the nominative, so that the termination

| $a n$ | became | ens. ${ }^{1}$ | ra, rul | became | re. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| as | " | es. | ena | " | ere. |
| $a t h$ | " | eth. | On' | " | ch. |
| umı | " | en. ${ }^{1}$ | od, ode | " | ed, ede. |

ii. $C$ or $k$ is often softened to $c h$, and $g$ to $y$ or $w$.

To make these changes clearer, we give-
(1) A portion of Ælfric's homily, "De Initio Creatura," in the English of the first period; (2) the same in the English of the beginning of the twelfth century ; and (3 and 4) the same a few years later. ${ }^{2}$

1. An anginn is ealra binga, bæt is God Ælmightig.
2. An anginn is ealra thingen, pæt is God Almightig.
3. An angin is alre oingre, bæt is God aimihtiz.
4. One beginning is therr of ${ }^{*}$ all things, that is God Almighty.
5. He is ordfruma and ende: he is ordfruma fordi be he was æfre.
6. He is ordfruma and zende: he is ordfrume for pan be he wæs æfre.
7. He is ordfruma and ende : he is ordfrume for bi te he wres æfre.
8. [He is] hordfruma and ande: he is ord for he wes efre.
9. He is beginning and end: he is beginning, for-that that he was ever.
10. He is ende butan ælcere geendunge, for Jan be he biگ æfre unge-endod.
11. He is æendæ abuten ælcere geændunge, for pan be he byz æfre unge-ændod.
12. He is ende buton zelcre endunge, for pan De he bið æfre un3e-endơd.
13. He is ænde buton ælcere 弓iendunje
14. He is end without any ending, for-that that he is ever unended.
15. He is ealra cyninga cyning, and ealra hlaforda hlaford.
16. He is ealra kingene kinge, and ealra hlaforde hlaford.

[^18]v.] PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. 5I
3. He is alre kynge kyng, and alre laford $e$ laford.
4. Heo is alra kingene king, and alra hlaforden hlaford.
5. He is of all kings King, and of all lords Lord.

1. He hylt mid his mihte heofanas and eorran and ealle.
2. He healt mid his mihte heofonas and eorðan and ealle.
3. He halt mid his mihte heofences and eorðan and alle.
4. He halt mid his mihte hefene and eoròe and alle.
5. He holdeth with his might heavens and earth and all.
6. Gesceafta butan geswince.
7. Gesceafte [buten] geswynce.
8. Isceafte buton swinke.

4 Jesceafte buton Jeswince.
5. Creatures without swink (toil).

The next example is given, ( 1 ) in the oldest English; (2) in that of 1100 ; (3) in that of about 1150.

1. Twelf unpeawas syndon on byssere worulde to hearme
2. Twelf unðeawes synden on byssen wurlde to hearme
3. Twelf unpeawes beod on bissere weorlde to hermen
4. Twelve vices are there in this world for harm
5. Eallum mannum gif hi moton ricsian and hi alecgad
6. Eallen mannen gyf heo moten rixigen and heo alecged
7. Alle monnen 3 if hi moten rixian and hi alleggad
8. To all men, if they might hold sway, and they put down
9. Rihtwisnysse and pone geleafan amyrrað and mancynn gebringaб
10. Rihtwisnysse and pone geleafe amerred and mancynn gebringed
11. Rihtwisnesse and bene ileafan amerrað and moncun bringed
12. Righteousness and (the) belief mar, and mankind bring
13. Gif $h i$ moton to helle.
14. Gyf heo moten to helle.
15. Jif hi motan to helle.
16. If they might to hell.

From 1150 to 1200 numerous grammatical changes took place, the most important of which were-

1. The indefinite article $a_{n}(a)$ is developed out of the numeral. It is frequently inflected.
2. The definite article becomes pe, peo, pe, (pat), instead of se, seo, pat. ${ }^{1}$
It frequently drops the older inflections, especially in the feminine.
We find pe often used as a plural instead of pa or po.
3. Nominative plural of nouns end in -en (or $c$ ) instead of $a$ or $u$, thus conforming to plurals of the $n$ declension.
4. Plurals in -es sometimes take the place of those in -ent $(-a n)$, the genitive plural ends in -ene or $-c$, and occasionally in -es.
5. The dative plural (originally $-u m$ ) becomes $e$ and $e n$.
6. Some confusion is seen in the gender of nouns.
7. Adjectives show a tendency to drop certain case-endings :-
(1) The genitive singular masculine of the indefinite declension.
(2) The genitive and dative feminine of the indefinite declension.
(3) The plural -en of the definite declension frequently becomes $e$.
8. The dual forms are still in use, but less frequently employed. The dative him, hem, are used instead of the accusative.
9. New pronominal forms come into use, as $h a=h e$, she, they ; is $=$ her ; is $=$ them; $m e=o n e$.
10. The $n$ in min, thin, are often dropped before consonants, but retained in the plural and oblique cases.
II. The infinitive of verbs frequently drops the final $n$, as smelle $=$ smellen, to smell ; herie $=$ herien, to praise. To is sometimes used before infinitives.
11. The gerundial or dative infinitive ends often in en or ee instead of enne (-anne).
12. The $n$ of the passive participle is often dropped, as icume $=$ icumen $=$ come.
13. The present participle ends in -inde, and is frequently used instead of the gerundial infinitive, as to swiminde $=$ to swimene $=$ to swim.
14. Shall and will began to be used as tense auxiliaries of the future.
[^19]The above remarks apply chiefly to the Southern dialect. In the other dialects of this period (East and West Midland) we find even a greater simplification of the grammar. Thus to take the Ormulum (East Midland) we find the following important changes :-
(a) The definite article is used as at present, and that is employed as a demonstrative irrespective of gender.
(b) Gender of substantives is almost the same as in modern English.
(c) -es is used as the ordinary sign of the plural.
(d) ees, singular and plural, has become the ordinary suffix of the genitive case.
(e) Adjectives, as in Chaucer's time, have a final $e$ for the older inflections, but $e$ is chiefly used, (1) as a sign of the plural, (2) to distinguish the dennite form of the adjective.
(f) The forms they, theirs, come into use.
$(g)$ Passive participles drop the prefix $i(\mathrm{ge})$, as czumen for $i c u m e n$.
( $h$ ) The plural of the present indicative ends in -en instead of elth.
(i) $A r n=a r e$, for beoth.

In an English work written before 1250, containing many forms belonging to the West Midland dialect, we find-
(a) Articles and nouns and adjectives as in the Ormulum.
(b) The pronoun thai instead of $h i$ or heo $=$ they; $I$ for $I c$ or Ich.
(c) Passive participles frequently omit the prefix $i$.
(d) Active participles end in -ande instead of -inde.
(e) Verbs are conjugated in the indicative present as follows :-

Singular.
(1) luv-e
(2) luv-es
(3) luv-es

Plural.
(1) luv-en
(2) luv-en
,3) luv-en
( $f$ ) Strong and weak verbs are conjugated after the following manner in the past tense :-

Singular.
Weak. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { (1) makede } \\ \text { (2) makedes } \\ \text { (3) makede }\end{array}\right.$
Strong. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { (1) schop } \\ \text { (2) schop } \\ \text { (3) schop }\end{array}\right.$

Plural.
$\begin{aligned} & \text { makeden } \\ & \text { makeden } \\ & \text { nakeden }\end{aligned}, \quad$,
schop-en $=$ created, shaped
schop-en
schop-en ", ",

Here we see two important changes: (1) -es for -est in seconcl person of weak verbs; and (2) the dropping of $e$ in strong verbs.

From 1150 to 1250 the influence of Norman-French begins to exhibit itself in the vocabulary of the English language.

## III. The English of the Third Period. (A.D. 1250-1350.)

42. (1) The article still preserves some of the older inflections, as: (1) the genitive singular feminine; (2) the accusative masculine ; (3) the plural bo (the nominative being used with all cases of nouns).
(2) Nouns exhibit much confusion in gender-words that were once masculine or feminine becoming neuter.
(3) Plurals in -ert and ees often used indiscriminately.
(4) The genitive -es becomes more general, and begins to take the place-(1) of the older $-e n$ and $-\ell$ (in old masculine and neuter nouns) ; and ( 2 ) of $-e$ in feminine nouns.
(5) The dative singular of pronouns shows a tendency to drop off; $m i$-self and $t h i$-self often used instead of me-self and the-self. ${ }^{1}$
(6) Dual forms of the personal pronouns dropped out of use shortly before 1300 .
(7) A final $e$ used, ( 1 ) for the sign of plural of adjectives; and (2) for distinguishing between the definite and indefinite declensions.
(S) The gerundial infinitive terminates in een and -e.
(9)' The ordinary infinitive takes to before it.
(10) Some few strong verbs become weak. Present participles in -inge begin to appear about 1300 .
French words become now more common, especially towards the end of this period.

In ten pages of Robert of Gloucester, Marsh has calculated that four per cent. of the vocabulary is Norman-French.

> IV. The English of the Fourth Period. (A.D. $1350-1460$.
43. In this period the Midland dialect has become the prevailing one. Northern and Southern words still retain their own peculiarities.

I We sometimes find miself as well as meself in La3amod.

## v.] PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The following are the chief points to be noted:-
I. The plural article, tho $=$ the, those, is still often used.
2. The -es in plural and genitive case of substantives is mostly a separate syllable.
3. The pronouns are:
$I$ for the older Ic (Ich2 sometimes occurs). sche for the older heo.
him, them, whom, used as datives and accusatives. oures, youres, heres, in common use for oure, youre, here.
thei (they) in general use instead of $h i$ (heo).
here $=$ their.
hem $=$ them.
4. The plurals of verbs in the present and past indicative end $-e n$ or $-e$.
The imperative plural ends in -eth.
-est often used as the inflection of the second person singular preterite of strong and weak verbs.
The infinitive mood ends in -en or $-e$; but the inflection is often lost towards the end of the fourteenth century.
The present participle ends usually in -ing (inge).
The passive participle of strong verbs ends in $-\epsilon n$ or $-e$.
The termination $-e$ is an important one.

1. It represents an older vowel ending, as nam-e $=$ nam-a, sun-e $=\operatorname{sun}-u$; or the termination -an, -en, as withute $=$ with-utan.
2. It represents various inflections, and is used-
(a) As a mark of the plural or definite adjective (adjectival e), as smalë fowles; the gretē see.
(b) As a mark of adverbs, as softe $=$ softly. (Adverbial e.)
(c) As a mark of the infinitive mood, past tense of weak verbs and imperative mood. (Verbale.)
Him thouchtë that his hertë wolde breke. (Chaucer.)
Towards the end of this period the use of the final $e$ becomes irregular and uncertain, and the Northern forms of the pronouns, their, theirs, them, come into use in the other dialects.

## V. The English of the Fifth Period.

(A.D. 1460 to present time.)
44. There are really two subdivisions of this period-
(I) 1460 to 1520.
(2) 1520 to present time.

From 1460 to 1520 there is a general dearth of great literary works, but there were two events in this period that greatly affected the language, especially its vocabulary-
(1) The introduction of printing into England by Caxton.
(2) The diffusion of classical literature.

For some peculiarities of Elizabethan English see Abbotr's "Shakespearian Grammar."

## CHAPTER VI.

## PHONOLOGY.

## Letters.

45. Letters are conventional signs employed to represent sounds. The collection of letters is called the Alphabet ; from Alpha and Beta, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet.

The alphabet has grown out of the old pictorial mode of writing. The earliest written signs denoted concrete objects; they were pictorial representations of objects, like the old Egyptian hieroglyphics.

Then single sounds were afterwards indicatcd by parts of these pictures.

The alphabet which has given rise to that now in use among nearly all the Indo-European nations, was originally syllabic, ${ }^{1}$ in which the consonants were regarded as the substantial part of the syllable, the vowels being looked upon as altogether subordinate and of inferior value. Consequently the consonants only were written, or written in full-the accompanying vowel being either omitted, or represented by some less conspicuous symbol.

Such is the construction of the ancient Semitic alphabet-the Phoenician, from which have sprung the Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin alphabets.

The oldest English alphabet consisted of twenty-four letters. All except three are Roman characters. $b$ (thorn) and $p$ (wên) are Runic letters; $\boxplus \delta$ is merely a crossed $d$, used instead of the thorn ; $i$ and $j$, as well as $u$ and $v$, were expressed by the same character.

[^20]46. The spoken alphabet must be distinguished from the written alphabet.

The sounds composing the spoken alphabet are produced by the human voice, which is a kind of wind instrument, in which the vibratory apparatus is supplied by the chorda vocales or vocal chords (ligaments that are stretched across the windpipe), while the outer tube, or tubes, through which the waves of sound pass, are furnished by the different configurations of the mouth.

The articulating organs, or organs of speech, are the tongue, the cavity of the fauces, the lips, teeth, and palate, and the cavity of the nostrils, which modify the impulse given to the breath as it arises from the larynx, and produce the various vowels and consonants that make up the spoken alphabet.
47. Vowels are produced by the vibrations of the vocal chords.

The pitch or tone of a vowel is determined by the vocal chords, but its quality depends upon the configuration of the mouth or buccal tube.

For the formation of the three principal vowels we give the interior of the mouth two extreme positions. In one we round the lips and draw down the tongue, so that the cavity of the mouth assumes the shape of a bottle without a neck, and we pronounce $u$. In the other we narrow the lips and draw up the tongue as high as possible, so that the buccal tube represents a bottle with a very wide neck, and we pronounce $i$ (as in French and German). If the lips are wide open, and the tongue lies flat and in its natural position, we pronounce $a$.

Between these three elementary articulations there is an indefinite variety of vowel sounds.

[^21]

Thus it is seen that long vowels are of secondary formation.
Sometimes a full vowel is weakened into a thin one, as $a$ into $i$ or $u$ (Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, \&c.).

In O.E. and in most of the Teutonic dialects, $a$ is weakened into $e, i$ into $e$, and $u$ into $o$.

Sometimes a simple vowel is broken into two, as grarden into gearden; cp. Lat. castra, O. E. ceaster, English chester; thus in O. E. $a$ is broken into ea (ia) ; $i$ to eo (io, ie).

Sometimes a vowel in one syllable of a word is modified by anotherin the following syllable- $o$ is affected by $i$ and the sound $e$ is produeed, and this change
renuains even when the modifying vowel has been lost : as Eng. feet, compared with Goth. fotjus, Old-Sax. foti, shows that the original form must have betr fêti.

When $i$ is followed by $a$ it becomes $e$, as O. E. help-an, to help, irom the root hilp, help; and $u$ followed by a becomes $0:$ thus from the root bug (Old-Eng. bugan), to bend is formed boga, a bow.
48. Diphthongs arise when, instead of pronouncing one vowel immediately after another with two efforts of the voice, we produce a sound during the change from one position to the other that would be required for each vowel. If we change the $a$ into the $i$ position and pronounce a vowel, we hear $a i$ as in aisle. If we change the $a$ into the $\approx$ position and pronounce a vowel, we hear $a u$ as in how. Here too we find many variations, and the less perfect diphthongs, such as oi, \&ic.

## 49. Consonants fall under the category of noises.

(a) Some are produced by the opening or closing of the organs of speech, in which the breath is stopped and cannot be prolonged. These are called muies or checks, as G, K, D, T, \&c.

If the breath is stopped and the veil is withdrawn that separates the nose from the pharynx, we obtain the nasals $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{NG}, \mathrm{m}$.
(b) If the breath be not wholly stopped, but the articulating organs are so modified as to allow the sound to be prolonged, then we get continuous consonants, called breaths or spirants, as $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{TH}$, F, s, \&c.
$l$ and $r$, which belong to this class, are called trills, and are produced by a vibration of certain portions of the mouth (tongue or uvula).
(c) The consonants may be classified according to the organs by which they are produced, as gutturals (k, g, ch), palatals (ch, j), linguals (sh, zh), dentals (t, d, th, dh), labials ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v}$ ).
(d) Those sounds produced by a greater effort of the vocal organs are called sharp, as $p, f, t, \& c$. ; if produced by a less effort, they are called flat, as $b, v, d$.
(e) The following table contains the consonants in the English alphabet, arranged according to a physiological plan :-

| 1. Glottis .. .. | Breaths or Spirants. |  |  | Mutes or Checks. |  |  | Aspirate. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | SHARP. | flat. | Trifled. | Sharp. | fleat. | nasal. |  |
|  | h (aspirate) | -• | - | . | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ |  |
| 2. Root of tongue and soft palate | ch (in Scotch loch). | .. | $\cdots$ | k | g | ng | Gutturals. |
| 3. Root of tongue) and hard palate $\}$ | - | y (yea) | - | ch (church) | j ( ${ }^{\text {mudge) }}$ | . | Palatals. |
| 4. Tip of tongue and teeth .. | .. | $\cdots$ | - | t | d | n | Dentals. |
| 5. Tongue and edge\} of teeth ..) | th (breath) | th (breathe) | - | . | - | - | Dentals. |
| 5. Tip of tongue and teeth .. | $s(\sin )$ | z (rise) | I | - | $\cdots$ | . | Sibilants. |
| and palate .. <br> 7. Tongue reversed | sh (sharp) | zh (pleasure) | r | . | $\cdots$ | . | Sibilants. |
| 8. Lower lip and upper teeth .. | $f$ | v | $\cdots$ | * | " | . | Labials. |
| $\left.\begin{array}{cc} \text { 9. Upperand lower } \\ \text { lips } & \text {.. } \\ \text {.. } \end{array} \right\rvert\,$ | .. | -•• | * | p | b | m | Labials. |
| to. Upperand lower <br> lips rounded .. | hw (zuluch) | w (wvith) | " | * | .. | . | Labials. |

50. From this table of consonants we have omitted (I)c, because, when used before a consonant or $a, o, u$, it has the sound of $k$, and when used before e, $i, y$, it has the sound of $s$ (in rice) ; (2) the soft sound of $g$ (in gem), because this is represented by $j$; (3) $q$, because this is equivalen to $k w$; (4) $x$, because it is equivalent to $k s$ or $g s$.
51. On the Number of Elementary Sounds in the spoken English Aiphabet.
In addition to the twenty-four consonants already enumerated we have fourteen single vowels and five diphthongs, making altogether jorty-three sounds.
52. $a$ in gnat.
53. a in pair, ware.
54. $a$ in fume.
55. $a$ in father.
56. $a$ in all.
57. $a$ in zuant.
58. e in met.
59. e in meet.
60. $i$ in knit.
61. o in not.
62. $o$ in note.
63. 00 in fool, rude.
64. 00 in wood, put.
65. $u$ in nut.
66. $i$ in high.
67. $i$ in aye.
68. oi in boil.
69. cru in how.
70. so in mew.

## CHAPTER VII.

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

52. ORTHÖEPY deals with the proper pronunciation of words; Orthography with the proper representation of the words of the spoken language. The one deals with words as they are pronounced, the other with words as they are written.

A perfect alphabet must be based upon phonetic principles, and (I) every simple sound must be represented by a distinct symbol; (2) no sound must be represented by more than one sign.
(a) The spoken alphabet contains forty-three sounds, but the writter alphabet has only twenty-six letters or symbols to represent them : therefore in the first point necessary to a perfect system of orthography the English alphabet is found wanting.

The alphabet, as we have seen, is redundant, containing three superfluous letters, $c, q, x$, so that it contains only twenty-three letters wherewith to represent forty-three sounds. So that it is both imperfect and redundant. Again, the five vowels, $a, c, i, 0, u$, have to represent no less than thirteen sounds (see §51).

The same combinations of letters, too, have distinct sounds, as ough in bough, borough, cough, chough, hough, hiccough, though, trough, through, Sc. sough ; ea in beat, bear, \&c.
(b) In regard to the second point, that no sound should be represented by more than one sign, we again find that the English alphabet fails. The letter $\bar{\sigma}$ (in note) may be represented by oa (boat), of (toe), co (yeoman), out (soul), owv (sow), cwu (sew), au (hautboy), eau (beau), owe (owe), 00 (floor), oh (oh !). The alphabet is therefore inconsistent as well as imperfoct.

Many letters are silent, as in psalm, calf, could, gnat, know, \&c.
(c) The English alphabet is supplemented by a number of double letters called digraphs ( $00,00, \&$ c.) , which are as inconsistently employed as the simple characters themselves.
(d) Other expedients for remedying the defects of the alphabet are-
(I) The use of a final $e$ to denote a long vowel, as bite, note, \&c. But even with regard to this $e$ the orthography is not consistent : it will not allow a word to end in $v$, although the preceding vowel is short, hence an $e$ is retained in live, give, \&c.
(2) The doubling of consonants to indicate a short vowel, as folly, hotter, \&c.

It must be recollected that the letters $a, e, i, a, u$, were originally devised and intended to represent the vowel sounds heard in far, prey, figure, pole, rule, respectively. In uther languages that employ them they still have this value.

During the written period of our language the pronunciation of the vowels has undergone great and extensive changes at different periods, while the spelling has not kept pace with these changes, so that there has arisen a great dislocation of our orthographical system, a divorcement of our written from our spoken alphabet. The introduction of foreign elements into the English language during its written period has brought into use different, and often discordant, systems of orthography ${ }^{1}$ (cp. ch in church, chivalry, Christian, \&c.). In addition to this there are peculiarities of the orthographical usages of the Old-English dialects.
53. The following letter-changes are worth recollecting:-
LABIALS-B, P, F, V, W.'
B. This letter has crept into many words, as O.E. slumer-ian, $=$ slumber; thum- $a=$ thumb; lim $=\lim b$.
Cp. humble from humilis, number from numerare.
$B$ has changed to-
(1) $p$ in gossip, from O.E. godsib; purse from O.Fr. borse (cp. bursar, disburse) ; apricot, Fr. abricot. ${ }^{2}$
(2) To $v$ in have from O.E. habban, hcave from O.E. hebban.
(3) To $m$ in summerset $=$ Fr. soubresaut.
P. $P$ is represented by-
(I) $b$ in lobster $=$ O.E. loppestre; dribble from drip, $d r o p=$ O.E. dropian, cobrveb $=$ O.E. coprweb.
(2) $v$ in knave $=$ O.E. сnapa.

It is often inserted between $m$ and $t$, as empty $=$ O. E. emtio (cp. sleam and glimpse, sempster and seamster) ; tempt $=$ O.Fr. tenter, Lat. tentare.

[^22]F. An $f$ frequently becomes $v$, as vat, vetches, vixen $=$ fat, fetches, fixen.

Cp . five and fifty, twelve and twelfh.
$F$ has disappeared from many words, as head, lord, hawk, hath, uoman $=$ O.E. heaffod (heved), hleford (loverd'), hafoc, hafath (hafth), wifman (wimman).

Cp. O.Fr. jolif, O.E. jolif = jolly.
The O.E. efeta, an eft, has become (1) evet ; (2) ewt; (3) newt (the $n$ belongs to the indefinite article).

V in some Romance words represents $p h$, as vial $=$ phial, O.E. visnomy $=$ physiognomy.

It has been changed to (I) $w$ in periwinkle $=$ Fr. pervenciic, Lat. perivinca; (2) to $m$ in malmsey $=$ O.E. maliesic, from O.Fr. malioisic.
W. This letter has disappeared in-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ooze }=\text { O.E. woos. } \\
& \text { lisp }=\text { O.E. wolisp. } \\
& \text { four }=\text { O.E. fewwer. } \\
& \text { soul }=\text { O.E. sawl, sawnl. } \\
& \text { lark }=\text { Scotch loverock, O.E. lawerce. } \\
& \text { ought }=\text { O.E. a-wviht (auht, oht }) . \\
& \text { tree }=\text { O.E. trow. } \\
& \text { knee }=\text { O.E. cneow. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$W$ has crept into whole and its derivatives=O.E. hal $($ hol $)$; so whoop, O. E. hoop (Fr. houper).
$H W$ has become wh, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { who }=\text { O.E. hwua. } \\
& \text { whelp }=\text { O.E. kwels. } \\
& \text { \&c. } \& c .
\end{aligned}
$$

The $w$ has disappeared in certain combinations ( $t w, t h w, s w$ ), as-

> tusk = O.E. twisc (tusc).
thong $=$ O. E. thwang (thwong).
$\operatorname{sister}^{-}=$O.E. swister (swuster).
such $=$ O.E. swilc (swiuch).
DENTALS-D, T, TH.
D. $D$ has sometimes become-
(x) $t$, as
clot $=$ clod.
abbot $=$ O.E. abbad (abbod).
etch $=$ eddisc $=$ O.E. edisc.
partridge $=$ O. Fr. perdrix, Lat. perdix.
(2) th, as (a) O.E. Vidder, thider, hwidtor have become hitnier thither, whither; (b) Lat. fides, O.Fr. fied = faith.

It has disappeared from -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { gospel } & =\text { O. E. godspol. } \\
\text { answer } & =\text { O. E. and-swarian (answerian). } \\
\text { woodbine } & =\text { O. E. wuth-bind. }
\end{array}
$$

It has crept into-

| thunder | $=$ O. E. thunor. |
| ---: | :--- |
| hind | $=$ O. E. hina (hine). |
| lend | $=$ O. E. lan-an (lene). |
| round (to whisper) | $=$ O. E. runian (runen, rounen). |
| gender | $=$ O. Fr. genre; Lat. genus. |
| sound | $=$ O. E. sonnt ; Lat. sonus. |
| riband (ribbon) | = Fr. rubani. |
| jaundice | $=$ Fr. jaunisse (cp. tender from Lat. tener). |

T. $T$ is sometimes represented by $d, 2 s-$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { proud } & =\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{E} . \text { prut. } \\
\text { bud } & =\mathrm{Fr} \text { bout. } \\
\text { diamond } & =\mathrm{Fr} . \text { diamant. } \\
\text { card } & \text { Fr. carte ; Lat. charta. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It has become th in author (Lat. auctor) and lant-horn ${ }^{1}$ (Lat. laterna; Fr. lanterne).

It has fallen away (before $s$ ) in best $=$ O.E. betst, last $=$ O.E. latst; Essex $=$ Eastsexan (Estsex).

At the end of a word it has disappeared in-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { anvil } & =\text { O.E. anfilt. } \\
\text { petty } & =\text { Fr. petit. } \\
\text { dandelion } & =\text { Fr. dent de lion. }
\end{array}
$$

It has crept in (a) after an $s$, as in behest $=$ O. E. behas; also in amongst, against, midst, amidst, whilst, betwixt, and O.E. onest, alongst, anenst, \&c.
(b) in tyrant $=$ O.Fr. tiran; Lat. tyrannus.
parchment $=$ O.Fr. parchemin.
cormoramt $=$ Fr. cormoran.
ancient $=$ O.Fr. ancien.
pheasant $=$ O.Fr. plaaisan.

## ${ }^{1}$ A corrupt spelling arising from a mistaken etymology.

Th has sometimes become-
(1) $d$, as murder $=$ O.E. myrthra. could $=$ O.E cuthe (couthe, coude). fiddle $=0 . E$ fithele. dwarf $=$ O.E. thzueorh (dwergh). Bedlam $=$ Bethlehem .
(2) $t$, as theft $=$ O.E. theofth. nostril $=$ O.E. nas-thyrlu (nosthirles).
(3) $s$, as love-s = love-th.

Th has disappeared in-
Norfolk $=$ O.E. North-folc, \&c. worship $=$ O.E. weorthscipe (worthshipe).

## SIBILANTS-S, Z, SH.

S is closely allied to $r$, and even in the oldest English we have traces of the interchange in-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { forlorn }=\text { forloren }=\text { forlosen } \text { (lost). } \\
& \text { frore }(\text { Milton })=\text { froren }=\text { frosen }=\text { frozen. } \\
& \text { O.E. gecoren }(y c o r n)=\text { chosen. } \\
& \text { Cp. O.E. isern }=\text { iren }=\text { iron. }
\end{aligned}
$$

We often write $c$ for an older $s$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mice }=\text { O.E. mys. } \\
& \text { pence }=\text { O.E. pens, pans. } \\
& \text { once }=\text { O.E. ones (ons). } \\
& \text { hence }=\text { O.S. hennes (hens). }
\end{aligned}
$$

Sc has in many cases been softened down to sh (O.E. sch), as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { shall } & =\text { O. E. sceal }(\text { scal }) . \\
\text { sliame } & =\text { O. E. scamut. } \\
\text { fish } & =\text { O.E. fisc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It is often preserved before $a, o, r$.
For $s c$ and $s p$ we frequently find by metathesis $c s$ and $p s$, as hoax $=$ O.E. husc.
So for ask we find axe $=$ O.E. axien $=$ acsian $=$ ascian.
In O.E. we find clapsed $=$ clasped, lipsed $=$ lisped.

In Romance words, s has passed into-
(1) $s h$, as cash $=$ O. Fr. casse, chasse ; Lat. capsa.
radish $=$ Lat. radix.
nourish $=$ O.E. norysy, norice, Lat. nutrire, O. Fr. nurir.
Cp. blandish (Lat. blandiri, O.Fr. blandir), cherish (O.Fr. cherir), flourish (Lat. florere), perish (Lat. perire, O.Fr. perir).
(2) To -ge, as cabbage $=$ Fr. cabus, Lat. cabusia. sausage $=$ Fr. saucisse, Lat. salsisia.
(3) To $x$ (from mistaken etymology), as pickaxe $=$ O.E. pikois.

French $s$ (Lat. $t$ ) has become $s h$, as-

> fashion $=$ O. Fr. faceon, fazon, Lat. factio. anguish $=$ Fr. angoisse, Lat. angustia.

In some words $s$ has disappeared-

```
riddle \(=\) O.E. rad-else (Ger. rathsal).
pea = O.E. pisa, O.Fr. peis, Lat. pesum.
cherry \(=\) O.E. cirse, Fr. cerise, Lat. cerasyus.
hautboy \(=\) Fr. hautbois.
relay \(=\) Fr. relais.
noisome \(=\) noise-some, from O.Fr. noise \(=\) Lat. nausea, or
noxa.
puny \(=\) Fr. puisne.
```

In a few words $s$ has intruded, as - s-melt, s-cratch, s-creak, $s$-quash, s-queeze, s-neeze, $i$-s-land $=\mathrm{O}$. E. ea-land, igland; aisle $=$ Fr. aile: demesne $=$ demain, O .Fr. domaine, demeine $=$ Lat. dominium.
$Z$ was not known in the oldest English, and through the influence of Norman-French it has taken the place of an older $s$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dizzy }=\text { O.E. dysig. } \\
& \text { freeze }=\text { O.E. freosan. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It also stands for a Fr. $c$ or $s$, as hazard, lizard, buzzard, seize.
$Z$ has intruded in citizen $=$ Fr. citoyen.
It has changed to $g$ in ginger (Lat. sinziber, O. E. gingivere).

## GUTTURALS-K, G, CH, H.

K. (1) c (k) has become ch.

In Old-English before the Conquest $c$ was always hard, but under Norman-French influence $c$ (before $e, i, e a, c o$ ) has been changed to ch; as O.E. cele, cese, cin, cild have become chill, checse, chin, child; ceorl, ceaf have become churl, chaff.

A final $c$ has sometimes changed to $c h$, as O.E. dic to dich; hrvilc to zulich. Sometimes the $c h$ has disappeared, as O.E. Ic $=$ Ich $=I ;$ anlic $=$ onlich $=$ only; aferalc $=$ everech $=$ every, berlic $=$ berlich $=$ barley.

In a few instances $c$ has become first $c h$ and then $j$, as -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { jaw }=\text { chaw. } \\
& \text { ajar }=\text { achar (on the turn), from O.E. cerran, to turn. } \\
& \text { knowledge }=\text { O. E. Anowlech, knowlach }=\text { cnawlac. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) In some Romance words $c$ has become-
(a) $c h$, as cherry $=$ Fr. cerise, Lat. cerasus.
chives $=$ Fr. cive.
coach $=$ Fr. carosse, Lat. carociam.
(b) $s h$, as shingle $=O$. Fr. cengle, Lat. cingulum.
(c) $g$, as flagon $=$ Fr. flacon.

$$
\text { sugar }=\text { Fr. sucre. }
$$

(3) $C$ (followed by $t$ ) has sometimes become $g \bar{h}$, asdelight $=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. deliter, Lat. delectarc. -straight $=$ O.Fr. streit, Lat. strittus.
G. In all words of English origin initial $g$ is alway: hard, even before $e, i, y$, as gave, give, go, get, \&ic.
$G$ has been softened ( 1 ) to $i, y, c, a$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { O. E. genoh } & =\text { enough. } \\
\text { gelic } & =\text { alike. } \\
\text { hand-geweorc } & =\text { handiwork. } \\
\text { fager } & =\text { fair. } \\
\text { fagel } & \text { hail. } \\
\text { twegen } & \text { = twain. } \\
\text { wega } & \text { = way. }
\end{aligned}
$$



Sometimes it is lost in the root and makes its appearance in the derivatives, as $d r y$ and $d r o u g h t$, slay and slaughter, draw (drag) and draught.

It has disappeared in-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { if }=\text { O.E. gif. } \\
& \text { icicle }=\text { O.E. Es-gricel. } \\
& \text { lent }=\text { O.E. lengten (Lencten). }
\end{aligned}
$$

It has been softened to
(x) ge $(=j)$ in singe $=O$. E. be sengan (sengen).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cringe }=\text { O.E. cringan (to die). } \\
& \text { Roger }=\text { O.E. hrodgar. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) to ch in orchard $=\mathrm{O}$. E. ort-geard (ortyard) $=$ herb-garden.
$G c(G g)$ has often become $j(d g)$ -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { edge }=\text { O.E. ecg }(\text { egg }) . \\
& \text { bridge }=\text { O.E. brycg }(\text { brigge }) . \\
& \text { ridge }=\text { O.E. hrycg }(\text { rigge }) .
\end{aligned}
$$

In Romance words $g$ often disappears, as-
master $=$ O.E. maister $=$ O.Fr. maïstre, Lat. magister.
disdain $=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. desdaigner, Lat. disdignare.
Sometimes $g$ becomes $w$, as: wafer $=$ O.Fr. gauffre, goffre, Lat. gafrum, cp. wastel-brede in Chaucer $=$ cake-bread (Fr. gateau).
$G$ has crept into the following words-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { foreign } & =\text { O. Fr. forain, Lat. forensis. } \\
\text { feign } & =\text { O. Fr. feindre. } \\
\text { sovereign } & =0 . \text { Fr. soverain, Lat. superanus. } \\
\text { impregnable } & =\text { Fr. imprenable. }
\end{array}
$$

Ch did not exist in the oldest English. In foreign words $c$ was substituted for it, as O. E. arcebiscop $=$ archbishop.

Through French influence $c h$ came to represent a Latin $c$, as Lat. cambiare, O.Fr. cangier, changier, change. Cp. chapter, chapel, chamber, chicf, \&c.

Ch in many Romance words has been changed-
(I) To $d g$, as cartridge $=$ Fr. cartouche.
(2) To sh, as parish $=$ Fr. paroisse, Lat. parochia.
fetish $=$ Fr. fetiche.
caboshed $=$ Fr. caboche.
(3) To tch, as butcher $=$ Fr. boucher. dispatch $=$ O.Fr. depescher.
H. This letter has disappeared from many words, especially hefore $l, n, r$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { it }=\text { O.E. hit. } \\
& \text { loaf }=\text { O.E. hlaf. } \\
& \text { lade }=\text { O.E. hladan. } \\
& \text { nek }=\text { O.E. hnecca. } \\
& \text { ring }=\text { O.E. hring. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the following words $h$ has intruded, as wharf, whelk, whelm.
It has fallen away from many words, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tear }=\text { O. E. taher, tar. } \\
& \text { fee }=\text { O. E. fooh, feo. } \\
& \text { \&ic. }{ }^{\text {dec. }}
\end{aligned}
$$

It has become $g h \mathrm{in}$ -

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { thigh } & =\text { O. E. theoh. } \\
\text { high } & =\text { O.E. heah. } \\
\text { nigh } & =\text { O. E. neah. } \\
\text { though } & =\text { O.E. theah. } \\
\text { knight } & =\text { O. E. cniht. } \\
\text { wrought } & =\text { O. E. wrolit. } \\
\text { \&c. } & \text { \&. . . }
\end{aligned}
$$

In some words $k$ has become first $g h$ and then $f$, as -

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { draft } \\
\text { draught } \\
\text { enough }
\end{array}\right\}=\text { O.E. droht (draht). } \\
& \text { laugh }=\text { O.E. genoh. } \\
& \text { \&.E. }=\text { Mheahhan. } \\
& \text { \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In ilk, O. E. cohl, $h$ has become changed to $k$.
We have both sounds side by side incandle and chandler. camal and charnel-(house). cattle and chattel.

## LIQUIDS-L, M, N, R.

L. In some Romance words $l$ has been weakened to $u$, as- hauberk (O.Fr. halberc, halbert). auburn (Lat. alburnum).
In O.E. we find assaut, maugre, paume, caudron, soudier, \&c.
$L$ has disappeared in the following English words :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { each = O.E. alc (elch). } \\
& \text { which }=\text { O.E. hrwylc (whilc, whilch). } \\
& \text { such = O. E. swylc (swilch, swulche, sulche). } \\
& \text { as } \quad=\text { O.E. ealswa (also, alse, ase). } \\
& \text { England }=\text { O. E. Engle-lond (Engelond). }
\end{aligned}
$$

$L$ has become-
(I) $r$, in lavender $=$ Lat. lavendula. sinoper $=$ Lat. sinoplum. colonel (pron. kurnel) $=$ coronel (Spanish).
In O.E. we find brember and bremel $=$ bramble.
(2) $n$, in postern $=$ O.Fr. posterle, posterne; Lat. posterula.
$L$ has intruded into the following words :-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { could } & =\text { (O. E. cuthe, coude) } . \\
\text { myrtle } & =\text { Lat. myrtus. } \\
\text { manciple } & =\text { O.Fr. mancipe; Lat. mancipium. } \\
\text { participle } & =\text { Lat. participium. } \\
\text { principle } & =\text { Lat. principium. } \\
\text { syllable } & =\text { Lat. syllaba. }
\end{array}
$$

M. $M$ has been lost in some of the oldest English words, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { five }=\text { O.E fif }(\text { Goth. finf }) . \\
& \text { soft }=\text { O.E. softe; Germ. sanft }=\text { samft. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$M$ is sometimes weakened to $n$, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { ant } & =\text { (O.E. cemete), emmet. } \\
\text { count } & =\text { O.Fr. cumte ; Lat. comes. } \\
\text { renowned } & =\text { O.E. renowomed; Fr. renommé. } \\
\text { noun } & \text { Fr. nom ; Lat. nomen. } \\
\text { count } & \text { O.FFr conter; Lat. computare. } \\
\text { ransom } & \text { O.Fr. raancon; Lat. redemptio; O.E. namson. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$M$ is sometimes changed to $b$, as marblestone $=\mathrm{O}$. E. marmaristan.

N . In the oldest English we find the loss of $n$ before $f$, th, $s$, and the vowel lengthened in consequence, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { goose }=(\text { gons }), \mathrm{cp} . \text { Germ. gans. } \\
& \text { tooth }=(\text { tonthi) }) \mathrm{cp} . \text { Goth. tunthus ; Germ. zahn. } \\
& \text { other }=(\text { onther }), \mathrm{cp} . \text { Goth anthar; Germ. azder. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Cp. us with Germ. anns, and could (coud) with can.
It has disappeared from many adverbs and prepositions, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { beside }=\text { O.E. bisidan. } \\
& \text { before }=\text { O.E. beforan. } \\
& \text { within }=\text { O.E. withinnan. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It has also been lost in other words, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ell }=\text { O.E. cln. } \\
& \text { eve } \quad=\text { O. E. afen. } \\
& \text { game }=\text { O.E. gamen. } \\
& \text { mill }=\text { O.E. mylen (miln). } \\
& \text { eleven }=\text { O.E. andlifum. } \\
& \text { Thursday }=\text { O. E. thutres-dag (thunresdai). } \\
& \text { agnail }=\text { O.E. ang-nagl. } \\
& \text { yesterday }=\text { O.E. gestran-dag. } \\
& \text { fortnight }=\text { O.E. feowertene-niht (fourteniht). }
\end{aligned}
$$

It has dropped from the beginning of a few words, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { adder }=\text { O.E. naddre (nadder). } \\
& \text { apron }=\text { O.Fr. napcron. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$N$ has intruded in a few words, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { newt }=\text { an cwt. } \\
& \text { nag }=\text { Dan. } \ddot{o} g ; \text { O.-Sax. ehu (cp. Lat. equa). }
\end{aligned}
$$

In Old-English we find noumpere $=$ umpire ( $=$ Lat. inipar) ; nouch $=$ ouche (Fr. oche), nounce ( $=$ uncia). Shakespeare has nuncle, naunt.

It has sometimes crept into the body of a word, as-
nightingale $=$ O.E. nihtegale.
messenger $=$ O.E. messager (O. Fr. messagier).
passenger $=$ O. E. passager (O.Fr. passagier).
popinjay $=$ O.E. popigay (O.Fr. papigai).
At end of words we find an inorganic $n$, as bittorn $=$ O.E. butore, Fr. butor: marten $=$ O.E. mearth.
$N$ has become (I) $m$ in-

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { smack } & =\text { O. E. snacc (boat), Fr. semaque. } \\
\text { hemp } & =\text { O. . hanep. } \\
\text { lime (tree) } & =\text { O.E. lind. } \\
\text { tempt } & =\text { O. Fr. tenter, Lat. tentare. } \\
\text { comfort } & =\text { O. Fr. confort, Lat. confortare. } \\
\text { venom } & =\mathrm{Lat} . \text { venenumb. } \\
\text { vellum } & =\mathrm{Fr} \text { velin. } \\
\text { megrim } & =\text { Fr. migraine. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) $l$ in flannel, formerly fantuen.

R sometimes represents a more original $s$, as-
ear $=$ O.E. eare, Goth. auso.
iron $=$ O.E. isen, iren, Goth. eisarn.
It has disappeared from some few words, as-
speak = O. E. spracan.
$\mathrm{pin}=$ O.E. preon.
palsy $=$ O.E. palasie, Fr. paralysie, Gr. paralysis.
cockade $=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. cocart.
$R$ has intruded into the following words:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { groom (bridegroom) }=\text { O. E. guma (gome). } \\
& \text { hoarse }=\text { O.E. hos. } \\
& \text { partridge }=\text { Fr. perdrix, Lat. perdix. } \\
& \text { cartridge }=\text { Fr. cartouche. } \\
& \text { corporal }=\text { Fr. caporal. } \\
& \text { culprit }=\text { Lat. culpa. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CHAPTER VIII.

## ACCENT.

54. Accent is the stress of the voice upon a syllable of a word. Syllabic accent is an etymological one, and in oldest English it was upon the root and not upon the inflectional syllables.

By the Norman Conquest a different system of accentuation was introduced, which towards the end of the twelfth century began to show itself in the written language.
"The vocabulary of the French language is derived, to a great extent, from Latin words deprived of their terminal inflexions. The French adjectives mortal and fatal are formed from the Latin mortalis and fatalis, by dropping the inflected syllable; the French nouns nation and condition, from the Latin" accusatives nationem, conditionem, " by rejecting the em final. In most cases the last syllable retained in the French derivatives was prosodically long in the Latin original ; and either because it was also accented or because the slight accent which is perceivable in the French articulation represents temporal length, the stress of the voice was laid on the final syllable of all these words. When we borrowed such words from the French, we took them with their native accentuation; and as accent is much stronger in English than in French, the final syllable ${ }^{1}$ was doubtless more forcibly enunciated in the former than in the latter language." -Marsh.

French accentuation even affected words of pure English origin, and we find in Robert of Gloucester wisliche (wisely) for wis'liche; begynnyng', endyng', \&c.; and Chaucer rhymes gladnes'se with distres'se, \&c.

Spenser's accentuation exhibits the influence of French accent. Thus he rhymes blowes with shallowes, things with tidings, \&c.

> "A straunger in thy home and ignoraunt', Of Phaedria', thine owne fellow' servaunt $"$ "
F. Q. ii. 6. 9.

[^23]"A work of rich entayle and curious mould, Woven with antickes and wild imagery', And in his lap a masse of coyne he told, And turned upsidowne, to feede his eye And covetous desire with his huge threasury'."
$$
F . Q . \text { ii. } 7.4
$$
"Hath now made thrall to your commandëment."
$$
F . Q . \text { ii. 10. } 59 .
$$

Shakespeare and Milton retain many words accented upon the final syllable which are now accented according to the Teutonic method, as aspéct, converrse, accéss, \&c.

As early as Chaucer's time an attempt was made to bring the words of French origin under the Teutonic accentuation, and in the "Canterbury Tales" we find mor'tal, tem'pest, sub'stance; and many words were pronounced according to the English or French accentuiation, as pris'on and prison', tem'pest and tempest'.

In the Elizabethan period we find a great tendency to throw the accent back to the earlier syllables of Romance words, though they retained a secondary accent at or near the end of the word, as $n a^{\prime \prime} t i^{\prime} o n$, sta" $t i^{\prime} o n$.

In many words a strong syllable has received the accent in preference to a weak one, as Fr. ac'ceptáble, Lat. ac'cepld'bzlis, has become not ac"cept'able but accept"able.
I. Many French words still keep their own accent, especially-
(I) Nouns, in -ade, -ier (eer), -é, -ee, or -oon, -ine (-in), as-
cascade', crusade', \&c.; cavalier', chandelier', \&c.; gazetteer', pioneer, \&c. (in conformity with these we say harpooneer, mounntaineer'); legated, payed, \&c. ; balloon', cartoon', \&c.; chagrin', violin', \&c. ; routine', mariné, \&c.

Also the following words--cadet', brunette', gasette', cravat', canal', control', gazelle', amateur', fatigue', antique', police', \&c.
(2) Adjectives (a) from Lat. adj. in us, as august', benirgn', robust', \&c. ; (b) in -ose, as morose', verbose', \&c. ; (c)-esque, as burlesque', grotesqué, \&c.
(3) Some verbs, as-baptize', cajole', caress', carouse', chastise', escape', esteem', \&c. \&c.
II. Many Latin and Greek words of comparatively recent introduction keep their original form and accent, as-aurd'ra, cord'na, colos'sus, idé a, hypoth'esis, \&c.
III. Some few Italian words keep their full form and original accent, as mulat to, sona'ta, tobad'co, volca'no.

Shortened forms lose their original accent, as ban'dit, mar'mot, \&c.
55. In many words mostly of Latin origin a change of accent makes up for the want of inflectional endings, and serves to distinguish (a) a noun from a verb, $(b)$ an adjective from a verb, $(c)$ an adjective from a noun-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (a) aug'ment to augment'. } \\
& \text { tor'ment to torment } \\
& \text { \&c. } \\
& \text { \&c. } \\
& \text { (b) ab'sent to absent'. } \\
& \text { fri'quent to frequent. } \\
& \text { (c) a com'pact to compact'. } \\
& \text { an expert to expert. } \\
& \text { \&c. } \\
& \text { \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It occurs in some few words of Teutonic origin, as overflow and to overflow', o'verthrow and to overthrow', \&c.
56. The accent distinguishes between the meanings of words, as-

> to con'jure and to conjurl. in'cense and to incense'. Au'gust and august'. min'ute su'pine mind minte. sud supine.

## 57. Influence of Accent.

Accent plays an important part in the changes that words undergo.

Unaccented syllables are much weaker than accented ones, and we find unaccented syllables dropping off-
(a) At the beginning of words (Apharesis).
(b) At the end of words (Apocope).
(c) The accent causes two syllables to blend into one (Syncope).

## EXAMPLES.

(a) bishop $=$ Lat. episcopus.
reeve $=$ O. ㅍ. ge-réfa.
squire $=$ O.Fr. escuicr (Lat. scutarius).

```
spy \(\quad=\) O. Fr. espier.
story \(=\) O.Fr. estoire (Lat. historia).
stranger \(=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}\). estranger (Lat. extraners).
ticket \(=\) O.Fr. eticquette.
dropsy \(=\) O.E. ydropesie (Gr. hydropsis).
```

A few double forms are sometimes found, as-squire and esquirc, strange and estrange, state and estate, spy and espy, spital and hospitals, sport and disport, sample and example, \&c.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (b) name }=\text { O.E. nama. } \\
& \text { riches }=\text { O.E. richesse. } \\
& \text { chapel }=\text { O. E. chapelle. } \\
& \text { \&c. \&c. } \\
& \text { (c) brain = O.E. bragen. } \\
& \text { church }=\text { O.E. cyrice. } \\
& \text { French }=\text { O.E. frencisc. } \\
& \text { hawk = O.E. hafoc. } \\
& \text { head = O.E. heafod. } \\
& \text { mint }=\text { O. E. mynet. } \\
& \text { crown }=\text { Lat. corona. } \\
& \text { comrade }=\text { Fr. camarade } . \\
& \text { palsy }=\text { Gr. paralysis. } \\
& \text { sexton }=\text { sacristan. } \\
& \text { proxy }=\text { procuracy. } \\
& \text { parrot }=\text { Fr. perroquet. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In compounds we find the same principle at work, and their origin is obscured :-

| daisy | = O.E. dages eage (day |
| :---: | :---: |
| elbow | = O.E. eln-boga (arm-bending). |
| gossip | $=$ O.E. god-sibb (God-related). |
| arbour | $=$ O. E. here-berga (herberwe), i.c. protection for an army. |
| labergeo | $)=$ O.E. heals-berga (protection for the neck). |
| Lammas | = O.E. hlaf-messe (loaf-mass). |
| eighbou | = O.E. ucalh-bar (near-dweller). |
| nostril | $=$ O.E. nose-thyrel (nose-hole). |
| rchard | $=$ O.E. ort-geard (herb-garden). |
| eriff | = O. E. scire-gerêfa (shire-reeve). |
| reshold | $=$ O.E. thresc-wold (thresh-wood, i.e. wood beaten or trodden by the foot = door-sill). |
| woman | $=$ O.E. wffnen ( $=$ wife-man). |

```
Ieman \(=\) O.E. leof-man (lief-man, dear-man, sweet-
    heart).
constable \(=\) Lat. comes stabuli.
curfew \(=\) O.Fr. cueore-fou.
kerchief \(=\) O.Fr. cuevre-chief.
```

In proper names we have numerous instances :-
(a) Names of places :-

Canterbury $=$ O.E. Cant-zuara-burh ( $=$ town of the men of Kent).
York $\quad=$ O.E. Eofor-wic (Everwich, Everwik).
Windsor = O.E. Windles-ofra (Wyndelsore).
Sunday = O.E. Sunnan-dag.
Thursday $=$ O.E. Thunres-dag.
(2) Names of persons:-

Bap $\quad=$ Baptist.
Ben $\quad=$ Benjamin.
Gib $\quad=$ Gilbert.
Hal $\quad=$ Harry.
Taff $\quad=$ Theophilus.
Wat $=$ Walter.
Bess, Bet = Elizabeth.
Meg, Madge $=$ Margaret.
Maude $=$ Magdalen.
Dol $\quad=$ Dorothy.
Cp. cab = cabriolet.
bus
consols
chum
rail
tramway $=$ Outram way.

## CHAPTER IX.

## ETYMOLOGY.

58. Etymology treats of the structure and history of words; its chief divisions are inflexion and derivation.

Words denote the attributes or relations of things, and are of two kinds : (I) those significant of quality ; (a) of material things, as sweet, bright, (b) of acts, as quick, slow, \&c. ; (2) those indicative of position (relating to time, space, \&c.), as here, there, then, $I$, he.

The first are called notional words, the second relational words.
A root or radical is that part of a word which cannot be reduced to a simpler or more original form. Roots are classified into-
(a) predicative, corresponding to notional words.
(b) demonstrative, corresponding to relational words.

Inflexions are shortened forms, for the most part, of demonstrative, sometimes of predicative roots. Hence all inflexions were once significant.
59. THE PARTS OF SPEECH, OR LANGUAGE, are-
I. Inflexional. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1. Noun (Substantive, Adjective). } \\ \text { 2. Verb. } \\ \text { 3. Pronoun. }\end{array}\right.$
II. Indeclinable $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 4. Adverb. } \\ \text { 5. Preposition. } \\ \text { words, or particles. } \\ \text { 6. Conjunction. } \\ \text { 7. }\end{array}\right.$ Interjection.
60. Nouns ${ }^{1}$ include-
(I) Abstract substantives, like virtue, which denote the qualities of things simply, significative only of mental conceptions.
(2) Concrete substantives, in which a single attribute stands synecdochically for many. ${ }^{2}$

[^24](3) Adjectives, i.e. attributes used as descriptive epithets; being sometimes simple, as black, white, \&c., sometimes compound words, as sorronoful, godlike, friendly.

In Greek and Latin all adjectives have distinctive terminations, which were originally separate words. Most of these terminations have a possessive signification; others denote similarity, \&c.., analogous to our -like, -ful, -less; and in all cases they do not so much belong to the attribute as to the subject. The termination puts the word in condition to be joined to some substantive.
61. The Verb was originally nothing more than a noun combined with the oblique case of a personal pronoun ; so that in am-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a=a s=\text { existence. } \\
& m=\text { of me, } \& \mathrm{c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

62. Pronouns are attributes of a peculiar kind, not permanently attached to certain objects or classes of objects; nor are they limited in their application. "Only one thing may be called the sun; only certain objects are white; but there is nothing which may not be $I$ and you and $i t$, alternately, as the point from which it is viewed.
"In this universality of their application as dependent upon relative situation merely, and in the consequent capacity of each of them to designate any object which has its own specific name besides, and so, in a manner, to stand for and represent that other name, lies the essential character of the Pronoun. The Hindutitle, sarvarníman, 'name for everything,' 'universal designation,' is therefore more directly and fundamentally characteristic than the one we give then, pronoun, 'standing for a name.'"-Whitney.
63. Adverbs are derivative forms of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns. Thus, our adverbial suffix $-l y$ was originally -lice $=$ the ablative or dative case of an adjective ending in -lic = like, the adverbial ending -ment of Romance words is the Latin ablative mente, "with mind" (Fr. bonnement $=$ kindly $=$ bond mente, " with kind intent").

Many relational adverhs are formed from demonstrative pronouns, as he-re, hi-ther, whe-n, \&c.
64. Prepositions were once adverbial prefixes to the verb, serving to point out more clearly the direction of the verbal action: by degrees they detached themselves from the verb and came to belong to the noun, furthering the disappearance of its casc-endings, and assuming their office. The oldest prepositions can be traced to pronominal roots; others are from verbal roots.-Whitney.

6j. Conjunctions are of comparatively late growth, and are either of pronominal original, or abbreviated forms of expression, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { else }=\mathrm{O} . \text { E. elles, a genitive of } e l=\text { alius. } \\
& \text { unless }=\text { on less. } \\
& \text { least }=\text { thy les }=\text { ed minus. } \\
& \text { but }=\text { be out }=\text { (O. E. bi-utan }) . \\
& \text { likewise }=\text { in like wise (manner). } \\
& \text { \&c. } \quad \text { \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CHAPTER X.

SUBSTANTIVES.

## I. GENDER.

66. Gender is a grammatical distinction, and applies to words only. Sex is a natural distinction, and applies to living objects. By personification we attribute sex to inanimate things, as "The Sun in his glory, the Moon in her wane."

The distinctions of gender are sometimes marked by different terminations, as genitor, genitrix; dominus, domina. This is called grammatical gender.
67. Loss of Grammatical Gender in English.-The oldest English, like Greek and Latin, and modern German, possessed grammatical gender.

| mag-a, a kinsman. | mag-e, | a kinswoman. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nefa, a nephew. | nef, | niece |
| widuwa, a widower. | widurue, a widow. |  |
| munec, a monk. | municen, a nun. |  |
| god, a god. | gyden, | a goddess. |
| webbere, a weaver. | webb-estre, a webster. |  |

So freo-dom (freedom) was masculine ; gretung (greeting), feminine ; and cycen, chicken, neuter.

Grammatical gender went gradually out of use after the Norman Conquest, owing to the following causes :-
(I) The confusion between masculine and feminine suffixes.
(2) Loss of suffixes marking gender.
(3) Loss of case inflections in the masculine and feminine forms of demonstratives.
68. Traces of grammatical gender were preserved much longer in some dialects than in others. The Northern dialects were the first
to discard the older distinctions, which, however, survived in the Southern dialect of Kent as Jate at least as 1340. ${ }^{1}$
69. The names of males belong to the masculine gender.

The names of females to the feminine gender.
The names of things of neither sex are neuter.
Words like child, parent, of which, without a qualifying term, the gender is either masculine or feminine, are said to be of the common gender.
70. There are three ways of distinguishing the masculine and feminine in English :-
(a) By employing a different word for the male and female.
(b) By the use of suffixes.
(c) By composition.

7r. Before the Conquest our language possessed many words answering to our " man."

The term "man" corresponded generally to the German mensch, person, and was not confined originally to the masculine gender; hence it occurs frequently in compounds with a qualifying term, as -wif-man, ${ }^{2}$ woman; leof-man, sweetheart; wapned-man, ${ }^{3}$ man, male.

Other common words for "man" were gzma, as in bryd-guma= bride-groom (Ger. bräutigam) $=$ the bride's man; ${ }^{4}$ gum-mann ; beorn ; carl, ${ }^{5}$ our churl; wer ${ }^{6}$ (man and husband).

## 72. I. Different words for the masculine and feminine.

| Father. | Mother. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Brother. | Sister. |

Father (O.E. feder) is cognate with Lat. pa-ter, Gr. $\pi a \tau \eta \rho=$ one who feeds or supports. Cp. pa-sco, fee-d, fa-t, \&c.

1

> "Therthe schok, the sonne dym becom In thare tyde."-SHOREHAM.

Here the inflection of the demonstrative shows that tyde is feminine.
"Be thise virtue the guode overcomth alle his vyendes thane dyevel, the wordle, and thet vless."-Ayenbite. Dyevel is masculine; wordle feminine; and zles neuter.
${ }^{2}$ Wif $=$ wife, is cognate with the Lat. $u x$-or, and originally signified 'one carried off.'
3 Wapned-man = a man armed with a weapon.
4 Spenser has herd-groom = herdsman. Guma is cognate with Lat. homo.
5 Spenser uses carl for an old man, a churl. In O.E. we have the cordpounds carlman and carmar = male, man. Cp. Scotch carlin, an old woman.

6 Wer cognate with Lat. vir.

Mo-ther (O.E. moder, moder), Lat ma-ter, contains a root ma, to produce, bring forth.

Brother (О.E. brotior), Lat. frater, originally signified 'one who bears or supports, from the verb bear, cognate with Latin fero.

Sis-ter (O.E. sweostar, suster) is cognate with Lat. soror (= sos-tor), and had perhaps originally the san.e signification as mo-ther.

The termination in all these words denotes the agent. In the primitive Aryan speech there was no distinct suffix used as a sign of gender.

> Papa. Mamma.

These words are of Latin origin. Papa $=$ father : cp. pope. Mamma $=$ mother : cp. mammal.

## Son. <br> Daughter.

Son (O.E. su-nut) $=$ one brought forth, born (cp. bairn), from the root $s u$, to bring forth; daugh-ter cognate with Gr. Ouyáтnp $=$ milker, milkmaid, from root $d u h(d u g h)$, to milk.

## Uncle. <br> Aunt.

Uncle is from O.Fr. uncle, oncle, from Lat avunculus.
Aunt from O. Fr. ante, Lat amita. The O.E. word for uncle was ( x ) eam (em), Ger. ohm (oheim), (2) fadera. Aunt in the oldest English was modrige.

## Boy.

## Girl.

Boy is not found in the oldest English; it is of frequent occurrence in O.E. writers of the fourteenth century, by whom it is applied to men occupying a low position, to menial servants: it is therefore often used as a term of contempt. The term is probably of Teutonic origin, and is cognate with O.Du. bocve, PlattDeutsch boww, Swed. bof, Ger. bube, O.H. Ger. puopo.
The O.E. word for boy was crapa (knave), Ger. knabe, whence knave-child, a boy.
Gir-l is a diminutive of a root gir, cognate with Platt-Deutsch gor, a little child.
In O.E. writers of the fourteenth century girl was of the common gender: thus Chaucer has 'yonge girles' = young persons ; and the O.E. expression knavegirle occurs in the sense of boy.

Wench is a shortened form of the O.E. weenchel, which in the "Ormulum" is applied to I saac, and was originally a word of the commen gender.
In a metrical version of the Old and Niew Testaments of the fourteenth century, in the Vernon MS., we find mayden and grom = boy and girl:-
"Ine reche whether hit beo mayden other grom."

## Báchelor. <br> Maid.

The derivation of backetor, which comes to us from the French, is uncertain ; it probably contains a Celtic root, as seen in Welsh bachgen, a boy (from buzch, little) ; whence O.Fr. bachelor, a servant, apprentice in arms, a knight-bachelor.
Maid $=$ O.E. mageth, mad; maiden (U.E. magd-en, of nenter gender) is a derivative. ${ }^{T}$
The literal meaning of maid is one grown up, an adult. It is often applied to males as well as females.

I We have the same root in Goth. mag-3s, a boy: mag-aths, a young girl ; O.E. mag a, a son (cp. Sc. mac), all connected with the Sansk. root mazh, tc become great, to grow.

## King.

## Queen.

King (O.E. cyning, cyug) originally siznified the father of a family, ' King of his own kin.' I Queen (O.E. crecn) at first meant wife, woman, mother. ${ }^{2}$

Earl. Countess.
Earl (O.E. corl) is probably a contraction of O.E. ealdor man = elder-man, a term applied to the heretogas or leaders of the old English chiefs who first settled in this country.

Countess ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. contesse, cuntesse) is the feminine of the word count.

## Monk. Nun.

Monk (O. E. matrec, monc) comes from the Greek through the Latin monachus Friar (O.E. frere, O. Fr. freire, Lat. frater) signifies a brother of a religiouts order.

Nun (O.E. nunne, nonne) from Latin ronna, a grandmother. The first nuts would naturally be older women. 3

The Old English feminine for monk was munecen $=$ minchen.

## Wizard. Witch.

Wizard from O.Fr. guisc-art, guisch-art, signifies a very wise man; the French word is of Teutonic origin, guisc = Icelandic visk-r, wise. The suffix -ard is of the same origin as that in drunk-ard.

The oldest English words for wizard were zuigelere, one who uses wiles, and kweolere.

Witch in old writers is a word of the common gender. The O.E. is wicce, to which there was probably a corresponding masculine, zvicc-a.4

## Sloven. <br> Slut.

Sloren seems to be connected with O.E. slavere, to slobber (cp. to slobler work $=$ to do work slovenly). Some etymologist connected it with slow (O.E. slazu).

Slut is perhaps connected with O.E. slotere, to defile; slottisch, dirty; slutty.
Slattern ( $=$ slatten) probably means tattered, from the verb slit (pret. slat) 5.
The following words, though apparently different, are etymologically connected :-

## Nephew.

Niece.
Nephew is from the Lat. nepos, a grandson, through the O.Fr. netod (nief, niez), Fr. нeveu. ${ }^{6}$
${ }^{1}$ Cp. Sc. janaka (= genitor), father, from jan, to beget.
${ }^{2}$ Cp. Gcth. qens, O.H. Ger. chena, a woman, wife; Eng. quean, used only in a bad sense.
${ }_{3} \mathrm{Cp} . \mathrm{Gr} . \pi a \pi \mathrm{a} \mathrm{c}$, a priest, from paßa, a father.
4 Cp. O.E. zvebb-a, a male weaver; zuebb-e, a female weaver.
5 Robert of Brunne has dowde, a feminine term equivalent to slattern, for which we now write dowd-y.
6 The Sansk. raptri shows that nepos (fem. neptis) contains the remnant of a suffix-ter, as in pa-ter. The Sansk. maptri $=u a+$ pitri, not a father, one who is not old enough to become a parent.

Niece is the Fr. nierce from the Lat. neptis, a grand-daughter.
The O.E. nef-a (nephew), nef-e (niece), are cognate with nepos and neptis, and with nephew and niece.

The O.E. forms could not, as some have suggested, given rise to nepherw or niece, but both would assume a common form, neve, which is found in O.E. writers after the Conquest.

## Lord. Lady.

Lord (O.E. hlaford $=$ hlaf-weard) is a compound containing the suffix-weard $(-$ ward $)=$ keeper, guardian, as in O.E. boatward, boat-keeper. It is generally explained as loaf (O.E. hlaf), -distributor.

Lady (O.E. hlafdige $=$ hlafweardige ${ }^{1}$ ) is a (contracted) feminine of Lord.
LAD. LASS.

In O.E. Ladde is generally used in the sense of a man of an inferior station, a menial servant. It is generally considered as being connected with O.E. lead, lede (cp. Goth. jugga-lauths, a young man, jugga $=$ young), from leodan, Goth. liudan, to grow up.

Lass does not occur in O.E. writers before the fourteenth century, and only in Northern writers. It is probably a contraction of laddess.

In the following pairs one is a compound :-
Man.
See remarks on Man, p. 83, §71.

## Bridegroom. <br> Bride.

See.remarks on Groom, p. 83, § 71.
Notice too that the masculine is formed from the feminine.
These terms are mostly applied to newly-married persons. "And is the bride and bridegroom coming home?"-Shakespeare

In O.E. (fourteenth century) bryd (brud), by metathesis, often becomes brud (bird), and is employed in the sense of maiden: hence bumes and burdes $=$ young men and maidens.

## - Husband. <br> Wife.

Husband is not the band, bond, or support of the house, as some have ingeniously tried to make out, but signified originally the master of the house, paterfamilias.
$H u s=$ house ; bond ${ }^{\circ}=$ O. E. bonda, a participial form of the verb bu-an, to inbabit, cultivate ; so that bonda ${ }^{2}=$ husbandman, the possessor as well as the cultivator of the soil attached to his house. Bond-men came to signify ( r peasants, (2) churls, slaves; hence the compounds bond-slave, bond-age, which have nothing to do with the verb bind, or the noun bond.

Wife was often used in older writers in the sense of woman; hence it occurs in some compounds with this meaning, as fish-rwife, house-wife, hzzzy = housewife ; goody $=$ good-wife.

[^25]
## Sire.

## Madam.

Sir is from O. Fr. sires, Fr. sire, Lat. senior. Madam $=$ Fr. madame $=$ my lady $=$ mea domina .
Spenser frequently uses dame in the sense of lady.
Sire and dam are still applied to the father and mother of animals.
Grandsire and beldam are sometimes found for grandfather and grandmother.

## Names of Animals.

## Boar. <br> Sow.

Boar (O.E. bar), originally only one of many names for the male swine. Eofor ( cp. Dan. ever-swin) and bearh died out very early; the latter still survives in larrow-pig.
The general term of this species was Swine (O.E. swin, cp. swinstede $=$ pigsty ; surer, sounder, a herd of swine).
Pig (O.Du. bigge, big) is not found in the oldest English ; in later writers it is mostly applied to young swine.

Gris (grise, grice), from O.N. gris, is used by our older writers for a young pig.
Farrow $=$ O.E. Jearh = a little pig.

## Bull. Cow.

Bull (O.E. bulle) is not found in the oldest English. It probably comes from the Icelandic boli.
Bullock (O.E. bulluca) is properly a little bull, a bull-calf.
Cow = O. E. cu. ${ }^{1}$
The Fr. bexuf also signifies bull. The general term of the species was $O \boldsymbol{x}$ (O.E. oxa): There were other special designations, as steer (O. E. steor, steorc, terms applied to the males of other species; cp. Ger. stier, a bull; O.H. Ger. stcro, ram. See note on Stag).

Heifer $=\mathrm{O}$. E. heahfore, heafre [hecforde], of which the first syllable signifies high, great. Cp. heah-deor $=$ roe-buck.

## Buck. Doe.

$b_{u c k}=$ O.E. $b u c c a ;$; $d o e=$ O.E. da, dama. In O.E. hafer signifies he-goat, cosnate with Lat. caper; rah, ra $=$ roe $=$ caprea.

Kid (cogthate with Lat. hadius) $=$ O.N. kid; an O.E. word for kid was ticcen, Ger. zich-lein.

## Hart. Roe.

Hart, O.E. heorut, heort $=$ horned ; cp. cervus. Hind $=$ cerva.
Deer (O.E. deor $=$ Gr. inf, Lat. $^{\text {Lera }}$ ) was once a general term for an animal (wild), hence Shakespeare talks of 'rats and mice, and such small deer.'

> Stag. Hind.

Stag $=$ Icel. steggr, which was applied to the males of many species. In the English provincial dialects stag or steg = a gander or a cock.

Bailey has stagg-ard, a hart in its fourth year.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Ram (O.E. ramm). } \\ \text { Wether (O.E. wather). }\end{array}\right\} \quad$ Ewe (O.E. cowu, eow).

## Hound. Bitch.

Hownd $=$ O.E. hund, cognate with Lat. canis.
Dog does not occur in the oldest English. It is found in the cognate dialects, O.D2n. dogge, Icel doggr. Tike occurs sometimes in O.E. for a dog.

Bitch $=$ O.E bicc-e.

## Stallion. Mare.

Stallion (O. Fr. estalon) has supplanted the O.E. hengest and steda (steed).
Horse (O. E. hors) was originally of the neuter gender.
Mare (O.E. merike), the feminine of an original masculine, mearh.

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { Colt. } \\
\text { Foal. }
\end{array}\right\} \quad \text { Filly. }
$$

Foal, O.E. fola, Ger. filllen, Lat. pullus.
Filly $=$ Scotch fillok, Welsh filog.
Cock. Hen.
Hen had a corresponding masculine, hana, in O.E. : cp. Ger. hahn and henne.
Gander.
Goose.
Gander (O.E. gan-d-ra) and Goose (O.E. gets = gons, gans) are related words.
The $d$ and $r$ in gander are merely euphonic ; $a$ is the masculine suffix and the root is gan = gans, a goose ; cp. Icel. gas, goose ; gasi, gander ; also Ger. gans, Gr. $x \eta=$ Latin anser ( $=$ hanser).

## Drake.

Duck.
Duck $=$ O.E. doke $=$ diver (connected with the verb to duck, O.Dan. diuiker, O.H.G. Eachar, to dive, plunge) has no etymological connection with Drake.

The word drake can only be explained by a reference to the cognate forms: O.Norse and-rik-a, O.H.Ger, ant-richo, ant-recho, which suggests an O. English end-rie-e (which, however, does not occur in O.E. literature).

In O.E. ened, end $=$ duck (cp. O.H.Ger. anut, Ger. ente, Lat. anas) ; rice $=$ king, cp. Lat. rex.

So that $d$-rake is a contraction of end-rake = duck-king, king of the ducks. ${ }^{7}$ :
Ruff. Reeve.
Reeve seems a true feminine of Ruff.
Mileter.
Spawner. Drone. Bee.

## 73. II. The Gender marked by difference of termination.

The feminine is usually formed from the masculine.
A. Obsolete modes of forming the feminine :-

[^26]
## (1) By the suffix -en.

In the oldest English een was a common feminine suffix, as-

| M. | F. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Cas-ere (emperor) | Caser-n (empress). |
| Fox | Fyx-en (vixen). |
| God, a god | Gyden (goddess). |
| Manna (man-servant) | Mennen (woman-servant). |
| Wulf (wolf) | Wylfen (she-wolf). |

In modern English we have only preserved one word with this suffix-vixen.

Vix-en is formed from vox, the Southern form of fox. The change of vowel is regular : compare god and gyden.

In Scotch, carl-in $=$ an old woman.
In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find a few more of these feminines, as-minchen, ${ }^{1}$ a nun; wolvene, a she-wolf; dovene, a she-dove; schalkene, a female servant, from schalk (O.E. scealc), a man-servant, which exists in marschal and seneschal.
(2) By the suffix -ster.

In the oldest English we have a numerous class of words ending in -ster (stre, stere), corresponding to masculine forms in eere.

| M. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| baec-ere | (baker) |
| fithel-ere | (fiddler) |
| hearp-ere | (barper) |
| sang-ere | (singer) |
| seam-ere | (sewer) |
| tapp-er | (bar-man) |
| webb-ere | (weaver) |

[^27]Up to the end of the thirteenth century -ster was a characteristic sign of the feminine gender, and by its meav.s new feminines could be always formed from the masculine.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find some curious forms, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { bellering-estre, a female bell-ringer. } \\
& \text { wic-thenestre, a weekly woman-servant. } \\
& \text { hordestre, a cellaress. } \\
& \text { zvasshestre, a washerwoman. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the fourteenth century we find the suffix-ster giving place to the Norman-French-ess, and there is consequently a want of uniformity in the employment of this termination. Thus Robert of Brunne uses sangster, songster, as a

[^28]masculine. In Purvey's Recension of Wickliffe's translation of the Scriptures we find songstere used for the masculine singer; and Wickliffe uses zuebbestere as a masculine.

Dawnstere (a female dancer), hotestre (hostess), tombestcre ( $=$ daumstere) are hybrid words and etymologically as bad as sleeresse, \&c.

In the "Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode" (beginning of fifteenth century), we have only one word in sier as the name of a female, viz. hangestre $=$ the feminine of hangman or hangere (p. 144).

The following feminines in eess occur in this work:-meyeresse, enquerouresse, bigilowresse, condyeresse, constablesse, jogelouresse, forgeresse, skorcheresse, enchantouresse, bacouresse, graveresse, gold-smithesse, disporteresse.

Still a good number of words with this suffix are to be found as feminines late in the fifteenth century, as-

| $\begin{aligned} \text { kempster } & =\text { pectrix. } \\ \text { webster } & =\text { textrix. } \\ \text { dryster } & =\text { siccatrix. } \\ \text { sewster } & =\text { sutfix. } \end{aligned}$ | baxter $=$ pistrix. <br> salster $=$ salinaria <br> brawdster = palmaria. <br> huxter $=$ auxiatrix. |
| :---: | :---: |

We have now only one feminine word with this suffix, viz. spinster: but huckster was used very late as a feminine. Hucksterer and man-hnckster are new masculines formed from the feminine.

When the suffix - ster was felt no longer to mark the gender, some new feminines were formed by the addition of the Romance French -ess to the English -ster, as songstr-ess and seamstr-ess, ${ }^{2}$ which hybrid forms are, etymologically speaking, double feminines.

The suffix -sternow often marks the agent with more or less a sense of contempt and depreciation, as punster, trickster, gamester.

In Elizabethan writers we find drugster, hackster (swordsman), teamster, secdster (sower), throwster, rhymester, whipster, \&-c.

## $B$. Romance suffixes.

To replace the obsolete English modes of forming the feminine, several suffixes are used to mark the gender.
(s) Lat. -or (m.), and -ix (f.).

| M. | F. |
| :---: | :---: |
| adjutor | adjutrix. |
| testator | testatrix. |
| \&c. | \&ic. |

[^29](2) Romance -ine.
M. hero landgrave margrave
(3) Romance -a.
M.
sultan
signor infant
F.
heroine.
landgravine. margravine.
F.
sultan-a.
signor-a.
infant-a.

In O.E. the Romance fem. suffix ere is used in chambrere, Fr. chamberiere $=$ chamberwoman ; lavendere $=$ laundress. " God hath maad me (Penitence) his chawmbrere and his lavendere."-Pilgrimage.
(4) The French -ess is, however, the ordinary feminine suffix, and the only living mode of forming fresh feminines; -ess is Med. Lat. issa, and occurs in the Old English abbud-isse = abbess.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find contesse $=$ countess; emperesse $=$ empress. In the fourteenth century eess began to take the place of the English -ster, and was no doubt at first added only to Romance words; after a time it was added to Teutonic as well as to borrowed words.

In the Elizabethan period we find that it was added more frequently to distinguish the feminine than at present.

Spenser has championess, vassaless, warriouress, \&c. Chapman uses heroess, butteress, wagroness, rectress, \&c. (See Trench's "English Past and Present," P. 156.)
(1) The suffix -ess is added to the simple masculine, as-

| M. <br> baron | F. <br> giant |
| :---: | :---: |
| \&c. | baron-ess. |
| giant-ess. |  |

(2) The masculine ending is dropped before the suffix, as-

| M. | F. |
| :---: | :---: |
| cater-er | cater-ess. |
| sorcer-er | sorcer-ess. |
| $\& c$. | $\& c$. |

(3) The masculine ending (-or, -er) is shortened before the addition of -ess :-

> M.
> actor conductor $\&$ \&.
F. actress. conductress. \&c.
(4) Duchess is from O.Fr. ducesse, duchesse; marchioness, from Med. Lat. marchio ; mistress, O.E. maisteresse, from mastcr, D.F. maister.
74. III. Gender is sometimes denoted by composition.

In the oldest English we find traces of a qualifying word compounded with a general term, as man-cild = man-child, boy; carl-catt, tom-cat; carl-fugel, a male bird; wif-man = woman ; cwen-fugol, a female bird. In later times we find cnave-child $=$ boy.
(1) By using the words male and female.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { M. } & \text { F. } \\
\text { male-servant } & \text { female-servant. }
\end{array}
$$

(2) By using man, woman, or maid.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { M. } & \text { P. } \\
\text { man-servant } & \text { maid-servant. } \\
\text { men-singers } & \text { women-singers. }
\end{array}
$$

Sometimes we find servant-man, servant-maid, zuasher-zuoman, milk-man mill-maid.
(3) By the use of he and she, mostly in the names of animals.

| M. | F. |
| :---: | :---: |
| he-goat |  |
| he-bear | she-goat. |
| she-bear. |  |

In Shakespeare's time he and she were used as nouns; and not only did people talk of he's and she's for males and females, but even of the fairest he and the fairest she; whence he and she are also compounded with substantives, especially to convey a contemptuous or ridiculous sense, as "Howl, you'he monks and you she monks."Drant's Sermons.

Cp. he-devil she-devil.
He and she were not thus used in the oldest English; it is an idiom "common to the Scandinavian and the English, which in awkwardness surpasses anything to be met with in any other-speech."-Marsh. We find this idiom as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century, the earliest expressions being he-beast and she-beast.
(4) Dog and bitch, as dog-fox, bitch-fox, \&c.
(5) Buck and doe, as buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit, \&c.
(6) Boar and sow, as boar-pig, sow-pig.
(7) Ewe in ewe-lamb (Gen. xxi. 18).
(8) Colt and filly, as coll-foal, filly-foal.

[^30](9) Cock and hen, as cock-starrow, hen-sparrow.
"Take hede of those egges that be blont on bothe endes, and thei shal be heane chekens, and those that be longe and sharpe on bothe endes shal be cocke chekens."-L. Andrewe, Babys Book, p. 222.

In names of animals the class-name is frequently treated as neuter, as "In its natural state the hedgehog is nocturnal."

So also names of children, as, child, boy, \&c.

## II. NUMBER.

75. Some languages, as Sanskrit, Greek, \&c., have three numbers, singular (marking one object), plural (more than one), dual (two).

The oldest English had the dual number only in the personal pronouns, which we no longer preserve.
76. In the oldest English there were several plural endings, -as, $-a n,-u,-a,-o$. After the Norman Conquest these were reduced (1) to $-e s,-e n,-e$; (2) to $-e s,-e n$; and finally the suffix -es or -s became the ordinary plural ending.

Thus -as was originally only the plural sign of one declension of masculine nouns, as, fisc, fish, pl. fiscos.

When -as became -es, it still remained for the most part a distinct syllable, as in the following passage in Chaucer :-

> "And with his stremes dryeth in the grevess The silver dropes hongyng on the leeves."

Spenser has several instances.
" In wine and oyle they wash his woundës wide." F. Q. i. 5. 17.
Hawes has many instances of the fuller form -es, as-
"The knightēs all unto their armès went."-Pastime of Pleasure, p. 13 .
77. Though we have only one plural ending, we make a very vigorous use of it. We have replaced foreign plurals by it, as insects, indexes, choruses, ethics, \&ic. We add it to adjectives used as substantives, as goods, evils, blacis, swects, vitals, commons, ${ }^{1}$ \&c.; to verbal nouns, as cutttings, scrapings, \&c. ; and to pronouns, as others, noughts.

[^31]78. The reduction of es to -s causes the suffix to come into direct contact with the last letter of the substantive to which it is added, and by which it is affected.
(a) If the substantive ends in a flat mute, a liquid, or a vowel, $s$ is pronounced flat, as tubs, lads, stags, hills, hens, feathers, trees, days, folios.
(b) If the substantive ends in a sharp mute, $s$ takes the sharp sound, as traps, pits, stacks.
(c) The fuller form -es is retained when the substantive ends in a sibilant or palatal sound, such as $s s, s h, x, c h$; as glasses, wishes, foxes, cluerches, ages, judges.
(d) Words of pure English origin ending in $-f$, $-f$ e, -lf, with a preceding long vowel (except 00) retain the older spelling, but only sound the $s$, as leaf, leaves; thief, thieves; wife, wives; shelf, shelves; woolf, wookes.

In roof, hoof, reef, fife, strife, the $f$ is retained and $s$ only added. We sometimes find elfs, shelfs, instead of elves, shelves.
(e) In Romance words $f$ remains unchanged, and the plural is formed by s, as briefs, chiefs, griefs.

Exceptions.-In O.E. we find prooves, kerchieves, becves.
$(f)$ Words ending in $-f f,-r f$, form the plural by the addition of $s$, and the $f$ is left unchanged, as cliff, cliff; dwarf, dwarfs.
We sometimes find slaves, wharves, dwaroes, scaroes, mastives, written for staffs, dway's, wharfs, scarfs, mastiff; and in old writers, cleeves, turves, for cliffs, turfs; also helves = handles. In Rastall's Chronicles, 1529, we find torves pl. of turf.
$(g)$ Words terminating in a single $y$ keep the old orthography, and $y$ is changed into $i$, as fly, fies; city, cities.
In Old English the singular ended in -ie, as fie, citie.
$Y$ remains unchanged if it is diphthongal or preceded by another vowel, and s only is added, as boy, boys; play, plays; valley, vallc;s.

## We sometimes find vallies, monies, monkies, pullies, \&c. ALaii has for its

 plural alkalies.(h) Words in -o (not those in -io), mostly of foreign origin, form the plural in es (sounded as $z$ ), as echoes, heroes, potatoes.

Words in -io add $s$, as folios, seraglios.
A few of later origin in $-\infty$ and $-\infty$ add $s$, as dominos, grottos, fyros, cuckoos, Hindoos.
(i) Particles used as substantives take -s or -es for their plural, as ups and downs; ayes and noes (or aye's and no's); the O's and Macs; pros and cons ; et-ceteras.
( $j$ ) In compounds the plural is formed by $s$, as blackbirds, paymasters.

When the adjective (after the French method) is the last part of the compound, the sign of the plural is added to the substantive, as uttorneys-general, courts-martial. So in prepositional compounds, as sons-in-law, fathers-in-law, lookers-on, men-of-war.
( $k$ ) When full is compounded with a noun, $s$ is added to the last element, as handfuls, cupfuls; but not if the terms are kept distinct, as "two handfuls of marbles;" " we have our hands full of work."

In Old English such forms as handful, shipful were mostly regarded as adjective compounds, and did not take the plural sign.
79. Plural formed by vowel-change-
foot, O.E. fot ; plural feet, O.E. fett. tooth, O.E. toth; plural teeth, O.E. teth. mouse, O.E. mius; plural mice, O.E. muls. louse, O.E. lits; plural lice, O.E. lŷs. goose, O.E. gôs; plural geese, O.E. gês. man, O.E. man; plural men, O.E. men.
All these words once had a plural ending. The vowel of the plural suffix, though lost, has left its influence in the change of the root-vowel, which, phinllogically speaking, is no inflection; cp. O.Sax. foti=feet, $b \delta c i=0 . \mathrm{E} . b e c=$ books.

See remarks on Vowel-change, p. 58, §47.

## 8o. Plurals in -en (O.E. -an).

(1) There were a larger number of these words in the oldest English which formed the plural in -an, only one is now in common use, oxen $=$ O.E. ox-an.

[^32](2) Some words that now form their plural in $n$ originally ended in a vowel, and have therefore conformed to plurals in $n$.

Kine.-The $e$ is no part of the plural, as we find in O.E. Ezn and ken. Cow originally made its plural by vowel-change, O.E. cu, a cow, plural cy. Cp. O.E. mus (mouse), mis (mice).

In O.E. we find $k y$, kye, kine, still preserved in the North of England.

Child-r-e-n.-In the oldest English child (cild) formed its plural by strengthening the base by means of the letter $r$, and adding $u$, as cild-r-ut.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find cild- $r-\mu$ converted into (1) child $-r-e$ and (2) child-r-c-n.
In the fourteenth century we find in the Northern dialects childer $=$ children, where the -re has become eer (c. O.E. alra $=(\mathrm{I}$ ) alre, (2) aller, (3) alder).

In O.E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find caluren, lambren, and eyren (eggs).
O.E. cealf (calf) had for its plural-(x) cealf-r-u; (2) cal-v-r-e; (3) calveren; (4) calves.
O.E. lamb, pl. ( x ) lamb-r-us; (2) lamb-re; (3) lambre-n ; (4) lambs.
O.E. ag (egg), pl. (1) ajs-r-u; (2)ey-re; ; (3) ey-r-e-n.

Brethren.-In the oldest English the plural of brother was brothru (brothra). In the thirteenth century this became (I) brothroe, (2) brothr-e-n (brotheren), (3) brethr-e, (4) brethr-e-n, (5) brotheres (brothers).

In the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century we find bretire becoming brether. ${ }^{\text {s }}$

The $c$ in brethren seems to have arisen from the dative singular (brether).
In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, we find that the oldest English dohtrut became dohtren, doughtren, dehtren, and de3ter.

Sister and mother once belonged to the same declension.
Treen $=$ O.E. treow-u is used by Sackville ("Induction")" :-
" The wrathfu! Winter, 'proaching on apace, With blustering blasts had all ybar'd the treen."
81. Some words, originally neuter and flexionless in the plural, have the same form for the singular and the plural.

1. Deer $=$ O.E. deor, pl. deor.
2. Sheep $=$ O.E. sceâp, pl. sceáp.
3. Swine $=$ O. E. swîn, pl. swîn.
4. Neat $=$ O.E. neat (used collectively to include sicer, - heifer, calf). ${ }^{3}$

This class once included the following words:-folk, year, yoke, head, score, pound, hair, horse, ${ }^{4}$ \&c.

1 "These be my mother, brether, and sisters."-Bp. Pilkington (died 1575).
${ }^{2}$ Sistren occurs in the "Fardell of Facion" (1555).
3 In O.E. goat is treated as a plural:-" Jabel departed the flokkis of scheep from the flokkis of goot."-CAPGRAVE, P. 8. Also worm:-"All kindes of beastes, fowle, and worme."-Fardell of Facion.
4 "Tame and well-ordered horse, but wild and unfortunate children." Ascham.
82. Many substantives are treated as plurals and take no plural sign, as-
(1) Words used in a collective sense: cavalry, infantry, harlotry, fish, fowl, cattle, poultry, fruit.

Capgrave uses gander as a plural. In the "Fardell of Facion" we read that "quail and mallard are not but for the richer sort."
(2) Names expressive of quantity, mass, weight, as : pair, brace, couple, dozen, score, gross, quire, ream, stone, tun, last, joot, fathom, mile, chaldron, bushel.

Also cannon, shot, shilling, mark; rod, and furlong (Fardell of Facion).
In the phrase horse and foot we have either a contraction of (a) horsemen and footmen, or of (b) men on horse (O.E. men an horse) and men on foot (O.E. men a foot).
83. Some substantives have a double plural form, with different meanings, as-

Brothers (by blood), trethren ${ }^{\text {B ( }}$ (of an order or community).
Cloths (sorts of cloth) ; clothes (garments, clothing).
Dies (a stamp for coining, \&c.) ; dice (for gaming).
Peas (the pl. of pea) ; pease (collective). Pea, O.E pisa, is derived from Lat. pistem. In O. E. we find pl. pesen (and peses). The s belongs to the root, and is no inflexion. When the old pl. ending was lost, fease was looked upon as a plural, and a new singular, pea, was coined. 2

Pernies (a number of separate coins) : pence (collective). Perny, O.E. penig, pi. peregas (penuyes, pans, pers), without any distinction of meaning. When perie is compounded with a numeral as the name of a separate conn, we can regard it as a singular, and make it take the plural inflexion, as two sixpences.
84. Foreign words usually take the English plural. Some few keep their original plural, as-

Latin (1)

Sing.
arcanum
addendum
datum
crratum
stratum
magus

Plural.
arcana.
addenda.
data. crrata. strata. magi.
${ }^{1}$ This distinction is, of course, comparatively recent.
${ }^{2}$ Spenser has-

## Surrey -

"Not worth a pese."
"a pese
Above a pearl in price."
"Not worth two peason" $=$ peasen.

| 98 | ENGLISII ACCIDENCE. |  | [CHAP. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. radius minutia species \&c. | Plural. radii. minutie. species. \&c. |  |
| Greek (2) | axis <br> basis <br> ellipsis <br> \&c. | axes. <br> bases. <br> ellipses. \&c. |  |
| Romance (3) | monsicur <br> bandit \&c. | messients. banditti. \&c. |  |
| Hebrew (4) | cherub seraph | cherubim. seraphim. |  |

Some of these have the English plural, as-appendixcs, calixes, vortexes, criterions, automatons, phenomenons, memorandums, spectrums, focuses, funguses, similes, beaus, seraphs, cherubs, as well as their original plurals, appendices, calices, vortices, criteria, automata, phenomena, memoranda, spectra, foci, fungi, similia, beaux, seraphim, cherubion (and seraphin, cherubin ${ }^{1}$ ).
85. Some have two plurals with different meanings, asindexes (of a book) indices (signs in algebra). geniuses (men of genius) genii (spirits, supernatural beings). parts (abilities) parts (divisions).
86. Many substantives are used only in the plural, as-
(1) Substantives denoting things that consist of more than one part, and consequently always express plurality, as-
(a) Parts of the body : lights, lungs, veins, kidneys, whiskers, chitlcrlings, intestines, bowels.
(b) Clothing : breeches, slops, trowsers, drawers, mittens, garters.
(c) Tools, instruments, implements, \&c ; shears, scissors, pliers, snuffers, tongs, seales, \&c. (Shak espeare uses ballance as a plural.) "A peyre of ballaunce."-Drant.
(2) Names of things considered in the mass or aggregate, asashes, embers, cinders, lees, molasses.
87. Many foreign words are used only in the plural, as aborigines, feces, literati, prolegomena, sc.

[^33]88. The English plural sign sometimes replaces the original plural, as nomads, plciads, hyads, rhinoceroses.

Of a similar kind are-

| abstergents $(=$ abstergentia $)$. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| analects | $(=$ analecta $)$. |
| arms | $(=$ arma $)$. |
| aunals | $(=$ annales $), \& c$. |

89. The plurals of some substantives differ in meaning from the singulars, as antic, antics; beef, beeves; chap, chaps; draught, draughts; checker, checkers; forfeit, forfeits; record, records; scale, scales; spectacle, spectacles; grain, grains; ground, grounds; water; waters; copper, coppers; iron, irons; compass, compasses; return, returns; dic. \&c.

So too verbal substantives, as cutting and cuttings; sweeping and swcepings, \&c.
90. Many adjectives used as substantives form their plural regularly, as good, goods; captive, captives; lunatic, lunatics; cp. commons, caiables, betters, superiors, odds, extras.

To this class, with English plural substituted for foreign adjective plural, belong acoustics, analytics, ethics, optics, politics.
91. Some plural forms are sometimes treated as singulars, as amends, ${ }^{1}$ bellows, ${ }^{2}$ gallows, ${ }^{3}$ means, ${ }^{4}$ news, ${ }^{5}$ odds, ${ }^{6}$ pains, ${ }^{7}$ sessions, shambles, small-pox, ${ }^{8}$ tidings, ${ }^{9}$ wages.

Most of these are comparatively late plurals, and the singular was once used where we employ the plural.
92. Alms, eaves, riches, though treated as plurals, are singular in form.
 we find pl. elmessen, almesses. ${ }^{10}$

I Amends from Fr. amende. Robert of Brunne has "the amends zuas."
2 O.E. "a gret belygh;" "a peyre belyes."-Pilgrimage, pp. 11x, ix6.
3 O.E. pl. = galgan.
4 Means (Fr. moyen, Lat. Medium).
5 Nerus (Fr. nouvelles, Lat. nova).
6 Odds in it is odds $=$ it is most probable.
1 Pain. There is some confusion with the double origin of the word-( $x$ ) from O. E. pint, pain, torment ; (z) from Lat. para.
ln the singular pain $=$ suffering ; in the plural $=$ sufferings, trouble.
8-Pox =-poc-s; as in chicken-pock, pock-mark.
9 Tidings. O.E. tidende. The plural is rare in O.E.
to Cp. "he asked an alms." (Acts iii. 3.) "All a common riches."-Јонм Flevcher, Wit without Money.

Riches $=$ O.Fr. richesce; O.E. richeise, richesse. In O.E. we find pl. richesses. Alms and riches are etymologically no more plurals than are largess and noblesse.

Eaves $=0 . E$. jfes, efese = margin, edge.
We sometimes find eser-droppers = eaves-droppers; esen $=$ O.E. efisen, eaves.
93. Summons is a singular form ( $=\mathrm{O}$. Fr. semonse ; O. E. somons), and is usually treated as such, making the pl. summonses.

9+. Proper names form the plural regularly.
(a) A few originally adjectives take no plural sign, as Dutch, Engrish, Scotch.
(b) Many gengraphical names are frequently plural in form, as Athens, Thebes, the Netherlands, Indies, Azores, Alps.
(c) In names of persons, when a descriptive term is added, only the last adds $s$ for the plural, as master bakers, brother squires, the two doctor Folins.

We, however, may say the Miss Browns or the Misses Brown.
Where two titles are united the last now usually takes the plural, as major-gencrals : a few old expressions sometimes occur in which both words, following the French idiom, take the plural, as knightstemplars, lords-lieutenants, lords-justice's.

## III. CASE.

95. In some languages nouns (substantives and adjectives) take different forms (cases) in different relations in a sentence.

The movealde or variable terminations of a noun are called its case-endings.

[^34]The nominative ending $s$ (as in rex $=r e g-s$ ) is connected with the demonstrative pronouns, O.E. se, seo, that ; Gr. $\dot{o}$, $\dot{n}$, to ; Sansk. sa, sa, tat; Eng. the.
The dative suffix was originally a preposition, signifying to or for: cp. the pronouns-Lat. tibi with Sansk, tu-bhyam; Sansk. abbhi, Gr, à $\mu \phi i$, O.E. umbe and be, which we see again in the plural of Latin nouns of the third, fourth, and rifth declensions. In Sansk. this abhi was shortened to ai(e), and is still more discuised in Latin and Greek.
The ablative termination was $t$ or $d$, as Sansk. acvât $=0$. Lat. equod, from a horse ; this $t$ or $d$ is probably connected with the demonstrative ta:cp. Lat. in-de, urde.
The locative had the ending $i$, denoting the relation expressed by our preposition in, to which it is related.
The instrumental, expressing the relation by or with, ended in $a$.
The accusative had the letter $m$ for its suffix.
The genitive ended ins or sya, which is supposed to be a demonstrative pronown (cp. Sansk. syas, syá, tyat, this, that). In the possessive pronouns, Sansk. we find $t y a s, ~ t y a ̂, ~ t y a m$, as madiyas, madiya, madiyam $=$ meus, mea, meum. It is therefore probable that the genitive ending was nothing more than an adjective termination.

In Sansk. adjectives are formed by the suffix -tya ( $=$ sya).
 the adjective dnuógios (belonging to the penple). In Greek, an $\sigma$ between two vowels of grammatical terminations is elided: thus the genitive of ferve is not réveaos, but yéveoṣ or révovs; bence $\delta \epsilon \mu \dot{\sigma} \sigma t$ would become dє $\mu$ oio, the Homeric genitive of $\dot{\eta} \mu \mathrm{og}$. in later Greek replaced by dŕmov.-Max Mtiller.
We have something like it in English. Compare the force of the suffix $n$ in rooden with that of $n$ in mine, thine.
"The Latin genitivus (genitive) is a mere blunder, for the Greek word genikt could never mean genitivus. Genitivus, if it is meant to express the case of origin or birth, would in Greek have been called gennētikẽ, not genikè. Nor doe the genitive express the relation of son to father. For though we may say 'the son of the father,' we may likewise say, 'the father of the son.' Genike, in Greek, had a much wider, a much more philosophical meaning. It meant casus generalis, the general case, or rather the case which expresses the genus or kind. This is the real power of the genitive. . . . The termination of the genitive is, in most cases, identical with those derivative suffixes by which substantives are changed into adjectives."-Max MUler.

## Possessive Case.

97. In modern English we have no case-endings of substantives except one, the possessive, the representative of the older genitive.

The nominative and accusative have no formative parlicles to distinguish them, and their position in a sentence, or the sense, is the only means we have of distinguishing them from one another.
99. In the oldest English there were various declensions, as in Latin and Greek: so there were different genitive suffixes $(a)$ for the singular, (b) for the plural.

The suffix -ezs originally belonged to the genítive sing. of some masculine and neuter substantives; it was not the genitive sign of
the feminine until the thirteenth century, and then for the most part only in the Northern dialect (cp. Lady-day with Lord's day).

Late in the fourteenth century we find traces of the old plural ending -ene, en (-ena), as kingenten = of kings. (Piers Plowman.)
Probably before the thirteenth century es began to take its place:-"Alre lowerdes louerd, and alre kingene king."-O.E. Hom., Second Series.
99. The suffix -es was a distinct syllable in Old English, as-
"Ful worthy was he in his lordés werre."-Cbaucer.
Traces of this form we have in Elizabethan writers :-
> "Then looking upward to the heaven's beams, With nightès stars thick powder'd everywhere."

> Sackville's Induction.
> "Of aspés stiog herself did stoutly kill."-Spenser, F. Q. i. 5, 50.
> "To show his teeth as white as whales bone."
> Shakespeare's Love's Labour's Lost, v. 2.
100. The sign of the possessive is now -s for both numbers; and it is subject to the same enphonic modifications as the sign of the plural (see § 78).

The loss of the final vowel is indicated by the apostrophe ('), as boy's, \&c. ${ }^{1}$

When a word in the singular of more than two syllables ends in $s, x, g e, s$ is omitted but (') retained, as-Lycurgus' sons, Socrales' wife.

In poetry this frequently happens with respect to words of more than one syllable, especially if the following word begins with a sibilant, as-

The Cyclops' hammer ; young Parts' face ; your highness' love; for justice sake; for praise sake; the Phanix. throne ; a partridye' win:s (Shakespeare); princess' favourite (Congreve); the Prior of forvaulx question (W. Scott):
In O.E., fifieenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant or was followed by a word beginning with a sibilant, the possessive sign was dropt, as a goose egg, the river side.
101. In compounds the suffix is attached to the last element, as -the son-in-law's house; the heir-at-law's will; the Quecn of England's reign ; Henry the First's reign.

[^35]Sometimes we find $s$ added to the principal substantive instead of to the attributive or apwositional word, "s "It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant geueral."-Shaks. "For the Quees's sake, his sister."-Byron. In O.E. this was the ordinary construction, as late as the sixteenth century. "Stephen concluded a marriage atw een Eustace his sone and Constaunce the kynges sister of Fraunce" [ $=$ the king of France"s sister]. -Fabyan.

## The Case Absolute.

102. In the oldest English the dative was the absolute case, just as the ablative is in Latin. About the middle of the fourteenth century the nominative began to replace it. Milton has a few instances of this construction (in imitation of the Latin idiom), as " mec overthrown," "us dispossessed," " him destroyed."
"Schal no flesch upon folde by fonden onlyue, Out-taken yuzu ast (eight)."-Allit. Poemrs, p. 47, 1. 357.
"Thei han stolen him ws slepinge."一Wickliffe, Matt, xxviii. 21.
"Hymz thâ gyt sprecendum, hig cûmon fram tham hech-gesamnungum." Mark s.
"Thinre dura belocen'e, dide thine freder."一M.ast. iv. 13.

## CHAPTER XI.

## ADJECTIVES.

103. In modern English the adjective has lost the inflexions of number, gender, or case belonging to the older stages of the language.
104. In Chaucer's time, and even later, we find ( $a$ ) an inflexional $e$ to mark the plural number; (b) an inflexional e for the definite adjective-that is, when preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or a possessive pronoun, as-
" Whan Zephirus eek with his sweetë breethe Enspired hath in every holte and heethe The tendrê cruppes, and the youge sonne Hath in the Ram his halfé cours ironne, And smale fowles maken melodie."

Chaucer's Prol. to C. Tales.
This $e$ in the oblique cases of the definite form, in the oldest English, became an, of which, perhaps, we have a trace in the phrase " in the olden time."
We often replace an inflexional $e$ or $n$ by the word one. Cp.
"And the children ham lovie togidere and bevly the velajrede of the greaten." -A3enbite, p. 739.
"The vissere hath more blisse vor to nime ane gratne visse thane ane littlene." -18. p. $23^{8}$.
"These tweyne olde" ( $=$ these two old ones).-Pilgrimage, p. inx.
"I sigh toward the tour an old oon I that come and neihede me."-Ib. p. 23.
" I sigh an old oon that was clumben anhy up on thy bed."-1b. 205.
105. Chaucer has instances of the Norman-French plural $s$ in such phrases as cosins germains, in other places delitables.

> In C E the adjective of Romance origin frequently took a plural termination (-es, -s) when placed after its substantive," as-
> "Wateres principales."-Early Eng. Poens, p. 43.
> "Veritues cardinals."-Castele of Love, p. 37.
> "Chanonns reguleres," "causes resonables," "parties meridionales." MiAundevilue.

[^36]106. It is also found without a following substantive, as-

> "Of romances that been reales
> Of popes and cardinales."-Chaucer's Sir Thopas.
"He ous tekth to knawe the greate things vram the litile, the preciouses vram the viles, the zuete vram the zoure."-A3enbite, p. 76 .

In this last example the unborrowed adjectives greate, little, \&c., express the plural by the final $e$.

Sometimes the plural s replaces the final $e$ when the adjective is used substantively, as-

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"They love their yonges very well."-Lawrence Andrewe.
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Ones sometimes replaces the plural sign, as "If it fortuned one of the yonges to dye than these olde ones wyll burye them."-1b.
C. wantons, empties, calms, shallows, worthies, orderlies, godlies.
107. Shakespeare has preserved one remnant of the older case-endings of the plural adjective in the compound alderliefest $=$ the dearest of all, the most precious of all. ( 2 K. Hen. VI. i. 1.)
Alder (sometimes written alther) is another form of aller $=$ al-re $=$ al-ra $(=$ omnium), the genitive plural of all.
In Old English writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, we find bath-er, of both, for which we sometimes find bothes, as "your bothes paynes."-Pil grimage, p. 167.

## I. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

108. Comparison is a variation or change of form to denote degrees of quantity or quality. It belongs to adverbs as well as adjectives.
"The suffixes of comparison were once less definite in meaning than at present, and were used to form many numerals, pronouns, adverbs, prepositions, in which compared correlative terms are implied. ${ }^{3}$-March.
109. There are three degrees of comparison : the positive, high; the comparative, higher; the superlative, highest.

The comparative is formed by adding -er to the positive; the superlative by adding -est to the positive.

This rule applies to (1) all monosyllabic adjectives ; (2) all dissyllabic adjectives with the accent upon the last syllable, as-genteel', genteeler, genteelest; (3) adjectives of two syllables, in which the last syllable is elided before the comparative, as-able, abler, ablest; (4) adjectives of two syllables ending in $y$, which is clanged to $i$ before the suffixes of comparison, as-happy, happier, happicst.

## Orthographical changes:-

(1) A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled, as wet, wetter, wettest; red, redder, reddest; cruel, crueller, cruellest.
(2) A single final $y$ is changed to $i$, as hatpy, happier, heppiest; but $y$ with a preceding vowel remains unchanged, as gay, gayer, gayest.
(3) Adjectives ending in a silent or unaccented e add -r and -st, instead of -er and rest, to the positive, as polite, poititer, politest: moble, nobler, noblest.
110. When the adjective lias more than two syllables, the comparisun is expressed by more and most, as-eloquent, more eioqucnt, most eloguent.

This mode of comparison is probably due to Norman-French influeace, and it makes its appearance at the end of the thirteenth century, as "mest gentyl" (Robert of Gluucsster), and beromes of frequent occurrence in Chaucer and Wickliffe, as most mighty, most clear.

In poetry we find even monosyliabic adjectives compared (for the sake of euphoay) by more and most, as " Ingratitude more strong than traitors' arms" (bhakesfrake). "Upon a lowly asse more suhite than snow" (Spenser).

Older writers on gramniar make the mode of comparison depend on the ending, not the length of the adjective ; if the adjectival ending is -ing. -ist, -eat, ens, -ain, al, ent, -ive, ous, the comparison is made by more and most. The best writers, however, are not guided by this rule.
"Ascham writes inventivest"; Bacon, honourablest, and ancienter; Fuller, eminentest, eloquenter, learnedst, solemnest, famousest, virtuousest, with the comparative and superlative adverbs, iviselier, casilier, hardliest; Sidney even uses resiningest; Coleridge, safeliest." Marsh.
111. Double Comparisons are not uncommon both in old and modern English, as more hottere, most fairest (Manndeville); moost clennest (Piers Plowman); more Kinder, more corrupter (Shakespeare); most straitest (Acts of Apostles, xxvi. 5).
The comparison is sometimes strengthened by adverbs, as still busier, far wiser, the lowest of the low. So Chaucer has fairest of faire (Knightes Tale).
Adjectives with a superlative sense are not usually compared. In poetry, we find, however, perfectest, chiefest (Shakespeare), extremest (Milton), more perfect (Eng. Bible), lonelier (Longfellow).
112. The $r$ of the comparative stands for a more original $s$, as seen in the allied languages of the Aryan spcech.

Sanskrit. Greek. Latin. Gothic. O.E. Eng. Comparative-máh-í-yas. $\mu \in \hat{i}-ई o v .\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { major. } \\ \text { majus. }\end{array}\right\}$ ma-iz-a. mara. more. Superlative- máh-ish-tha. $\mu$ é $\gamma$-ıттov. - ma-ist-s. muest. most.

The superlative was originally formed from the comparative by means of the suffix -t.
113. In numerals and pronominal words, \&ic. we find a relic of an old comparative, as in other, Lat. al-teru-s; Gr. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}-\tau \in p o-s$; Sansk. ain-tır-á; whether, Lat. u-teru-s; Gr. кó-тєpo-s; Sansk. ka-fará. By Sanskrit grammarians the origin of ther, tert, -tero, tara is said to be found in the Sanskrit root tar (cp. Lat. trans, Eng. through), to cross over, go beyond.

II4. An old superlative ending common to many of the Aryan languages is -ma, as-Eng. for-ma, fru-ma; Lat. pri-mu-s; Gr. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \omega$ $\tau 0(s)$; Sansk. pra-tha-mad.
$M a$ is found in composition with $t a$, as in the numerals-Lat. septimus; Gr .


In Latin,-ti-mu-s (as in septimus) is added to the old comp. is, whence-istimu-s, and -issimus (by assimilation).

## II. IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

115. Old, Elder, Eldest (O.E. eald, ald ; yldra, eldra; yldest, eldest).
Elder and eldest are archaic, and can only be used with reference to living things. ${ }^{1}$ As than cannot be used after elder, it is evident that its full comparative force is lost.

Older and oldest are the ordinary comparatives now in use.
The vowel change in elder, \&c. is explained by the fact that there was originally an $i$ before $r$ and $s t$, which affected the preceding $a$ or ea, hence O.E.eald and eldra, strarg and strengra, \&c.
116. Good, better, best (O.E. god ; betera, betra; betest, betst).

The comparative and superlative are from a root bet (or bat), good, found in O.E. bet-lic, goodly, excellent ; bet-an, to make good, amend.

Best $=$ bet-st, illustrates the law that a dental is assimilated to a following sibilant.

In O.E. we find a comparative adverb, bet (the sign of inflexion being lost).
117. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Bad } \\ \text { Evil } \\ \text { Ill }\end{array}\right\}$ worse, worst $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { O.E. yfel; wyrsa, wyyrs; wyrrest, } \\ \text { wiyrst. }\end{array}\right.$

Wor-se, wor-st, are formed from a root, weor, which is cognate with Latin vir-us.
The -se is an older form of -re (er).
The Dan. varre (O.N. verri) found its way into English writers of the North of England. Gower uses it in the following lines :-
" Of thilke werre (war) In whiche-none wot who hath the werre (worse)."
Spenser uses it with reference to the etymology of the word world:
"The world is much war than it was woont."
Chaucer sometimes uses badder for worse.
I This distinction is recent : cp. the following from Earle's Micro-cosmographio (1628): "His very atyre is that which is the eldest out of faslion." (Ed. Arber, p. 29.)
118. MUCH, MORE, MOST (O. E. micel, mâra, muest).

Much is from O.E. nicel, through the forms michel, muchel.
More is formed from the root mag (or mah ${ }^{1}$ ), so that more $=$ mahre and most $=$ mah-st.

In O.E. micel $=$ great $;$ mare, more $=$ greater ; mast, mest, most $=$ greatest.
A contracted form of mare (properly adverbial), ma, mo, is used by O. E. writers.
It is found also in Shakespeare under the form moe
Alexander Gill makes mo the comparative of many; more the comparative of much.

Many $=$ O.E. maneg, Goth. manegs, contains the root mang, a nasalized form of mag (mah).
119. Little, less, least (O.E. lytel; lassa (las) ; lasest, last).
les-s $=$ O.E. las-se, les-se $=$ las-sa $=$ las-ra.
least $=$ les-st $=$ Les-est.
Lesser is a double comparative, as "the lesser light." (Eng. Bible). Shakespeare has littlest (Hamlet, iii. 2).

In O.E. we find $l y t=$ little, which has nothing to do with the root of less, which is cognate with Goth. lasivoza (infirmior), the comp. of lasio-s (infirmus); cp. lazy.

We also find in O.E. min and mis $=0 . \mathrm{N}$. minni, Goth. minniza $=$ less, Lat. min-or; Goth. mins = Lat. minus.
120. NEAR, NEARER, NEAREST (O.E. neâh, nêh ; nŷra, neâr, nearra; neáhst, nêhst. Later forms of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were-negh; nerre (ner); next (neghest).

- Hy the Old English forms we see that nigh, near, next, are their proper repre sentatives. Shakespeare uses near2 as a comparative adverb.

Neta-r =neah-r; next =negh-st or neah-st. (The guttural of course was ence pronounced.)

High was once similarly compared-heah (heh, hegh) ; hehra, herra (herre): hedhst, hehst (heghest, hext) 3
121. Near, for negh or nigh, first came into use in the phrase 'far and near,' in which near is an adverb, and represents the oldest English neorran $=$ near (adv.), analogous to feorran $=a f a r$.

[^37]In this we see the positive is replaced by an adverb, ${ }^{1}$ and not by the comparative adjective, as is usually supposed.

Nearer, nearest, are formed regularly from near.
122. Far, farther, farthest (O. E. feor, fyrra, fyrrest. Later forms, fer, ferre (ferrer), ferrest).
Farther is for far-er; ${ }^{2}$ the th seems to have crept in from false analogy with further. Farthest $=$ far-est. Further $=$ O.E. furthor $=$ ulterius, the comparative of furth $=$ forth. The superlative in O.E. was forth-m-est.

Late: later, latest (O.E. late, lator, latost); late, latter, last (O. E. late-mest $=$ last).

Last $=$ O. E. latst: cp. best $=$ betst. ${ }^{3}$
Latter and last refer to order, as "The latter alternative ;" "The last of the Romans."
Later and Latest refer to time. This distinction is not always strictly observed by our poetical writers.

Rather. The positive and superlative are obsolete.
Rathe was the positive, as "the rathe primrose" (Milton) : here rathe means early.

Rather means sooner, and is now used where liefor was once employed.
The O.E. forms were hred (ready), hrathra, hrathost.

## 123. Adjectives containıng the superlative $m$.

The Old English for-m-a signifies first, the superlative of a root fore. Fyrm-est $=$ for-m-ost also had the same meaning, but is 2 double superlative.

First (O.E. fyrrest, fyrst) is the regular superlative of fore.
Former is a comparative formed from the old superlative.
In O.E. we have forme and foremeste for first.

> "Adam our forme fader,"-CHAUCER.
> "Adam oure foremeste fader." - MAUNDEVILLE.

Forme fader was afterwards changed to-(1) forme fader; (2) formerfather.

[^38]124. The suffix-most (O.E. mest), then, in such words as utmost is a double superlative ending. and not the word most. The analogies of the language clearly show that most was never suffixed to express the superlative.
after-m-ost $\quad=0$ E. afte-m-est, efter-mest.
further-m-ost $=$ furthest
$=\mathrm{O}$. E. forth $-m$-est.
In O.E. we find forther-m-ore and backer-m-ore.
hindmost, hindermost $\quad=$ O.E. hindu-ma, hinde-ma.
Chaucer uses hinderest: cp. O.E. innerest, overest, upperest, utterest.
hither-m-ost is not found in the oldest English.
in-m-ost, inner-m-ost $\quad=$ O. E. inne-m-est, inne-ma.
lower-m-ost, (nether-m-ost $\quad=$ O. E. nithe-m-a, nithe-m-cst).
mid-m-ost

up-m.ost, upper-m-ost, over-m-ost $=$ O.E. y.fe-mest, ufe-meste.
125. Over $=$ upper (cp. a-b-ove) in O.E. writers :

> " Pare thy brede and kerve in two,
> The over crust tho nether fro."

Boke of Curtasye, p. 300.
"With tho ove-m-ast [uppermost] lofe hit [the saltcellar] shalle be set." 18. p. 322
126. In O.E. we find superlatives of south, east, west, assuthemest, eastemest, and westemest.
Comp. endmost (O.E. endemest), topmost, headmost.

## - III. NUMERALS. ${ }^{1}$

127. Numbers may be considered under their divisions-Cardinal, Ordinal, and Indefinito Numerals.
[^39]
## I. Cardinal.

128. One. O.E. an ; Goth. ains; Gr. eis ; Lat. unnus; Sansk. i-k $k$.

Out of the O.E. form $a n=$ one was developed the so-called indefinite article an and (by loss of $n$ ) a.

In O.E. we find $o n e=a n a=$ alone.
Two. O.E. twa; Goth. tvai; Gr. סvóo Lat. dsuo; Sansk. dva; O.Sax. tuê.

Twain = two, O.E. twegen.
We had another word for two in the Northern dialects, of Scandinavian origin, viz. twin, originally a distributive : cp. Gotb. tweinnai, O.N. tvennr.

Thrint for three also occurs in O.E. Northern writers, O. N. threntr.
Three. O.E. thri, threo; Goth. threis; Gr. tpeis; Lat. tres; Sansk. tri.

Four. O.E. foover ; Goth. fidvor; Gr. тé $\tau \tau \alpha \rho \epsilon s, \tau \epsilon ́ \sigma \sigma \alpha \rho \epsilon s ;$ Lat. quatuor; Sansk. katciar.
This numeral has lost a letter, th, and there is an O.E. compound -fether-foted, fither-foted = quadruped-which fether is, of course, more original than four.

Five. O.E. fif; (Goth. fimf; Gr. $\pi \epsilon \in \nu \tau \epsilon$; Lat. quinque; Sansk. panchan.

In five we see that a nasal has disappeared.
Six. O. E. six ; Goth. saihs; Gr. é ; Lat. sex; Sansk. shash.
Seven. O.E. seofon; Goth. sibun; Gr. é $\pi$ rd́; Lat. septem; Sansk. saptan.

Eight. O.E. cahta; Goth. ahtan; Gr. ठ́ктш́; Lat.octo; Sansk. ashtan.

Nine. O.E. nigon ; Goth. niun; O.Sax. nigun; Gr. èvעéa; Lat. novem; Sansk. navan.
In the fourteenth century we find neghen for nine. The $g$ h or $g$ represents an original $v$.
Five $=$ that which comes after [four].
The Sansk. panchan is connected with pashcha = coming after, as in pashchat, behind, after.
Six. Sansk. shash $=$ Zend. kshivas, which is probably a compound of two and four.
Seven is connected with a mot sap, to follow = that which follows [six].
Eight is originally a dual form. Sansk. ashtion $=a+\operatorname{ch} a+\tan =1+$ and +3 .
Nize $=$ nezv $=$ that which comes after eight and is the beginning of a new quatemion.
$T_{c u}=$ two and eight.

Ten. O.E. tŷn, ten; Goth. taihun; Gr. סéкa; Lat. decem; Sansk. dashan.

The Gothic shows that $t y n$ or $t e n=t$ egen or tygen.
Eleven. O.E. end-lif (endleof); Goth. ain-lif; Gr. év-סeka; Lat. undocim; Sansk. éka-desha.

Eleven $=$ end $=e n=$ one + lev-en $=$ lif $=$ ten.
Twelve. O.E. twelf; Goth. twa-lif; is a compound of twa $=$ two + lif $=$ ten.

The suffix -lif is another form of tig $=$ ten, which we find in O.E. twer-tig, Goth. toai-tig-jits $=2 \times 10 \neq$ twenty. So that -lif corresponds to Gr. - $\delta$ eka: Lat. -decim. (In Lat. $l$ and $d$ are sometimes interchangeable, as lacryma and dacryma.) In such words as laugh, enongh, gh, originally a guttural, has become $f$.

In Lithuanian we find zeieno-lika $=\mathrm{rr}$; dzuy-lika $=\mathrm{x} \Omega$
In the Fr. onse, douze; the Lat. decim has undergone a greater change than -tig into -lif.

The Sansk. dva-dasha $=12$ is represented in Hindûstâni by ba-rah; and sho dasha $=16$, by so-tah.
129. The numbers from thirteen to nineteen are formed by adding -teen (O.E. -tyne) $=$ ten, to the first nine numerals.
130. The numerals from twenty to ninety are formed by suffixing $\cdot t y($ O.E. $t i g)=$ ten, to the first nine numerals.
131. Hundred. In the oldest English we find hund $=$ hundred. In the Northumbrian dialect hundrad, hundrath occurs. Hund originally signified ten (cp. Lat. centum, Gr. e-катоу, Sansk. shata); it is nothing else but a shortened form of tegent, -tegen-d, Goth. taihun, taihun-d, ten. The syllable $\cdot$ red $=-r a t h r$ is also a suffix used in Icelandic, with the same force as -tig. 1
In the oldest English hund was added to the numerals from 70 to 100 , as hund-


It is prolable that the original form was not hund-seofentig, but hurd-seofonta; O. Sax. (h)ant sibunta (decade seventh).

Hundred could also be expressed by hund-tentih (innd-teontig): cp. Goth. taChun-tekxad.
132. Thousand $=$ O.E. thitsend; Goth. thatendja; Slavonic tusantja; Lithuanian tulk-stanti; in which perhaps we have a combination of ten and hundred. The Sanskrit sahasras, $1,000=a$ going together.

[^40]
## 133. For expressing Distributives (how many at a time) we employ-

(1) The preposition by, as by ones, by twos, two by two.

So in O. E. be anfealdum, one by one; be hundredes, be thousandes. (Maundeville.)
(2) And, as two and two.
(3) With each and every, two each, every four.

There are also other expressions, as two apiece, two at a timb.
134. Multiplicatives are expressed-
(I) By placing the cardinal before the greater number, as eight hundred.
(2) By adjectives, with suffix -fold, as twofold, \&c.
(3) By Romance adjectives in -ple (ble), as dou-ble, tre-ble, tri-ple, \&c.
(4) By the adverb once, as once, twice.
(5) By the word times; three times one are three.

In O.E. we used sithe, sithes $=$ times; as two sithes too $=2 \times 2$.
135. Both. O.E. begen (m.), bâ (n.); Goth. bai, ba; Ger. bei-de.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find $b e y, b a, b v$, $600=$ both; gen. beire (bother, botheres).

Sometimes $b a$ is joined to twa (two), as batwô, butwa, butu.
$B o-t / 2$ is a derivative of $b o$ or $b a$, by means of the suffix $-t h$. Cp. Goth. baj-oths; O.N. bâthir.

As we find bathe first in the Northern dialects, it is probably due to Scandinavian influence.

The O. E. begen softened to beyne occurs in the literature of the fourteenth century :-
"Well thou maiht, 3 if thou wolt, taken ensaumple of beyne, Bothe two in heor elde children heu beore."-Vernon MS.

## 2. Ordinals.

136. The ordinals, with the exception of first and second, are formed from the cardinal numbers, and were originally superlatives formed by the suffix -ta (th).

First. For the etymology of this word see $\S 123$.

Second (Lat. secundus $=$ following) has replaced the O.E. other (a comparative form).

In O.E. other ( $=$ on-ther $=$ one of two) might signify the first or the second of two. It is sometimes joined with the neuter of the article, as thet other, which in the fourteenth century was represented by the tother ( $=$ thet other) ; the first was sometimes expressed by the ton (the toon), the tone = thet one.

Third $=$ O.E. thridda, thridde; ode $(=-d j a)$ is an adjective suffix $=$ tha $: \mathrm{cp}$. Lat. ter-tiu-s.

Fourth $=$ O.E. feor-tha.
Fifth $=$ O.E. fifta.
Sixth $=$ O.E. six-ta.
Seventh, Ninth, Tenth $=$ O.E. seofôtha, nigótha, teotha.
In thirteenth and fourteenth centuries these were-
sevethe, nethe, and tethe (in the Southern dialects). sevende, neghende, tende (in the Northern dialects). seventhe, ninthe, tenthe (in the Midland dialects).
The Midland forms are formed from the Northern ones, and made their appearance in the fourteenth century; and the latter are of Scandinavian origin. ${ }^{1}$

In the Northumbrian Gospels we find seofunda.
Eighth stands for eight-th; O. E. eaht-o-tha.
In O.E. (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find aghtende.
Eleventh ${ }^{2}=$ O. E. endlefta, allefta (elleuende, endlefthe in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Twelfth $=$ O. E. twelfta (twelfthe, twelft, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Thirteenth $=$ O. E. thretheôtha $[$ threttethe and threttende, thirtende, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries].

So up to nineteen, the oldest English forms end in -othe (without $n$ ) as: fourteen, feowerteotha; fifteen, fifteotha; sixteen, sixteotha; seventeen, seofonteotha; eighteen, eahtateotha; nineteen, nigonteotha.

The corresponding forms in use in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were: fourteen, fourtethe, fourtende, fourtenthe; fifteen, fyftethe, fiftende, fiftenthe; sixteen, sixtethe, sextende, sixtenthe, \&ic.

Twentieth $=$ O. E. twentug-otha (trventithe).

[^41]
## IV. INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

137. The indefinite article, as we have seen, is a new development after the Conquest of the numeral one (an).

Before a word beginning with a consonant the $n$ is dropped.
One + the negative ne give us none, O. E. nan.
None is only used predicatively or absolutively; ${ }^{1}$ when used with a following substantive the $n$ is dropped, whence $n o$.
Before comparatives $n o$ is in the instrumental case, as " $n o$ better," \&c. Cp. "the better," \& .

## V. INDEFINITE NUMERALS.

138. All $=$ O.E. eall, eal (see note on the old genitive plural, aller, alder, § 107).
139. Many $=$ O.E. manig, maneg. ${ }^{2}$

In the thirteenth century we find for the first time the indefinite article used after it, as : on moni are wisen (LaJamon), mony enne thing $=$ many a wise, many a thing. Hawes has many a fold.
140. Fela, feola, fele, Ger. viel (many), were once in common use as late as the eighteenth century.
141. $\mathrm{Few}=$ O. E. fedrwa, fed.

In O.E. we find $f a$, $f 0$, and fone as well as fewe, foor.
I By absolutely is meant without a following substantive.
${ }^{2}$ Many is also a noun, as in "a great many."
"A many of our bodies."-Hen. V. v. 3 .
"O thou fond many."-2 Hen. IV. i. 3.
"The rank-scented mary."
"In many's looks,"-Sonnets, 93 .
"A meanye of us were called together."-Latimer's Sermors.
"Than a gret many of old sparowes geder to-geder."-L. Andrewr.
"And him fyligdon mycele manigeo $=$ and there followed him (2) great many (or multitude)."-Matt. iv. 25.

## CHAPTER XII.

## PRONOUNS.

142. On the nature of the Pronoun see p. $80, \S 62$.
143. The classes of Pronouns are : (1) Personal Pronouns, (2) Demonstrative Pronouns, (3) Interrogative Pronouns, (4) Relative Pronouns, (5) Indefinite Pronouns.

## I. Personal Pronouns.

(i) Substantive Pronouns.
144. The personal pronouns have no distinction of gender. There are two persons : the person who speaks, called the first person ; the person spoken to, the second person.
(a) Inflcxion of the Pronoun of the First Person. ${ }^{1}$
O. English.

Sing.

Plural Nom. we we
Gen. - isser ure
Dat. us iis
Acc. . us usic us
145. In I the gurtural has disappeared: it is radical and exists in the allied languages, as Sansk. ah-am; Gr. èró ; Lat. ego; Goth. ik.

By noticing the oblique cases we see there are two stems, $a h$ (ic) and $m a$, of -the first person.
146. In O.E. we find the pronoun agglutinated to a verb, as $I c h a b b e=I c h+$ habbe (I have): Ichille $=$ Ich + quille ( 1 will), \&c.

In the provincial dialects of the South of England it still exists; cp. "chill" in Shahespeare's King Lear.
147. Me (dative) is still in use (1) before impersonal verbs, methinks = it appears to me ; me seems, me lists; (2) after interjections, as, woe is me, well is him ; (3) to express the indirect object, to me, or for me. ${ }^{1}$
$M e=$ for me. It is often a mere expletive in Elizabethan writers, and no doubt the original force of the pronoun was forgotten.

See the dialogue between Petruchio and his servant Grumio, in Taming of Shreat, i. 2:-
"Pet. Villain, I say, knock me here soundly.
"Grit. Knock you here, sir? Why, sir, what ain I, sir, that I should knock you here, sir?
"Pet. Villain, I say, knock me at this gate, and rap me well, or I'll knock your knave's pate.
"Griz. My master is grown quarrelsome. I should knock you first, and then I know after who comes by the worst. ...
"Hortensio. How now, what's the matter?
"Gru. Look you, sir, - he bid me knock him, and rap him soundly, sir. Was it fit for a servant to use his master so?"

In O.E. we find the dative construed before the verb to be and an adjective, as : me were leof $=$ it would be lief (preferable) to me. Traces of this idiom are to be found in Shakespeare, as : Me had rather $($ Rich. $I I$. iii. 3) $=$ O.E. me were lefor $=I$ had liever.

Shakespeare has also : you were best $=$ it were best for you.
The dative me has lost a suffix $r$ (sign of dative): cp. Goth. $m i-s$, Ger. $m i-r$.

The acc. $\mathrm{me}=$ mec: cp . Goth. mik; Ger. mich.
148. We: Goth. weis: Ger. zwir; Sansk. vayam, where w, like Sansk. va, represents an $m$; the suffix -s $(-r)$ is a relic of an old demonstrative sma joined to the first pronoun : cp. Sansk. asmê. Gr. i- $\mu \in i$ is, so that (originally) we $=I+$ that (or he).
149. Us (dlat.) : Goth. unsis; Ger. uns. The letter $n$ disappears as usual before s in Old English.
$U=$ an older $a(=m a)$, as in Sanskrit $a$-sma-byam: -s (ns) represents the particle ( $s m a z$ ), so that the case-cnding has disappeared altogether.

Us (acc.): Gnth. u-nsi-s; Ger. uns; Sansk. a-smd-n. Us then $=m u n s=m a n s=m a s m$.
150. The O. E. had a dual number for the first and second persons, which went out of use towards the close of the thirteenth century.
" He plucked me ope his doublet."- fulius Casar, i. 2.

## 151. (b) The Pronoun of the Second Person.

Old English.

| Singular. | Nom. Gen. <br> Dat. | thou |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | - | thin. |  |
|  |  | thee |  |  |
|  | Acc. | thee <br> ye, you | thec, ge | the. |
| Plural. | Gen. |  | cower, | gu |
|  | Dat. | you | cow, | guzv** |
|  | Acc. | you | esour, | cow, guw. |

152. Thou: Coth. thu; Gr. $\sigma \dot{v}$, vú ; Lat. tu; Sansk. tre-me.

The stem is $t z a$, which is weakened to $t u$ and $y u$.
153. The use of the plural for the singular was established as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century.

Thos, as in Shakespeare's time, was( x ) the pronoun of affection towards friends, (2)good-humoured superiority to servants, and (3) contempt or anger to strangers. It had, however, already fallen somewhat into disuse : and, being regarded as archaic, was naturally adopted (4) in the higher poetic style and in the language of solemn prayer.-Аввотt.
154. Thee (dat.): Goth. thu-s; Gr. ooi; Lat. tibi; Sansk. trebhyam. See remarks on me (dat.).

Thee (acc.): Goth. thuk; Ger. dich; Gr. $\tau \in$, , $\sigma^{\prime}$; Lat. se; Sansk. tedm. See remarks on me (acc.).
155. Ye : Goth. ju-t; Gr. viucis ; Lat. vos; Sansk. yusm̌, yin̂uam.

The Sanskrit yu-smê $=t u+s m a=t h o u$ and he. ${ }^{1}$ The dual git originally signified thout + two $=y$ yout tzoo.

The confusion between ye and you did not exist in Old English. Ie was always used as a nom., and you as a dat. or acc. In the English Bible the distinction is very carefully observed, but in the dramatists of the Elizabethan period there is a very loose use of the two forms. Not only is you used as nominative, but $y e$ is used as an accusative. ${ }^{2}$
"Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate $y e$. "-Shakespeare.
"And 1 as one consent with $y e$ in all." $\rightarrow$ Sackville.
You (dat.) : Goth. jzwei-s; O. Sax. iu; Gr. vjiv̀; Lat. iv-lis; Sansk. yu-sma-bhyam and vas.

You (acc.) : Goth. izwis; O. Sax. iut ; Gr. ípâs; Lat. zos ; Sansk. yusmán (vas).

[^42]In English you has been developed out of the O.E. eow, which represents $y u=t u$, the stem of the second personal pronoun ; the case suffix having wholly disappeared.
(c) Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.
156. He, She, It. This pronoun is sometimes, but incorrectly, called a personal pronoun: it has distinction of gender, like other demonstrative pronouns in O.E., which the personal pronouns have not. ${ }^{1}$

Masculine.

Femininf

Neuter.

| Nom. | he | he. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | - | his. |
| Dat. | him | him. |
| Acc. | him | hine, him.* |
| Nom. | she | heo, hi, ${ }^{*}$ zi,* 3 ho, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ho,* sco.* |
| Gen. | - | hire. |
| Dat. | her | hire. |
| Acc. | her | hi, heo.* |
| Nom. | it | hit. |
| Gen. | - | his. |
| Dat. | it | him. |
| Acc. | it | hit. |

Plural.
Nom. They hi, heo, hii,* pa,* pai,* pei.* Gen. - hira, heora, here, her, bar,* bair.* Dat. Them hem, heom, hem,* ham,* bam,* baim.* Acc. Them hi, heo, hem,* bam,* bo.*
157. The Old English pronouns were formed from only one stem, $h i$; but the modern English contains the stems $h i$, sa, and tha.

He. For he we sometimes find in Old English ha, a (not confined always to one number or gender $=h e$, she, it, they).

It occurs in Shakespeare, as "' $a$ must needs" (2 Hen. VI. iv. 2) ; quoth ' $a$; and is also common in other old writers, as -" has a eaten bull-beefe" (S. Rowlands) ; "see how a frownes" (Ib.).

Hi-m (dat.) contains a real dative suffix $m$, which is also found in the dative of adjectives ahd demonstrative pronouns. ${ }^{2}$

[^43]Hi-m. (acc.). This was originally a dative form, which in the twelfth century (in La3amon and Orm.) began to replace the accusative.

Hi-ne. - The old accusative was sometimes shortened to hin and in, and still exists in the South of England under the form en, as"Up I sprung, drow'd [threw] down my candle, and douted [put out] en ; and hadn't a blunk [spark] o' fire to teen en again."(Devonshire Dialect.)
158. She, in the twelfth century, in the Northern dialects, replaced the uld form heo. The earliest instance of its use is found in the A.-Sax. Chronicle. 1 After all, it is only the substitution of one demonstrative for another, for she is the feminine of the definite article, which in O.E. was seo or sia; from the latter of these probably comes she.

In the Lancashire dialect the old feminine is still preserved under the form $h o$, pronounced something like he in her.

Her (dat.) contains a true dative (fem.) suffix, $-r$ or -re.
Her (acc.) was originally dative, and, as in the case of him, has replaced an accusative ; the old acc. was $h i$, heo.
159. I-t has lost an initial guttural. ${ }^{2}$ The $t$ is an old neuter suffix (cp. tha-t, wha-t) cognate with $d$ in Latin-illu-d, istu-d, quo-d, qui.d. It is often a kind of indeterminate pronoun in O. E. ; it was a man $=$ there was a man ; it arn = there are.

It (dlat.) has replaced the true form him.
For the history of the word his see Adjective Pronouns.
160. They.-In the thirteenth century this form came into use in the North of England, and replaced $h i$ or heo; the earliest forms of it are be33, thei, tha.

The Southern dialect kept up the old form hi or heo nearly to the end of the fourteenth century.

They is the nom. plural of the definite article, O.E. tha, probably modified by Scandinaviaň influence. ${ }^{3}$

[^44]"Or gif thai men, that will study
In the craft of Astroiogy," \&c.-Barbour's Bruce.
Them (dat.), O.E. bâm, is the dative plural of the definite article, and replaced U.E. heom, hem.

The-m (acc.) is a dative form; the true accusative is tha or they. It has replaced the O.E. hi or heo.

We often find in the dramatists em (acc.), usually printed ' em , as if it were a contraction of them, which represents the old heom, hem, as-

> "The sceptre and the golden wreath of royalty Seem hung within my reach. Then take'em to you In' wear 'em long and worthily."-Rowe.
161. Table showing the origin of she, they, $\delta c$.

Definite Article.


We have said nothing about the genitives of the personal pronouns, because they are now expressed by the accusative with a preposition. For the origin of the pronominal genitives, see Adjective Pronouns.

## (2) Reflexive Pronouns.

162. Reflexives in English are supplied by the personal pronours with or without the word self.
"I do repent me."-Shakespeare's Merchant of Verice.
"Signor Antonio commends him to you."-1b.
"My heart hath one poor string to stay it by."-King fohn.
"Come, lay thee downt."- Lodge's Looking Glass.
"Ladies, go sit you down amidst this bower."-1b.
"Ali (fines) hare hid them in the weeds."-John Fletcher's Faithful Shepherdess.
163. The addition of self renders the reflexive signification more emphatic, as-
(I) myself, (thou) thyself, \&c.

Singular . Ist person, myself; 2d person, thyself, yourself. Plural . . ", ourselves; ," yourselves. Sïngular (3d person)" masc. himself; fem. herself; neut. itsilf. Plural
164. Selfx was originally an adjective $=$ same, as "in that selve moment" (Chaucek).
"A goblet of the self" = "A piece of the same."-Boke of Curtasye, 1. 776.
"That self mould" (Shakespeare, Rich. 1I. i. 2). Cp. self same
In the oldest English self was declined as a definite or indefinite adjective; as $I c$ self and Ic selfa $=I$ (my)self, and agreed with the pronouns to which it was added: as nom. Ic selfa; gen. min selfes, dat. me silfum, acc. mec silfue.
165. In O.E. sometimes the dative of the personal pronoun was prefixed to the nominative of self, as-(1) If me silf; (2) thu the silf; (3) he him silf: (1) we us silfe; (2) ge chro silfe; (3) hi him silfe.
166. In the thirteenth century a new form came in, by the substitution of the genitive for the dative of the prefixed pronoun in the first and second persons, as-mi self, thi self, for me self, the self; our self, your self, for us self, you self.

No doubt self began to be regarded as a noun. Cp. one's self.
"Speak of thy fair self, Edith."-J. Fletcher.
"My woeful self."-Ben Jonson.
"Thy crying self."-Shakesparar.
"For at your dore myself doth dwell."-Heywood, The Four P.'s.
"Myself hath been the whip."-Сhaucer.
Hence self makes its plural, selves, like nouns ending in $-f$, $-f$; cp. "To our gross selves" (Shakespeare)-a formation altogether of recent origin. "To prove their selfes" occurs in Berner's Froissart. ${ }^{2}$
167. Such phrases as Casar's self (North), Tarquin's self (Shakespeare), are not, philologically speaking, so correct as Attica self (North), \&c. Comp.
"And knaw kyndly what God es
Hampole's Pricke of Consc., p. 4.

[^45]168. In himself, themselves, it self (not its self) the old dative remains unchanged; his self, themselves, are provincialisms. With own, his and their may be used.
169. In O. E. one was sometimes used for self.
"And the body with flesshe and bane, Es harder than the saul by it are." Hampole, Pricke of Consc., p. 85.
"Whan they come by them ore two" $=$ "When they iwo came by themselves."

Morte $d^{\prime \prime}$ Arthur, p. 14.

## (3) Adjective Pronouns.

170. The adjective pronouns, or, as they are sometimes called, the possessive pronouns, were originally formed from the genitive case of the personal pronouns, and were declined like adjectives.
In modern English, the possessive adjective pronouns are identical in form with the old genitives of the personal pronouns, and are indeclinable.

Traces of the older adjectival forms are found in the fourteenth century.
171. Mine, my, thine, thy, O.E. min, thin. The $e$ in mine and thine only marks the length of the preceding vowel, and is no inflexional syllable.
$-n$ is a true genitive suffix as far as English is concerned, but is of adjectival origin. ${ }^{1}$

In the twelfth century the $n$ dropped off before a consonant, but was retained $(a)$ in the oblique cases, $(b)$ in the plural (with final $c$ ), (c) when the pronoun followed the substantive, ( $d$ ) before a word commencing with a vowel.

The fourth or euphonic use of mine and thine is exceedingly common in poetry, as -
" Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice."-Shakespearb.
Of the third usage we have instances as late as Shakespeare's time, as brother mine, uncle mine.
372. His, a true genitive of the root $h i$.

In O.E. we often find a plural hise.
$\mathrm{He}-\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{O} . \mathrm{E} . \mathrm{hi}$-re, contains a genitive suffix, -r (re).

[^46]Its, O.E. his. This form is not much older than the end of the sixteenth century. It is not found in the Bible, or in Spenser, rarely in Shakespeare ${ }^{1}$ and Bacon, more frequently in Milton, common in Diyden, who seems to have been ignorant of the fact that his was once the genitive of $i t$, as well as of he.
"And the earth brought forth grass, and herb yielding seed after his kind."Ger. i. 12.
" It shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt hruise his heel."-Ger. iii. 15 .

> "And that same eye, whose bend doth awe the world. Did lose his lustre."-Yulizs Casar, i. 2 .
173. Along with the use of his we find, in the fourteenth century, in the West Midland dialect, an uninflected genitive hit.

> "Furthy the derk dede see hit is demed ever more For hit dede3 of dethe duren there 3et." 2 -Allit. Poems, B. I. 102 x .

This curious form is found in our Elizabethan dramatists :-
"It knighthood shall fight all it friends."-Silent Woman, ii. 3 .
"The innocent milk in it most innocent mouth."
"The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long,
That it's had $i t$ head bit off by it young.'-Lear, i. 4
" That which groweth of it own accord." 3-Levit. xxv. 5 .
174. For its own we have a curious form that occurs frequently in older writers, namely 'the ocon,' as-"A certeine sede which groweth there of the own accorde."-Fardell of Facion, 1555.

It occurs in Hooker, but is altered in the modern reprints to its own. The earliest instance of this usage is found in Hampole's "Pricke of Conscience," p. 85 (A.1). 1340):-

> "For the saule, als the boke bers wyines, May be pyned with fire bodily, Als it may be with the awen body."
175. Ou-r, you-r, O. E. u-re (us-er), cont-er (gure 1).

All these forms contain a genitive pl. suffix (adjectival), -r (-re). Sce note on Alder, p. 105.

Thei-r has also a genitive pl. suffix, $-r$, and has replaced the older hi-re (heore, he-re, he-r). See Table, p. 121.
: Mr. Abbott notices that it is common in Florio's Montaigne.
" Therefore the dark Dead Sea it is deemed evermore, For its deeds of death endure (last) there yet."
3 The modern reprint of the edition of 1615 has altered it to its.
4 A later form.

## (4) Independent or Absolute Possessives.

176. Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, are called independent or absolute because they may be used without a following substantive, as this is mine, that is yours.
"The tempest may break out which overwhelms thee And thine, and mine."-Byron.
177. Hers, ours, yours, theirs, are double genitives containing a pl. suffix $r+$ a sing. suffix $-s$. These forms were confined in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries to the Northern dialects, and are probably due to Scandinavian influence. Sometimes we find imitations of them in the Midland dialects, as hores, heres $=$ theirs The more ordinary forms in the Southern dialects than these in -s are hire (hir), oure (our), youre (your), here (her), as-"I wol be your in alle that ever I may."-CHACCER.

In Old English we sometimes find ouren $=$ ours; heren $=$ theirs, and in provincial English we find hisn, hern, ourn, theirn.

## II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

178. The demonstratives, with the exception of the and for, are used substantively and adjectively.
(I) The (usually called the Definite Article) was formerly declined like an adjective for number, gender, and case, but is now without any inflexion. ${ }^{1}$

## Singular.

Masc. Nom. se, the.*
Gen. tha-s, the-s, "thi-s,* tha-s.*
Dat. than-m, tha-n,* the-n.*
Acc. tha-ne, the-ne,* that-ne,* the-n,* tha-ne.
Inst. the, the.
Fem. Nom. seo, theo, *tha.* the."
Gen. thie-re, tha-re," the-re.*
Dat. thei-re, tha-re," the-re.*
Acc. that, theo,* the.*
Neut. Noni.)
and. $\}$ the-t, that,* thet.* Acc.
Gen.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Gend } \\ \text { ant. }\end{array}\right\}$ like the Masc.

[^47]> Plural.
> Nom. tha, thaie, tho,* the.*
> Gen. tha-ra, theera, thare, *there.
> Dat. the-m, the-m, than, *thon, ${ }^{*}$ then. *
> Acc. the, thaie, "tho," the."

The inflexions began to drop off about the middle of the twelfh century.

The, before a comparative, is the old instrumental thi, as the more $=$ eo magis, \&c.
(2) That. In the O.E. Northern dialects that was used irrespective of gender, as thatt engell; thatt allterr (Orm.), and in the fourteenth century we find it as a demonstrative, as now, taking the place of the older thilk (thilke). See next page. Then it took fur itself the following plurals: (a) the (or tha), the old plural of the definite article ; (b) thos (thas), the old plurals of this. ${ }^{3}$

In the Southern and some of the Midland dialects, we find thes. these, thise, thas $=$ these.

$$
\text { (3) Those }=\text { O. E. thas, the old plural of thes }=\text { this. }
$$

The history of the word that should be borne well in mind :-( x ) It was origin ally neuter, (cp. $i-t$, wha- $t$ ); (2) It became an indeclinable demonstrative, answering in meaning to ille, illa, illud; (3) It took the pl ( 1 ) of the; (2) of this.
(4) This (=hic, hac, hac) = O.E. thes (m.), theos (f.), this (m.), as formerly declined like an adjective. Here again the netuter has replaced the masculine and feminine forms, which, however, in the south of England were to be found as late as 1357 .

In Wickliffe we have thisis foder $=$ the father of this man.
The O.E. thes is (as seen by the O.Sax. these) contracted, and it contains the root the (or tha, as in the) and a lengthened form of se (the;, Sansk. sya. This se (sya) had the force of Lat $-c$, -que, as in hi-c, guis-que.

These $=$ O. E. thas, thes, ${ }^{*}$ these, ${ }^{*}$ thise, ${ }^{*}$ this. ${ }^{*}$

[^48]This refers to the more immediate object, that to the remoter object.

> "What conscience dictates to be done, Or warns me not to do, This teach me more that hell to shun, That more than heaven pursue."-Por\&
179. We have three demonstratives containing the adjective -lic, like, with the instrumental case of the particles so, the, and $i$ (Goth. $i-5)$.
(1) Such: O. E. swilc ${ }^{1}=s w i$, the inst. of swa $=$ so, and $-l c=$ lic = like.

Such then signifies so-like (cp. Ger. solch $=$ so-lich); such like is a pleonastic expression.

In the Northern dialects we find slyk, sli, silk, of Scandinavian origin, whence Scotch sic.
In O. E. suche ten, \&c. = ten times as much (or as many), \&c.
"The lengthe is suche zen as the deepnesse."-Pilgrimage, p. 235.
(2) Thilk $=$ the like, that, that same $=$ O.E. thy-lic, thy-lc (thelk,* thulk,* thice*); Provincial English thuck, thucky (theck, thick, thicky, thecky). Thi $=$ the instrumental case of the. and $l k=$ like. It curresponds exactly to Lat. ta-lis, Sansk. ta-drisha, Gr. т $\boldsymbol{\text { 入íкоя. }}$

> "I am thilke that thou shouldest seeche."-Pilgrimage, p. 5 .
> "She hadde founded thilke hous."-1b. p. 7 .

Thys-lic (whence thyllic) = this like, is sometimes found in O.E.
(3) Ilk = same: ' of that ilk.'
"This ilk worthe knight."-CHAUCER.
"That ilk ${ }^{2}$ man."-1b.
Ilk $=$ O.E. $y l c$; $i$ or $y=$ the instrumental case of the stem $i=$ he, that, and $-l k=-l e=$ like.

18o. Same: Gothic sama, O.N. samr, Lat. similis, Gr. ©̈uos, Sansk. sama. In the oldest English same is an adverb $=$ together, and not a demonstrative.

As the word makes its appearance for the first time in the Northern dialects, it is no doubt due to Scandinavian influence. ${ }^{8}$

It is joined to the demonstratives the, this, that, yon, yond, self.

[^49]181. Yon, yond, yonder. Goth. jains (m.), jaina (f.), jainata (n.), that. In the oldest English yond (greond) is only a preposition = through, over, beyond, or an adverb $=$ yonder. The root ge is a pronominal stem that occurs in yea, O. E. gea; ye-s, \&c. ${ }^{1}$

Yond makes its appearance as a demonstrative for the first time in the "Ormulum" (twelfth century).

It is seldom used substantively, as in the following passages from Old English writers :-

> "I am the kynge of this londe \& Oryens am kalled, And the 3ondur is my quene, Betryce she hette."
> Chevelere Assigne, 1. 232.
> "I's 3one thy page?"-R. of Brunne, Spec. of E. Eng., p. II9.
> "The 3oud is that semly."-Wirl. or PALERNE.
182. So. O.E. =swa.
"Folly (I say) that both makes friends and keeps them so."-Bp. Kennet's Translation of Erasmus' Praise of Folly.
"If there were such a way; there is none so."-Gower, ii. 33.
In O.E. so (inst.) is used before comparatives like the (O.E. thit): "swo leng the werse" = the longer the worse ; "swo leng swo more."-O.E. Hom. Second Series, pp. 85,87 .

## III. Interrogative Pronouns.

182*. The Interrogative Pronouns are who, which, what, whether, with the compounds whoever, whatever, whethersoever, whichsoever.
183. Who. O.E. hwa, hwo, "ho* (masc. and fem.), hrvat, hwat,* wat* (neut.) ; Goth. hva-s (m.), hva (neut. ); Sansk. kis (m.), kif (f.), $k a-t$ (neut.) ; Gr. ко-s, nos ; Lat. quis, qua, quod. ${ }^{2}$

It is only used of persons, and is masculine and feminine.
Whose. O. E. hwas, whos, *hos, " was,* wos, * gen. sing. Origin ally of all genders, now limited to persons, though in poetry it occasionally occurs with reference to neuter substantives. It is also used absolutely, as "Whose is the crime?"

Whom (dat. sing.) O.E. kwam,* wham,* wom,* originally of all genders.

The accusative hwone (hwene) was replaced in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries by wham, but instances of the older hivone are to be found under the forms hwan, wan, wane.

[^50]184. Wha-t, originally the neuter of who. In the "Ormulum" what is used adjectively, without respect to gender, as "whatt mann?" " wohatt thing?" just as we say, "what man?" "what woman?" "zohat thing?" Without a noun it is now singular and neuter ; with a noun it is singular or plural, and of all genders.

What in Old English was used in questions concerning the nature, quality, or state of a person, as hwet is pes = quis est hic (Matt. iv. 41).
" What is this womman, quod I , so worthily atired ?"-Piers Plowman.
What is followed by $a$, like many, such, each, \&c.
185. What for $=$ what sort of $a$, is an idiom that made its appearance in the sixteenth century, and is similar to the German was fiir ein, as What is he for a vicar? = Was, für einen Vikar, ist er? What sort of a vicar is he? Spenser, Palgrave, and Ben Jonson have instances of it.
186. Whether.-O.E. Invather, whether, ${ }^{1}$ wher; Goth. Iva-thar $=$ which of the two. ${ }^{2}$ It has become archaic; but was very common in the seventeenth century.
" W'iether is greater, the gift or the altar?"-Matt. xxiii. ig-
It is very rarely used adjectively, as in the following passage:-
"Thirdly (we have to consider) whether state (the Church or the Commonwealh ) is the superior."-Bp. Murton in Literature of the Church of Englaud, vol. i. p. 109 .

In the thirteenth century it is rarély inflected ; and the following passages are almost unique :-
(a) "Ilzuetheres fere wult tu beon? Mid hwether wult ta tholien?" 3-Atcren Rizule, p. 284.
(b) "Now whether his hert was fulle of care." 4-Morte d'Arthur.

Whether his = whelheres. I have seen wolo his = whose, an analogous formation.
(c) Bishop Hall uses the rare compound whethersoever.

[^51][^52]187. Which, O.E. hwilc, hulic, whilc,* whulc,* whulch, " wouch," woch, " a compound of hwi, the instrumental case of hwa, who, and lic $=$ like. Cp. Lat. qua-li-s. It is used as a singular or plural, and of any gender. ${ }^{1}$

In O.E. it has the force sometimes of (a) quis, as Huyle is min modor? Who is my mother? (b) quantus:-
". Whiche a sinne violent."-Gower, iii. 244.
"Allas wisuch serwe and deol ther wes!"-Castel of Love, p. 5.

## IV. Relative Pronouns.

188. The relative pronouns are who, which, that, as.

In O.E. who, which, what, were not relative, but interrogative pronouns; which, whose, whom, occur as interrogatives as early as the end of the twelfth century, but who not until the fourteenth century, ${ }^{2}$ and was not in common use before the sixteenth century. That and what originally referred only to neuter antecedents.
The relatives in the oldest English were :-
( I ) se (m.), seo (f.), that ( n. ): also the def. article. ( a ) the, indeclinable. (3) the in combination with se, seo, that; as se the, seo the, thatte. (1) swa, so. (5) that that, whatever. (6) swylc . . . swyic $=$ such . . . such.
189. Who as a relative is not recognized by Ben Jonson, who says "one relative which." It is now used in both numbers, and relates to masculine or feminine antecedents (rational).
190. Who is very rarely employed by Hawes; frequently by Berners; not uncommon in Shakespeare ; used only once or twice by Sackville.


Who, fearing to be yielded, fled before ;
Stole home by silence of the secret night : The third unhappy and enraged sort Of desp'rate hearts, who, stain'd in princes' blood, From traisorous furour could not be withdrawn."-Sackville.
198. Who . . . he is used like Ger. wer, quisquis $=$ whoso : 3-

[^53]> "Who is trewe of his tonge, $* *$ \# He is a god by the Gospel." Piers Pl. (ed. Wright), p. 20.
"And who wylle not, thay shalle be slone."-TownLev, Mysteries, p. 7 .
"A hwam mai he luue treweliche hwa ne luues bis brother, Thenne hwase the ne luues he is mon unwreastest." (Ah! whom may he love truly whoso loveth not his brother ; then whoso loveth not thee is a most wicked man.)O.E. Hom. First Series, p. $274-$

The demonstrative may be omitted, as -
" Who steals my purse steals trash."-Othello, iii. 3. 157.
192. The O.E. whan, wan is sometimes found in the fourteenth century as an objective case (representing O.E. hwone and hwam):-
" Seint Dunstan com hom a3en . . Ladde his abbey al in pees fram wian he was so longe." E. Eng. Pcems, p. 37.
"This(e) were ure faderes of wan we beth suththe ycome."-Robert or Gioucester.
193. In Gower we find the demonstrative the joined to whose and whom, so that the suhose $=$ whose : the whom $=$ whom:
"The whos power as now is falle."-Confessio Amant. iu. 187.
" The whom no pité might areste."-Ib. iii. 203.
" Your mistress from the whom I see There's no disjunction."-Winter's Tale, iv. 4 .
Whose that = whoso :-
"To Venus whos prest that I am."-Confess. A mant. ii. 61.
" And dame Musyke commaunded curteysly
La Bell Pucell wyth me than to daunce
Whome that I toke wyth all my plesaunce."
Hawes, Pastime of Pleasure, p. 70.
194. Shakespeare uses who of animals and of inanimate objects regarded as persons, as-
"A lion zuho glared." - ful. Casar, i.
" The winds
Who take the ruffian billows by the tops."-2 Hex. IV. iii. s.
"And as the turtile that has lost her mate Whom griping sorrow doth so scre attaint."

Sackviles's Henry Staffori.
195. Which now relates only to neuter antecedents, but this is comparatively a modern restriction. Cp. "Our Father which art in heaven."
"Then Warwick disannuls great John of Gaunt,
Which did subdue the greatest part of Spain."-3 Ifen. VI. iii. 3.
" Adrian which popê was."-Gower, i. 29.
" She whlich shall be thy norice." - 1b. i. 195.
156. Compounds of zuhich with the, that, as, \&c. are now archaic:" Twas a foolish guest,
The which to gain and keep he sacnticed all rest."-Brzon.
K 2

[^54]Sackville's Induction.
"The welich was cleped Clemene."-Gower, ii. 34.
" Among the wwichē there was one."-1b. ii. 375 .
"The Latin worde $\begin{gathered} \\ \text { "hyche that is referred }\end{gathered}$ Unto a thynge whych is substancyall, For a nowne substantive is wel averred." Hawes, P. of P. p. 24: see p. 14.
" Theis . . . yatis (gates) suhich that ye beholde."-Skelton, i. $3^{8} 4$
"Man, the which that wit and reason can."-Gower, i. 34 .
"Thing which that is to lovë due."-16. ii. 18.
"Thing which as may nought been acheved." -16 . ii. 380 .
"This abbot which that was an holy man."
Chaucer's Prioress' Tale, 1.630
"The sond and ek the smale stones
Whiche as sche ckes out for the nones."
Gower, Specimens of E. Eng., p. 373 -
197. That, originally only the neater singular relative, now agrees with singular and plural antecedents of all genders. ${ }^{1}$

That came in during the twelfth century to supply the place of the indeclinable relative the, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative. In the sixteenth century, which often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century, who replaces it. About Addison's time, that had again come into fashion, and had almost driven which and who out of use.

[^55]Addison, in his "Humble Petition of Who and Which," makes the petitioners thus cumplain: "We are descended of ancient families, and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the Jack Sprat that supplanted us."
198. There is another point in which that resembles the indeclinable the; botb being followed and not preceded by a preposition, as -" that bed, se lama on lag" (Mark ii. 4) " "The bed wherein the sick of the palsy lay" (Einglish Version), or $=$ the bed that the lame man lay on.
So in O.E., fourteenth century :-
" The ston that he leonede to."-Vernon MS. fol. $4 \pi$.
And, as in our Version, the relative adverb is sometimes found :
" He eode in to the cite ther alle his fon inne were."-lb.
As was used sometimes to replace that, as-
"For ther is a welle fair ynou3
In the stede $a$, he lai on; as me ma3 ther iseo."
E. Eng. Poems, p. 55 -
"On Englysshe tunge out of Frankys Of a boke as I fonde ynne."
R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, p. 3.
199. That, in virtue of its being neuter, is sometimes used for what, and a preposition may precede it.
" I am possess'd of that is mine."-Shakespeare's Much Ado, i. i.
"Throw us that you have about you."
1b., Two Gentlemen of Verona.
" We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen." ${ }^{\text {- St. Yohn } i i i ., ~ r 1 . ~}$
" What wight is that which saw that I did see."
Ferrex and Porrex, p. 69.
"Eschewe that wicked is."-Gower's Confess. Amant. i. 244.
"That be hath byght, he shall it hold."一Morte d'Arthur, p. $13^{2}$.
200.," The O.E. that that = whatever, as "that that later bith, thet hafth angin" = that that later is, that hath beginning.
We still find it for that which-
" That that I did, I was set on to do't by Sir Toby." I'welfth Night, iv. 2.
"That that is, is."-16. v. I.
"That that that gentleman bas advanced, is not that, that he should have proved to your Lordship."-Speciator, 80.

20I. What $=$ that which, refers to singular and neuter antecedents. It is used both substantively and adjectively.
"What is done cannot be undone."-Macbeth, v. 1.
"Look what I speak, my life shall prove it true."-Ib. iv. 3 .

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" No ill luck stirring but what lights upon my shoulder."
Merchant of Venice, iii. y. .
"The entertainer provides suhat fare be pleases."-Fielding.
202. Such expressions as the following are archaic, as -
" He it was, whose guile
Stirred up with envy and revenge deceived
The mother of mankind, what time his pride Had cast him out from heaven."-Milton.
"At what time Joas reigned as yet in Juda."-Holinshed.
". For what tyme he to me spak,
Out of hys mouth me thoghte brak A flamme of fyre."-R. of Brunne, Specimens, p. yig.
203. It is a vulgarism to use what with an antecedent noun or pronoun, as-

> " A vagrant is a man zuhat wanders."

Yet we find some instances of this in older writers, as-
" I fear nothing what can be said against me."-Her. VIII. v. r.
"To have his pomp and all what state compounds."
Timon of Athens, iv. 2.
" Either the matter what other men wrote, or els the maner how other men wrote."-Ascham's Scholemaster, p. 142.
" Offer them peace or aught what is beside."

$$
\text { Ed. I. in Old Plays, vol. ii. p. } 37 .
$$

304. What that, that what, are archaic, as-
"What man that it smite Thurghout his armur it wol kerve and byte."

Chavcer's Squyer's Tale, I. 10471.
"That what we have we prize not to the worth."-Muck Ado, iv. I.
" That what is extremely proper in one company, may be highly improper in nother."-Chesterfield.
"What that a king himselfe bit (= bids)."
Gower, Confess. A mert. i. 4.
"But what that God forwot mot needes be."-Chaucer.
"What schulde I telle
And of moche other thing what that then was?"
R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, Prol.
205. So what as $=$ what that :-
" Here I do bequeathe to thee In full possession, half that Kendal hath, And what as Bradford holds of me in chief."

Dodsley, Old Plays, ii. 47.
206. As (O.E. eall-swa, alswa, also,* alse,* ase,* als ; * cp. C.E. hwa-swa and hose $=$ whoso) possesses a relative force on account of its being a compound of so, ${ }^{1}$ and is usually employed as such when preceded by the demonstratives such, same, so much. ${ }^{2}$
"All such reading as was never read."-Pope.
" Unto bad causes swear
Such creatures as men deubt."-Yuleus Casar, ii. I.

* For all such authors as be fullest of good matter . . . be likewise alwayes most proper in words."-Ascham's Scholemaster, p. 136.
"Some such sores as greve me to touch them myself." Ed. I. in Old Plays, vol. ii. p. 20.
"Such one as is already furnished with plentie of learning." -16 . p. 113.
"These are, such as with curst curres barke at every man but their owne friends."-Gosson, School of Abuse, p. 18.
"For tho sche thoghtee to beginne Such thing as semeth impossible."

Gower, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 373.
"Of sich as loves servauntes ben."-Romaunt of the Rose, 1. 145.
"In thilke places as they habiten."-Ib. 660.
After so, as occurs sometimes-
"So many examples as filled xv. bookes."-Aschan, p. 157.
In Shakespeare it is found after this, that:
"That gentleness as I was wont to have."- Fulius Casar, i. 2.
"Under these hard conditions as this time is like to lay upon me." $-1 \%$.
But in O.E. writers we sometimes find as $=$ such as :-
"Drau3tes as me draweth in poudre" =characters such as one draws in pow'er (dust).-E. Eng. Poems, p. 77.
"Talys shall thou fynde therynne,
Mervelys some as Y fonde wryiyn."-R. of Brunne, p. 5
207. For such . . . as the oldest English has swylc . . . sywle = such . . such :-
"He sece swylcne hlaford swylcne he wille."- $\sqrt{\text { Eths. V. i. I }:=\text { let him }}$ seek such a lord as he may choose.

At the end of the twelfth century we find as for szuylc:-
"Withth all swillc rime alls her iss sett."-Orm. D. 101.
Cp. the following, where alse $=$ as if $=$ the older swilc:
" He wes so kene, he wes swa strang Swilc hit weore an eotand."-La3. A. p. 58.
${ }^{1}$ We find so . . so $=$ for as . . so:-
"So the sea is moved, so the people are changed." -Dr. Donne's Sermoris.

- Those marked thus (*) are later forms
" He wes swa kene, and so strong,
Alse he were an catande [= giant]."-La3. B. p. 58.
( $A=$ earlier text early thirteenth century ; $B=$ later thirteenth.)
Sometimes so is found after swylc:-
"And swilche othre [sennen] so the apostle her nemde."-O.E. Homilies, Second Series.
"Suylcra yrmtha swa thu unc ær scrife"=Of such miseries as thou previously assigned to us (two).-Exeter Book, 373. ${ }^{1}$

208. Who-so, what-so, who-so-ever, which-so-ever are relatives (indefinite), like the Latin quisquis, quicunque.

The latter parts of the componnds, used adjectively, are sometimes separated by an intervening noun, as-
"We can create, and in what place soe'er Thrive under evil."-Milton, i. 260 .
"Upon what side as ever it falle."-Gower, Confess. Amant. i. 264
209. What is used sometimes for whatever :-
" And, speak men what they can to him, he'll answer
With some rhyme rotten sentence."
Henry Pokter in Lamb's Dram. Poets, p. 432, Bohn's Scries.
" What thou herë yef no credence."
Gower's Confess. Amant. i. 59
In O.E. we find who that ever, what that ever, who-as-ever, what-as-ever, what-als-ever.
" In what cuntre of the worlde so ever that he be gone."-Gest. Rom. i.
" Who that ever cometh thedir he shalle fare well."-Ib.
210. Who-ever, zohatever, zwhich-ever are relative and interrogative. They do not occur in the oldest English, and are comparatively late forms.

## V. Indefinite Pronouns.

2II. The indefinite pronouns do not specify any particular object. Some are used substantively, others adjectively. Most of them may be used in both ways. The indefinites are (in addition to the indefinite relatives) who, what, some, none, no, aut ght, naucht, enough, any, each, every, cither, neither, other, else, sundiry, certain.

[^56]212. Who = any one, some one.
" Timon, surnamed Misantropos (as who should" say Loupgarou, or the man-hater)."-NORTH's Plutarch, 171.
"Suppose who enters now,
A king whose cyes are set in silver, one
That blusheth gold."-Decker's Satiro-Mastix.
" "Twill be my chaunce els some to kill wherever it be or whom."-Davis, Scourge of Folly, Dodsley's Old Plays, ii. p. 50.
"' Is mother Chat at home?' 'She is, syr, and she is not; but it please her to whom.' "-1b. p. 61.
"The cloudy messenger turns me his back
And hums, as who should say, 'You'll rue the time That clogs me with this answer.'"-Macbeth, iii. 6.
"As who would saye Astrologie were a thing of great primacie."-Drant's Sermons.
"Sche was as who seith, a goddesse."
Gower, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 376.
"Thay faught[en] alle that longe day,
Who had it sene, wele myght he syghe."
Morte d Arthur, p. 126.
"I will not live
Who wolde me all this world here give."
Cilaucer's Dream, 1. 6ı8.
"If ther were not who to sle it," \&c.-Pilgrimage, p. 12.
"Alszua (= als wha) say here, may lys na man
Withouten drede, that witie can."-Hampole, P. of C. p. 69.
"As hrear se seie he this is mare then theof."-O E. Hom., First Series, p. 28ı.
" Thenne a3aines kinde gatl hiva that swuche kinsemon ne luueth."-16., p. 275.
Who is sometimes joined to some. See $\S 217$.
213. What is indefinite in such expressions as "I tell you zuhat" (= something), "I know not what," "wohat not," " elles what" (Chaucer).
" Come down and learne the littie ruhat
That Thomalin can sayne."-Spenser's Shep. Cal., July.
"As they spek of many what."
Rubert of Brunse, Handlynge Synue, Specimens, p. ira
" Which was the lothliest[e] what."-Gower, i. 98.
"As he which cowthe mochel what."-Ib. i. 320.
"Love is bought for litil what."-Ib. ii. 275 .
"A little what."-WicklifFe, Yohst vi. 7.
"Gif thaer Invat to lafe si " = If there be anything remaining.-Quoted by Sachs from Ettmüller.

In the oldest English we find ines Inwat and suilces hwat $=$ somewhat.
For other compounds, see some, $\S 217$.
214. Some (O. E. sum, som, * aliquis, quelque) is used both adjectively and substantively.
(1) It has the force of the indefinites $a$, any, a certain, as-
"And if som Smithfield ruffian take up som strange going; som new mowing with their mouth ; wrinchyng with the shoulder; som brave proverb, some fresh new othe, . . . som new disguised garment . . . whatsoever it cost, gotten must it be."-Aschar, Scholemaster, p. 44.
" And yet he could roundlie rap out so many uglie othes as som good man of fourscore yeare old hath never heard named before." 16. p. 48.

> "Some holy angel
> Fly to the court of England."-Macbeth, iii. 6.
"The fircplace was an old one, built by some Dutch merchant long ago."Dickens.
"Sum holi childe."-Life of Becket, p. 104.
"Ther was sum prest."-Wickliffe, $I, u k e$ i. 5 -
"Swm 3ong man suede him."-Ib., Mark xiv. 5 I.
"Bot len me sum fetel (vessel) tharto."-Specimens of E. Eng., p. 156.
${ }^{4}$ The33 wisstenn thatt him was summ unncuth sihhthe shawedd."-Om. 228.
"Sum dema was on sumere ceastre."-Luke xviii. 2.
We find it sometimes with the genitive plural in O.E., as-
"Tha com his feonda sum."-Matt. xiii. 25 .
(2) It expresses an indefinite part or quantity, as-
"It is some mercy when men kill with speed."-Webster's Duchess of Malfy.
"The annoyance of the dust, or else some meat You ate at dinner, cannot brook with you."

Middeleton's Arden of Feversham.
" And therefore wol I make you disport As I seyde erst, and do you som comfort."

Chaucer, Prol. 1. 770.
(3) With plural substantives, as " some years ago."
"Some certain of the noblest-minded Romans." $\mathcal{F} u l$. Casar, i. 3 .
" And some I see ...
That twofold balls and treble sceptres bear."-Macbeth, jv. $\mathbf{1}$.
"There be som serving men that do but ill service to their young masters."-- scham, Scholemaster, p. 48.
" I write not to hurte any, but to profit som." $-I b$.
(4) With numterals, in the sense of about:-
"Surrounded by some fifty or sixty fathoms of iron cable." -Dickens.

[^57](6) In apposition instead of the partitive genitive, as-
" zef thou havest bred ant ale
Thou del hit sum about."-Barbour's Brus, p. 98.
"Hit nis nost rist the tapres tende, bote $h i$ were her some" (i.e. except some of them were here).-Specimens of E. Eng. p. 41.
"Summe heo fleizen to Irelonde."-Lazamon, iii. 167.
"Sume tha boceras."-Matt. ix. 3 .
"Ge magon gehyran sume his theawas."-/Elfric, Dom. i. in mense Septem.
"Ac sume ge ne gelyfath."-Yohn vi. 64.
Instead of this contraction the partitive genitive was used as early as the twelfth century.
"Sum of the sede feol an uppe the stane and s:um among theornen."-O. Eng. Hom., First Series, p. 133.
"Summe off ure little floce."-Orm. 1. 6574.
" Lo here a tale of jow sum."
R. of Brunne, IIandlynge Synne, p. 309.
"Summe of hem camen fro fer."-Wickliffe's Int. viii. 3.
"The kynge and somme of hys defondede hem faste."-Robt. of Glou. CESTER, l. 1290.

## 215. Some . . . some $=$ alius.. . alius ; alter.. alter .

"Some thought Dunkirk, some that Ypres was his object."-Macaular.

> "The work some praise, And some the architect."-M1LTON, P. L. i. 73".
"For books are as meats and viands are, some of good, some of evill substance." -Areopagitica, ed. Arber, p. 43.
"Some say he is with the Emperor of Russia, Other some, he is in Rome."-Comedy of Errors, iii. 2.

In O.E. we find the singular as well as the plural, ${ }^{r}$ as-
"Sum man hath an 100 wyues, sume mo, sum less."-Maundeville, p. 23.
(a) Singular:-
"Som man desireth for to have richesse, And sont man wolde out of his prisoun fayn."

Chaucar's K'rightes Tale.
" He mot ben deed, the kyng as schal a page ; Som in his bed, som in the deepe see, Som in the large felde, as men may se."-16.
"Sum was king and sum kumeling (foreigner)."

$$
\text { Gen. and Ex. 1. } 834 .
$$

"A Anum he sealde fif pund, sumum twa, sumum an."-Matt. xxv. is.
(b) Plural:-
"Somme the hed from the body he smote, Somme the arms, somme the scholders."

- Lonelich's St. Graah, p. 128.
"T Thus may men se that at thoo dayes summe were richere then summe and redier to give elmesse."-CAPGRAVE, p. 10.
" Of summe sevene and sevenc, of summe two and two."-16. p. 16.
"He bylevede ys folc somme aslawe and some ywounded."-ROBERT or Gloucester, 1. 4855 .

Byron ("Don Juan") uses some's = one's-
" Howsoe'er it shock some's self love."
Heywood uses somes-
" But of all somes none is displeased
To be welcome."
216. Some is also used indefinitely with other, arother-
"Who ... hath ... not worshipped somze idol or another." Thackeray's Hist. of $\dot{H}$. Esmont.
"By some device or other."
Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors, i. 1.
"By some accident or other."-Hobbes.
Some . . . many-
" She pulleth up some be the rote,
And manye with a knyf sche schereth."
Gower, Specimens of Early Eng., p. 373.
21\%. COMPOUNDS OF SOME.-Somebody, something, some-one, somecuhat, othersome, some-zuho.

[^58]
## Somebody ${ }^{1}$ -

" Ere you came by ther grove I was sombody, Now I am but a noddy (i.e. a nobody) "

Damon and Pythias, in Dodsley's Old Plays.

## Something -

" When as we sat and sigh'd,
And look'd upon each other, and conceived
Not what we ail'd, yet something we did ail."
Daniel's Hymen's Triamph.
" For't must be done to night,
And something from the palace."-Macbeth, iii. x.
"Sir, you did take me up when I was nothing; And only yet am samething by being yours."
B. and F. Philaster.

## Some who-

" But if somzuho the flamme staunche."-Gower's Confess. i. I5.
"Than preyede the rich mon Abraham
That he woide sende Lazare or sum other whamz To hys brethryn alle fyve."
R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, p. 209.

## Somewhat-

" From them I should learn somecuhat, I ain sure, I never shali know herc."-Webster's Duchess of Malfy.
"Duch. What did I say?
Ant. That I should write somewhat." $-1 b$.
"There is somezuhat in the winde."
Damon and Pythias, in Old Plays, i. 193-
"Ther nys no creature so good, that him ne wanteth somewhat of the perfeccionin of God."-Chaucer (ed Wright), ii. p. 333.
" Ther where he was schotte another chappelle standes, and somwhat of that are."-R. of Brunne's Chror.
" He come to Pers there he stode And askede hym sum of hys gode, Sumwhat of hys clothing."-1.b., Hardlynge Symue.
"Thi brother hath sunzuhat ageins thee."-Wickliffe, Matt. v. 23 .
"Swmwhatt Icc habbe shæwedd 3 uw."-Orm. 958.
Some one replaced the O. E. sum man.
" Some one comes."-Longrellow.
"Some one among you all, Shew me herself or grave."-T. Heywood's Silver Age.

[^59]Robert of Brunne has sum oun (Handlynge Synne, p. 294) = some one; Robert of Gloucester has somewanne $=$ somewhom $=$ something.

Somdel $=$ somedeal, is very common for somewhat.

## Other some-

> "Other some [houses are made] with reede."-Hakluyt, p. 5040
> "Though some be lyes,
> Yet other some be true."-DodsLey's Old Plays, ii. p. 74.

## 218. All and some-

This phrase is exceedingly common in O.E. and is equivalent to all and one $=$ one and all, eack and all. It has also the force of wholly, altogether; hence it is supposed that some $=$ same, O.E. samen, together. Cp. Spenser's phrase ' Light and dark sam."
"Stop your noses, readers, all and some."-Dryden, Abs. and Achith.
"This other swore alle and some."-Specimens of E. Eng. p. 106.
"The rale ys wrytyn al and sum, In a boke of Vitas patrum."
R. of Brunne's Handlynge Synne, 1. 16i.
" For everi creature go schal By that brugge, sum or al."

Old Eng. Miscell. p. 225.
sy tmesis we have "all together and sum."
" Whyle they were alle together and sum."
Play of the Sacrament, 1. 402.
" Neither fals witnesse thou noon bere
On no mannys matere, al neither somme."-Baby's Boke, p. 49.
" (I have) nother witte enough zwhole and scme."
Damons and Pythias, Old Plays, p. 232.
219. One (O.E. an, on, ${ }^{*}$ oon $\left.{ }^{*}\right)^{1}$ is the numeral one with extended applications. It is used substantively and adjectively. When used substantively, it has a plural ones and a genitive one's, and may be compounded with self.

[^60][^61]"To yeelde one's heart unto commiseration is an effecte of facilitie, tendernesse, and mecknesse."-Montaigne's Florio, p. 2.
" Well, well, such counterfeit jewels Make true ones oft suspected."-WEBSTER's White Devil.
220. Sometimes one $=$ some one :-
"But here cometh one; I will withdraw myself aside."-LtLy's Sapho. and Phao.
" I hear one's pace, 'tis surely Carracas."
R. Taylor's The Hog hath lost his Pearl.
"For taking one's part that is out of power."-King Lear, i. 3.
The earliest use of a genitive of one in its present acceptation is found in the Morte d'Arthur, p. 10.
"Lady thy sleve thou shalt of shere, I wolle it take for the love of thee : So did I nevyr no ladyes ere, But one ${ }^{\text {I }}$ that most hath lovide me."
The plural of one occurs as early as Chaucer's time, as-"we thre ben al oones." ${ }^{2}$
221. Chaucer, too, uses one as a substantive with an adjective where it seems to be a substitution for wight, or person, as-

> "I was a lusty oon."-Chaucer, 1. 6ı87.

In the thirteenth century we find thing, properly neuter, used in a similar manner :-
"So that this tuo lithere thinge: were at one rede." ${ }^{3}$ Early Eng. Poems, p. 50.
One is used for thing in Chevelere Assigne, p. 15:
" But what broode on is this on my breste, And what longe on is this that I shall up lyfte."
But this one is sometimes used instead of repeating the noun, as-
"Who embrace instead of the true [religion] a false one," where Hooker, Book v. ch. ii. 2, omits the indefinite one.
So Milton, Areop. p. 45 : "It is a blank vertue, not a pure."
This usage does not explain the employment of one when it is preceded by a demonstrative, as the, this, \&c., as the mighty one. Here the older writers employed the definite adjective with a final (inflexional) e, as the gode. The loss of this ending no doubt led to the introduction of one to supply its place. See p. 104.
222. The indefinite one, as in one says, is sometimes, but wrongly, derived from the Fr. on, Lat. homo. It is merely the use of the numeral one for the older man, men, or me.

[^62]In the "Morte d'Arthur" man is replaced by one when it relates to a feminine word. ${ }^{2}$

> "He is mane of such apparayle, Uf hym I have fulle mychelle drede."-Morte d"Arthur, p. 69.
" Launcelot than full stylle stoode, As man that was moche[1] of myght."-Ib. p. I 18.
"And one that bryghiest was of ble." 1 /b. p. 142.
223. Sometimes he occurs where we use one ${ }^{2}$ -
"As ke that ay was hend and fre."-Morte d'Arthur, p. 23 .
Gower uses he, she, instead of the old relative after as, as -
"As he that was of wisdom slih."-Specimens of E. Eng. p. 367.
"As sche relich dede hir hole intent." -Ib. p. 374.
Cp. As " "he that had been stur
As one that had been sturied in his death,
To throw away the dearest thing he own'd."-Macbeth, i. 4.
"As one who would say, come follow . . "
Beiphegor in Lamb's Dram. Poeits, Bohn's Series, p. 532.
224. Man.

Of .... and murderess, they "For your name,
As if a man $[=0$ one] should spit against the wind;
The filth returns in 's [= one s] face."-WEBSTER's While Devil.
"As though a man would say," \&c.-Drant's Serenons.
"Vor the more that a mon can, the more wurthe he is."-Robt. of Glouc.
"Vor, bote a man conne Frenss, the telth of him lute."-Ib.
"So, that man that zoolde [= siquis] him wul arise, delicacy is to despise." Gower, iii. 4 a.
" Off thys hataille were to telle A man that it wele undyrstode
How knyhtes undyr sadels felle."-Morte d'A rthur, p. 89 .
225. Appositional use of one.

This use of one has become archaic, having been replaced by the partitive genitive.

[^63][^64]Specimens of E. Eng. p. xsa.
It seems to be emphatic after the substantive-
" Satisfaction can be wone but by pangs of death."
Twelfth Night, iii. 4.

[^65]
# "And save his good broadsword he weapon had none."-W. Scotr. <br> "For pok (poke, bag) no sek no havd he nar." <br> Specimers of E. Eng. p. 155 . 

In O.E. (fourteenth century) non (none) and no are used much in the same way as an and $a$; none before a vowel, \&c.
"It toucheth to non other se."
Maundeville, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 203.
"Sche doth non harm to no man."- 16 .
"And for to fall it hath rone impediment."-Hawes, P. of P. p. 44.
230. No, though equivalent to not one, is often united to a plural substantive ; thus we find in O.E. :
"None monekes."-Specimens of E. Eng. p. 8o. "Non houses."-Maundrville, p. 63. I.e. No monks; no houses.

None is sometimes followed by other-
"Thou shalt have none other gods before me."-Deut. v. 7.
In O.E. it is always non other, not no other, which would liave sounded as strangely as a other.

23I. No one ( $=$ not one one) is tautological, but it evidently replaces the O.E. no man, no zuight. ${ }^{1}$

Sometimes not one is used in its place.

## 232. Nothing, pl. Nothings.

"The other sorts of devils are called in Scripture dxmonia . . . . and which St. Paul calleth nothings: for an idol, saith he, is nothing."-Hobses, v. p. 2 Irr.

## 233. Aught, naught-

Aught, ought (O.E. awiht, aht). Avint contains the prefix A (as in O.E. d-ge-hwylc = aghwylc, each; af-re = ever; Ahzuather, aivther, ather, outher, ag-hwather, agther $=$ either ; $\hat{a}-n=$ one; e-n-ig, any), the-original signification of which is ever, ave (cp. Goth. aizw, Gr. $\alpha \in l$; Goth. ai-r, O.E. a-r, ere), and wiht (Goth. waihts), wight, whit, creature, thing, something.

> "For augheI know, the rest are dead, my lord."
> Webster's Appius and Virginia.
"Amongst so many tnousand authors you shall scarse find one by reading of whom you shall be anywhit better."-Burton's Mel. p. 7.

Cp. "To luite ne to muche wikt."-Castel of Love, 1. 638.
"Thereof he ete a lytelle wight."-Morte d'A $^{\prime}$ -
"Syr Evwayne, knowistow any wight ?"-Ib. p. 5.

[^66]234. Naught (O.E. nâwiht, ${ }^{1}$ naht) and not (O. E. nogit, nat) are negative forms of aught, so that not a whit is pleonastic; in a whit the $a$ must not be considered as the article ; $a$ whit $=a w h i t=$ awiht or aught.

Naughts is used by Green (p. 157) for nothings-
" We country sluts of merry Fressingfield Come to buy needless naughts to make us fine."
235. Enough (O.E. genóh, ynough, ${ }^{*}$ ynow, ${ }^{*}$ enow, anow. Cp. Goth. ga-nohs, Ger. genug). ${ }^{2}$

Sometimes we find enow used as a plural, corresponding to O.E. inohe, inowe, in which the plural is marked by the final e.
"Have I not cares enow and pangs enow? "-Byron.
"Servile letters anowe." 3-A reopagitica, p. 40.
236. Any (O.E. anig $=$ ullus) is an adjective formed from the numeral $a n$, one. In O.E. we find $\propto n i$, $\ltimes i, c i$, for $a n y$, and Lajamon has genitives, aies and aines.

$$
\text { "Ay two had disches twelve."-Sir Gaw.: Specimens, p. } 224 .
$$

We find a distinction in O. E. made between the singular eny, any, and the plural anie, anye.

> "And 3if that eni him wraththed adoun he was anon."
> Rost. or Glovc.
237. Compounds are anyone, anybody, anything, O. E. any wight, any man, eny persone.
"Unnethe eni mon mi3te [h]is bowe bende."-Robt. of Glouc.
Ary originally had a negative narig $=$ nullus, of which a trace exists in the twelfth century.
"Niss uani thing" = there is not anything.-Orm. i. 6x, 1. 1839. "Nani man" $=$ not any man. -1 1b. p. 216. We use none instead:-"And as I had rather have any do it than myself, yet surely myself rather than none at all."-Aschan's Scholenzaster, p. 157.
238. Each [O.E. $a-l c=A-g c-l i c$; from $\mathbb{A}$ (see remarks on $a u g h t$ ), and lic = like; later forms are elc, elch, euch, $u c h, y c h, e c h, i l k]$.

It is properly singular, but has acquired a distributive sense. It is used substantively and adjectively.

[^67]"Of the fruit
Of each tree in the garden we may eat."-Milton's P. L. ix. 661.
" Simeon and Levi took each man his sword."-Ger. xxxiv. 25.
"Cloven tongues sat upon each of them."-Acts ii. 3.
"At cach his needless heavings."-Winter's Tate, ii. 3.
"I a beam do find in each of three."-Love's Labour's Lost, iv. 3.
Each and every are used alike by Spenser:-
"She every hill and dale, each wood and plaine did search."-F. Q. i. 2, 8.
239. Each is sometimes used for both-

> "And each though enemies to either's reign
> Do in consent shake hands to torture me."
> Shakespeare's Sonnets, 28.

Hence it often happens that each is wrongly followed by pronouns and verbs as the plural number.

> "Each in her sleep theneselves so beautify."-Rape of Lucrece, 404
> "How pale each worshipful rev'rend guest
> Rise from a clergy or a city feast."-PopE's Imit. Hor. ii. 75 .
240. In the twelfth and following centuries, we find each followed by $a n, a$, on $=$ one.
"Illc an unnclene lusst,
Annd ille an ifell wille."-Orm. 5726.
"Heo bigonne to fle echon."-Robt. of Gloucester, 378.
" Ilkon of the knightes had a barony."-R. of Brunne's Chronicle.
"And ilka lym on ilka syde."-Hampole's $P$. of $C$.
"Thei token ech on by hymself a peny."-Wickliffe, Matt. xx. so.
"For hit clam uche a clyffe."-Allit. Poems.
Each one is a remnant of this, as-
"The princes of Israel, being twelve men: eack one was for the house of his fathers." ${ }^{\text {-Num. i. } 44 .}$

Each other sometimes = each alternate, every other, as -
"Each othe wordc I was a knave."-Gammer Gurtori's Needic.
241. Every is a compound of ever and each, O. E. aver-elc, ever$i l k$, ever-each. It was unknown in the oldest stage of the language ; it occurs in Lajamon (ab. 1200).
" Everilc he keste, on ilc he gret (wept)."-Gen. and Ex.
"Everich" of you schul brynge an hundred knightes."
Chaucer's Kinightes Tale, 1. 903.
${ }^{2}$ Here means each one [of you (two)].

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" Carry bym aboute to every of his friendes."
Fardell of Facion, 8.
"Every of your wishes."-Antony and Cleop. ii. 2.
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We also find O.E. evrichon, everilkan = everyone. Everybody and everything are later formations.

The history of ewery having been forgotten in the sixteenth century, we find every cach, like not a whit, no one, \&c.
"Every each of them hath some vices."-Burton's Mel. p. Gor.
242. Either [O. E. (1) aro-hwather, aither, aither; (2) A-hwather, dwother; ather, owither, outher, other. ] ${ }^{1}$
$E i=a_{g}=A$, see remarks on aught; -ther $=$ comparative suffix. See § II3. So either $=$ any one of two, and sometimes it is used for eack and both, but not so frequently in modern as in O.E.
"The king of Israel and Jehoshaphat sat either of them on his throne."2 Chrorr. xvili. 9.

Either has a possessive form-
"Where either's fall determines both their fates."
Rowe, $L$ wcan, vi. 13.
"They are both in either's power."-The Tcmpest.
"Confute the allegations of our adversaryes, the end being truth, which once fished out by the harde encounter of either's argumentes . . . . both partes shoulde be satisfyed."-Gosson's Schoot of Abuse, p. $4^{6 .}$
243. Neither (O. E. nahzuother, nuther, nouther ${ }^{2}$ ), the negative of wither as naught is of aught.

> " Now new, now old, now both, now neither, To serve the world's course, they care not with whether."
> AsCHAm's Scholemaster, p. 84 .
"Neither of either, I remit both twain." Love's Labour's Lost, v. 2.
"Truth may lie on both sides, on either side or on neither side."-Carlyle's French Revolution, iii. 163.
"Ac hor nether ${ }^{3}$. . . in pur ri3te nas."-Robt. of Gloucesterp, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 68.
I Cp. "For outher he sal the tane hate
And the tother luf after his state,
Or he sal the tane of tham mayntene"
And the tother despyse."-HAmpole's P. of C. p. $3^{2}$.
" Bot with the world comes Dam Fortone,
That ayther hand may chaunge sone."-Ib. p. 36.
2. Cp. "He ne had nouther strenthe ne myght,
Nouther to ga ne ghit to stand."-Ib. p. 13.

It is sometimes, but wrongly, found with a plural verb, as -

> "Thersites" body is as good as Ajax'' When reither are alive."-Cymb. iv. 2.
244. Other (O.E. D-ther, Goth. an-thar $=$ one of twe, second and other. See remarks on numerals, p. 114).

This word originally belonged to the indefinite declension, making its plural othre, leaving other as the plural when the final $e$ fell away, as
" Whan other are glad
Than is he sad."-Skelton, i. 79.
"Some other give me thanks."-Comedy of Errors, iv. 3.
"Some other . . . . do not utterlie dispraise learning, but they saie," \&c.Aschan's Scholemaster, p. 54 -
"Awei sche bad alle othre go."
Gower, in Specimens of E. Eng. p. 374.
Cp. "Other some."-Acts xvii. 18.
A new plural was afterwards formed by the ordinary plural suffix $s$.

Other's (O.E. othres, otheres) is a true genitive.
" Let ech of us hold up his hond to other, And ech of us bycome otheres brother."

Chaucer, Specimens of E. Eng. p. 353
"And eyther dranke of otheres bloode." - Gest. Rom. p. 19.
245. Another is a later form ; ${ }^{1}$ sum other was once used instead of $i$.
246. One another, each other, are sometimes called reciprocal pronouns; but they are not compounds: in such phrases as "love each other," "love one another," the construction is, each love the other, one love another; each and one being subjects, and other and another objects, of their respective predicates.

In O.E. we find each to other = to each other.
We sometimes find ayther other $=$ either other, in this sense, as-
" Uche payre by payre to plese ayther other:"-Allit. Poems, p. 46.
" Her eyther had killed other."-Piers Plowman, Pas. v. L. x6s.
Other what $=$ what else occurs in Dodsley's Old Plays, ii. 67,
" What strokes he bare away, or
Other-what was his gaines, I wot not."
"And (he) speketh of other-hzeat."-Ancren Riwle, p. 96.
247. Else (O.E. elles, the genitive of the demonstrative root, ele, el, as in Lat. alius ${ }^{2}$ ).

[^68]We find it in O.E. after ought, nonght, as in modern English. I: has acquired an adverbial sense $=$ aliter. Cp. O.E. owiht elles $=$ aught of other $=$ aught else.

> " A pouder * * * * I-maad, outicr of chalk, outher of glas, Or som what elles."-Chaucer, 1. 13078.
> " Bischopes and bachclers, bote maistres and doctours, Liggen in London in lenten and elles." Piers Plowman, Prol. 1. 9x.
> "So, what for drede and ellis, they were both ensuryd." Tale of Beryn, 1. $\mathbf{x 2 2 2}$.

In the oldest English we had elles hwat $=$ aught else. ${ }^{1}$
Sometimes we find not else $=$ nought else.
" In Moses' hard law we had Not else but darkness. All was not else but night."-Dodsley's Old Plays, p. 39.
24. Sundry (O.E. synderio $=$ singularis, sundrie, sondry $=$ separate) is now used in the plural-
"For sundry weighty reasons."-Macbeth, iii. $x$, iv. 3 .
It occurs, however, sometimes as a singular in older writers in the sense of separate.
"Alc hefde sindri moder."-La3. i. 114 .
"Thor was in helle a sundri sted."-Gen. and EXx. 1984, p. 57.
Șo in Shakespeare-
Or "The sundry contemplation
As You Like It, iv. $\mathbf{x}$.
249. Several is used for sundry-
"To every several man."--fulius Casar, iii. 2.
"Two several times." - Ib. v. 5.
" Truth lies open to all, it's no man's several."-Ben Jonson.
"By some severals."-Winter's Tale, i. 2.
250. Divers (O.E. diverse, O.Fr. divers), and different (Fr. different), and O.E. sere, ser (O.Fr. seure, separated ; seurle, separation), are sometimes employed for sundry.
251. Certain (from Lat. certus) is singular and plural, and is used substantively and adjectively.
"A certain man planted a vineyard."-Mark xii. x.
"There came from the ruler of the synagogue's house certaitr which said."Ib. v. 35 .
" To hunt the boar with certain of his friends."-V"cuzs and Adonis.
Cp. its use as a substantive in the following passages:-
"A certay" of varlettes and boyes."-Berner's Froissart.
"A certain of grain."-Fardell of Facion.
" Beseeching him to lene him a certeyn
Of gold, and he wold quyt it him ageyn."-Chaucer, 1. 12952.
" 3 it I wolle have another certayre."-Gesta Rom. p. 23.

## CHAPTER XIII.

## VERBS.

252. Verds may be classified into (a) transitive, requiring an object, as "he learns his lessons;" (b) intransitive, requiring no object, as "the sun shines."
253. Transitive verbs only have a passive voice.

Transitive verbs include (I) reflexive verbs, in which the agent and object are identical, as "he hurt himself," "I'll lay me down;" and reciprocal verbs, as "to love one another." These verbs admit of no passive voice.
254. Intransitive verbs include a large number that might be classed as frequentative, dininutive, inceptive, desiderative, $\mathbb{\&} \mathrm{C}$.

Some intransitive verbs, by means of a preposition, become transitive, and may be used passively, as "the man lauglis at the boy," " the boy was laughed at by the man."
Some intransitive verbs have a causative meaning, and take an object, as "he ran," "he ran a thorn through his fiuger." See Causative Verbs, under the head of Verbal Suffixes.
255. Some transitive verbs are reflexive in meaning, though not in form, and appear at first sight as if used intransitively, as "he keeps aloof from danger," i.e. he kecps himself, \&c. Cp. "he stole away to England."

Sometimes a transitive verb has a passive sense, with an active form, as "the cakes ate short and crisp" = the cakes were eaten short and crisp.
256. Intransitive verbs may take a noun of kindred meaning or object, called the cognate object, as to die a death, to slecp a sleep, to run a race.
257. Verbs used with the third person only are called impersonal verbs, as methinks, me scems, it rains, it snows.
258. The verb affirms action or existence of a subject, under certain conditions or relations, called voice, mood, tense.

In some languages verbs undergo a change of form for voice, mood, and tense : the root being modified by certain suffixes before the person-endings are added.
Thus in Latin the root reg is modified by the suffix $s,{ }^{1}$ to express time or tense; so the root reg becomes by this addition a stem to which the person-ending $-i$ is suffixed; whence rexi, the perfect of reg-ere.

Voice.-There are two voices-(a) the active, in which the subject of the verb is represented as acting, as "I love John;" (b) the passive, in which the subject of the verb is represented as affected by the action, as "I am loved by John."

The passive voice has grown out of reflexive verbs; but our language has never developed, by change of the verb, a reflexive form, so that the passive voice in English is expressed by the passive participle combined with auxiliary verbs. The Scandinavian dialects have a special form for reflexive verbs. See p. 6.
259. There are five moods-(1) the indicative makes a simple assertion, states or asks about a fact ; (2) the subjunctive expresses a possibility : it is sometimes called the conditional or conjunctive mood; (3) the imperative denotes that an action is commanded, desired, or entreated ; (4) the infinitive states the action without the limitations peculiar to voice, tense, \&c., and is merely an abstract substantive; (5) participles are adjectives.
260. The tenses are three-(a) present, (b) past, (c) future.

An action may be stated with reference to time, present, past, and future, as (a) indefinite, (b) continuous and imperfect, (c) perfect, (d) perfect and continuous.

Hence we may arrange the tenses according to the following scheme:-

| Tense | Indefinite. | Imperfect Continuous. | Perfect. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Perpect } \\ \text { Continuous. } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | I praise. | I am praising. | I have praised | I have been praising. |
| Past ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | I praised. | I was praising. | I had praised. | I had been praising. |
| Future | I shall praisc. | I shall be praising. | I shall have praised. | I shall have been praising. |

[^69]261. For I praise, I praised, we sometimes use I do praise, I did praise, which are by some called emphatic present and past tenses.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { I am going to praise is called intentional present. } \\
& \text { I was going to praise } \\
& \text { I shall be going to praise ", ", past. } \\
& \text { future. }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

In English we have only change of form for the present and past ; the other tenses are expressed by the use of auxiliary verbs.
262. There are two numbers, singular and plural ; three persons, first, second, and third.
263. Conjugation.-Verbs are classified according to the mode of expressing the past indefinite tense, into (a) strong verbs, $(b)$ weak verbs.

Strong Verbs. -The past tense of strong verbs is expressed by a clange of vowel only; nothing is added to the root.

Weak Verbs.-The past tense indefinite of weak verbs is expressed by adding to the verbal root the syllable $d$ or its euphonic substitute $t$. The $e$ before $d$ unites the suffix to the root.
The distinction between strong and weak verbs must be clearly borne in mind.
(x) Strong verbs have vowel change only; their past tense is not formed by adding $-d$ or $-t$.
(2) The passive participles of strong verbs do not end in $-d$ or $-t$, as do those of weak verbs.
(3) All p. participles of strong verbs once ended in $-e n(-n)$; 1 but in very many p. participles this suffix has dropt off. The history of a word is sometimes necessary to be known before its conjugation can be decided.
Weak verbs sometimes have a change of vowel, and the addition of $-d$ or $-t$, as bough-t; but this change is no result of reduplication.

## STRONG VERBS.

264. All strong verbs in the Aryan languages originally formed their perfect tense by reduplication, that is by the repetition of the root : thus from the root bhug $=$ bend was originally formed ( $\mathbf{I}$ ) bhug-bhug; (2) bhu-bhug (by shortening the first root); then by adding the personal ending (3) bha-blioga, which is the Sanskrit verb $=I$ bowed or bent, and this is found in Gr. $\pi \epsilon \in-\phi \in v \gamma a$, Lat. fitgi ( = fufugz), Goth. baug, O.E. beith, English bowed.

In the Latin, Gothic, and O.E. forms, the vowel change shows that the initial letter of the root has gone, and the first consonant is

[^70]the-initial of the reduplicated syllable. Thus, Latin, $f_{u g i}=f_{u}+$ $f u g-i=f u+u g-i .1$

Thus, we see, the perfect of facio was probably formed: (1) fa-fac-i, (2) fofic-i, (3) fcici, (4) feci.

In languages belonging to the Teutonic group, we have even clearer examples of reduplication, as well as of the loss of it.

The verb iutd (past definite of hold, O. E. heald-an) was originally heold; but Gothic preserves the fuller form, hai-hald; O.H.Ger. hiall (i.e. heihall) ; Ger. hiell. ${ }^{2}$

In our verb held the first $h$ is the reduplicated letter. The vowel $c$ is the result of the union of the vowel of the reduplicated syllable with that of the root.
265. The several stages would be ( I ) ha-hald, (2) ha-hild, (3) haild, (4) held. ${ }^{3}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Cp. Goth. haitan }=\text { to call } \cdot \text {. perf, haihait. } \\
& \text { O.E hatans " . . ", heht, het. } \\
& \text { Goth. redan }=\text { to red̉e (advise) ", rairóth. } \\
& \text { O. E. rdedan " . . . " redrd. } \\
& \text { Gorh. Ittan }=\text { to let . . . . ", lailst. } \\
& \text { O.E. letan ".... ", leort (=lcolt ; r for I). } \\
& \text { Goth. laikan }=\text { to leap . . . " lailaik. } \\
& \text { O.E. lăan " . . . " leola } \\
& \text { O.E. on-dradan }=\text { to dread. " on-dreord. }
\end{aligned}
$$

266. In Old English we have two verbs that preserve the reduplicated syllable and the initial root letter-
(1) Did, the past tense of $d o, \mathrm{O}$.E. dide, O. Sax. dë-da. It belongs, therefore, to the class of strong verbs.
We have a cognate root in tiAn $\mu \kappa$, and Lat. do; Sansk. dha. The Sans. perf. is dadhhu $=$ Lat. dedi.
(2) Hight-

> " An ancient fabric rais'd $t$ ' inform the sight, There stood of yore, and Barbican it hight."-DrvDen.
> "That wretched wight
> The Duke of Gloucester, that Richard hight."
> SACKviLLe, Duke of Buckingham.
> "Johan hight that oon, and Alayn hight that other."
> CHAUCER, The Recve's Tale.

Behight $=$ promised. So little was this form understood in the sixteenth century that we actually find behighteth = promiseth, used by Sackville, as if from 2 present'behight: cp. ought and must, originally past tenses which have acquired a present meaning.

Hight $=$ zuas called is the past indefinite of the O.E. halar, hate, hote, to call, corresponding to Goth. haihait. See § 265 .

[^71]
## 267. Division I. Class 1 .

The first division of strong verbs includes those whose past tenses clearly point to an original reduplication; the vowel of passive participles undergoes no change. ${ }^{1}$

|  | Pres. | Past. | P.p. |  | Pres. | Perfect. | P.p. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) | fall | fell | fallen | O.E. | fealle | feoll | feallen |
|  | hold behold | held beheld | held beholden* | " | healde. | heold | bcalden |
|  | hang | hung | hung hangen* | " | hange | hêng | hangen |
|  | gang, go | - | gone | " | gange | geong | gangen |
| (2) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sweep } \\ & \text { hate } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { swep* }^{\text {hight }} \end{aligned}$ | swepen* hoten* |  | swâpe hâte | sweop | swâpen <br> hâten |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | hêt |  |
|  |  |  | blown known | ", | blâwe | bleow cneow | blâwen cnâuen |
|  | crow | crew | crown | ", | crâwe | creow | crâwen |
|  | sow | sew* | sown | " | sâwe | seow | sâwen |
|  | mow | mew* | mown | " | mâwe | meow | mawen |
|  | throw | threw | thrown | ," | thrâwe | threow | thrâwen |
| (3) | let | $\begin{aligned} & \text { let }^{* 2} \\ & \text { leet* } \end{aligned}$ | leten* | " | láte | leort, leot, lêt | lxiten |
| (4) | sleep | slep* | slepen* | " | slåpe | slêp | slæ̇pen |
|  | leap | lep* | lopen* |  | hleâpe | hleop | eâpen |
|  | beat | lecp** | beaten | " | beâte | beot | beâten |
|  |  | beet* |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | hew | beat hew* | hewn | " | heâwe | heow | heâwen |
| (5) | row | rew | rowen* | " | rôwe | reow | rôwe |
|  | grow | grew | grown | , | grôwe | grew | growen |
|  | How | flew | flown | ", | flowe | fleow | fôwen |
| (6) | weep | wep* | wepen* | " | wêpe | weop | wêpen |

(I) Many verbs once belonging to this division have either become obsolete or have adopted a weak form for the past tense and p. participle, as-

Well (O.E. weallan, to well up), fold, walk, low, row, span, leap, sweep, weep.

In the provincial dialects we find strong forms of some of these verbs still in use, as to row, past rew, p.p. rowen; to leap, past lop,

[^72]loup, P. p. loupern; to weep, past wep; to sleep, past slep; to beat, past bett (Scotch). Cp.:-
"Some to the ground were lopers from above."-SURREY, REn. ii.
"She brouhte the greyn from hevene to erthe and seew it. The erthe ther it was sonve was never ered."-Pilgrimage, p. 43.
"For while they befolden together as thorns." -Nahum x. ra
"And sighing sore, her hands she wrung and folid."
Sackille's Induction.
(2) Let (past), though strong in form, is weak as regards its pronunciation; it is weak in the p.p.: beat is weak in pret., but strong in p.p.
(3) Hew, sow, mow, have now weak past tenses, but strong passive participles, as well as weak ones.
In the Bible we have p.p. hewn and hewed.
The provincial dialects have strong forms, as hew = hewed, sew $=$ sowed, mew $=$ mowed, snew $=$ snowed.
(4) Hung (past) $=$ O.E. heng; it has also a weak past, hanged, and a weak p.p. hanged. In O. E. we find hangian, a derivative, and weak verb, making its past tense hangode.
(5) Some passive participles have sprung from the past tense, as hung $=$ hangen $;$ held $=$ holden $;$ fell $=$ fallen (Shakespeare, Lear, iv. 6).

Others have contracted forms of p.p., as sown $=$ sowen, \&c.
268. The second division of strong verbs includes those that have vowel change in the past tense and in the passive participle.
These verbs were of course originally reduplicate, hut the evidence is not so clear as in the first class of verbs. Cp. set ( $=$ did sit), Goth. sat, with Sansk. sa-sad-a (pl. sed-ima), Lat. sed-i; bound (O.E. band), Goth. band, Sansk. ba-bardh-a. ${ }^{2}$
Here the fast tense contains the original vowel, while the vowel $a$ of the present tense has been weakened to $i$ : so such verbs as give, help stand for more ancient roots, as gaf, hals, which in the preterite preserve the original root vowel.

Sometimes the root of the present is strengthened by an infixed letter, as ga-n-g. go, sta-n-d, bri-n-g, thi-n-k. Cp. Lat. fiv-n-do, tik-n-do, \&c.
269. Division II. Class I. ${ }^{2}$


[^73]| X1II.] |  | STRONG VERBS. |  |  |  |  | 59 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. melt |  |  | P.р.molten | Pres. melte | O.E. |  | $\underset{\text { P.P. }}{\text { Polten }}$ |
|  |  | ${ }_{\text {Paste }}{ }_{\text {mal }}$ |  |  | Prerf. sing: mealt | Perf. pl. multon |  |
|  |  | molt* |  |  |  |  |  |
| (2) | yield | yold* | yolden* | gilde | geald | guldon | golden |
|  | swell | yald** swoll]* | swollen | swelle | sweal | swullen | swollen |
|  |  | swall* |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | swim | swam | swum | swimme | swamm | swumimon | sw |
|  |  | clamb* clomb ${ }^{*}$ | clomben* |  |  | clumbon | clumb |
| be-gan spin |  | began | begun | on-ginne | ongann | ongunnon | ongunnen |
|  |  | spun span* | spun | spinne | spann | spunnon | spunnen |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { win } \\ & \text { run } \end{aligned}$ |  | wan | won | winne | wan | wunnon | wunnen |
|  |  | ran | run | rinne | ran | runnon | runnen |
| bind |  |  |  | yrne | arn | urnon | men |
| find |  | bound | bound | binde | band | bundon | bunden |
|  |  | found | found | find | fand | fundon | funden |
| wind |  | ground | ground | grinde | grand | grundon | grunden |
|  |  | wound slunk | wound slunk | winde | wand | wundon | wunden |
| drink |  | drank | drunk | drince | dranc | druncon | druncen |
|  |  | shrank | shrunk | for-scrince | -scras | scruncon | scruncen |
| sink |  | sank | sunk | since | sanc | suncon | suncen |
| stink |  | stank | stunk | stince | stanc | stuncon | stuncen |
|  |  | sang | sung | singe | sang | sungon | sungen |
|  |  | sprang | sprung | springe | sprang | sprungon | sprungen |
| sting |  | stang | stung | stinge | stang | stungon | stungen |
| swing |  | swung | swung | swinge | swang | swingon | swungen |
|  |  | wrung | wrung | wringe | wrang | wrungon | wrungen |
|  |  | rang clang |  | hringe <br> clinge | hrang <br> clang | hrungon <br> clungon | hrungen <br> clungen |
| cling |  | clang* | dungen* | clinge | clang | - |  |
|  |  | dung* |  |  |  |  |  |
| (3) | carve | carf* | corven* | ceorfe | cearf | curfon | corfen |
|  | starve worth | starf* warth* | storven* worthen* | steorfe weorthe | stearf wearth | sturfon wurthon | storfen worthen |
|  |  | worth* |  |  |  |  |  |
| burst |  | burst | burst | berste | bearst | burston | borsten |
|  |  | barst* | borsten* |  |  |  |  |
| thrash |  | brast** | bursten* |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | throsh* | throshen* | thersce | thearsc | thurscon | thorscen |
|  | figbt | fought | fought | feohte | feaht | fuhton | fohten |

Here the root vowel was originally $a$, weakened to $i$ in the present and to $u$ in the past pl. and p.p.
(I) To this division once belonged milk, yield, swallow, bellow, stint, burn, mourn, spurn, ding, carve, starve, burst.

Cp. "Forth from her eyen the crystal tears out brast."
Sackville's Induction.
"When Adam dalve, and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?
Up start the carle and gathered good,
And thereof came the gentle blood."
Br. Pilkington (Parker Soc. p. 125).

[^74](2) We have many verbs with mixed strong and weak forms; the past tense may be weak and the p.p. strong, as, past, clomb, and p.p. climbed; or the past may be strong and the p.p. weak, as, past, delved, p.p. dolven. Clemde occurs in fourteenth century English.

## Swollen has almost given way to swelled.

Helped has replaced the old past, holp; ${ }^{1}$ holpen as a p.p. is archaic, helped being now the regular form. ${ }^{3}$
(3) Sometimes a strong participle is used simply as an adjective, as drunken, molten-" a drunken man," "mollen lead;" in Micah i. 4, molten is used as p.p.; so in Elizabethan writers, sunken, shrunken.
"And the metalle be the hete of the fire malt"-Capgrave, p. 9. "My heart is molt to see his grief so great."

Sackville's Induction.
"As gold is tried in the oven, wherein it is molien."-Coverdale.
(4) The verbs swim, begin, run, drink, shrink, sink, ring, sing, spring, have for their proper past tenses swam, begar, ran, \&ic, preserving the original a; but in older writers (sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) and in colloquial English we find forms with u, which have come from the passive participles. ${ }^{3}$

Sometimes we actually find the past tense doing duty for the passive participle; thus Shakespeare has swam $=$ suum (As You Like It, iv. i), drank = drunk.
(5) Many of those forms that originally had a in the past now have u, as spun, slunk, stunk, stung, flung, swung, wrung, clung, and strung (a modern form). "Sche flang from me" (Heywood's Proverbs, C. 4). Slang (I Sam. xvii. 49).

[^75]A few verbs have $o u$, which has arisen out of an 0 or $o o$, as bound $=$ O.E.bond $=$ band; found $=$ fond $($ foond $)=$ fand; ground $=$ grond $($ groond $)=$ grand .
(6) Wound = past of to wind (up), but winded = past tense of to zerind a horn ; but Walter Scott has "his horn he wound" (Lady of the Lake).
(7) Foư̧̆̆ten occurs in Henry V. iv. 6: cp. "a hard-fonghten feeld" (Heywood's Proverbs, E. III). Starven p.p. is used by Sackville: "her starven corpse" (Induction) ; "hunger-starven" (Hall's Satires) ; but "hunger-storved" (Gam. Gurton's Needle).

## 270. Division II. Class II.

|  |  |  |  | O.E. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. <br> (I) steal | Past. stole | P.r. stolen | Pres. stele | Perf. stæl ${ }^{1}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { P.p. } \\ & \text { stolen } \end{aligned}$ |
| (2) come | came | come | cume | com | cumen |
| (3) bear | bore bare | born borne* | bere | bær | boren |
| shear | shore* | shorn | scere- | scær | scoren |
| tear | tore | torn | tere | tær | toren |
| (4) speak | spoke | spoken | sprece | sprec | sprecen |
|  | spake | spoke* | brece | brec | brocen |

(1) The old verbs quell (kill) and nim (to take, rob) once belonged to this class.
(2) In O.E. (fourteenth century, especially in the Northern dialects) we find the old $a$ represented often by $a$ :-stal, bar, schar, tar, spac, brac: bare, brake, spake, are archaic ; in the Southern dialect we find $a$ often changed to $e$, as ber (beer), spec, brek.
(3) Born and Borne, though the same words, have different meanings : borne $=$ carried; born $=$ brought forth.
(4) In older writers, and sometimes in modern poetry, we find the $n$ falling away (as in Old English) : hence broke ${ }^{2}=$ broken; spoke $=$ spoken $;$ slole ${ }^{4}=$ stolen .
Shakespeare has "I have spake" (Henry VIII. ii. 4).
(5) Shakespeare, Cymbeline, v. 5, has becomed.
(6) The $e$ in stole, \&c., is no inflexion; it merely marks the length of the preceding vowel.

[^76]| Pres. | Past. | P.P. | Pres. | O.E. | P.p. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (x) give weave | gave wove | given woven | gife <br> wefe | $\begin{aligned} & \text { geaf } \\ & \text { wzef } \end{aligned}$ | gifen wefen |
| (2) eat | ate | eaten | ete | zt | eten |
| get | eat | eat | ongite ${ }^{1}$ | ongeat | ongeten |
| get | gat* | got |  | ongear | ongeten |
| งit | sat | sat | sitte | sxt | seten |
| tread | trod | trodden | trede | trad | treden |
| bid | bade | bidden | bidde | bxd | beden |
|  | bid | bid |  |  |  |
| - | quoth | - | cwethe | cwath | cweden |
| (3) - | was | - | wese | was | wesen |
| (4) wreak | - | wroken* |  |  |  |
| lie | lay | lain | licge | lxg | legen |
|  |  | lien* |  |  |  |
| see | saw | seen | seo <br> (seohe) | seah | ge-sên |

(I) Quoth, originally perfect, is now used as a present tense; the root of the present is seen in bequeathe. The present of was is lost; we have parts of the verb in zuast, zuere, zeert.
(2) Mete (measure), wreak, ${ }^{2}$ weigh, fret, knead, once strong, have become weak. Cp.
"We shall mot all unzuroken die this day."-SURREY, EEr. ii.
(3) In O.E. (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find gaf and gef, et and eet, quath and quod.
(4) Bid = bade, arises out of the passive participle; beden bidden occurs in the fifteenth century; so seten for sat.

Boden $=$ bidden, invited. "It happed hym that was boden, in lokyng on the walle to espye this ymage," \&c. (Caxton's Golden Legend, fol. celxix. col. 1). This verb properly belongs to Class VI. (Div. II.). ${ }^{3}$

Heywood uses the phrase "a geven horse" (Proverbs, B. ii.).
(5) Walter Scott has eat $=$ ate.
(6) Gat is used by Shakespeare for got (past).
(7) The ending of the passive participle has sometimes fallen away, as in bid = bidden; sat, the past indef., is used instead of the old participle seten.

[^77]Double forms of the p.p. are eaten and eat; ${ }^{1}$ bidden and bid; ; ${ }^{2}$ gotten an: got; ${ }^{3}$ trodden and trod; ${ }^{4}$ woven and wove; ${ }^{5}$ lien ${ }^{6}(=$ O. E. $i$-leyc $=$ iseien $=g_{0}$-legen) and lain.

## 272. Division II. Class IV.

| Pres. |  |  | Pres. | O.E. | P.p. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stand | stood | stood | stande | stôd | standen |
| swear | swore | sworn | swerige | swôr | sworen |
| shape | shope* | shapen* | scape | scôp | scapen |
| heave | hove* | hoven* | beble | ahôf | hafen |
| grave | grove* | graven* | grafe | grôf | grafen |
| shave | shove* | shaven* | scafe | scôf | scafen |
| lade | - | laden | hlade | hlôd | hladen |
| wash | wesh* | washen* | wasce | wôsc | wascen |
| bake | book* | baken* | bace | bôc | bacen |
| shake | shook | shaken | scace | scôc | scocen |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken | - | - | - |
| take | took | taken | tace | tôc | tacen |
| awake | awoke | awoke | wace | wôc | wacen |
| ache | ok* | oken* | ace | Oc | acen |
| draw | drew | drawn | drage | drôh | dragen |
| gnaw | gnew** | gnawn* | gnage | gnôh | gnagen |
| langh | lough* | laughed | hleathe | hlôh | hleahten |
| slay | slew | slain | sleahhe | slôh | sleahten |
| wax | wex* | waxen* | weaxe | weôx | weaxen |

(I) Fare, wade, ache, gnaw, wash, step, laugh, ${ }^{7}$ yell, wax, ${ }^{8}$ bake, ${ }^{9}$ have at present weak past tenses and passive participles.

Cp. "Sapience this bred turnede and book it."-Pilgrimage, p. 44.
Beuk $=$ book occurs in Ramsay's Gentle Shepherd, ii. $z$.
Gnew $=$ gnawed occurs in Mirrour for Magistrates, vol. ii. p. 74 .
"Gnezv and fretted his conscience."-Tyndall's Prol. to Yonas, Parker Soc. p. 456. Shakespeare has begrazur, Tam. of Shrew, iii. 2.
"He flay a lion."-Capgrave.
"Both flayz and hedid" (= beheaded).-Ib. Chron. p. 6z.
"Zoroaster lowe as no child did but he."-1b. p. 26.
"There he reesh me, there he bathed me."-Pilgrimage, p. 3.
"And in here owen blood han washen hem."-Ib.
"She . . . heff up hire axe to me."-Ib. p. 11 r.
"She said her hede oke." - La Tour Landry.

[^78](2). (a) Strong forms have been replaced by weak ones in the past tense of shape, grave, shave, lade, \&c. Strong participles of these are occasionally met with, as shapen (Ps. li. 5), graven (p.p. in Byron, Chilite Harold, i. ; as an adjective, in English Bible, Ex. xx. 4 ; p.p. Ps. xcvii. 7 ), loaden = laden (Milton, P. Lost, iv. 14 ; Bacon, Essays). "The heavier the ship is loaden, the slower it goes" (Bp. Pilkington, p. 208). Cp.
" And masts wnshave for haste."-Surrey, AEr. iv.
"With such weapons they shope them to defend." $-I b$. AEr. ii.
(b) We have also double forms, a strong and a weak one, in the past tense, as woke and waked; hove and heaved.
(c) We sometimes in Shakespeare find forms of the past tense employed for the p. participle, as arose (Comedy of Errors, v. I) $=$ arisen; shook (King Fohn, iv. 2 ; Othello, ii. I ; Milton, vi. 219) = shaken ; forsook (Othello, iv. 2) = forsaken; took (Tivelfth Night, iv. 2; fulius Casar, it. I) $=$ taken; mistook (Fulius Casar, i. 2 ; Milton, Arcades) = mistaken; shaked, too, occurs for shaken (Ps. cix. 25 ; Troilus and Cressida, i. 3 ; Henry V. ii. I ; Tempest, ii. 1).
(3) Stood, p.p. is properly a past tense; the old p.p. $=$ standen. Cp. the p.p. understanden and understand.
"Have I understand thy mind?"-CoverdaLe, p. 457.
(4) Sware occurs in Mfark vi. 23, Titus Andronicus, iv. I ; but the $a$ is not original, but probably has come in through false analogy with spake, bere, \&c.

## 273. Division II. Class V.

|  |  | O.E. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. <br> (I) shine | Past. <br> shone | $\begin{aligned} & \text { P.p. } \\ & \text { shone } \end{aligned}$ | Pres. scine | Perf. sing. scân | Perf. $p l$. scinon | P.P. <br> scinen |
| (2) drive shrive thrive rive | drove shrove throve rove | driven shriven thriven | drife scrife $\qquad$ | dtâf gescraf | drifon gescrifon | drifen gescrifen |
| (3) bite smite write a-bide chide | bot* <br> smote <br> wrote <br> abode <br> chode* <br> chid | bitten smitten written abiden* chidden | bite smite write bide cide | bât <br> smát wrât bâd câd | biton <br> smiton <br> writon <br> bidon <br> cidon | biten <br> smiten <br> writen <br> biden <br> ciden |
| ride cljue | rode <br> slode* <br> slid | ridden $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { slidden } \\ \text { slid }\end{array}\right\}$ | ride <br> Esslide | râd <br> âsladd | ridon <br> âslidon | riden <br> âsliden |


|  |  |  |  | O.E. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. stride | Past. strode | P.p. stridden | Pres. strithe | Perf. sing. strâth | Perf. pl. strithon | P.P. |
| writhe | writhed | writhen* | writhe | wrâth | writhon | rithen |
| rise | rose | risen | â-rise | ârâs | ârison | ârisen |
| arise | arose | arisen |  |  |  |  |
| strike ${ }^{\text {x }}$ | struck | struck | strice | strâc | stricon | stricen |

(1) Gripe ( $=$ grasp), spew, slit, wreathe (writhe), sigh, rive, once belonged to this class, but have become weak : riven is used as an adjective.
(2) Most of these verbs have changed the $\mathscr{d}$ of the past into 0 , as shone, drove, \&c.

The older forms sometimes occur, as drave (in English Bible and Shakespeare), smate, \&c. "Absalom drave him out of his kingdom" (Coverdale) ; "strake me with thunder" (Surrey, Air. ii.); " he with his hands strave to unloose the knots" (16.).
(3) Just as we found sung $=$ sang, suoum $=$ swam, properly participial forms, so we find, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, driv $=$ drove, smit $=$ smote, rid $=$ rode, ris $=$ rose, writ $=$ wrote. Cp. bit for O.E. bot, boot.
(4) Shortened forms of the participles occur, as writ $=$ written (Twelfth Night, v. 1 ; Richard 1I. ii. 1), smit $=$ smitten, chid $=$ chidden. slid $=$ slidden.

Chid, O.E. cidde, chidde, is a weak form: "the eldest chidde with the knight" (La Tour Landry, p. 19). ${ }^{2}$
(5) Past tenses are also used for the participles, as drove $=$ driven (2 Henry VI. iii. 2), rode $=$ ridden (Henry IV. v. 3 ; Henry V. iv. 3), smote $=$ smitten $($ Coriolanus, iii. r), wrote $=$ zoritten $($ Lear, i. 2; Cymbeline, iii. 5), arose $=\operatorname{arisen}$ (Comedy of Errors, v. 1).
(6) Weak forms of the passive participle are rived ( 7 ulius Cosar, i. 3), strived (Rom. xv. 20), shrived (Kïng Gohnt, ii. 4).
(7) In shone for shinen, abode for abiden, struck for stricken, we have the substitute of the past tense for the p. participle.
(8) For stricken and driven we sometimes find strucken (Milton, ix. 1064; Fulius Casar, iii. 1) ; "the clock hath strooken four"

[^79](Lodge's A Looking-glass for London) ; droven = drizen (Antory and Clcopatra, iv. 7).
(9) Shined $=\operatorname{shone}(E z c k$. xliii. 2). Shinde occurs in the fourteenth century.
(Io) Wreathen, as adjective, occurs in Timon of Athens, iii. 2, "that sorrow-ureathen root;" "wureathen cables" (Surrcy, Enn. iv.). It occurs in The Necufounde World as a p.p. : "out of which may be wrong or writhen water." Abiden occurs in the Finglish Bible. "He had bid" $=$ abiden $=$ endured (Sidney's Arcadia) .

## 274. Division II. Class IV.

| Pres, |  |  | O.E. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| creep <br> shove | crop** shof* | cropen* shoven* | scope | creâp sccáf | crupon scufon | cropen scoien |
| cleave | clave* | cloven | cleofe | cleâf | fon | clofen |
| shoot seethe | shot | shotten* sodden sod | sceote seothe | sceât seâth | $\begin{aligned} & \text { scuton } \\ & \text { sudion } \end{aligned}$ | scoten soden |
| choose | ch | closen | ceose | ceâs | curon | coren |
| freeze lose | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Chose } \\ & \text { froze } \\ & \text { lost } \end{aligned}$ | frozen losen* | freose forleose | freâs forleâs | fruron forluron | froren <br> forloren |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { suck } \\ & \text { fyy } \end{aligned}$ | sook* <br> flew | soken ${ }^{*}$ flown | sûce fleoge | seâc <br> fleâh | sucon flugon | socen flogen |

(I) Many verbs belonging to this class have become weak, as creep, ${ }^{1}$ cleave, seethe, lose, chew, rue, brew, dive, shove, slip, lot, fleet, reek, smoke, bow, suck, lock. Cp.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "She shof me with hire knyf." - Pilgrimage, p. } 132 \text {. } \\
& \text { " Shoven on thilke spere."-Ib. p. s30. } \\
& \text { " Ther sook. never noon suich milk."-1b. p. } 205 \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) Creep, cleave, bereave, flee, lose, shoot, shorten the long vowel of the present in the weak form of their past tenses.
(3) Clave and cloven occur in the English Bible (Genesis xx. 3, Ps. 1xxviii. 15, Acts ii. 3) ; cleft, p.p., in Micah i. 4 (cp., too, a "cleft palate," but a "cloven foot ") ; chase in Surrey's poems; ${ }^{2}$ shotlen

[^80]occurs in shotten herring (i ITenry IV.) = a herring that has deposited its roe ; forlorn (Milton, Paradise Lost, ii. 6-15) $=$ forlosen. ${ }^{1}$ Milton has frore, Spenser frome $=$ frozen; froze $=$ frozen occurs in Shakespeare, 2 Henry IV. i. 1. Sodden occurs in English Bible; cp.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "Twice sod simplicity."-Love's Labour's Lost, iv. } 2 . \\
& \text { " Sodden water."-S. RowLanDs. } \\
& \text { " Beer he protests is sodded and refined."-Ib. } \\
& \text { " With rost or sod."-lb. }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

(4) Cleave, O.E. clifian, to cling to, adhere to. This is properly a weak verb, and its past tense is cleaved; yet clave is sometimes found (Rut/ i. 14 ; Acts xvii. 34).
(5) Flee has a weak past tense and p.p., Aled.
275. Some verbs that have now a strong past tense, or p.p., were once weak, as-

| Pres. <br> (1) wear | Past. wore ware* | P.p. worn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (2) stick | stuck <br> stack * | stuck |
| (3) betide | betid ${ }^{2}$ | betid |
| (4) dig | $\begin{aligned} & \text { dug } \\ & \text { digged* } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { dug } \\ & \text { digged* } \end{aligned}$ |
| (5) hide | hid | hidden hid |
| (6) spit | $\begin{aligned} & \text { spit }^{*} \\ & \text { spat }^{2} \end{aligned}$ | spitten* <br> spitted* <br> spat |
| (7) show | - | shown <br> shewed <br> showed |

Stack $=$ stuck is used by Surrey :
"Which he refused and stack to his intent."-Virgil, ii. (ed. Bell), p 170.

[^81]
## WEAK VERBS.

276. The verbs of the strong conjugation we have seen form the past tensc by a change of the root-vowel; weak verbs by means of a suffix $-d$ or $-t$.

This suiffix is a mutilated form of the auxiliary verb do. ${ }^{1}$
In O.E. the perfect of do was di-dc, in O.Sax. deda. In O.E. the suffix of the perfect of weak verbs was $-d e$; in Goth. and O . Sax. -da. In the plural (Gothic) it has a longer form-dedum: thus from Goth. nasian, O.E. nerian, to save, was formed. Goth. nasi-da, ${ }^{2}$ I saved; nasi-dedum, we saved. O.E. nere-de, I saved; nere-don, we saved.
277. The suffix -de was originally united to the root by means of a vowel $e$ or $0,{ }^{8}$ as O. E. ner-e-de $=$ saved; $l u f-0-d e=$ loved.
In Gothic and Old High German there were three conjugations of weak verbs, according to the vowel that was between the root and suffix of the perfect:-
(1) The first conjug. had $i$, as Goth. nas-i-da, O.H.Ger. ner-ita, O.E. ner-e-de $=$ preserved.
(2) The second conjug. had $\delta$, as Goth. salb-a-da, O.H.Ger. sals-d-ta, O.E sealfo-de $=$ anointed.
(3) The third conjug. had ai Goth., 2 O.H.Ger. Goth. hab-ai-du, O.H.Ger hap-l-ta, wanling in O.E.
${ }_{27} 8$. The oldest English had two conjugations of weak verbs-
(1) With vowel $e$ between root and suffix.
(2) , " 0 , ",
279. Modern English has in reality only one class with vowel e between root and suffix.

In thank-e-d, past indef, thank $=$ root ; $e=$ connecting vowel; and $-d=$ contracted form of did.

In thank-e-d, p.p. thank = root ; $e=$ connecting vowel ; $d=$ participle suffix cognate with Gothic -da(s), Lat. -tu(s) (=to-s), Gr. -to(s), Sansk. -ta(s). 4
(i) This $e$, however, is only preserved when the suffix $d$ is to be united to a root ending in a dental, as wett-e-d, head-e-d, waft-e-d.

[^82]In all other cases, though we write ed, we drop the $e$ in pronunciation, and loved, praised, \&c., are pronounced as $100^{\prime} d$, prais'd, \&c.

If the verb ends in a flat consonant or a vowel, $e d$ has the sound of $a$; if in a sharp consonant, it has the sound of $t$.
(a) There are some orthographical variations-(x) the change of $y$ (not preceded by another vowel) into $i$ before the addition of ed, as carry, carried; (z) doubling of a simple consonant after a short vowel before ed is added, as beg, begged, zuet, weett-ed.
$T^{\prime}$ is sometimes written for $d$, especially in older writers, after combination of consonants, as smell, smelt; pass, past; burn, burnt. We also meet with it after $p$ and $k$, as whipt, dropt, krockt.
(b) The loss of the final e (of O.E. -ed-e) no longer enables us to distinguish the past tense from the passive participle.
(2) Before the addition of the suffix $d$ the radical vowel is shortened, as hear, heard; flee, fled. ${ }^{1}$
(3) If a root ends in $d$, the suffix $d$ is dropped and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as-

| Pres. | Past. | P.p. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lead | led | led ${ }^{2}$ |
| feed | fed | fed |
| read | read | read |
| spread | spread | spread |

(4) $t$ has replaced $d$ in some verbs ending-
(a) In $-l$ (to indicate more clearly that the radical vowel is shortened), as

| feel | felt | felt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| deal | dealt | dealt |

(b) In a combination of liquids, as-

| smell | smelt | smelt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| burn | burnt | burnt |

(5) Sometimes $d$ and $t$ are found side by side, as -

| $\because$ mean | meant | meant |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | meaned <br> dreamt | meaned <br> dreamt |
|  | dreamed | dreamed |

I In O.E. these verbs retain the fuller form, as-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { herde (perfect), herd (p.p.). } \\
& \text { fledde " fled }
\end{aligned}
$$

2 O.E. lade; lad-de; lad-ed: later forms, lede; ledde (ladde); iled, ilad.
(i) $t$ replaces $d$ after $p, f, v, c h, s$, and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as-

| Pres. | Past. | P.r. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| creep | crept | crept |
| sleep | slept | slept |
| weep | wept | wept |
| cleave | cleft | cleft |
| pitch | pitched | pitched |
|  | pight | pight |
| lose | lost | lost |

Elizabethan writers have the following old forms :-

| blench <br> drench <br> ming (mingle) | blent <br> dreynt <br> meynt | blent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dreynt |  |  |
| meynt |  |  |

Chaucer and other writers of his time have-

| singe | seynde <br> sprenge (sprinkle) | spreynte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| spynd |  |  |
| quenche | spreynd, spreynt |  |
| clenche (clinch) | queynt | cleynte |

(7) Verbs ending in $l d, n d, r d$, change the $d$ into $t$ in the past tense and passive participle, and the surix disappears, as -

| build | built (builded) | built ${ }^{\text {( }}$ (builded) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gild | gilt (gilded) | gill (gilded) |
| bend | bent | bent (bended) |
| rend | rent | rent |
| gird | girt | girt |

(8) The suffix $d$ is dropped after $d, t$, the combination $s t, r t, f t$, and the present, past, and passive participles have the same form, as-

| rid <br> shred | rid <br> shred | rid <br> shtred |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| light | cut | cut |
| cut | light | light |
| putt | put | put |
| shut | shut | shut |
| cast | cast | cast |
| left | left | left |
| lhart | hurt | hurt |

[^83]Some of these verbs have the regular form, as lighted, quitted, \&ic., and in O.E. of the fourteenth century we find cutted, putted.
(9) Vowel change with the addition of (a) d , (b) $\mathbf{t - 1}$

| Pres. | Past. | P.r. | Pres. | O.E. | P.p. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) tell | told | told | telle | tealde | teald* |
| sell | sold | sold | selle | sealde | seald |
| (b) reck | rought** | rought* <br> raught* 2 | rece | rôhte | rôht |
| reek | raught sought | raught sought | sêce | sôhte | sôht |
| teach | taught | taught | twe | tachte | tacht |
| stretch | stretched | stretched | strece | streabe | streaht |

The $t$ for $d$ in sought, \& $\mathbb{E}$., is due to the fact that the $c$ is a sharp guttural, so was the ch in teach, reach, Sc.; the guttural afterwards passed into a continuous mute on account of the following $t$.
280. Catch, caught, caught, does not occur in the oldest English; in Lā̃amon we find cacche, cahle, calht. This verb has conformed to the past tense of teach, \&c.

Analogous to the above forms we find fraught (adj.), as well as freighted; destraught and distracted.
" His head dismember'd from his mangled corpse, Herself she cast into a vessel fraught With clotter'd blood."-SAckville's Duke of Buckinghar:.
"And forth we launch full fraughted' to the brink."-Induction.
281. The following verbs are peculiarly formed-

| PRES. | Past. <br> clothe | P.f. <br> clothed, clad |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| clothcd, clad |  |  |

In the oldest English clathian $=$ to clothe ; perf. clathode, p.p. clathod.

In the thirteenth and following centuries we find clothich, clethen, to clothe ; perf. clethed, clothed, and clud, cled; p.p. clothed, clad.

Clad seems to have arisen out of analogy with such O.E. forms as ladde $=$ led, radde $=$ read. ${ }^{3}$

[^84](2)

| Pres | Past. | P.p. |
| ---: | :--- | :---: |
| make | made | made |
| O.E. mace | macode | macod |

The loss of $k$ occurs as early as the thirteenth century.
(3) Have, had, had; O.E. habbe, hafde, hafod.

In later periods we have, in the past tense, hafde, hedde, hadde; in p.p. ihaved, ihafd, yhad.
(4) Say, said, said; O.E. secge, sagde (sade), sagd (sed).

Lay, laid, laid; O.E. lecge, legede (lède), leged, led.
In say, lay $(=$ O. E. seye, leye), $y$ is a softening of $c g$.
(5) Bring, brought, brought ; O.E. bringe, brohte, broht.

In the oldest English we also find bring, brang, brungen, from which we see that the root is brang = brag.
(6) Buy, bought, bought; O.E. bycge, bohte, boht.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, to buy $=$ buggen ; so $y$ represents $g$, which appears again in the past tense.
(7) Think, thought, thought ; O.E. thence, thohte, thoht.

The root of this verb is thak: cp. Goth. tagkja, I think (= tha-nkia) ; cp. ga-n-ge, sta-n-d, \&c.
(8) Methinks, ${ }^{1}$ methought, methought ; O.E. thyncth, thathe, gethuht.
(9) Work, wrought, wrought ; O. E. zoyrce, worhte, worht.

The $i$ in O. E. wyrke has been changed under the influence of the $w$ to (1) $u$, (2) 0 ; cp. O.E. wurchen and worchen, to work.

Wrought is archaic, but in poetical composition is common ; worked is quite a modern form.

Went was originally the past tense of wend, O. E. wenden, to turn, go ; it replaced O.E. eo-de, zede, yode.

## Verbal Inflexions.

282. The elements in the verb are (1) the root; (2) mood suffixes; (3) tense suffixes; (4) the person-endings (the mood and tense suffixes come before the person-endings) ; (5) connecting vowel between root and suffixes.
[^85]In the Aryan dialects the original person-endings were pronouns, which in their full form were for (a) the singular:-(1) $M a$, (2) $t v a$, (3) $t a$ : these were weakened to (1) $m i$, (2) $t i$, (3) $t i$; and $t i$ of the second person became further weakened to $s i$.
(b) The plural suffixes are compounds: (1) mas (= ma-si), (2) tas (= ta-si), (3) an$t i ; m a-s i=1+$ thou $=$ we; $t a-s i=$ thou + thou $=y \mathrm{ye} ; a n-t i^{2}=h e+$ he $=$ they.
The subjunctive (or conjunctive) in the Teutonic dialects was originally an optative mood, the original suffix of which was $y a=$ go. In Gothic this suffix was weakened to $i$ in present subj. and became $j a$ in perfect subj.
The Sansk. subj. of root, as, to be (Eng. a-m), s-ya-m (=as-ya-m), Gr. einv (= $\ddot{\epsilon} \sigma-\gamma \eta-\mu)$, Lat. $\operatorname{sim}(=e s-i e-m)$, O.E. $s y(=a s-y=a s-y a-m)$.
Of the mode of forming tense we have already spoken. See §§ 264, 267.

## 283. (1) PRESENT INDICATIVE.

In some verbs the person-endings were added at once to the root without any connective vowel, as in the verbs go and do :-

Go, O.E., sing., gî, gâst, gâ-th $=$ go, goest $(=g o-s t)$, goeth, goes $(=$ gos $)$.
pl. ga-th, gath, gâ-th $=g o, g o, g o$.
Do, O.E., sing., $d \hat{\theta}-m$, dê-st, $d \hat{e}-t h=d o$, do-st, do-th (does).
pl. $\quad d \hat{o}-t h, d \delta-t h, d \delta-t h=d o, d o, d o$.
In other verbs a connecting vowel came in between the root and the suffixes; this often disappears in modern English :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Goth. O.E. } \\
& \text { Singular. } 1 \text { bair-a, ber-e }=\text { bear. } \\
& 2 \text { bair-i-s, }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { ber-est } \\
\text { bir-st }
\end{array}\right\}=\text { bear-e-st. } \\
& 3 \text { bair-i-th }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { beme-th } \\
(b i r-t h)
\end{array}\right\}=\text { bear-e-th (bear-s). } \\
& \text { Plural. I bair-a-m, ber-a-th = bear. } \\
& 2 \text { bairi-th, ber-a-th = bear. } \\
& 3 \text { bair-a-nd, ber- } a-\text { th }=\text { bear. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the Old English dialects (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find in the plural-

Southern. Midland. Northern.
I ber-eth, ber-en, bere (ber).
2 ber-eth, ber-en, beres (bers).
3 ber-eth, ber-en, beres (bers).
I $A n=a n a-s$, this, that, he (Sansk.).
$=$ In O.H. Ger. we have older forms:-


The Gothic bair-a, O. E. ber-e, stand for more primitive forms, bair-a-m, ber-e-m ; but the $m$ having disappeared in the oldest forms of these languages, the connecting vowel represents the person-ending.

In Chaucer this e was a distinct syllable, as "I diredē nought that eyther thon shalt die," \&c. In modern English it has wholly disappeared; in the plural the connecting vowel and suffixes are lost.
$\ln$ O.E. (as in Lasamon) we find $i(=y e=y a=a y a)$ the connecting vowel in the infintive, as $l 00-i-e n, l o v-i-e, \& c$. and in the present indic. as $I c h$ lov-i-e, \&c. It is still heard in infinitives in the Sonth of England, as to milky, to mozoy, \&ic.
Many strong verbs lost this suffix $i$ and doubled the final consonant, as O.E. ( 1 ) sitte, ( 2 ) sit-est, (3) sit-eth $=(1)$ sit, (2) sittest, (3) sitteth.
The silent $e$ in some few verbs like havee, liz-e, which adds nothing now to the length of the preceding vowel, was once sounded.

## 284. (2) PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

This mood nriginally had a tense suffix which came between the connecting rowel and the personal ending. ${ }^{1}$

| Goth. | O.E. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Singular. I bair-a-u, | ber-e $=$ bear. |
| 2 bair-a-i-s, | beree $=$ bear. |
| 3 bair-a-i, | ber-e $=$ bear. |
| Plural. : bair-a-i-ma, | ber-en $=$ bear. |
| Singular. i sok-ju-u, | sec-e $=$ seck. |
| \&c. | \&c. |
|  |  |

## 285. (3) PAST INDICATIVE.

Strong verbs in O.E. lost their connecting vowel, as :-

\[

\]

286. Weak verbs added the syllable $-d e(-t e)$ to the root ; in O.E. the connecting vowel was lost in some verbs (see $\$ \S 277-279$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Goth. } \\
& \text { O.E. } \\
& \text { Singular. I sok-i-da }=\text { soh-te }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& 2 \text { sok-i-des }{ }^{2}=\text { soh-test }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& 3 \text { sok-i-da }=\text { soh-be }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& \text { Plural. I sok-i-dedus-M: }=\text { soh-to-n }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& \text { \&c. \&c. \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^86]287. In the fourteenth century we find the second persun-ending ee of strong verbs sometimes changed to est, as thou gave and thon gavest (in Wiekliffe we find holpedist). The old plural $-24 n,-o n$, became enn, and the $n$ frequently falls away, so we have held-en and helde, \&c. In modern English the older endings have all disappeared.

## 288. (4) Past subjunctive.

In strong verbs the connecting vowel was $e=y a$, as:-


In some weak verbs it is lost :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Singular. } \mathbf{x} \text { s } \delta k-i-d e d-j a-t e=s \delta \hbar-t e=\text { sough-t. } \\
& 2 s \delta k \text {-i-dêd-ei-s }=s \delta b \text {-te }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& 3 \text { sok-i-dedd-i }=\text { s } \delta \mathrm{k} \text {-te }=\text { sough-t. } \\
& \text { Plural. I sok-i-ded-t } i-m a=\text { sori-ton }=\text { sough-t. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In Gothic pl. we see, (x) sok root, (2) $i$ connecting vowel, (3) ded tense suffix, (4) $j a$ mood suffix, (5) $u=u m=m i$ ( $m a$ ) personal suffix.

288*. The Imperative is properly no mood, but is merely the root + a personal pronoun in the vocative.
In O.E. the imperative plural ended in $-t h$, as $g o-e t h(\Rightarrow g(i-t h$ ), go ye; ber-eth ( $=$ ber-at $)$, bear ye.

## Personal Endings.

289. (1) The suffix of the first person was originally m , as in $a-m$. In O. E. we have, gedo-m, I do ; beom, I be; geseam, I see.

In the Northern dialect of theoldest period we find $m$ weakened to $n$ in perfect as Ic githerdun, I heard.
(2) The suffix of the second person was originally $\mathrm{s}(=s i=t i=$ $t a=t v a)$. In O.E. we sometimes find $s$ for $s t$, as thou haces $=$ thou hast, which is the regular inflexion of the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century ; but the ordinary person-ending is $s t$.
This termination is subject to certain orthographical modifications :-
(a) After a final $e$-st is added, as love-st.
(b) $Y$ (not diphthongal) is changed to $i$ before st, as criest.
(c) In verbs of one syllable with a short vowel, the final consoant is dorabled, as beggest, puttest.
(d) After a sibilant, palatal ( $s, c h$ ), est is added, as bless-est, teach-est, \&c.

In the strong perfects in O.E. the pronoun $s i(=t v a)$ becomes $c^{1}$ (O.Sax. $-i$; Goth. $-t$ ). We have replaced this by est. (See § 2S2.)

In weak verbs the ending is -st ; but we often find $s$ in O. E. as thue brohtes, thu sealdes, \&.c.

The subjunctive mood has lost the personal suffix -st.
(3) The suffix of the third person is th $(=t a=$ that, he). This as early as the eleventh century was softened to s. We have two forms; $s$ in common use, th arcbaic and still used in poetry.
The verbal suffix $\mathbf{s}$ is subject to the same euphonic changes as the plural $\mathbf{s}$ o? substantives.

The plural suffixes (1) -ma-si, (2) -ta-si, (3) -an-ti are in O.E. reduced to one for all three persons. (See § 283.)

Spenser and Shakespeare have a few examples of the plural een, ${ }^{2}$ as "they marchen" (Spenser, i. 4, 37). Cp.

> "And then the whole quire hold their hips and laugh, And waxen in their mirth."-Midsummer Night's Dream, ii. 1.
> "For either they [women] be full of jealousy, Or masterfull, or loven novelty."
> Burton's Anatomy of Mel. p. 604.

It was archaic in Spenser's time, and is seldom used by Hawes or Sackville.
In O.E. when the pronoun followed the verb the inflexion was dropped, as $\mathrm{g}^{\text {:t }}$ $\mathrm{ge}^{e}$, ye go.

## Infinitive Mood.

290. (1) The infinitive is simply an abstract noun. In O.E. the sign of the infinitive was the suffix -an, corresponding to Sanskrit nouns in ana, as gam-ana-m, from gam, ${ }^{3}$ to go.
(2) In Sanskrit the dative and locative singular of these abstract nouns (as gam-an-dyr, dat. ; gamant, loc, were used as infinitives. In Greek we have this suffix


In Gothic the infinitive (-ana) lost its case sign and the suffix $a$, and therefore always ends in -an; in Frisian and Old Norse it is shortened to -a; in Dutch and German it is eer.
(3) In the twelfth and following centuries the $a n$ was represented by $e n$ or $e$, as breken and brekë $=$ to break.

[^87]In Wickliffe the suffix is for the most part e; in Chaucer and Piers Plowman we find -en and - . When this $e$ became silent the infinitive was only distinguished by the preposition to, ${ }^{1}$ which is not found before the simple infinitive until about the end of the twelfth century.
" No devel shall 3ow dere."-Pass. vii. 1. 34
"Shall no devel at his ded-day deren hym a my3te."-Ib. vii. 1. sa
"To bakbite and to bosten and bere fals witnesse."-1b. ii. 1. 8a.
Spenser and Shakespeare have an archaic use of it, as "to killen" (Pericles).

> " Henceforth his ghost . .
> In peace may passen over Lethe lake."-F. Q. 1. iii. 36.

In Hall's Satires we find "to delven low," p. 51.
(4) The infinitive had a dative form expressed by the suffix $e, 2$ and governed by the preposition $t$.

This is sometimes called the gerundial infinitive : it is also equivalent to Lat. supines; as, etanne, to eat ; faranne, to fare, go.
(5) In the twelfth century we find this ending enne (arne), confounded with the participial ending exde (inde), 3 as:-
"The synfulle [man fasteth] for to clensen him, the rihtwise for to witiende his rihtwisnesse."-O.E. HOM., Second Scries, p. 57.

In the fourteenth century, we find " to zuitinge" $=$ to wit $;$ " to seethinge" $=$ to be sodden (Wickliffe, Text A.), 4 the participle ende (-imde) having taken also the form -inge. Cp. "This ny3te that is to comyng" (Tale of Beryn, 1. 347).

In the fifteenth and following centuries these forms dropt out of use.
(6) The extract given above shows that the dative infinitive assumed the form of the simple infinitive as early as the twelfth century.

In the Ormulum there is only one suffix en for both infinitives.
We find a trace of this dative infinitive in Sackville-
"The soil, that erst so seemly was to seen, Was all despoiled of her beauty's hue."-Induction.
"And with a sigh, he ceased
To tellen forth the treachery and the trains." -Duke of Buckingham.
291. Because the suffix -ing represents ( r ) -ung in verbal substantives, as shozuing (O.E. sceazvung) ; (2) ende or -inde in present participles, as " he is coming," "he was coming" (O.E. he is cumende, he wes cumende), and sometimes represented the dative infinitive eenne (rarely the simple infinitive en) : English grammarians have of lave years put forth a theory concerning the infinitive, which is neither supported by O.E. usage nor is in accordance with the general direction of changes that have taken place in regard to these suffixes.

[^88]( x ) It is said that the infinitive in enn has become -ing in such phrases as, "seeing is believing" $\mathrm{I}=$ to see is to believe. We know, however, (a) that the suffix-en disappeared in the sixteenth and following centuries, and (b) that it rarely in O.E. writers became -inge or -ing. ${ }^{2}$

It is quite evident that although, in sense, seeing and believing are equivalent to infinitives, they are not so in form, but merely represent old English substantivis in -ung.

Cp. "The giving a bookseller his price for bis book has this advantage."Selden's Table Talk. "Quoting of authors is most for matter of fact."- 16 .
Such a phrase as "it is hard to heal an old sore" may be converted into "it is hard healing an old sore;" but tracing phrases of this kind only as far back as the suxteenth century, we find that a preposition has disappeared after the verbal substantive, as :- "it is yll healyng of an olde sore" (Heywood's Proverbs), and "it is evill waking of a sleeping hog " (Ib.).
(2) It is asserted that the O.E. infinitive in erne actually exists under the furm -ing in such expressions as "fit for teaching," "fond of learning," \&cc.
In these cases we have merely the verbal nouns governed by a preposition doing duty for the old dative infinitive, and altogether replacing it.
We have seen, 100 , that the old infinitive in -ing, as 10 witinge, \&c. died out about the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century.
(3) These forms in -ing are no doubt very perplexing, and we find even Max Müller thrown off his guard by them. He says, "The vulgar or dialectic expression "he is a going' is far more correct than "he is going."." If so, "he was a going," \&c. must be more correct than "he was going;" but on turning to similar expressions in O.E. writers we find "he is gangende" and "he wes gangende" used to translate Latin present and imperfect tenses; but never "he is on gangung," he is a going. 3 Compare
"The thyef is comynde."-A3erbite, p. 264.
"That Israclisshe folc was walkerde."
O.E. Hom., Second Series, p. 51.
${ }^{1}$ Mr. Abbott quotes "Returning were as tedious as (to) go o'er."-Prov. iii. 4 This form is also used as object. :-

> " If all fear'd drowning that spy waves ashore, Gold would grow rich, and all the merchants poor."

Tourneur, The Revenger's Tragedy.
2 In the Romance of Parteray, written about the beginning of the sixteenth century, or the latter part of the fifteenth, we find instances of infinitives in -ing for en after an auxiliary verb (which we never get in modern English), but we can draw no conclusions from the exceptional usage of so late a work:-
"Our lorde will receyve hym of hys grace,
And off all hys syn yeuyng hym pardon "-(1. 1528).
"And (they) shall

Enlesing [ $=$ lesen] the Rewme and also the land "-(1.5625).
We also find in this work passive participles of strong verbs in -ing, -yng, instead of en, as tuking $=$ taken. In Elizabethan writers we find londing $=$ hoden $=$ laden, and beholding $=$ beholden. Shakespeare ( $\mathbf{1}$ Hen. IV.) has moullen = moulting $!$

3 In the dramatists of a much later period we find it, as-
"Your father is a going, good old man."-Shirley's Brothers.
The $a$ in these expressions was used before verbal substantives beginning with a consonant, and is a shortened form of an which was used before vowels; an is merely a dialectical form of on. (Cp. "Now off, now an." Wyatt's Poems, ed. Bell, p. 136.)
292. In O.E. writers after the Conquest we find the verbal noun with on, an, in, ${ }^{2} a$, employed ( x ) after verbs of motion, as "he wente on hunting," "he fell on sleeping," \&c.
(2) After the verbs is, zuas, to form present and imperfect tenses, with passive signification, "as "the churche was in byldynge" (ROBT. or Bnunne's Chronicles, i. cxcvii.), "as this was a doyng" (Morte d"Aythur, lib. II. c. viii.), "he rode in huntinge" (Gest. Romt.) Ben Jonson retains these expressions, and states that they have the force of gerunds.?

Cp. "I saw great peeces of ordinance makyng."-Coryat's Crudities.
"Women are angels, woooing ( $=$ in wooing)."-Tr. and Cr. i. 2.
(3) The verbal substantive with $a$ could be used after the verb be where no time was indicated, as "he is long a nsing" $=$ " he is long in rising."

In O.E. we could substitute an abstract noun with a different suffix, as "hr wente forth an hunteth" 3 = he went forth on hunting (or a hunting).

About the beginning of the eightrenth century we find the a frequently omitted, and it is now only allowed as a colloquialism.
(4) After verbs of motion the verbal subst. is not only preceded by on, an, a, but by to ${ }^{3}$ and of.
"If two fall to scufling, one tears the other's band."-Selden's Table Talk.
" A dog had been at market to buy a shoulder of mutton; coming home he met two dogs by the way that quarrell'd with him; be laid down his shoulder of mutton, and fell to fighting ( $=$ a fighting) with one of them; in the meantime the other dog fell to cating (an eating) his mutton; he seeing that, left the dog be was fighting with, and fell upon him that was eating ; then the other dog fell to eat 4 (= an eating) ; when he perceived there was no remedy, but which of them soever he fought withal, his mutton was in danger ; he thought he would have as much of it as he could, and, therefore, gave over fighting, and fell to eating himself." 16 .
(5) We usually abridge sentences containing the verbal substantive, so that it looks like a gerund, as "For the repealing of my banished brother,"s can now be expressed by "For repealing my banished brother."

Cp. "Up peyn of losing of a finger" = upon pain of losing a finger.-Capgrave's Chror. p. 195.

> IThe infinitive sometimes replaces it in Shakespeare, as-
> "Eleven hours I spent to write it o'er."-R ich. $I I I$. iui. 6.

Here, "to zurite" is equivalent to "in zuriting."
${ }^{2}$ See Marsh's Lectures on the English Language (ed. Smith), pp. 462, 472. In all the instances quoted by Marsh, the subject of the sentence preceding the verbal noun represents an inanimate object.

3 Old and New Test. in Vernon MS.
4 Nash (Peter Penniless) has "fall a vetayling." In Gammer Gurton's Needle we have "Hodge fell of swearing."

5 Quoted by Mr. Abbott, from $\mathfrak{f} u$ L. Casar, iii. I, who says that the expressions common in O.E. began to be regarded as colloquial in Shakespeare's time. Co. Touchstone's words in As You Like It, ii. 4:-
" I remember the kissing of her battes,
. . and the wooing of a peas-cod instead of her."

## Present (or Active) Participle.

293. The present participle is formed by the suffix -ing, which has replaced the O.E. -ende (end); -inde, -ande (and), ${ }^{1}$ as O.E. gî-nd, $d^{*} \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{-n d}=$ going, doing; comende, awepinde, rydande, \&c.

The suffix -ing arises out of -inde, and took place first in the Southern dialect during the twelfth century, though the older form did not die out until after 1340 .
La3amon has "goinde ne ridinge."
The Northern dialects carefully distinguished (as did the Lowland Scotch dialect up to a very late period) the participle in -and from the noun in -ing (O.E. -ung):

> "Than es our birthe here bygynnyng Of the dede that es our endyng; For ay the mare that we wax alde The mare our lif may be ded talde. Tharfor whylles we er here lyfand Ilk day er we thos dykand."-HAMPOLE, P. of C. p. 58 .

Ben Jonson's Sad Shepherd contains some passages written in imitation of the Northern dialect, and in it he makes use of the participle in and. "Twa trilland brooks" (act ii. 2), "a stinkand brock," "pleasand things," "while I sat whyrland of my brazen spindle," "barkand parish tykes," \&c.-Ib.

Chaucer rarely uses the participle in and; he has several instances of NormanFrench participles, as sufficant, consentant, \&c.

Spenser has glitterand, trenchand, but his use of them is archaic.
For Passive Participles, see p. 155, § 263, p. 168, § 279.

## Anomalous Verbs.

294 Be.-The conjugation of this verb contains three distinct roots-(1) as, (2) be (bu), (3) was.

| Present Indicative | Sing. ${ }_{\text {am }}^{\text {I }}$ | $\stackrel{2}{\text { art }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3 \\ \text { is } \end{gathered}$ | Pl. | $\stackrel{2}{2 r}$ | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... | Sing. be | be | be | PL | be |  |
| Past Indicative | Sing. was | $\begin{aligned} & \text { wast } \\ & \text { (wert) } \end{aligned}$ | was | Pl. | were |  |
| Subjunctive ... | Sing. ${ }^{\text {were }}$ | were | were | PL. | were |  |
| $\underset{\text { linfinive. }}{\substack{\text { be }}}$ | $\underset{\text { be }}{\substack{\text { Imperative. }}}$ |  | Pres. P being |  | assive bec |  |

[^89]
295. Am $=a r \cdot m$, that is $a s-m ;^{2}$ as is the root, $m$ the first personal pronoun.

[^90]Ar-t $=a s-t ; t=$ the second personal pronoun.
Is.-The root as is here weakened to is, and the suffix $t h$ or $t$ is dropped (cp. Goth. is-t).

Are $=$ ase, represents the old northern English aron, ${ }^{1}$ arn, er. It is of Scandinavian origin. Cp. O.N. em, I am ; ert, thou art ; er, he is ; er-um, we are; eruth, ye are ; eru, they are.
The O.E. s-ind $=$ Sansk. santi $(=$ assanti $)$; sindon is a double plural ; sunden occurs as late as 1250 ; sinden is in the Ormulum.

The root be was conjugated in the present tense, singular and plural, indicative, as late as Milton's time,

I be.
Thou beest.
O.E. (He beth or bes.)

We be, O.E. ben.
Ye be, " "
They be, ", "

The first person is found in the Enghish Bible. Compare
" If thou beest Stephano, touch me."-Tempest, ii. 2.
"If thou beest he."-Milton, Paradise Lost, i. 84.
The third person beth and bes were in use in the fourteenth century ; the latter with a future signification.
The pl. is very common, as:-
"We be twelve brethren."-Gen. xlii. 32.
"There be more marvels yet."-Byron, Childe Harold.
"As fresh as bin the flowers in May."-Peele.
$B$ in $=b e$ with $n$ as plural suffix.
In the present subjunctive, only the root $b e$ is employed, and all the inflexions at - lost.
296. Was.-The O.E. wesan, to be, is cognate with Goth. wisan; O.N. vera, to be, abide ; Sansk. vas, to dwell.

It is a strong verb, the old past tense being was ; the suffix of the first personal pronoun is gone, as in the preterites of all strong verbs.

Was-t.-We have seen that all strong verbs in the oldest English had the suffix $e$ for the second person singular. In the Gothic was-t we have an older suffix, $t$ (suffix of second person, as in $a r-t$ ), altogether lost in O.E.

But wast is not found in the oldest English; it is quite a late form, not older than the fourteenth century. ${ }^{2}$ The O.E. form was were (that is, zvese), ${ }^{3}$ from which we have formed, after the analogy of shall and will, wer-t, ${ }^{4}$ which is sometimes, but wrongly, used for

[^91]the subjunctive were (second person singular), as "thou ziert grix." (Kïng Fohn, ii. 3).

Were $=$ O.E. zuer-e-n; that is, wes-e-n.
297. In O.E. we have negative forms, as nam, I am not; nat, thou art not ; nis, he is not ; nere, were not, \&c.
298. Can.

| Present Indicative | ... | Sing. | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{x} \\ & \text { can } \end{aligned}$ | $\stackrel{2}{\text { canst }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3 \\ \text { can } \end{gathered}$ | PI. | $\underset{\substack{2 \\ \text { can }}}{ }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... |  | Sing. |  |  |  | PI. |  |
| Past Indicative |  | Sing | could | couldst | could | P]. | could |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing. | - | - |  | Pl. |  |


| Present Indicative | ... | ... | ... | Sing.PI. | O.E. |  | Goth |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | 1 3 3 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { can, con } \\ & \text { canst } \\ & \text { can, con } \\ & \text { cunnon } \end{aligned}$ | kann <br> kant <br> kann <br> kunnum |
| Present Subjunctive | ... | ... | ... | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sing. } \\ & \text { Pl. } \end{aligned}$ |  | cunne cunnon | kunjau kuneima |
| Past Indicative | $\cdots$ | ... | ... | Sing. Pl. | 1 2 3 1 | cu-the cuthest cuthe cuthon | kun-tha <br> kun-thes <br> kun-tha <br> kun-thêdum |
| Past Subjunctive | ... | ... | ... | Sing. |  | cuthe cuthon | kunthêdjau kun-thêdeima |
| Past Passive ... | ... | ... | ... |  |  | cuth | kunths |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | cunnan | kunnan |

Many verbs in Teutonic and other languages, having lact their present tense, express the meaning of the lost tense by means of the preterite, as Lat. odi, capi. meminiz, Gr. vida.
Cau is one of these, being equivalent to novi. It was originally the preterite of a verb cognate with Goth. cennuan, to bring forth, so that cart originally was equivalent to genui.

Can (first and third persons).-No personal suffixes, as in the past tense of all verbs originally strong.

Can-st stands for can-t.
The plural inflexions (cp. O. E. cunnow, cunnen) have disappeared.
Could. -The O.E. forms couthe, coude, show that a non-radical $t$ has crept in, probably from false analogy with shall and weill.
O. E. Coude $=$ Guth. cun-tha $(=c u n-d a)$, has the tense suffix $d$ of weak verbs.
We have the old past participle of the verb in $\boldsymbol{u n}$-couth (O.E. $u n$-cuth $=$ unknown).
In Chaucer we find infinitive conne, to be able, as "I shal not conne answere." Sliakespeare has, "to con thanks." "He shulde can us no thank."-Berner's Froissart.
Con $=$ learn, study (as con a lesson), makes past tense and passive participle conned.
Cunning = knowing, is really a present participle of can (con).
299. Dare.


Dare.-The root is dars (cp. Gr. $\theta a p \rho \epsilon i \nu, ~ \theta \alpha \rho \sigma \epsilon i \nu)$.
The third person dare (O.E. dar) is strictly correct. Cp.
" A bard to sing of deeds be dare not imitate."
Walter Scott, Waverley.
In the Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Man we find p.p. dorre:-
"Whi art thou swich and swich that thou darst passe the lawe . . . whens cometh it thee and how hast thou dorre be so harde."-P. 78.

[^92]
## Wickliffe has infinitive dore:-

"The which thing that I shulde dore don, me styride the studie of Orygen."
Dare makes a new preterite, dared, when it signifies to challenge, as "he dared me to do it."
300. Shall.

| Present Indicative | .. | Sing. shall | shalt | shall $^{3}$ | PL. | shall $^{2}$ | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing. | - | - | - | PL. | - |
| Past Indicative | ... | Sing. should shouldst should | PI. | should |  |  |  |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing. | - | - | - | PI. | - |


| Pres. Indic. | ... |  | O.E. |  |  | Goth. <br> skal <br> skal-t <br> skal <br> skulum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Sing. } \\ & 1 \\ & 2 \\ 3 \\ \text { PI. } & 1\end{array}$ | sceal scealt sceal scul-on | scalr scalt scal sculon | schal schal schal schulen |  |
| Pres. Subj. | ... | Sing. <br> Pl. | scyle scylen | scule sculen | schule schulen | skuljau skuleima |
| Past Indic. | ... | Sing.I <br> 2 <br> PI. | sceolde sceoldest sceolde <br> sceoldon | scolde scoldest scolde scolden | schulde schuldest schulde schulden | skulda <br> skuldes <br> skulda <br> skuldêdum |
| Past Subj. | ... | Sing. <br> PI. | sceolde sceoldon | scolde scolden | schulde schulden | skuldêdjau skuldêdeima |
| Infinitive | ... | ... | sculan |  |  | skulan |
| Pres. Part. | ... | ... |  |  |  | skulds |

Shall often occurs in O.E. in the sense of to owe, as-
" Frend, as I am trewe knyght,
And by that feith I shal to God and yow,
I hadde it nevere half so hoote as now."
Chaucer, Tr. and Cr. 1. 1600
"Thise dette ssel (owes) ech to othren."-A3enbite, p. 145.
"Hâ micel sceal thu?" = How much owest thou?-Luke xvi. 5 .
Shall is historically a preterite of a present skilis, which signifies $I$ kill, and so shall = I have killed, I must pay the fine or wer geld; hence I am under an obligation, I must.

IThe second and third columns of O.E. are later forms.


May (first person). - The $y$ here represents an older $g$.
Might.-The second person singular, we see, had originally the suffrx $t$, like shalt, wilt, \&c.
" Amende thee while thow myght."-Piers Plowman.
In the fourteenth century we find this suffix dropping off, as " N " thing thou may take from us " (Maundeville, p. 29). Skelton, too, uses this uninflected form, as "thou may see thyself" (i. 145).

Siay $=$ possession, is the preterite of a primitive mig-an (crescere, gignere), and signified originally, I have begotten, produced; hence, I am able.

In O. E. fourteenth century we find inf. mowe, pres. part. mowende, mowinge (Wickliffe, fer. xlvi. צo), p p. might, mogt:-
"Who shall mowe fi3te."-Wickliffe, Apoc. xiii. 4.
"This con I wot wel, me not to have mo3t remene."- Yob, Prol. p. 57r.
"If goodly had he might."-Chaucer.

## 302. Will.

| Present Indicative | ... | Sing | $\underset{\text { will }}{\mathrm{y}}$ | $\underset{\text { wilt }}{2}$ | will | Pl. | will |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing | - | - | - | P1. | - |
| Past Indicative | ... | Sing | uld | oulds | would | PI. | would |
| Subjunctive ... |  | Sing | - | - |  |  |  |

> O.E.

| Pres. Indic. ... | Sing. Pl. | 1 2 3 1 | wile wilt wile willath | wille wult wille wulleth | wolle, wole, wol wolt <br> wuile, wole, wol <br> woileth, wolen, wilen |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres Subj. ... | Sing. | 1 | wille | woile | wulle |
| Past Indic. ... | Sing. <br> Pl. | 1 | wolde wolden | wolde wolden |  |
| Past Subj. | Sing. |  | wolde |  |  |
| Infinitive | ... |  | willan | wilen | wolen |
| Pres. Part. ... | ... |  | willende |  |  |

(1) In O.E. won't we have a trace of the O.E. wool (wole).
(2) In O.E. we find infinitive wolen, as "he shall zoolin" (Wickliffe, Apoc. xi. 6) ; p.p. wold-
" And in the same maner oure Lord Crist hath wolde and suffred." Chaucer, Melibeus, p. 159 (Wright).
(3) Negative forms occur in O.E., as nille $=$ will not ; nolde $=$ would not ; willy nilly $=$ will ye, nill ye, will he, nill he, "Will you, nill you" (Taming of the Shrew, ii. I).
"To will or nill."-Ben Jonson, Catiline.
Cp. O.E. "For wolny, nulni, hi sul fle," \&c.-Early Eng. Poems, p. 12.
$W$ olny $=$ wolen $h i$, will they ; mulni $=$ nolen hi, nill they.
(4) In O.E. we find two weak verbs, zvillian and zvilnian, to desire ; the former of these exists in will $=$ to desire.

[^93]303. Owe.

| Present Indicative | ... | Sing. | $\begin{gathered} \text { I } \\ \text { owe } \end{gathered}$ | ${ }^{2}{ }^{2} \text { west }$ | $\stackrel{3}{\text { oweth }}$ | PL. | \% | $\stackrel{2}{\text { owe }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing. | - | - | - | PL |  | - |
| Past Indicative | ... | Sing. | ought | ghtest | ought | Pl. |  | ought |
| Subjunctive ... | ... | Sing. | - | - | - | PL. |  | - |


| $\begin{array}{c}\text { Infinitive. } \\ \text { owe }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c}\text { Present Participle. } \\ \text { owing }\end{array}$ | Perfect. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

Goth.

| Pres. Indic. | Sing. | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & 2 \\ & 3 \end{aligned}$ | âh <br> âge <br> âh | og* agest* ouh* | ow* ouh* oweth ${ }^{*}$ | owest* | $\begin{aligned} & \text { aih } \\ & \text { aih-t } \\ & \text { aih } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Plural | 1 | agon | agen* | owen* |  | aigum |
| Past Indic. | Sing. <br> Plural | 1 | ahte <br> ahton | 23te* <br> a3ten* | ow3te* <br> ow3ten* |  | aihta <br> sihtêdum |
| Infinitive | ... |  | ágan | 25en* | ogen* | owen* | aigan |
| Pres, Part. | ... |  | agende |  |  |  |  |
| Pass. Part. | ... |  | ágen | a3t | ought | owed | aihts ${ }^{\text {x }}$ |

O.E.
(1) Owe (O.E. ah, Goth. aih, I have) no longer exists in the sense of have, possess. It is the past of an infinitive eigan, to labour, work ; whence owe originally signified I have worked, I have earned, hence (a) I possess, have, (b) I have it as a duty, I ought.
(2) Owe as an independent verb:-

Cp. Hzuat do ic that ic ese If age? = what must I do that I may have eternal life :-Mark x. 17.
" And all thatt iss, and beoth,

$$
\text { He shop and } a h \text { "-Orm. } 6777 .
$$

" God $a h$ ( $=$ owes) the littell mede."-Ib.
"By the treuthe ich ou to the."-Robt. of Gloucester, 6524.
"He ow3te to him io,000 talentes."-Wickliffe, Matt. xviii. 24
" 3 eld that thou owist."-Ib, xviii. 28.
"You ought him a thousand pounds."-Shakespeare.
"The knight, the which that castle aught."

$$
\text { SPENSER, F. Queene, vi, iii. } 2 .
$$

(3) As an auxiliary, it first appears in Lajamon's Brwt, "he ah to don" $=$ he has to do, he must do.
"I owe for to be cristned."-WicklifFr, Matt. iii. i4.
" And gladder oughte his freend ben of his deth Whan with honour up yolden is his breth."

Chaucer, Knightes Tale.
(4) It occurs impersonally with datives, as-
"Wel ought us werche."-Chaucer.
(5) Owe as a weak verb, signifying to be in debt, is conjugated regularly: present (1) owe, (2) owest, (3) owes (oweth); past (1) owed, (2) owedst, (3) owed.
(6) Ought, properly a past tense, is now used as a present, to signify moral obligation.
(7) Own, to possess, has probably arisen out of the derivative O.E. verb, alnian ( $=a_{g} \cdot n i a n$ ), to possess; or from the old participle passive of owe-agen (awen, owen). Shakespeare uses owe for own.
304. Must.

(I) The verb mot in Old English denoted permission, possibility, and obligation ( $=$ may, can, \&c.).

Spenser uses the old verb mote, as-
"Fraelissa was as faire, as faire mote bee."
(2) Must has now the force of a present as well as of a past tense, and denotes necessity and obligation. Chaucer uses moste as a present tense.
305. Wit.

| Present Indicative ... | Sing | $\begin{gathered} \text { wot } \\ \text { wit } \end{gathered}$ | $\underline{2}$ | wot | Pl. | wot |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subjunctive ... ... | Sing | - | - | - | Pl | - |
| Past Indicative | Sing | wist | - | wist | Pl. | wist |
| Subjunotive ... ... | Sing | - | - | - | Pl. |  |



The original signification of O.E. wat, Goth. wit, is "I have seen" (cp. Gr. oİठa), hence I know, from the root wit or vid, to see.
(I) Shakespeare has I wot, he wot, you wot, they wot.
(2) The old second person singular has given way to wottest ; and wotteth or wots is sometimes found for wot.
(3) Wist, the true past tense of wit, occurs frequently in the English Bible; but Sackville uses wotted, as-
" I, which zootted best
His wretched drifts." - Duke of Buckingham.
(4) Unwist $=$ unknown, undiscovered :
" Couldst thou hope, unzuist, to leave my land?"
Surrey, Eneid iv.
(5) Wotting = O. E. witende (witing), occurs in the Winter's Tale (ed. Collier), iii. 2. Cp. unwitting, unwittingly.
(6) To wit, a gerundial infinitive, is used as an adverb $=$ namely.

To zeect, a causative of wit = to learn, as-

> " Then we in doubt to Phobus' temple sent Euripilus to weef the prophesy."-SURREY, EEneid ii.
(7) Must and wist have an s, which is not found in the roots mot and zuit.

The past tenses are formed by adding to the root $t$, as mot-te, wit-te; but, by a common law in the Teutonic dialects, the first $t$ is changed to s: hence mos-te, wis-te.
306. Mind, in the sense of to remember, as "mind what you are about," has a non-radical d.

| O.E. | Pres. gemaд | Perf. gemunde | Inf. gemunan | (meminisse) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Goth. | man | munda | munan |  |
| O.N. | man | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { munna } \\ \text { munda } \end{array}\right\}$ | muna | (recordari) |
| O.N. | - |  | munu | ( $\mu$ ¢́八入eiv) |

The O.E. (ge)-main is the past of an old form mina, cogito. In the Northern dialects of the fourteenth century, we find the O.N. mon, mone, mun = must, shall, used as an auxiliary verb.
307. Own. I own I have done wrong $=I$ grant or confess I have done wrong. This verb seems to have arisen out of O.E. an, on, the first person singular of wrnan, to grant, concede (cp. Ger. gonnen) :-
"Miche gode ye wold him an."-Trist. 1. 66.
"Y take that me gode $a r$."-1b. iii. 7 .
308. Do, in "How do you do?"

In the first verb we have the ordinary do $=$ facere ; the second $d o=$ valere, $=$ O.E. dugan, to avail, prevail (Ger. taugen), Scotch dow.
O.E.

Present Indicative I deâh
2 duze
3 deẩh, degh,* dowes*
PI. I dugon
Past Indicative, Sing. I dohte, dowed* I

## 309. Tenses formed by Composition.

(1) Tenses are formed, not only by suffixes added to the verbal root, but by using auxiliary verbs along with the participles or infinitive mood. This is called the analytical mode of expressing time. The perfect tense is denoted by have and is; the future by shall and will.
"The primary meaning of the word have is 'possession.' It is easy to see how 'I have my arms stretched out' might pass into 'I have stretched out my arms,' or how, in such phrases as 'he hass put on his coat,' 'we have eaten our breakfast,' 'they have finished their work,' a declaration of possession of the object in the condition denoted by the participle should come to be accepted as sufficiently expressing the completed act of putting it into that condition ; the present possessive, in fact, implies the past action, and, if our use of have were limited to the cases in which such an implication was apparent, the expressions in which we used it, would be phrases only. When, however, we extend the implication of past action to every variety of cases, as in 'I have discharged my servant,' 'he has lost his breakfast,' 'we have exposed their errors;' when there is no idea of possession for it to grow out of; or with neuter verbs, 'You have been in error,' 'he has come from London,' 'they have gone away ;' where there is even no object for the have to govern; where condition and not action is expressed ; and ' you are been,' 'he is come,' 'they are gone,' would be theoretically more correct (as they are alone proper in German): -then we have converted have from an independent part of speech into a fairly formative element."-Whitney.

[^94](2) In O.E. writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries have was weakened to $h a$, and in the sixteenth century we find it coalescing with the passive participle.
"The Jewes wolden ha broken his bones."
Legends of Holy Rood, p. 139, I. 237.
"Therefore ech man ha this in memorye."
Lydgate, Arurd. MS. fol. 376.
"I ha thereto plesaunce."-Ib. fol. 27.
"I knowlech to a felid."-Wickliffe, Apol. for the Lollards, p. x. ${ }^{1}$
"It shuld a fallen on a bassenet or a helme."-Froissart, i. ch. ii. 25.
"Richard might . . . asaued hymself if he would afied awaie."-Life of Richard 1II. in Hardyng, p. 547, reprint of $1812 .{ }^{2}$
(3) Do and did are used for forming emphatic tenses, as "I do love," "I did love."

This idiom did not make its appearance till about the thirteenth century, and did not come into general use before the fifteenth century.

Do (not causative) seems to have been used first as an auxiliary before imperatives, as-
" Do gyf glory to thy Godde."-Allit. Poens, C. 1. 204.
Lydgate. is the earliest writer I know of that uses the modern construction of $d o$ and did as tense auxiliaries.

In:O.E. $d o=$ to make, cause, as-
"And if I do that lak,
Doth strepe me, and put me in a sak And in the next ryver do me drenche."

> Chaucer, C. Tales, Il. 10074-5.

It was also used as at present, to save the repetition of the principal verb, as-
" I love you more than you do me."
Shakespeare, King Yohn, iv. x.
" He slep no more than doth the nightingale."
Chaucer, c. vii. 1.98.
(4) In O.E. gan, can, was used as a tense auxiliary $=$ did.

But the details of this usage must be sought in the syntax of auxiliary verbs.

[^95]
## CHAPTER XIV.

## ADVERBS.

310. ADVERBS are mostly either abbreviations of words (or phrases, as likewise $=$ in like wise ) belonging to other parts of speech, or particular cases of nouns and pronouns.

They modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and may be classified according to their meaning into adverbs of-
(I) Place, answering to the question (a) where? (b) whither? (c) WHENCE? as (a) here, there, anywhere, elsewhere, somewhere, nowhere, yonder, below, before, behind, within, without; (b) hither, thither, hitherwards, backwards, from below, from above; (c) hence, thenco
(2) Time, answering to the question When ? (a) PRESENT, as now, to-day, at present, forthwith, \&c.; (b) PAST, as yesterday, lately, forwards, of yore; ( $c$ ) FUTURE, as to-morrow, soon, by and by; ( $d$ ) DURAtion of time (how long), as long time, still, ever, \&c.; (e) repetition (how often), as again, once, seldom, oft, daily; ( $f$ ) relative to some other time (how soon), as, then, afier, forthwith, first, last.
(3) Manner or quality, as (a) well, wisely, slowly, quicklysome of these are interrogative, demonstrative, or indefinite, as how, so, thus, nohow, \&c.; (b) affirmation, as yes, yea, truly, indeed, \&c.; (c) negation, as not, nay; (d) doubt, uncertainty, as likely, perhaps.
(4) Measure, quantity, degree, as much, little, enough, half, much, scarce, far, very, exceedingly.
(5) Cause, Instrumentality, as why, wherefore, whence.

3II. According to their origin, or form, adverbs are divided into the following classes :-

## I. Substantive Adverbs.

I. With case-endings :
(I) Genitive Singular, need-s, O.E. needes, " he must needs (of necessity) die."
In O.E. we find the genitive used adverbially, as
"Fure, the never ne atheostrede, zinteres ne sumeres."-La3. 286r.
" Heo wolden feden thone kirg, daies and nihtes." ${ }^{\text {" }}$ b. 32 j5.

> "Ich not to hwan thu bredst thi brod Lives ne deathes ne deth hit god."-Owl \& Nightingate, 1. 1634 .

Cp. O. E willes, willingly; sothes, of a truth ; his thonkes $=$ of his own accord, \&c.

The termination has disappeared in many of the older words, as day and night, summer and winter. Cp.
"We shul be redy to stonde with you, lyfe and dethe."-Gest. Rom. p. 37.
The preposition of has taken the place of the genitive suffix, as of necessity, of course, of force, of purpose, of right, of a truth, of a day. We actually find in the sixteenth century "of a late dajes," as well as " of late days."

Sometimes we have of (or in, at, $a, o n$ ) with the old genitive, as anights, of mornings, a mornings, on Sundays, now-a-days $=$ O.E. now-on-dayes, in-a-doors, \&ic.

There were some adverbs in O.E., originally dative feminine singular, ending in -inga, -unga, -linga, -lunga. A few of these, without the dative suffix, exist under the form-ling or-long, as head-long (O.E. heedlinge), sideling, sidelorg, dark-ling (darklong), flatling and flatlong.

In the fourteenth century we find these with the genitive form, as allynges (wholly), heedlynges, fiatlynges, noselynges.

The Scotch dialect has preserved the old suffix-linges under the form lins, as darklins (in the dark).

The word grovelling was originally an adverb ; cp. Scotch grofiins, O. E. gruflynzes, grofinges.

We find -gates $=-$ ways in O.E., as thus-gate $=$ thus-wise, allegates $=$ always.
(2) Dative and Instrumental., ever (O.E. afre), hever (O.E. nafre), whilom (O.E. hwit-um), limb-meal (O.E. lim-mal-um), piecemeal.
(3) Accusative, ay (O.E. ab, Goth. aiw), the while (O.E. that huvile), somewhile (sumehwoile), some deal (sumne dal), alzoay (O.E. calue $\begin{gathered}\text { oeg }\end{gathered}$, otherwise (bthre wisen), O. E. the morn ${ }^{1}=t o-m o r n ; ~ c p . ~$ nowise, noway, sometime.
In such phrases as ""He went home," "They wandered north and south," "I saw him yesterday," "They cry day and night unto him,", "Can ye anght tell?" the words home, north, south, yesterday, \&c. are adverbial accusatives.
(a) Many of the old rccusatives now have a genitive form, as other-way-s, always, longways," straightivays, anothergates (cp. O. E. algate's $=$ always, thusgates, \&c. ), sidevays, sometimes, otherwihiles, somewhiles, the whilst. In the Ayenbite and in Piers Plowman we find therhuile, therhuyl, therhuyls.
(b) In most English Grammars that I have seen $a$ in $a-y e a r, a-d a y$ - = yearly, daily, is treated as the indefinite article used distributively.

[^96]A reference to older writers at once shows that this treatment is wholly incorrect.
"Thrywa on geare" = thrice a year. - Exod. xxiii. 17.
"An halpenny on day" = a halfpenny a day.-Boke of Curtasve, 1. 616.
In some few words of French origin we have substituted $a$ or on for Fr. en or $a$, especially in older writers; around, O.E. on rounde, O.F. en rond. Cp. a fine and in fine, a stray, on stray, \&c.

In O.E. we find in for $a$ before words of French origin, as -
"Thet corn a gerse, the vines in flouring" = the corn in grass, the vine in flowering.-Ayenbite, p. $3^{36.1}$

In a-feared, a-feard, an hungered, an hungry, O. E. a fingered, a dread, the prefix $a$ is a corruption of the O.E. of, an intensitive prefix, sometimes equivalent to for in forsvear. In O.E. we find a thirst, on thirst, and of thirst.
$A$ is also a weakened form of the preposition of or $o$. "A dozen $a$ beer" (S. Rowland's Diogenes), "God $a$ mercy," "man- $a$-war." "

Cp. "Body o me," "two a clock," and " two o clock."
In the compound $\mathfrak{F} a c k$-an-apes, the $a$ or o becomes $a n$ before a vowel, just as we find in O.E. an before vowels and the letter $h$, and $a$ before consonants, as an er the $=$ in earth, an hand $=$ in hand, $\& . c$.
II. Prepositional: a-way ${ }^{1}$ (O. E. on-wag), $a$-back(O. E. on-bac), a-gain (O.E. on-gein), a-day (on-dage), to-day (O. E. to-dage), to-night (O.E. toे-nihte), a niht (on niht), to-morn, to-morrow (O.E. to-mergen), O.E. to-yere (this year), to-eve (yesterday evening), to-whiles $=$ meanwhile, adown (O.E. ©-dune).

Cp. abed, afoot, asleep (on sleep), alive (on life), ahead, on head, on-brood, a-broach, ashore, arow, aloft, apart, among, across, aside, a height, an end, a-front, a-door, besides (O.E. besides, besiden), of kin (akin), of kind (naturally), of purpose, because, by chance, perhaps, perchance, perforce.

In O.E. we find asidis, on sidis hand = aside, apart ; by worthe, by southe, by pecemeale, by cas (by chance).

Other but more recent adverbial forms of this nature are-by no means, by any means, beforehand, at hand, in front, at night, at times, at length, ${ }^{3}$ at-gaze (agaze), by degrees, up-stairs, indoors, in fuct, in deed.

The preposition is sometimes omitted, as "they went back" (= aback), "this stick was broke cross" ( = across).

[^97]
## II. Adjectival Adverbs.

(1) In O.E. many adverbs are formed from adjectives by means of the suffix -e. ${ }^{1}$ Thus an adjective in -lic = like was converted into an adverb by this means, as biterlic (adjective), biterlice (adverb), bitterly.

The loss of the adverbial e reduced the adverb to the same form as the adjective : hence O.E. faste, faste, became fast; faire, fair, \&ic. ; he smot him harde $=$ he smote him hard.

Cp. to work hard, to sleep sound, to speak fair.
In Elizabethan writers we find the adverbial -ly often omitted, as "grievous sick," " miserable poor."
(2) Many adjective forms, especially those of irregular comparison, as well, much, little, \&c., are used as adverbs.
(3) Genitive Forms, as else (O.E. elles), backwards, forwards, upwards, efisoons, uneathes, unazvares.
(4) Accusative, ere (O.E. ar), enough (O.E. genóh), backward, homeward.
(5) Dative, seldom: cp. O.E. on-ferrum $=$ afar ; O.E. miclum, greatly; lithum and lythun $=$ paulatim. ${ }^{2}$
" Lere hem littum and lytlum."-Piers Plowman, B. p. 286.
In later times the inflexion dropped, and we often find the prepositional construction instead, as by little and little. ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Cp}$.
"So did the waxen image (lo) by smale and smale decrease."
"They love the mullet greate,
Drant's Horace, Sat. ii. 2.
And yet do mynce her smale and smale."- 16 .
" My rentes come to me thicke and thicke."-1b. ii. 3.
(6) Instrumental, yore (O. E. geîra), yet (O. E. geta), soon (O. E. ,sona).
(7) Prepositional Forms, amidst ${ }^{4}$ (O.E. on-middum, amidde, a-middes), towards (O. E. to-weardes), together (O.E. tô-gader), afar, ancw, alate, aright, abroud, afar, aloud, along, agood, a-cold, ala.., anon, at large, a-high, on high, in vain (O. E. on idel), in general, in short, ${ }^{5}$ at the full, to right, on a sudden, at unazvares (at unazuare occurs in Drant's Horace), at all (O. E. alles), withal, of yore, of new, of late, of rioht [O.E. of fresh, of neere, in open ( $=$ openly), in playne ( $=$ plainly)].

Prepositions sometimes accompany the comparative and superlative, as for the worse, \&c. ; at last, O.E. atte laste $=$ at the last ; atte wyrst, at the wiorst, \&c. : cp. O. E. atte beste, at the best ; at least, \&cc.

[^98]
## III. Numeral Adverbs.

Once, O.E. ane, ene, anes, enes, ans; Twice, O.E. twiswa, ${ }^{1}$ twitue, twien, twie, twies, twis; Thrice, O. E. thri-wa, thriwe, thrie, thries, thrys.

The $-c e=-s=-e s$. In betwixt $(=0$. E. betweohs) the last letter is not radical : cp. amidst.
An on ( $=$ in one instant), at one, at once, atwain, atwo, in twain, O.E. a twinne, a thre, \&c. for the nonce. ${ }^{2}$

## 312. IV. Adverbs formed from Particles.

A.-Prepositional Adverbs.
(1) Aft (O.E. aft, eft), after (O.E. aft-er), afterwards, \&c.; $a b a f t=a+b e+a f($ O.E. be-aftan).
(2) By (O. E. bit, big), for-by, by and by.
(3) For, as in be-fore (O.E. beforan), for-th, forthwith, afore, aforehand, beforehand.
(4) Hind, as in behind (O.E. behindan), behindhand; O. E. hindan, hindzeard.
(5) In, as in zoithin [O. E. innan, binnan ( $=$ be-innan), withinnan, withinnen], O. E. inverith.
(6) Neath, as in be-neath, underneath (O.E. neothan, be-nythan, underneothan, withor, nither, down).
(7) On, onward.
(8) Of (O.E. of $=$ from, off ), off.
(9) To, too.
(10) Through (O. E. thurh; later forms, thurf, thurch, thuruh, thorgh), thorough, throughly, thoroughly.
(ii) Under, underfoot, underhand.
(12) Up, upper, uppermost, upruard.
(13) From the old form ufan (ufon) we get above ( $=$ O.E. a-bufan, abuven), over ( $=$ O. E. ofer) ; ср. O. F.. be-ufan, bufan, wivithusfan, omufan $=$ above; ufanweard, upwards; ufanan, from above. ${ }^{3}$

[^99](14) Out, ahont (O.E. at, ate, utan, b-utan, ymb-utan), without (O.E. withutan, withouten), abouts, thereabouts.

In O.E. we have inwith, outwith.
B. -Pronominal Adverbs.

Table of Adzerbs connected with the Stcms he, the, who.

| PRONOBMNAL <br> STRMS. | PLACE <br> WHERE | MOTION <br> TO. | MOTION <br> FROM. | TIME <br> when. <br> who | MANNER. | CAUSE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| where | whither | whence | when | how | why |  |
| the | there | thither | thence | then | thus | the |
| he | here | hither | hence | - | - | - |

(I) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative the :-

There (O.E. thar, thar), originally locative; $r e$ is probably a shortened form of der (Sansk. ta-tra $=$ there).

Thither (O.E. theter) contains the locative suffix -ther, ${ }^{1}$ corresponding to O.N. thathra, Sansk. ta-tra ; thitherward (O. E. thiderweard, thiderweardes).

Then (O.E. thanne, thonne, thenne), accusative singular. ${ }^{2}$ It is the same word as the conjunction than.

We find in O.E. tha, tho = then, thence ; nouthe = now then.
Thence (O.E. than-an, than-on, thonon, thananne; later forms, thanene, thannene, thenne-s, then-s) has two suffixes: ( I$) n$, originally perhaps the locative of the demonstrative stem $n a$ (existing in adjectives in -en, and in passive participles); and (2) the genitive -ce $x=-e s$, which came in about the thirteenth century.

[^100]In O.E. northern writers we find thethen $=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{N}$. thathan $=$ thence; old Scotch writers have thyne.

In Latin we find suffix - $n$ in superne, from above. In O. E. we have edst-an, from the east; west-an, from the west, \&c.; hind-an, from behind.

The (O.E. thit) before comparatives is an adverb, and is the instrumental case of the definite article the : the more, O.E. thi mare $=e \%$ magis.
In O. E. we have for-thi or for-thy $=$ therefore, as-

$$
\text { "Forthy appease your griefe and heavie plight." } \underset{\text { SPENSER, F. Q. 11. i. Is. }}{\text {. }}
$$

Thus (O.E. thus), probably an instrumental case of this; in O. Saxon thius = inst. case of thit, the neuter of these (this).

Lest $=$ O. E. thy les (or the las) + the (iadeclinable relative), which, by omission of thy, became weakened to leoste, leste.
(2) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative stem he (his):-

Here (O.E. her). On the origin of the suffix $-r$, see remarks on there, p. 198.

Hither (O.E. hider). See remarks on whither.
Hence (O. E. hinan, heonan, heonane, heona; later forms, hennene, henne, hennes, hens).

In O.E. northern writers we find hethen $=\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{N}$. hethan .
In Gothic we have an accusative hina, corresponding to thes or thurn. We have the same root perhaps in hin-deer, be-hind.
(3) Adverbs from the interrogative stem who:-

Where (O.E. hwar, hwar). See remarks on there.
Whither (O.E. hwe-der, hevider), witherward. See remarks on thither.

When (O.E. Izwanan, hwana, hwanon; later forms, whenene, whenne, hwanne, whennes, whens), whence.

In O.E. northern writers we find whethan $=0 . \mathrm{N}$. hvethan. See remarks on thence.

How (O.E. $h u$, $h w u^{2}$ ), why (O.E. hwwí), are instrumental cases of wiho.

In O.E. we have for-why = wherefore, because. In the English Bible the mark of interrogation is wrongly printed after it.
(4) From the reflexive stem si :-

So (O. E. suad), an instrumental case of $\operatorname{swi} a=$ so.
Also and as are compounds of so with the adjective all.
(5) From the demonstrative stem ya, yon, yond, yonder, beyond. See Demonstrative Pronouns, § ISI, p. 128.
(6) From the relative stem ya:-

In Sansk. ya-s, $y a, y a-t=$ qui, quæ, quod.
Yea (O.E. gea, gia; later forms, yha, ya, ye; Goth. ja)
Ye-s (O.E. ge-se; later forms, $\overline{3}$ is, yhis).
The suffix $s(-s e)$ in yes is the present subjunctive of the root as, to be ; O.E. st, Ger. sei = let it be. In O.E. there was a negative ne-se; O.E. nas $=$ not $=$ ne was $=$ was not.

Ye-t (O.E. gyta, geta, gyt) contains the same ront. ${ }^{\text {I }}$ The Latin jaw contains a cognate stem.
(7) From an interrogative stem ye :-

- Yesterday (O.E. gystran-deg). This adverb is cognate with Goth. gi-s-tra, Lat. heri (hes-ternu-s), Gr. $\chi^{\theta \epsilon \in s, ~ S a n s k . ~ h y-a s ~(~}=$ ha-dyas). The suffix -tra (-ter) is comparative.
(8) From the demonstrative sam:-

Sam, together, used by Spenser=O.E. saman, samen; cp. O. E. szm-od, sam-ad; Goth. sam-ath, together; Gr. ä $\mu a$; Lat. simul.
(9) From Sun-dor:-

Asunder ( $=$ O.E. on sundron, on sundrum) and sun-der (O.E. sundor, Goth. sun-dro, separately, apart).
(Io) From the demonstrative na :-
(a) Now (O.E. nu²), cp. Lat. nu-n-c, num, nam, ne, Gr. ע仑̂v; (b) ne $=$ not, as in Chatuer; (c) no (O.E. na); and (d) nay.
" His hors was good, but he ne was nought gay."-Prol. 1. 74
In O.E. $n e=$ neither, nor. Spenser uses it" $N_{e}$ let him ther admire, But yield his sence to bee too blunt and bace."-F. Q. ii. Intr. 4

[^101]This particle enters into the following words:-none, nought, nor, neither, never.
(11) Not $=$ nought. See aught, § 233, p. 146.

For not, not a whit, we sometimes find not a jot, not a bit; cp. O.E. never a del, never a whit.

I'he Latin nihil = not a bean. ${ }^{2}$ In vulgar language we hear such expressions as 1 don't care a strazu, or a button, \&c. So in O.E. writers we get "noght a bene (bean)," " not a kers (cress)." 2

Ay, sometimes used for yes, is identical with adv, aye $=$ ever; O.E. $\boldsymbol{a}$ as in ever (O.E. afer).

> For aye $=$ for ever-
> " With endless vengeance on his stock for aye",
> SAckviLLe, Ferrex and Porrex.

What $=$ why is an adverb, as-
"What should I more now seek to say in this, Or one jot farther linger forth my tale ?"

Sackville, Duke of Buckingham.
"What need we any spur but our own cause?"-ful. Casar, ij. x.

## 1313. V. Compound Adverbs.

(1) There, here, where, are combined (a) with prepositions, as thercin, thereinto, thereabout, thereabouts, thereafter, thereat, thercon, thereof, thereout, thereunto, thereunder, thereupon, thereby, therefore, therefrom (and O.E. therefro), therewith, therewithal, thereto, thitherto; nercin, hereinto, hereabout, hereafter, hereat, hereof, hereout, hereinto, hereupon, hereby, herewith, heretofore, hitherto; wherein, whereinto, whereabout, whereat, whereof, whereunto, whereupon, whereby, wherefore, wherewith, wherewithal, wherethrough.

The pronominal adverbs have a relative force. We have seen that the O.E. indeclinable relative the and English that are followed by prepositions; hence here, there, where, are nostly followed by prepositions. We have a few compounds with prepositions preceding, as from thence, from whence.

The preposition is sometimes separated from the adverb, as "On Italī̄e, thar Rome nu on stondeth" (La3. 107). See quotations under as, § 198, p. 133.

[^102](b) With so and soever, as whereso, wheresoever, wherever, whithersoever, whencesoever, whereas.
(c) With else, some, other, every, no, each, any, as elsewhere, somewhere, otherwhere, everywhere, nowhere, eachwhere (O. E. ay-where = everywhere), anywhere.
(2) How is combined with so, as howso, howsoever.
(3) Other compounds have already been noticed, see $\$ 311$, pp. 195, 196. To these may be added erelong, ereiohile, while-ere, cre now, zuithal, after-all, forthwith, at random \& Fr. à randon.
(4) Some elliptical expressions are used as adverbs, as maybe, mayhap, howbeit, as it weve, to wit, to be sure.

## CHAPTER XV.

## PREPOSITIONS.

314. Prepositions are so named because they were onginally prefixed to the verb, in order to modify its meaning. They express (1) the relations of space, (2) other relations derived from those of space, and marked in some languages by case-endings.

Prepositions are either simple or compound.

## I. Simple Prepositions.

In (O.E. in) is connected with on, an, $a$, from a demonstrative stem $a+n a$.
Before a dental $n$ shows a tendency to disappear, as tooth $=$ tonth. So in our dramatists and O.E. writers we find $i$ 'the $=$ in the.

At (O.E. at) also contains the stem $a$ (cp. Sanskrit $\alpha$-dhi, Lat. ad; $-d h i=$ Gr. $-\theta_{2}$ ).

Of (O.E. of, af, af; Goth. af, from ; Lat. $a b$, Gr. $\dot{\alpha} \pi \delta$, Sansk. apa).

By, O.F. $b i$ (cp. Sansk. $a-b h i$, of which the suffix $-b h i=G r .-\phi \ell$, Lat. $-b i$; a nasalized form of $a-b h i$ is found in Gr. $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi i$, Lat. $a n, b$, O.Sax. umbi, O. E. umbe, embe, ymbe, um-, Ger. um-).

For (O.E. for, Goth. fauir, O.N. fyr, fyrir) ; a-fore (C.E. onforan).

From (O.E. fram, from ; fra, fro; O.N. frá).
The $m$ is a superlative suffix (cp. Sanskrit para-ma-s, from pard, cognate with Eng. fore (O.E. fore).
The same root is seen in for-th, fur-ther, far. Cp. Sansk. pra, Gr. $\pi \rho \rho$, Lat. pro.

On (O.Sax. an ; O.Fris, an, $A$; O.N. $a$; Goth. ana), up-ON.
Up (O.E. up), formed from a stem $u+f a$. Cp. Sansk. upa, near ; Gr. $\dot{\alpha} \pi \delta$, near, under ; Lat. $s-u b$; Goth. iup ; O.H.Ger. $u f$.

Out (O.E. $\hat{u} t$ ) ; the older form is seen in utter, utmost.

With (O.E. with, wither, from, against). We have a more original form in O.E., viz. mid, with; Goth. mith, Sansk. mithas, Gr. $\mu \in \tau u^{\bullet}$ - from a demonstrative stem ma. Wither (or with) is a comparative form, in which $m$ is replaced by $w$ (cp. Goth. withra).

To (O.E. 10). It is often used in the sense of "for," as to frend $=$ "for friend" (Spenser), to wife, \&c.

Too (adv.) is another form of the same word.

## II. Compound Prepositions.

(I) Comparatives :-

After (O.E. af-ter), a comparative formed from of; see Comparison of Adjectives. We have the same root in aft, eft, abaft, \&c.

Over (O.E. ofer) is a comparative connected with $u p$, and with the compound above (O.E. $a-b-u f a n$ ) ; cp. Sansk. upari, Gr. intép, Lat. super; O. E. ufera, higher.

Under (O.E. un-der, Goth. un-dar, Sansk. an-tar, Lat. in-ter) contains the root in (see p. 203), with the comparative suffix -ther (-der).

Through (O.E. thur-h, O.Sax. thur-ah, Goth. thair-h, Ger. dur-ch; from root tit, to go beyond ; cp. Lat. tra-ns, Sansk. tiras, across).

Thorough is merely another form of through.
(2) Prepositions compounded with prepositions: into (O. E. intill), upon, beneath, underneath, afar, before, behind, beyond, within, without, throughout [O.E. foreby, at-fore, on-foran ( = afore), tofore].

But ( $=$ O.E. butan $=$ be-utan ) originally signified be out. In provincial English it signifies without.

Above $=a(o n)+b p+o v e(\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{E} . b u f a n=b e-u f a n) . \quad$ See $u p$ and over, § 312, p. 197.

About $=a+b e+$ out (O. E. abutan $=a$-be-utan $).$
Among, amongst (O.E. ge-mang, on gemong; later forms, amougres, amang).

Unto in O.E. often - until; unt = Goth. unde, to; O.Fris. ont, ; O.Sax. unt, unte; O.E. oth $=$ until.

$$
\text { Until }=u n t+\text { till. }
$$

(3) Prepositions formed from substantives :-

Again, against, over against (O.E. on-gein, agean; to-gegness, against; later forms, on 3 arnes, $a$ Jenes, ayens; cp. Ger. ent-gegen).

Other prepositions of this class are, instead of, in behalf of, by dint of, by way of, for the sake of; abroad, abreast, atop, ahead, astride, adown, across.
(4) Adjective prepositions:-

Ere (O.E. $a^{-r}$ ), before, is a comparative of the root d. See § 233, p. 146.

Or (O.E. ar) is another form of the same word.
Till (O.E. til, good; Goth. gatils, useful ; O.N. til, to).
Till first makes its appearance as a preposition in the northern dialect. It occurs in the Durham Gospels (eleventh century).

In O.E. we find intil = into.
To-ward, towards (O.E. $t \delta$-weard, $t \hat{\delta}$-weardes).
In O.E. we find these elements separated. Cp.
" Thy thoughts which are to us ward."-Psalm xl. 5 .
Other adverbs of this kind are afterward, afterwards, upward, froward $=$ away from.
" Give ear to my suit, Lord; fromward hide not thy face."-Paraphrase of Psaln Iv. by Earl of Surrey.

Along, alongst (O.E. andlang, ondlang, endelong, endlonges, an long, on longe, alonges, through, along).

It is often used for lengthwise, and is opposed to athwart or across.
"The dores were alle of ademauntz eterne
Iclenched overtkzuart and endetong."-Chuucer, Knigktes Tals.
" Muche lond he him 3ef an long thare sea."-La3. $x_{3}{ }^{8}$.
There is another along (O.E. ge-lang) altogether different from this, in the sense of "on account (of)."
"All this is 'long of you."-Coriol. v. 4 .
"All atong of the accursed gold."-Fortunes of Nigel.
"On me is nought alonge thin yvel fare." Сhavcek, Tr, and Cr. ii. 1. 1000.
"Vor ove is al mi lif ilong."-O.E. Hom., First Series, p. 197.
Amıd, amidst (O.E. on-middan, on-middum; later forms, amidde, amiddes; from the adjective midd, as in middle, mid-most).

In the midst is a compound like O.E. in the myddes of; cp. O. ts-middes $==$ amidst.

Other prepositions of this kind are, around, $a$-slant, $a$-skaunt, be-low, be-twixt (O.E. betweoh-s, be-tweon, from twi, two), betrocen (O.E. be-tweonum, betwynan), atween, atwixt.

An-ent is O.E. on-efn, on-emn, near, toward (later forms, on-efen-t, anent, anentes, anens, anence).

Athwart, over-thzuart, thwart (O.E. thwar, on thweorh; O.N. thzeert).

Fast by (O.E. on fest, near) ; cp. hardby, forby.
Since (O. E. siththan; later forms, siththe, sithe, sin, sen; sithens, sithence, sinmes, sins ${ }^{1}$ ).
O.E. no but, not but $=$ only.
(5) Verbal prepositions:-

The following prepositions arise out of a participial construction : notzithstanding, owing to, outtakcn (now replaced by except), \&c.
" Ther is non, outtaken hem (= iis exceptis)."-Wickliffe, Mark xii. 32.

## 315. III. Prepositions of Romance Origin.

(1) Uncompounded:-per, versus, saris ( $=$ Lat. sine).
(2) Compounded :-(a) Substantive-across, via, because, apropos of, by means of, by reason of, by virtue of, in accordance with, in addition to, in case of, in comparison to, in compliance with, in consequence of, in defiance of, in spite of, in favour of, in front of, in lien of, in opposition to, in the point of, in quest of, with regard to, in reply to, with reference to, in respect of, in search of, on account of, on the plea of, with a view to.
(b) Adjective-agreeably to, exclusive of, inclusive of, maugre, minus, previous to, relutively to, around, round, round about.
(c) Verbal, active :- -during, pending, according to, barring, bating, concerning, considering, excepting, facing, including, passing, regarding, respecting, aiding, tending, touching; (2) passive:-except, excepted, past, save. ${ }^{2}$

[^103]
## CHAPTER XVI.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

316. Conjunctions join sentences and co-ordinate terms. According to meaning, they are divided into-

Co-ordinate, joining independent prepositions: (a) copulative, as and, also, \&c. ; (b) disjunctive, as or, else, \&c.; (c) adversative, as but, $y c t$, \&c. ; (d) illative, as for, therefore, hence.

Sub-ordinate, joining a dependent clause to a principal sentence: $(\pi)$ those used in joining substantive clauses to the principal sentence. as that, whether; (b) those introducing an adverbial clause, marking (1) time-when, while, until; (2) reason, cause-because, for, since; (3) condition-if, untess, except; (4) purpose, end-that, so, lest.
317. According to their origin, conjunctions may be divided intopronominal, numeral, adverbial, substantive, prepositional, verbal, compound.

## (1) Pronominal:-

And (O.Sax. endi, O.H.Ger. anti, from the stem ana).
$A n=$ if (Goth. an, O.E. ono). It is sometimes written an: and frequently joined to if.
$E k e=$ also (O.E. ec), hence, howv, so, also, as, just as, as far as, in so far as, whereas, lest, then, than, ${ }^{1}$ thence, no sooner than, thongh, ${ }^{2}$ although, therefore, that, yea, nay, what . .. and (O.E. what... what), whereupon, whence, whether, either, neither, or, $120 r{ }^{3}$
(2) Numeral :-both, first, secondly, \&c.

[^104](3) Substantive :-sometimes ... sometimes, while, in case, upon condition, in order that, otherwise, likewise ( $=$ in like wise), on the one hand . . . on the other hand, on the contrary, because, besides, on purpose that, at times, if (see footnote on p. 200).
(4) Adjective (Adverbial):-even, alike, accordingly, consequently, directly, finally, lastly, namely, partly . . . partly, only, furthermore, moreover, now . . . now, anon . . . anon, lest, unless (O.E. onlesse), \&c.
(5) Prepositional:-
(a) Originally used before the demonstratives that or this:-ere, after, before, but, for, in (that), since (sith, sithence ${ }^{1}$ ), till, until, with (that); (b) participial :-notwithstanding, except, excepting, save, saving, \&c.
(6) Verbal:-to wit, videlicet (viz.), say, suppose, considering, providing.
(7) Compounds, being abbreviated forms of expression: not only, ${ }^{2}$ nathless, nevertheless, nathemore (Spenser), O. E. nathemo, O. E. never the later, that is, that is to say, may be, were it not, were it so, be it so, be so, how be it, albeit, O.E. al if, \&c.
So in O. E. we have warne, warn $=$ were it not, unless (cp. O. H.Ger. nur $=$ $n i$ suatri $=$ were it not), equivalent to the O.E. nêre that, were it not. Cp. O.E. quin ( $=$ qui $n e=$ why not ), $O$ that.

[^105]
## CHAPTER XVII.

## INTERJECTIONS. ${ }^{1}$

318. Interjections, having no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence, are not, strictly speaking, "parts of speech." They are either imitations of cries expressing a sudden outburst of feeling, as oh, ah, or are mere sound gestures, as st, sh.

Many words, phrases, and sentences have come to be used interjectionally, as alas, zounds, \&ic.

Interjections may express feelings of -
(1) Pain, weariness- $a h$, oh, $O$ (O.Fr. $a$, $a h, a h i, O$, oh, ohi), ay. O.E. interjections of pain are, $a, o u$, ow.

Welaway, welluday (O.E. wet $t \hat{t} w \hat{a}$; $t \hat{t}=l 0, w \hat{t}=w o e$; wit $l \hat{k}$, Scotch waly, O. E. awey (alas).

Alas (O.F. hailas, halas), alack, lackadaisy, alackaday, bookoo, out alas, O dear me (? dio mio, my God), heigh ho, heigh, heyday, O.E. hig.
(2) Joy-hey, heigh (Fr. hé), hey-day, hurrah, huzza, hilliho.
(3) Surprise, \&c. -eh (O.E. ey), ha, ha, ha ! what, why, how, lo, la, lazvk, aha (Lat. ha), ho, hi.
(4) Aversion, disgust, disapproval-fy, fie, foh, fugh, faugh, fudge, poh, pooh, pugh (Fr. pouah), bazw, bah, pah, ${ }^{2}$ pish, pshah, pshaze, tut, whew, ugh (O.E. weu), out, out on, hence, avaunt, aroynt, besone, for shame, fiddle-faddle.

[^106](5) Protestation-indeed, in faith, perdy, gad, ${ }^{1}$ egad, ecod, ods, odd, ond's bob, odd's pettikins, udsfoot, od's bodkins, od zooks, zooks, odso, gadso, 'sdeath, 'slife, zounds, 'sbud', 'sblood, lord', marry, lady, bi'rlady, by'rlakin, jingo,2 by jingo, deuce, dyce, devil, gentminy (O gremini).
(6) Calling and exclaiming-hilloa, holla, ho, so ho, hoy, hey, hem, harow (O.Fr. haro, a cry for help), help, hoa, bravo, well donc, hurk, look, see, oyes, mum, hist, whist, tut, tush, silence, peace, away, bo, shoo, shoohoo, whoa.
(7) Doubt, consideration-why, hum, hem (Lat. hem), humph, what.
(8) Many interjections are what are called "imitative words," or oromatopazias:-

Sounds produced (a) by inanimate objects-ding-dong, bim-bom, ting-tang, tick-tack, thwack, whack, twang, bang, whiz, thud, wohop, slap, dash, splash, clank, puff.
(b) By animate objects-bow-wow, mew, caw, purr, croak, cock-a-doodle-do, cuckoo, tu-whit, to-whoo, tu-whut, weke-weke, ha ha. ${ }^{3}$

[^107]
## CHAPTER XVIII.

## DERIVATION AND WORD FORMATION.

319. Roots, as we have seen, are either predicative or demonstrative, and constitute the primary elements of words. See $\S 58$.

The root is the significative part of a word, as bair-n, O. E. ber-n, contains the root bar, to bear. Suffixes serve to modify the ront meaning, as the $n$ in bair-n, which is identical with the $e n$ in the passive participle of strong verbs: hence bairn $=$ one bor-n or brought forth. Thus from the verb spin, by adding the suffix -der, lenoting the instrument or agent, we get $s p i-d e r,{ }^{1}$ the spinner.

Suffixes were once independent words, which, by being added to principal roots to modify their meaning, gradually lost their independence and became mere signs of relation, and were employed as formative elements. Cp. the origin of the adverbial suffix $-l y$, which originally signified like.

To get at the root of a word we must remove all the formative elements, and such changes of vowel as have been produced by the addition of relational syllables.

A theme or stem is that modification that the root assumes before the terminations of declension and conjugation are added, as love- $d$; $l o v(=l u f)$ is the root ; love $\left(=l u f_{0}\right)$ is the theme or stem; ; $d$ is the suffix of the past tense.
320. Themes are formed from roors ( $x$ ) by the addition of a demonstrative root, (2) by a change of the root vowel, (3) by combining other stems, (4) by reduplication.
In English very many formative elements have been lost, especially those of demonstrative origin. Gothic has retained more of these suffixes, once common to all the Aryan languages: thus from the root $g \pi f=$ give, the 0. E. formed $g i f-m$ a gift, $g i f-l l$, generous, liberal : gif-ta, marriage dowry; gif-te-lic, belonging to a wedding; gif-an, to give; giv-en-de, giving, a giver. Here the root-owel $a$ is weakened to $i$.
Gothic has gab-ei, gain, gift ; gnb-ci-gs, rich; gab-i-g-aba, richly ; gib-a, gift.; gib-a-n, to give ; gib-ard-s, a giver, giving ; other derivations might be found, as gab-ig-jan, to enrich ; gab-ig-nan, to be rich.

[^108]In O.E. gifu, Goth. gita $a, a$ or $u$ is a demonstrative particle forming a feminine noun; gif-ta contains the demonstrative th (as in the). In the Gothic gab-ei (for gabi) the suffix forms an abstract substantive feminine ; by adding the adjective suffix $g$ (same as English $y$ in dirt-y) we get gabei-g; then with the further addi tion of the nominative sign we have gabei-gs.

From gibig ( $=$ gabig or gabeig) we form a causative verb gab-ig-j-an, to enrich, and by means of the demonstrative $n$ (the sign of the passive participle) we get a verb with a passive signification gibig- $n-a n$, to be rich.

## SUFFIXES (OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN).

## 32 I. I. Nouns (Substantives and Adjectives).

## (A) Vowel Suffixes.

Many words have lost a vowel suffix in English from the earliest time. Cp. O.E. zuulf, a wolf, with Lat. lupu-s, ${ }^{1}$ Sansk. vark-a-s; O.E. hund, a hound, Goth. hund-s, Gr. ки́vע, Lat. cani-s, Sansk. shunas ( $=$ kunas) ; O.E. deor, Goth. diul-s, Gr. orpp, Lat. fera.

Modern. English has thrown off, or reduced to silent letters, many older vowel endings, as-
O. E. dutru, dore, a door, Goth. daura, Sansk. dvar-a, Gr. $\theta$ ט́pa ; O.E. cneov, the knee, Goth. Kniu, Gr. yóvv, Lat. genu. ${ }^{2}$

The suffix -ow represents in some few substantives an older suffix, (1) $u$, (2) wa.
(I) shad-ow $=$ O. E. sceadu, Goth. skathu-s.
meadow $=$ O.E. meodu, medu, ${ }^{\text {s }}$
(2) callowe $=\mathrm{O}$. E. cal-u, Lat. calvus.
fallow $=$ O.E. feal-u, fealwe, Lat. fulvus.
mallow $=$ O.E. mal-u, Lat. malva.
narrow $=$ O.E. nearu.
sallow = O.E. salu, O. H.Ger. salaw.
yellow $=$ O. E. geolu, Lat. gilvus.
swallow $=\mathrm{O}$. E. swal-tive, O.H.Ger. swal-awa, Ger. schzvalbe.
sinew = O.E. sincwe, seom, O. H. Ger. senazu.

[^109]The same suffix exists in HUE, O.E. hi-zv, heozv; hive, O. E. hiwa, a family : ale, O.E. ealu; yare, O.E. gearu, U.H. Ger. garaze; true, O.E. trcoz, trizes, Goth. triggy-s, Sansk. dhru-va-s.

It has fallen off in many words, as bale, meal, nigh, nesh, \&c. Other words with this ending belong to the suffix $y$.

Cp. Lat. eq-utu-s, with Goth. aih-wuts, O. Sax. eluw, Sansk. ashva.
Y.-In O.E. we find this suffix under the form $i g,{ }^{1}$ used to form adjectives from substantives-busy $=$ O.E. bys-ig; dizzy, O.E. dys-ig.

So, bloody, crafty, dusty, foamy, holy, hungry, heary, mighty, moody, many, silly, thirsty, weary.

It can be added to almost any substantive, as briery, fiery, earthy, zooody, \&c.

It is added also to Romance roots, as savoury, flowery.
In the following words we find a suffix $-i g$ or $h$, which has been softened down in some cases to ow or $y$ :-body, O.E. bod-ig, O.H. Ger. potah; honey, O.E. humig, O.H.Ger. hon-ang; sallow, O.E. salig, sal-h, O.H.Ger. sal-aha, Lat. salix, Gr. ท̂入íкŋ; hollow, Swed. holig.

## (B) Consonant Suffixes.

$\mathrm{K}^{2}$ (-ock, -kin, -ing, -ish, -ling).
(I) Ock (O.E. uca) adds a diminutive sense to bullock (O.E. bull-uca, the root), buttock, hummock, billock, jaddock, pinnock, mullock, ruddock.

Hawo-k, milk, silk, yolk, smack (boat, O.E. naca) contain this suffix.

In Lowland Scotch dialect we find mannock, laddock, lassock, wifock.
Proper names too, as Davock, Bessock.
It is sometimes reduced to -ick, as lassick, cp. wif-ukie, little wife; drappukie, little drop.

In proper names the suffix appears, as Pollock (from Paul), Baldock (from Baldwin), Wilcock, Wilcox (from William).
(2) Kin (diminutival).-Bumpkin, buskin, firkin, kilderkin, ladkin, lambkin, nap-kin.

[^110]In jroper names, as Dawkin (David), Simkin (Simon), Fenkins ( $\mathcal{F o}^{\prime}$ 'n), Perkins (Peter).
(3) Ing (patronymic).-O.E. Scilf-ing, the son of Skilf; Elising, the son of Elisa (Elisha). Cp. names of towns in -ing-ton.
(4) Ing (ending in substantives which originally had an adjectival meaning). - Atheling, king (O.E. (yn-ing ${ }^{1}$ ), lord-ing (lordling), penny (O.E. pend-ing, pen-ing), shilling, herring, whiting, gelding, swecting.
(5) Ing (diminutive). - Farthing, riding $(=$ trithing), O.E. tithing (tenth).
These forms are properly fractional. Cp. O.N. thrithjungr, $\frac{1}{3}$, fiorthungr, 4.
(6) Ling $=1+$ ing (diminutive).
(a) Darling, duckling, foundling, gosling, starling, sapling, seedling, suckling, yearling, youngling.
(b) It has a depreciative sense in groundling, hireling, worldling, \&c.
(7) The diminutival -ing seems to have weakened to $y$ (ic), in Billy, Betty; cp. Scotch lassie, laddie. ${ }^{2}$
(8) Ing (suffix of verbal nouns = O.E. ung ${ }^{3}$ ).-Being, clothing, cheaping (O.E. ceapung), learning (O.E. leornung).
(9) Ish (O.E. -isc).-(1) English, Irish, Welsh, Scotch; (2) outlandish, heathenish, womanish, bookish, hoggish; (3) reddish, greenish, sueetish.

$$
L, R^{4}(e l, e r)
$$

(a) Substantives in $-1 \mathrm{e},-1, \mathrm{O}$. E. $-l(-o l,-u l,-l)$, as angle ( $=$ O. E. ang-el), apple, beadle, bramble, bridle, devil, bundle, fiddle, ic-icle, kettle, nettle, navel, runnel, saddle, sladdle, shambles, sickle, settle,

[^111]steeple, thistle, tile, throstle, whistle, fowl, hail, heel, nail, sail, tail, soul, wheel.
In the Scotch dialect el has become rel, as betherel = beadle ; gangrel, a beggar, cp. mong-rel.
(b) Adjectives in -le, -1 (O.E. -el, ol), as litlle $=$ O.E. lytel; fickle $=$ O.E. fic-ol; brittle, evil, ill, idle, mickle, tickle (unsteady).
O. E. drunk-el-ew, cost-l-ew, chok-l-ew, sic-l-ew.
(c) Substantives in r (O.E. -or, -er, -r), as hammer (O.E. hamor), wat-er (O.E. water), tear (O.E. teag-or, tear, ter).

Adder, bee-r, beaver, bower, calver, chafer, finger, hunger, liver, lair, summer, silver, stair, timber, tear, thunder, wonder, water, winler.
(d) Adjectives in -r (O.E. -or, -er, -r), bitter, fair, lither, slipper-y (O.E. sliper, and slider), meagre.

## M. ${ }^{1}$

(I) Blossom, bloo-m (O.E. blo-ma), besom (O.E. bes-ma), groom (O.E. gu-ma), helm of ship (O.E. heal-ma), thumb (O.E. thit-ma), team (O. E. teo-ma).
(2) A shortened form of this suffix ${ }^{2}$ is found in arm, barm, beam, boltom, bosom, doom, dream, falhom, gleant, halm, helm, holm, home, palm, qualm, seam, stream, slim, team, worm.

Adjectives: war-m (cp. Lat. for-mu-s, warming; Gr. $\theta \in \rho-\mu o ́-s$; Sansk. ghar-ma-s, warm) ; O.E. ar-m, poor.
(3) A suffix $m a$ appears in superlatives with $m$, as for-m-ost, ut-$m$-ost, \&c.

## N.

Participles: broken, beaten, hew-n, ${ }^{3}$ \&c.
Substantives : bai-rn, beacon, burden, churn, chin, corn, heaver, iron(O.E. İren), kitchen, maiden, main, morn, oven, rain, raven, thane,

[^112]swine, token, thorn, yarn, weapon, wain; vixen, ${ }^{1}$ O.E. wolvene, dovene, \&c.

Adjectives: (1) aspen, asken, buchen, brazen, flaxen, birchen, glassen, golden, heathen, leaden, linen, oaken, oaten, silken, wheaten, wooden; (2) browen, even, fain, green, lean, heathen, stern; (3) eastern, northern, southern, westery.

These last contain suffix $r+n$.
In chick-en, kilten, the suffix -en has a diminutival force.

## N, ND. ${ }^{2}$

Eve, even, evening (O.E. afen, O.S. abant, O. Fris. avend), eleohant (O.E. olfend, Goth. ulbandus, Lat. elephantus), errand ${ }^{3}$ (O.E. ar-end), fiend ${ }^{4}$ (O.E. fiond, fiond), friend ${ }^{5}$ (O.E. friond, frond), youth ${ }^{6}$ (O.E. geogoth, O.H. Ger. juingu-nd), tiding (O.E. tidende), zui-nd. 7

All present participles in the oldest Engiish ended in -nd (-ende, -ande; later, -inde, -end, -and, -inge).

## S. ${ }^{8}$

I. Addice, adze (O.E. adesa) ; axe (O.E. eax; Goth. aqzo-izi); bliss (from blithe: cp. O.E. milse, from mild); caves (O.E. efese).

## Sel.

II. Axle (O.E. eaxle; Gr. achsel) ; housel (O.E. hil-sel, hu-sl; Goth. hun-sl, a sacrifice), ousel, ouzel (O.E. osle; O.H.Ger. am-isala).

$$
\mathrm{L}(=1 \mathrm{~s}) .
$$

From the combination $-l s$, the $s$ has dropt off in modern English.
Burial (O.E. byrgels, a burying-place); bridle (O.E. bridels);

[^113]girdle (O.E. gyrdels) ; riddle (O.E. radels) ; skittles (O.E. scyttels = that which is shot forward, a bolt, bar).

## N -ess.

This suffix is added to (a) adjectives, as greatness, goodness, sickness, sweetness ; (b) substantives, as zuitness, wilderness (O.E. wildcorness).

It enters into combination with Romance words ending in able, -al, -ant, -ar, -ary, -ate, -able, -ible, -ic, -ous, \&c.

Est. Earnest, harv-est.
Ster. Bolster, holster.
Ster (O.E. istre), originally a sign of the feminine gender, as spinster, huckster, \&c. See Gender, §73, p. 89.

Upholsterer was originally (1) upholder, (2) upholster.
D, originally th. ${ }^{1}$
(I) It occurs in (a) participles, as praised, loved; (b) in adjectives with a possessive sense (cp. -en in broken and wood-en), as horned, feathered, hilted, booted, an hungered, grood-hearted, thick-lipped.
(c) Substantives-blood, blade, deed, flood, gleed, gold, head, seed, speed, shield, thread.
(d) Adjectives-bold, cold, dead, loud, naked, wicked (O.E. wicce, wikke).
(2) Under the form th it is found in abstract substantives derived from adjectives and verbs.

Preceded by a sharp mute, \&c. th is changed to $t$.
Substantives-craft, dart, drought, fight, gift, height, knight, loft, night, might, slaught-er, sight, theft, draught, weight, new-t, ef-t, gannet, hornet, hart, len-ten (O. E. lenc-t-en, leng-t-en, from lang, long). Dearth, death, depth, health, length, mirth, strength, sloth, tilth, truth, warmith, birth, earth, kith.

Adjectives-bright, light, right, salt, swift, left.
Sometimes a euphonic $s$ strengthens the dental, as be-hest, bla-s-t, dit-s-t, fi-s-t, mixen (and muck) $=$ O. E. meox, meohx; Goth. maih-$s$-tu-s.

[^114]Ther. ${ }^{1}$
(I) This suffix, marking the agent, occurs in terms of relationship common to all the Aryan languages-brother, daughter, fother. mother, sister.
(2) It is found in other substantives, under the forms -ther, -der, -ter, -dle (marking the instrument) :-

Fother, feather, weather, bladder, fodder, foster, ladder, murder, rudder, laughter, meedle (O.E. nadl; Goth. nethla ( = ne-thra), cp. $\mathrm{Gr} .-\tau \rho \epsilon,-\delta \rho o,-\delta \rho a ;-\tau \lambda 0,-\tau \lambda \eta,-\delta \lambda 0,-\delta \lambda \eta$; Lat. nouns in tru-m, \&c. as ara-tru-m, fulgetra, lightning).
(3) See comparatives in -ther, § II3, p. 106.

Er (O.E. ere $=e r+$ a demonstrative $y a$; Goth. ei-s; O.H.Ger. -ari), ${ }^{2}$ as baker, O.E. bacere.
(I) This suffix forms nouns from (a) strong verbs, as grinder, rider, speaker, singer; (b) weak verbs, as leader. lover, lender; (c) from substantives, as miller, gardener, changer, treasurer.
(2) Some few words have $i$ inserted before er, probably under the influence of Norman French : collier, clothier, glazier, lawyer.

## II. Noun Suffixes from Predicative Roots.

322. The following formations might really be treated under. the head of Composition:-

## i. Substantives.

Craft (O.E. craft), priest-craft, book-craft, leech-craft, star-craft, wood-craft.

Cp. O.E. staf-craft ( $=$ letter-craft), grammar.
Kind (O.E. cyn), mankind.
Cp. O.E. treow-cyn (tree-kind), wood.
The suffix kin in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries became less frequently used than in the earlier periods, and the word kin was employed instead, as "alles kinnes bokes" = books of every kind; hence arose the followin' compounds :-alleskyns, noskynnes, nakin, whatkin. Cp.
"Saga me hwat boc-kinna and hu fela syndon."-Sol. and Sat.
"Quatkir ( $=$ whatkin) man mai this be? "-Cursor Mundi.

[^115]Dom ${ }^{1}$ (O.E. dôm, judgment, authority, dominion; Ger. -thum), thraldom, halidom, wisdom, kingdom (O.E. kine-dom), dukedom.

Ern (O.E. ern; O.N. rann, house), bar-n, from bere, barley.
Cp. O.E. slapern, a sleeping place; horsern, a stable.
Fare (way, course). Thorough-fare, chaffer, welfare.
Ard (O.E. heard, hard', cp. magen-heard, might-hard, iren-heard, iron-hard; O.H.Ger. -hart; O.Fr. -ard) ; bast-ard, bayard, braggart, buzzard, coward, dullard, laggard, haggard, niggard, sluggard, staggard, standard, sweetheart. But dastard $=$ O. E. dastrod, frightened.

Hood, head (O.E. had, state, rank, person, character; later forms -hed, hod ; O. Fris. hêd ; O.H. Ger. -heit).
(1) Manhood, childhood, brotherhood, godhead, maidenhead.
(2) Hardihood, likelihood; livelihood, which originally meant liveliness, but it now stands for the O.E. lif-lode ( = life-leading) sustenance.

Lock (O.E. lac, gift, sport), wed-lock, knowledge (O. E. cnowlach, cnowlech = cnawlac).
Lock, -lick (O.E. -leac, -lic) in the names of plants = leek (O.E. leac); bar ley $(\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{E}$. berlic $=$ bere plant); garlick $($ spear plant) ; hem-lock, char-lock.

Meal (O.E. mal, time division), uvder-meal $=$ noontide, cp . piecemeal. See adverbs, § 3II, p. 194.

Red (O.E. -rêden $=$ mode, fashion); hat-red, kin-d-red (O.E. kj"n-red).

Rick (O.E. rîce $=$ power, dominion) ; bishoprick, cp. O.E. hoveneriche, kinerick ( $=$ kine-riche ; kine $=$ royal).

Ship (O.E. scipe, scepe $=$ shape, manner, form); friendship, lordship, worship, hardship, land-skip, land-scape (cp. O.N. landskapr; O.E. landscipe).

Wright (O.E. wyrhta, wrihte, a workman), wheel-wright, playzuright.

Tree (wood), axle-tree, O.E. dore-tre (door-post, bar of a door).
Beam (tree), horn-beam.
Monger (dealer), coster-monger, news-monger.

## 2. A djectives.

Fast (O.E. fast, fast, firm), steadfast, shumefaced ( $=$ O. E. shamefust), root fast, soothfast.

Fold (O.E. feald, fold), two-fold, manifold.
Ful (O.E. ful, full), hateful, wilful ( $=$ O.E. willesful).

[^116]Less (O.E. leds; Goth. laus), loose from ; it has no connection with less, the comp. of little; fearless, joyless, guilttess.

Ly, like (O.E. lic; Goth. -leiks; O.N. -litrr,-lëgr; Lat. -lis; Gr. -גıкos), go.dly, manly, goodly, sickly; cp. warlike, dovelike.

Some (O.E. sum; O.N. -samr ; O.H.Ger. samı = same, like), blithesome, buxom ( $=$ bugh-som), fulsone, irksome, gamesome.

Teen, ty = tea. See Numerals, § 129, p. 112.
Ward (O.E. zeeard; Goth. -uvairths, becoming, leading to : connected with weorthan, to be, Sansk. vrit, Lat. vert-ere, to turn), firivard, toward, untoward.

Wise (O.E. wis, mode, way, manner) ; rightcous (O. E. riht-wis, rightwise) ; boisterous (O.E. bostwys).

Worth (O. E. weorth, worth), dear-worth (precious), stalworth.

## III. Adverbial Suffixes.

For the suffixes -es, -s, -um, \&c. see Adverbs, § 311, pp. 193-196.
Ly (O.E. lice, the dative of lic, like), only's utterly, mizickedly, willingly.

Ling, long (O.E. -lunga, -linga, nasalized forms of -lice, -lice), darkling, headlong, sideling; sidelong. See Adverbs, §3II; O.E. roseling, backling, \&c.

Meal, piece-meal, flock-meal (used by Chapman), limb-meal (Cymbeline, ii. 4). See p. 219.

Ward, wards, hitherward, backwards, downwards, \&is
Wise (manner, mode), otherwise, nowise, likewisc.
Way-s. See Adverbs, p. 194.

## IV. Verbal Suffixes.

The verbal suffixes, which we find in Gothic and Old English, have nearly all disappeared.
The oldest Teutonic verbal suffixes were, as in Gothic, ( 1 ) $j a(e i),(2) o(=a)$, (3) $a i$, all of which can be traced to a more primitive suffix aya (from the root $t=$ go).

Thus the suffix $d$ was used to form verbs from nominal themes, as from Gothic fishes, a fish, came fiskon, O.E. fisc-ia-r, to fish.

A few causative verbs in modern English are expressed by rowel change, but the suffix that caused it has been lost. 1

[^117]1NTR.
to fall
to drink
to lie
to sit
to rise
to wind
caus.
to fell
to drench
to lay to set to raise to wend

The suffix used for causative verbs was originally $a y a$, an extension of root $t$, to go ; cp. Sansk kar-ayâ-mi, I cause to make. This aya appears in Gothic as ja, as sat-ja, I set (Sansk. sâd-aya-mi), from sita, I sit ; lag-ja, I lay, from lig-a, I lie.

In Sanskrit we find a causative suffix $p$, in Lat. $p$ and $c$, as Sansk, $y \hat{a}-p-a y d-m i$, I cause to go; Lat. ja-c-io, cp. rap-io. This $p$ becomes $f$ in English, as wer-v-e; cp. O.E. bif-ian, to tremble, from a root bi (Sansk. bhi), to fear.

S occurs in verbs formed from nominal stems, as clean-se, ${ }^{1}$ curse, wanze (to wane), tru-st (O.E. treowsian), cp. clasp (root clap), grasp (root grap, grip), lisp (root lip).

N originally added a reflexive or passive sense to the verb, as learn, from lere; but it has now a causative meaning, as fallen, swecten, lengthen, strengthen.

L, ${ }^{2}$ which adds to the root the sense of frequency, repetition, diminution, \&c.-bustle, crankle, crimple, dribble, drizzle, grapple, dangle, dazzle, kneel, neslle, prowl, settle, sparkle, startle, \&c.
$\mathbf{R}$ adds a frequentative or intensive signification-bluster, fitter, flutter, glitler, hanker.

K (frequentative)-hark, from hear, lurk, stalk, skulk, walk, talk.

## 323. COMPOSITION.

Two or more words are joined together to make a single term expressing a new notion, as orchard, nightingale, hindizoork.
In Gothic we find a vowel 3 between the roots, as aurti-gards, O.E. ort-geard $=$ orchard, howdu-wauthts, O. E. kand-ge-zuconc, handiwork.
Nightingale $=$ O.E. nihte-gale, Ger. nachtegall, O. H.Ger. nahtigala $=$ nightsinger.

In O.E. we find mighter-tale ( $=$ mihte-tale), night-time.

[^118]
## I. Substantive Compounds.

(1) Substantive and Substantive.
(a) Descriptive, as gar-lick, spear-plant, even-tide, noon-tide, shurch-yard, head-man.
(b) Appositional, as oak-tree, beech-tree.
(c) Genitive, as kinsman, Tuesday, doomsday.

Loadsman and guardsmar had no $s$ in the oldest English.
(d) Accusative, as man-killer, blood-shedding.

Compounds like Lord-lieutenant, earl-marshal are of French origin.
In many compound terms the elements have become changed or obsolete, and are not easily recognized.

| hang-nail | $=$ | O.E. ang-nagele $^{1}$ | a sore under the nail |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ban-dog | $=$ | bond-doge | a dog chained up |
| bar-n | $=$ | bere-arn | barley-house |
| brim-stone | $=$ | bren-ston | burn-stone |
| bridal | $=$ | bryd-ealu | bride-ale, i.e. bridefeast |
| grospel | $=$ | god-spell | God's word ${ }^{2}$ |
| grunsel | = | grund-syl | ground-sil |
| heifer | $=$ | hed-fore ${ }^{3}$ | stall-cow |
| huzzy | $=$ | hus-wif | housewife |
| icicle | = | is-gicel | ice-jag |
| Lammas | = | hlaf-masse | loaf-mass |
| mole | = | mold-weorp | mould-thrower |
| auger | = | nafo-ger, navegar $=$ | naveborer |
| nostril | = | nose-thyrel | nose-hole |
| orchard | $=$ | ort-geard, ort-yard $=$ | herb garden |
| stirrup | $=$ | stig-rdp $=$ | climbing-rope |
| steward |  | stige-weard | (guardian of cattle, domestic offices, \&ic. stige $=$ sty, stall |
| shelter | $=$ | scild-truma | troop-shield |
| tadpole |  | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { tidd = toad, frog, } \\ \text { and pol }=\text { pool } \end{array}\right\}=$ | toad in the pool |
| titmouse |  | tite $=$ little, and mase $=$ | hedge-sparrow |
| world | $=$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { werold (wer = man } \\ & + \text { eld }=\text { age). } \end{aligned}$ |  |

(2) Substantive and Adjective-free-man, mid-day, mid-night, mid-summer, black-bird, alder-man.
Cp. neighbour $=$ O.E. neah-bur = one who dwells near mid-riff $=$ O.E. mid-hrif: mid $=$ middle ; hrif = body, uterus.
(3) Substantive and Numeral-twi-light, sen-night, fort-night.
(4) Substantive and Pronoun-self-will, self-esteem.
(5) Substantive and Verb-grind-stone, whet-stone, pin-fold, wag. $\ddagger$ tail, rear-mouse, bake-house, wash-house, wash-lub, pick-pocket, spendthrift, \&c.

Distaff $=$ O.E. distaf, dyse-stafi, Prov. E. dise $=$ to supply the staff with flax (dise = flax, hence to supply flax).

A substantive is often qualified by another substantive, to which it is joined by a preposition, as man-of-zvar, will-o'-the-wisp, Jack-alantern, ${ }^{1}$ brother-in-lazv, \&c.

## II. Adjective Compounds.

I. Substantive and Adjective, in which the substantive has the force of an adverb, as blood-red = red as blood, snow-white $=$ white as snow, sea-sick $=$ sick through the sea, fire-proof $=$ proof against fire, cone-shaped, eagle-eyed, coal-eyed, lion-hearted.
2. Adjective and Substantive, denoting possession, as barefoot.

Cp. O.E. clén-heort $=$ having a clean heart, ân-eage $=$ having one eye.

In the corresponding modern forms the substantive has taken the participial suffix (perfect) of weak verbs, as bare-footed, bare-headed, one-gyed, three-cornered, four-footed. ${ }^{2}$
3. Participial combinations, in which the participle is the last element.
(a) Substantive and present participle, in which the first element is the object of the second, as earth-shaking, heart-rending.
(b) Adjective and present participle, in which the first element is equivalent to an adverb, as deep-musing, fresh-looking, ill-looking.

[^119](c) Substantive and perfect participle, as ale-fed, book-learned, death-doomed, earth-born, moth-eaten, sea-torn, wind-fallen. (C.p. chap-fallen, brawn-fallen.)
(d) Adjective and perfect participle, as dear-bought, full-fed, highfinished, new-made, well-bred, fresh-blown, high-born, dead-drunk, hard-gotten.

## III. Verbal Compounds.

1. Substantive and verb.-Back-bite, blood-let, browv-beat, hoodwink, kiln-dry, ham-string.
2. Adjective and verb.-Dry-nurse, dumb-found, white-wash.
3. Adverb and verb. -Cross-question, doff ( $=$ do-off), don ( $=$ doon), dout ( $=$ do-out), dup ( = do-up).
4. COMPOSITION WITH TEUTONIC PARTICLES.

> (A) Inseparable Particles.
> I. A.
(1) $A$ (O.E. $\hat{a}$; Goth. us; O.H.Ger. -ur, -ar, $-a$; Ger. -cr), added to verbs, originally signified from, out, azvay, back. (a) From the meaning of from, away, arises a privative, or opposite signification, as O.E. weendan, to turn; a-wendan, turn away, subvert. (b) It does not always alter the root-meaning, but merely intensifies it, as O.E. abidan, to abide.
(i.) Ago, alight, arise, arouse (cp. O. E. aby, ${ }^{1}$ aworeke, aslake, arere, ahange); (ii.) abide, awake.
(2) A (O.E. $a$; Goth. Aizw; O.H.Ger. êo: cp. Gr. áel), ever, always. See aught (p. 146), either (p. 149).
(3) $A=$ on (O.E. an) : a-way, a-gain, \&c. See p. 201.
(4) $A$ (O.E. $a t, a t)=0$ back, like Latin re; O.E. $a t$-wite $=a t$ witan $=$ reproach ; Eng. twit.
(5) $A=$ of : adown = O.E. of-dune.
(6) $A(=$ O.E. $g e, y)$, as a-like (O.E. gelic), ${ }^{2}$ among (O.E. gemang), a-ware (O. E. ge-ware, i-ware).

[^120]In the seventeenth century we find anough $=$ enough (O.E. genoh, inoJ) ; along (of) $=$ on account of (O.E. gelang, ilong).

Ready $=$ O.E. iredy $=$ ge-rad.
(7) $A$ (O.E. -and; Goth. -anda), back.

A-long (O.E. and-lang, end-long, an-long) ; a-cknowledge (O.E. acknow = oncnâwan; O.Sax. ant-kennjan): cp. to an-swer = O.E. andswarian ; ambassador $=$ O.E. ambeht, Goth. and-bahts.
(8) $A$ (= O.E. of), like Lat. per, is an intensitive :- $a$-shamed ( $=$ O.E. of-ashamed ), a-thirst ( $=$ O.E. of thirst).
II. $\mathrm{Be}(\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{E} . b e, b i, b i g)$ is identical with the preposition $b y$.
(I) It adds an intensitive force to transitive verbs, as bedaub, lesmear, \&c.
(2) It renders intransitive verbs transitive, as bespeak, bethink.
(3) It has a privative meaning in be-head.
(4) It enters into combination with substantives to form verbs, as be-friend, be-knave, be-night, be-troth.
(5) It is added to Romance roots, as be-charm, be-flatter, be-siege, be-tray.

Be-lieve $=$ O.E. gelyfan, Ger. glauben; be-reave $=$ O.E. reafian; bc-grin $=$ O.E. on-ginnan.
(6) It is also added to nouns, as be-half, be-hest, be-hoof, be-quest, by-blow, by-name, by-path, by-stander, by-way, by-word.
(7) It forms part of adverbs, as be-fore, be-sides, be-cause.
III. For (O.E. for; Goth. faur, fair, fra; Lat. per) $=$ through, throughly, adds an intensitive meaning, as for-bid, for-do, for-give, for-get, for-swear, ${ }^{1}$ for-lorn.

In some words it is equivalent to amiss, badly, as fore-deem, forespent, fore-speak, fore-shamed: cp. O.E. for-shapen, transformed very much, mis-shapen, for-woundel $=$ very much wounded, and hence badly wounded. ${ }^{2}$

It enters into combination with a few Romance roots, as forbarred, for-judge, for-fend ( $=$ forbid), for-guess.

[^121]IV. Fore (O.E. forc) $=$ before.
(1) With verbs-fore-bode, fore-cast, fore-tcll.
(2) With participles-fore-said, fore-iold, forc-dated.
(3) With substantives-fore-father, fore-casile, fore-sight.
V. Gain (O.E. gacmn, on-gagn, A-sain, back, again), against.

Gain-say, gain-stand, gain-strive: cp. O.E. ayen-bite $=$ remorse , $a \bar{j} e n-b y g g^{2} e n=$ to redeem.
VI. I or X (O.E. ge).

I-wiss (O.E. gewiss), truly. See alike, among (p. 224), cnonghid (O.E. genoh, inoh).
VII. Mis- (O.E. mis; Goth. missa; O.N. mis), defect, error, evil. ${ }^{1}$

Mis-behave, mis-call, mis-trust, mis-deed.
In French compounds mis- = French mes-, from Lat. minus; as mis-chief, mis-chance; O.E. mes-chef, mes-chaunce.
VIII. Nether (O.E. nither), down, downward, below.

Nether-stocks (used by Shakespeare, as opposed to upper-stocks, or breeches), Nether-lands.
IX. Sand (O.E. sim), half.

Sand-blind $=$ sam-blind (Shakespeare) : cp. O.E. sám-cwic (halfalive).
X. To (Goth. dis; O.N. tor; O.If.Ger. zar, zer ; Lat. dis-; $\mathrm{Gr} . \delta_{\text {© }}$ ).

This particle is of very frequent occurrence in Old English, signifying asunder, in pieces; it is sometimes intensitive, as to-bite, tocleave, to-rend, to-tear; it is often strengthened by the word all ( = quite): "And a certain woman cast a piece of a millstone upon Abimelech's head, and all to brake his skull" (Fudges ix. 53). All-lo-brake $=$ broke quite in pieces. See All, p. 227.

[^122]To is sometimes the ordinary preposition, as in O. E. to-name, an additional name; to-ne3en, to approach. In adverbs it is found in to-day, to-morrow, to-night; O.E. to-year = this year, to-whils = whilst.
XI. Un (O.E. on; Goth. and; Ger. ent), back. See (7) A, p. 225.

Un-bind, un-do, zun-lock, unn-winind. ${ }^{1}$
XII. Un (O.E. un), not, as un-true, un-wise, un-ready, un-told, un-truth.
XIII. Wan (O.E. zvan : cp. O.E. zuana; Goth. wans, wanting), denoting deficiency, wau-ting in, is equivalent to un- or dis-.

Wanhope, despair; wan-trust, wanton ( $=$ wan-towen $=$ untrained, uneducated, wild, from O. E. tcon [p.p. togen, towen], to lead).
XIV. With (O.E. with, a shortened form of wider, back. against), back, against.

With-draw, with-hold, with-say, with-stand.

## (B) Separable Particles.

I. After (O.E. after), after-growth, after-math, after-dinner.

Eft (O.E. aft, eft), eft-soons.
II. All (O.E. al, eal), all-mighty, all-wise, \&c.

In O.E. $a l=$ quite. It is added (1) to participles, as al-brent $=-$ quite burnt, al-heled $=$ quite concealed, $\& \delta^{\circ}$. ; (2) to verbs, as albreken, to break entirely. It also comes before verbs compounded with the particle to.

Wickliffe has many of these forms, as al-to-brenne $=$ to burn up entirely; the particle to- probably becoming weakened.

In Elizabethan and later writers all-to $=$ altogether, quite; the original meaning of to having been lost sight of.

All to topple (Pericles, iii. 2, 17) = topple altogether ; all to nought (Venus and Adonis, 993); all-to rufted (Milton).

## III. Forth (O.E. forth).

Forth-coming, forth-going.
IV. Fro, from (O.E. fram; O.N. fra).

From-ward, fro-ward.

[^123]V. In (O.E. in, inn).

In-come, in-wit, in-land, in-sight, in-born, in-bred, in-step, inward, in-lay, in-fold.

In many verbs it has been replaced by a Romance form (en, em), as en-dear, en-lighten, en-twint, em-bïter, em-bolden.
VI. Of, off (O.E. of; Goth. af; O.H.Ger. aba), from, off.

Of-fal, off-set, off-scum, off-spring.
A-thirst (= O.E. of-thyrst) ; an-hungred (= O. E. of-hyngred): cp. O. E. adreu'en and of-dreden; aferen and of-faren. See (8) $A$, p. 225.
VII. On (O.E. on $)=$ upon, forward.

On-sct, on-slaught, on-zuar\%\%.
VIII. Out, Ut (O.E. ît).

Out-bud, out-pour, out-root, out-breathe, out-break, out-cast, out-side, out-post, out-law, ut-ter, ut-most.

It has sometimes the sense of beyond, over, as out-bred, out-do, out-flank.
IX. Over (O.E. ofer), above, beyond, exceedingly, too much.
(I) With substantives and adjectives.-Over-coat, over-flow, overjoy, over-poise, over-big, over-cold, over-curious: cp. О.E. overhand = upper hand.
(2) With verbs. - (1) over-flow, over-fly, ower-gild, ovor-hang, over-spread, over-throw. (2) over-burden, over-build, over-dry, overdrunk, over-carry, over-fatigued. (3) over-hear; over-look, over-see.
X. Thorough, through ${ }^{1}$ (O.E. thurh, thuruh ; Goth. thairh).

Thorough-fare, thorough-bred, through-train.
XI. Under (O.E. under).
(1) With verbs. - (1) Under-go, under-stand, under-take. (2) under-let, under-sell, under-prize.
(2) With substantives.-Under-growth, undor-wood.
XII. Up (O.E. $u p$ ).
(1) With verbs.-Up-bear, up-braid (O.E. obraide), up-kw? $d$, up-set.
(2) With substantives.-Up-land, up-start, up-shot.
(3) With adjectives.-Up-right, up-ward.

[^124]
## 325. SUFFIXES OF ROMANCE ORIGIN.

## I. Vowel Endings.

Many words of French origin have lost an original vowel, as-
Beast: O.E. beste; O.Fr. beste; Lat. bestia.
Vein: O.E. veyne; Fr. veine; Lat. vena.
Fig: O.E. fyge; O.Fr. fige; Lat. ficus.

## Y.

(1) In substantives this suffix frequently represents Fr. ie; Lat. ia, condition, faculty, \&c. :-

Barony, company, copy, courtesy, fallacy, folly, family, fury, harmony, history, lobby, memory, modesty, many, ribald-r-y (O.E. ribaudie), victory, \&c.

It is added occasionally to stems in er, as baker-y, fisher-y, lecher-y, prior-y, robber-y.

In names of countries we have $i a$ as well as $y^{\prime}$, as Italy, Sicily, \&c.; Armen-ia, Assyr-ia.

Many words in $y$ have come through Lat. nouns in -ia (Fr. -ie) from Gr. $-t,-t a,-\epsilon \iota a,-$

Analogy, apology, apostasy, blasphemy', geometry, melancholy, melody, fancy (O.E. phantasy), philosophy, frenzy, abbey, litany, necro. mancy.
(2) It sometimes stands for Lat. $i u-m$ :-

Augury, horology, larceny, obloquy, remedy, study, subsidy, O.E. obsequy.
(3) Y represents aiso Lat. -atus, as attorncy, deputy, ally, quarry.
(4) Many words ending in $c y, s y$, are formed on the model of French words in -cie; Lat. -t-ia:-

Bankruptcy, chaplaincy, conspiracy, curacy, minstrelsy.
It is equivalent to the suffix -ness in degeneracy, intimacy, intricacy, obstinacy, \&c.-all formed from adjectives in -atc.
(5) There are other words in $c y$, sy, that have arisen from Latin -sis, Gr. ots, as catalepsy, epilepsy, idiosyncrasy, \&c.: see p. 239.
(6) Some words in ee arise from Lat. -au-s, -au-m:-

Pharisee, pigmy, Sadducee.
(7) Spongy = Lat. spongiosus.
(8) For hasty, testy, jolly, see Ive, p. 230.

Ancy, ency: see p. 24 I .
Mony: see p. 235.
Ary, ory: see p. 232.
Ee, ey: see pp. 238, 242.

## II. Consonant Endings.

## V.

Ve. Octa-ve (Lat. octa-vir-s), olive (Lat. oliva), sa-fe (Lat. sal. vu-s; O.Fr. salv, sauf).

The $v$ is vocalized in the following words:-assiduous (Lat. assid-uu-s; Fr. assidu), continuous, exigzous, ingenuous, perspicuous, promiscuous, residue (Lat. residunm).

The common suffix -ous = Lat. -osu-s: see S .
Ive (Fr. if; Lat. ivus; a shortened form of Lat. -tivus), ${ }^{1}$ able to, inclined to.

Bailiff (Mid.Lat. ballivns), captive (caitif), motive, native, plaintiff, active, adoptive, alternative, attentive, contemplative, fugitive, laxative, furtive, pensive, restive, \&c.

In some few words $f$ has dropped off, as hasty (O. Fr. hastif), jolly (O.E. jolif; O.Fr. joli, fem. jolive), testy (O.E. testif), guilty (O.E. giltif).

> S.

Ous, ose (Lat. -osu-s; ${ }^{2}$ O.Fr. -os, -ous; Fr. -eux, -oux, -ose), full, like.

Copious, curious, delicious, fanoous, glorions, \&cc.; bellicose, jecose, verbose, \&c.
(1) Ous sometimes 'represents Lat. -us, as anxious, arboresus, arduous, omnivorous, superfluous, \&c.
(2) It is also added to adjectival stems, as asper-ous (O.E. asper), aulacious, prccipitous, together with many others ending in ferous, -gicrous.

[^125](3) It is also used in modern formations, as contradictious, felicitons, joyous, murderous, wondrous.

Ese (Fr. -is, -ois, -ais; It. -ese; Lat. -ensis), of or belonging to.
Chinese, Japanese, Maltese, Portuguese; burgess (Mid.Lat. burgensis; J.Fr. burgeis; Fr. bourgeois; It. borghese; O.E. bourgeis), courtcous (Mid.Lat. curtis; O.Fr. curteis, courtois; It. cortese; O.E. curteis), marquis (Mid.Lat. marchensis; It. marchese; O.F. marcis; O.E. marcheis, markis), morass ${ }^{1}$ (It. marese; O.F. mareis; O.E. natreys).

Ess (Lat. -issa; Gr. -tб $\sigma \alpha{ }^{2}$ It. -essa; Sp. -esa, -isa; Fr. -csse): the ordinary feminine suffix of substantives, as countess, ducheshostess, Sic.: see Gender of Substantives.

## R.

(I) R, re, \&c. (Lat. -ruts). See p. 214

Adjectives.-Clea-r (Lat. cla-rı-s; O.Fr. cle-r), pu-re (Lat. $p^{u l-r u-s} ; \mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. pu-re), asper, ten-der (Lat. tener; Fr. tendre), meagre (Lat. macer; O.Fr. maigre).

Substantives.-Figure (O.F. figure), letter (O. Fr. letre).
(2) R, er, re, \&c. (Lat. -ri-s).

Adjectives.-Eager (Lat. acer; O.F. aigre; O.E. egre), vinegar (Fr. vin-aigre $=$ vinum acre), fumiliar (Lat. familiaris; O.Fr. familier), regular, singzlar.

Substantives.-Air (Gr. àrp ; Lat. aer; O.Fr. air), cinder (Lat. cinis (-eris) ; O.Fr. cendre), cucumber (Lat. cucumis; Fr. concombre; It. cocomero; O.E. cucumere), flower, flour (Lat. flos; O.Fr. flor), gender (Lat. genus; O.Fr. genre), powder (Lat. pulvis; O.Fr. poldre), secular (Lat. sacularis; O. Fr. seculier), scholar (Lat. scholaris; O.Fr. escolier), altar (Lat. altaria; O.Fr. alter, auter), collar (Lat. collare; Fr. collier), pillar (Mid.Lat. pilare; Sp. pilar), scapular (Lat. scapulare; Fr. scapulaire).
(3) Our (Lat. -or ; Fr. -ener), quality, state. Ardour, colour, errour, favour, honour, labour, \&c.
Devoir (O.Fr. devoir; Lat. debe-rc), leisure (O.Fr. loisir, leisir ;

[^126]Lat. licere), livery (O.Fr. livier; Lat. liberare), power (O.F. foer; It. potere; Lat. posse), recovery (O.E. recovere; O.Fr. recovrer; Lat. recuperare).

It is sometimes added to a Teutonic stem, as behav-ivur.
(4) Ary, ier, eer, er (Lat. -arius, -erius; Fr. -aire, -ier ; It. -ario, -orio), relating to.

Adjectives.-Contrary, recessary, secondary, \&c.
Substantives-Adversary, commissary, notary, secretary, Fanuary, Sc.; brigadier, chandelier, engineer, mountainer (mountaineer), harpooner, \&c.

Arbalister (Lat. arcubalistarius; O. Fr. arbalestier), archer (Mid. Lat. arcarius; O.Fr. archier), bachelor (Mid. Lat. baccalareus; O.Fr. bachelier), banner (Mid. Lat. banderarius, banderensis, banderctus; Fr. banderet), butter (Lat. buticularius; O.Fr. bouteillier), carpenter (Lat. carpentarius; O.Fr. carpentier), chancellor (Lat. cancellarius; O.Fr. chancelier, O.E. chaunceler), almoner (Mid.Lat. eleemosynanius; O.Fr. almosnier; Fr. aumbnier), barber (Mid. Lat. barberius; Fr. barbier), butcher (Lat. buccerius; Fr. boscher), calendar (Fr. calendrier), cellarer (Lat. cellarius; Fr. cellérier), counsellor (Lat. conciliarius; O.Fr. conseillere; O.E. conseilere), cutler (Fr. coutelier), draper (Mid.Lat. draperius; Fr. drapier), falconer (Mid.Lat. falconarius; Fr. fauconier), furrier (Lat. ferrarius; Fr. ferreur), hostles (Lat. hospitilarius), mariner (Mid.Lat. marinarius; Fr. marinier), messenger (Mid.Lat. messagarius; O.Fr. messagier; O.E. messager), officer (Mid.Lat. officiarius; Fr. officier), notary (Lat. notarius), palmer (Mid.Lat. palmarizs; O.Fr. palmier), partner (Mid.Lat. partionarius; O.Fr. partinaire), plover (Fr. pluvier; Lat. pluviarius), juniper ( Fr. geneurier), laurel (Fr. laurier), poplar (Fr. peuplier)," prisoner (Mid.Lat. prisonarius; Fr. prisonnier), quarter (Lat. quartarius; O.F. quarter), squire, esquire (Lat. scutarius; O.Fr. escuier, esquier), sorcerer (Mid.Lat. sortarius), treasure (Mid.Lat. thesaurrarius; O.Fr. trcsorier), vicar (Lat. vicarius; O.Fr. zricaire), zintner (Mid. Lat. vinetarius), usher (Mid.Lat. atarins; O.Fr. uissier).
(5) Many words in -ory, -ary, -ry, -er ( $=$ person or place or thing adapted for some purpose, \&c.) come from Latin substantives in -arium.

Electuary, granary, salary, sanctuary, armory, dowry, vivary, treaswry, vestry; cellar, charter, danger, exemplar (sampler), hamper, larder, manor, mortar, saucer.
(6) Lat. -aria, -eria, has become -ery, -ry, -er in the following:-

Buttery, chivalry (cazalry), carpentry, laundry, pantry, vintry, dowager, gutter, garter, litter, matter, forager, river.

Ry (Fr. -rie), collective, an art.
Cookery, fairy, jewory, nunnery, napery, poultry, poetry, spicery, surgery, \&c.

$$
\text { L. }{ }^{1}
$$

(1) El, le, 1.- $\langle a\rangle$, [Lat. $[-2 l-m]$.

Example, sample, file, temple.

> (b), [Lat. -ulus, olus, -ilus, -elus].

Angle, oriole, cable, carol, disciple, people, squirrel, title, veal, ambles, numbles [cp. (h)umble pie].
(c), [Lat. -ula].

Buckle, cianal, table, eagle, trellis.
(d), [Lat. -ela; Fr. -elle, -elle].

Candle, cautel, clientele, quarrel, tutel-age.
(e), [Lat. -allus, -allum; -ellus, -ella, -ellum; -illus, -illum].

Metal, bowel, bushel, chancel, morsel, libel, mangonel, manirle, measels, quarrel (arrow), kernel, candle, castle, gruel, mantle, panti,' pominel, chapel; pestle; scal, tassel.

To this class belong bateau, chatcau, bureau, \&c.
( $f$ ), [Lat. -b-ulus, $-c-u l u s,-c-u l u m] .^{2}$
Bu-g-le, chesi-b-le (chasu-b-le), fa-b-le, sta-b-le; arti-c-le, un-c-le, carbun-c-le, mira-c-le, pinna-c-le, obsta-c-le, recepta-c-le, specta-c-le, taberna-c-le, par-c-el, pen-c-il, dam-s-el, ves-s-el.

In bottle, fennel, peril, travel, the $c$ has disappeared.
(2) Rel, erel, is supposed to be a combination of er + el (Pr. er-eau, er-elle), diminutive.

Cockerel, dotterel, hogrel, nackerel, mongrel, pickerel.
(3) (a) Al, el, il, ile (Lat. a-li-s, e-li-s, i-li-s; Fr. -al, -el, -il, -ile, forming adjectives from substantive stems), of or belonging to, capable of.

[^127]Equal, annual, casual, lecgal, loyal, mortal, \&c.; cruel, civil, gintile, servile, subtle, gentle, gentecl, hostile, fragile, able (Fr. habile).

The following substantives also contain the same suffix :-Canal, channel, charnel, carnal, cattle, chattel, coronal, fuel, hospital (hotel, spittal), jewel, minstrel, madrigal, official.

Modern formations are numernus, as acquittal, disposal, avowal, denial, \&c.
(b) Many adjectives in -al are now treated as substantives, as cardinal, criminal, general, material, \&c.
(c) In many words it has taken the place of Lat. -us, -is :festival, prodigal, celestial.

It is also added to the adjectival suffix -ic, as angelical, comical, :ehimsical, Sc.

The following substantives are from words in -alia, -ilia, -hilia :-Funerals, entrails, movables, rascal, spousals, victuals, battle and marvel.
(4) B-le, a-ble, i-ble (Lat. a-b-ili-s), able to, likely to, full of.

Abominable, acceptable, culpable, reasonable, feeble, foible (O.Fr. f.oible, foible ; Lat. flebilis), movable, stable.

## M.

(1) M, me (Lat. mu-s, $-a,-m$ ), that which. See p. 215 .

Fir-m, fu-me, fa-me, fla-me, for-m, raisin (Lat. racemus; Sp. racimo; Fr. raisin).
(2) M, men, mon (Lat. -men, -mo), that which.

Char-m, cri-me, legu-me, real-m, volu-me.
$M$ has become $n$ in leaven (Lat. leva-men; O. Fr. levain), noun (Lat. no-ment ; O.Fr. noont, non), renown.

The following words contain the Greek suffix - $\mu \alpha:-A$ pophthegm, cinblem, phantom, paradigm, phlegm, problem, scheme, theme.
(3) Ism (Gr.' $\sigma$ - $\mu$ os ; Lat. -ismus; Fr. -isme; a combination of uo and 15 ), condition, act, \&c.

Baptism, barbarism, despotism, egotism (Fr. egoüsme), latinism, provincialism, vulgarism, \&c.

In some words it adds 2 depreciative sense, as dism, manneri-m, fapism.
(4) $\mathrm{Mn}^{1}$ (Lat. -ummus, -minus, \&c.).

Autu-mın, colu-mn, ter-m, da-m-age.
(5) Mony (Lat. -mon-ia, -mon-ium; Fr. -moin, -moine). See M, p. 234.

Acrimony, ceremony, matrimony, sanctimony, testimony, \&c.
(6) Ment (Lat. -men-tu-m ; Fr. -ment), instrument, \&c.

Experiment, firmament, garment, instrument, pavement, vestment, \&c.

It is also added to Teutonic roots, as acknowoledgment, fulfilment, \&c.

## N.

(I) $\mathbf{N}$, ne (Lat. $n u-s, \cdot a,-m$ ), passive suffix, like - ed (en) in English. See p. 215.

Fa-ne, plain, reign, pen, plane.
(2) An, ain (Lat. a-nu-s, $-a,-m$; Fr. an, ain, aine), of or belonging to.

Artisan, courtezan, german (O.E. germain), mean, pagan, partisan, publican, pelican, sexton ( $=$ sacristan), peasan-t, Roman, Tuscan, \&.c.; captain, certain, chieftain, chaplain, fountain, porcelain, villain, sovereign (O.Fr. soverain; Lat. superanus), warden and guardian (O.Fr. gardian).

Other forms of an, ain, are found in citizen, denizen, mizzen, surgeon, parishioner, scrivener.

In modern English the suffix $a n$ is employed without reference to its original use in forming nouns and adjectives, as civilian, grammarian, \&c. ; censorian, diluvian, plebeian, \&c.

An becomes ane in humane, extramundane, transmontane, \&c.
(3) En, in (Lat. e $n u-s, \cdot a,-m$ ). See An.

Alien, dozen, damson, damascene, zvarren, chain, foorin, vermin, venom (O.Fr. venin; O.E. venym).
(4) In, ine (Lat. $i=n u-s, \cdot a,-m$ ). See An.

Bas-in, coffin, cousin, citrine, goblin, matins, cummin, ravine, canteen (Fr. cantine), patten (Fr. patin), baboon (O.E. babuyn, babion; Fr. babou-in), cushion (O.E. coschyn), lectern (O.E. letyrn; Fr. lutrin): curlain (O.E. cortyn), pilgrim (peregrine), discipline, doctrine,

[^128]cglantine, famine, medicine, rapine; with numerous adjectives, as aquiline, canine, \&c.
(5) On, ion, eon, oon, in (Lat. o, io [acc. on-em]; It. -one; Sp. -on, -ona; Fr. -on), act of, state of.

Apron (napron), bacon, capon, dragon, falcon, fawn (O.E. fron, finon), felon, glutton, flagen, grifon (griffin), mutton, gallon, pennon, salmon, sturgeon, simpleton, talon, champion, clarion, companion, marchioness, onion, pavilion, stallion, scorpion, pigeon, scutcheon, truncheon, mason (Mid.Lat. macio).

Buffoon, dragon, balloon, batoon, carroon, harpoon, macaroon, musketoon, poltroon, saloon; origin, ruin, virgin, \&c. Custom ( $=$ Lat. consuctudinem). In all other words from Lat. -tudo, the in has fallen off, as multitude, \&c.
Lagoon (Lat. lacuna; Fr. lagme).
Many words in -oon are augmentative, as balloon, \&c.; some in -on are diminutive, as flagon, Jiabergion, \&.c.

Numerous abstract substantives, as dominion, oblizion, opinion, rebellion, \&-c.
(6) An, ean, eign, ain (Lat. -an-ru-s, $-a,-m$ ).

Mediterranean, campaign, champaign, forcign (O. Fr. forain; Lat. foraneus), mountain, strange (O.Fr. estrange; Lat. extrareus), sudden.

The Latin -aneers appears under the forms-ineus, -oneus, $\mathcal{E}$., as in sanguine, carrion (It. carogna, O. Fr. caroigne).
(7) Ern, urn (Lat. -er-na, -ur-mus). See An.

Cavern, cistern, tavern, diuturn, nocturn, diurn-al, nocturn-al, \&c.

$$
\mathrm{C} \text { (see p. } 213 \text { ). }
$$

(1) Ac, ic, oc (Lat. $-a x,-i x,-o x$ ), pertaining to, possessing.

Words containing this suffix are mostly found in adjectives in combination with -ious, as audacious, capacious, atrocions, \&c.

The following substantives also contain suffixes $a x$ and $i x$ much altered :-

Chalice, furnace, mortise, pentise (penthouse), matrice (matrix), partridge, phanix, pumice.
(2) Ac (Lat, $\dot{a}-c t u-s,-a,-m)$, having, pertaining to.

Demoniac, maniac, Syriac, barracks, carrock (carrack), cassock.
(3) Ic (-i-cu-s, $-a,-m$ ), occurs as a suffix in (a) substantives, $=$ art, science ; (b) adjectives, $=$ of or belonging to.
(a) Arithmetic, cynic, heretic, logic, magic, music, physic, cleric, clerk, fabric, perch, park, porch.
(b) Aromatic, barbaric, frantic, gisantic, laconic, metallic, public, rustic, schismatic.

It is also found in combination with -al, as canonical, heretical, magical, \&c.

Indigo $=$ the Spanish form of Indicus (colour), Indiant (colour).
(4) Ic (Lat. -íclu-s), of or belonging to.

Amic-able, in-im-ic-al.
In enemy (Lat. inimicus), the guttural has disappeared.
(5) Uc (Lat. -uca). See Ac.

Festuc-ous, lettuce, periwig (wig), = O. E. perwiche (Fr. perruque; It. perrucca).
(6) Ass, ace (Lat. -ac-eus, $-a,-m$; -ac-ius, -ic-ius, -oc-ius; It. -accio, -accia; Fr. -as, -asse, \&c.).

Cutlass (Fr. coutelas, as if from Lat. cultellacerzs), canvas (It. canuvaccio), cuirass (Mid.Lat. coracium, coratium), moustache (It. mostacceo), cartridge (Fr. cartouche; It. cartoccio), menace (Lat. minacia), populace, pinnace (It. pinaccia), terrace (It. terracia; Fr. terrasse), apprentice (Mid.Lat. apprenticius), pilche (Mid.Lat. pellicea; Fr. pelisse ; It. pelliccia), surplice ( $=$ super-pellicium).
(7) Esque (Fr. -esque; It. -esco; Lat. -is-cu-s, a euphonic form of -icus), like.

Burlesque, grotesque, picturesque.
It occurs in some proper nouns:-Danish (O.Fr. Danesche); French; morrice (dance) $=$ moresque, or morisco.
(8) Atic (Lat. -aticus), of or belonging to.

Aquatic, funatic, lunatic.
(9) Age (Lat. -aticum ; Fr. -age) gives a collective sense.

Age (O.Fr. edage; Mid. Lat. etaticum), advantage, beverage, carriage, courage, carnage, herbage, heritage, homage, language, passage, marriage, outrage, personage, potage, stage, vassalage, village, voyage, vintage.
It is sometimes addled to Teutonic roots, as cottage, fraughtage, tillage.

## T. ${ }^{1}$

A-te (Lat. $a-t u-s, a-s u-s)$, quality of, like, subject of an action.
Substantives. - Advocate, surate, legate, private, renegade and runagate.

Adjectives.-Delicate, desolate, ordinate, inordinate.
The suffix atus through French $\delta$ has become ed, as armed, disintherited, deformed, renowned, troubled.

Ee (Fr. $\varepsilon_{e}$ ), object of an action, is another form of Lat. -atus, as in appellce, legatee, grantee, vendee; army = Fr. armée.

In divote, grander, the passive signification is not preserved.
E-te (J.at. e--tus) :-Complete, replete, also discreet, secret.
I-te (Lat. -i-tus):-Contrite, definite, favourite, prest (ready) = Lat. prastitus.

T (Lat. -th-s).
Adjectives.-Chaste, honest, modest, distinct, elect, perfect, robust, mute, strict, strait, straight, subject, sain-t.
In diverse, scarce (Mid. Lat. scarpsus $=$ ex-carpsus) we have $s$ for t .

Substantives.-Appetite, circuit, conduct, convent, delight, fruit, habit, market, plaint, profit, state, magistrate, coursc, decrease, excess, process, press.

This 'suffix has become y in clergy, county, duchy, treaty; cy in magistracy, papacy, primacy.

Id (Lat. $i-d u-s,-d u-s):-A c-i d$, frig-id, \&c.
T (Lat. - $t u-m$ ).
Biscuit, conquest, coiert (cover), date, deceit, desert, fact, feat, jest, intent, infinite, interdict, verdict, joint, merit, precept, pulpit, point, script, statute, tribute, quest, request.

With s for t , mass, poise, response, sauce, advice, device.
The t is lost in decree, purpose, vou.
$\mathrm{T}(-t a)$.
Aunt, debt, quilt, mimute, plummet, rent, route, ambassade (embassy).
$S$ for $t$ occurs in foss, noise, spouse, assize.
Ta has become y in assembly, causey (causeway), chimney, couch, country', covey, destiny, entry, jelly, journey, jury, meiny, party, pastry, zalley, volley, value.

[^129]Ade ( $=$ Lat. -a-ta; Fr. -a-de ; Sp. -ado, -ada).
Brigade, balustrade, brocade, cavalcade, cascade, lemonade, parade, sulad, Sic.; desperado, pintado, armada.

Et (Lat. $\bar{e}-t u m n)$, a place for or with, \&c.
Arboret, budget, banquet, fagot, junket, pallct.
Et diminutive (Fr. -et, -ette).
Substantives.-Aigrct, aglet,amoret, bassinct, billet, basket, buffet, castlet, chaplet, casket, circlet, clicket, corbet, coronet, corset, crilet, freshet, ganet, goblct, gibbet, gullet, hatchet, lappet, lancet, leveret, locket, mallet, musket, pocket, pullet, puppct, signet, trumpet, tuerct, ticket, ballot, chariot, faggot, galiot, parrot (parroquet).

Adjectives.-Brunette, dulcet, russet, violet, watchet.
L-et (diminutive).
Bracelet, hamlet, leaflet, ringlet, streamlet.
Ty (Lat. -tas [tat]; Fr. $t$, added to substantive and adjective stems) has the force of the suffix -ness.

Authority, beauty, bounty, charity, captivity, cruelty, frailty, honesty, \&c.

Tude: see suffix -on, p. 236.
T (Lat. -ti, as ar-s, ar-ti-s).
Ar-t, font, front, mount, port, part, sort.
Connected with Lat. ti is Gr. $\sigma t-\mathrm{s}$, as in (1) analy-sis, diagno-s!s, hypethe-sis, \&c.; (2) apocalyp-se, ba-se, cllip-se, paraplira-se, \&c.; (3) catalep-sy, drop-sy, epilep-sy, hypocri-sy, pal-sy.

S-ti (Lat. -stis), of or belonging to.
Agrestic, celestial, campestral, equestrian, terrestrial.
Ce , ise, ss (= Lat. -ti-a; Fr. -esse), condition, quality of.
Avarice, justice, cowardice, distress, duress, franchise, largess, merchandise, noblesse, prowess, riches.

Ter (Lat. -ter), one who is.
Master, minister.
Tor (Lat. -tor), agent.
Auditor, author (O.E. auctor), doctor, factor.
Dor, door, dore $=$ Sp. -dor, Lat. -tor.
Corridor, matador, battleaioor, stevedore.

Sor, another form of tor, occurs in antecessor, confessor, successor, Sc.

Many words, originally ending in tor, have in French and English lost t ; and many words in or, our, have become er.

Ambler, compiler, courier, diviner, emperor, former, founder, governor, interpreter, juror, juggler, labourer, lever, preacher, saviour, taxer.

Many words in our (Fr. eur) have become er under the influence of the Eng. er (O.E. ere).

Robber, receiver, \&c.
Ter (Lat. -trum), instrument.
Cloister, spectre.
Ite (Lat. -ita, Fr. -ite), belonging to.
Carmelite, Canaanite, Fesuit, \&c.
T (Gr. - $\tau \eta s$ ), he who, that which.
Apostate, comet, hermit, planet, prophet, idiot, patriot.
Id (Gr. -tons, Lat. ides), relating to.
Aneid, Nereid, \&c.
Ist (Gr. -ı $\sigma-\tau \eta s$; Lat. -ista; Fr. -iste), agent.
Antagonist, baptist, evangelist, \&c.; artist, dentist, deist, florist, latinist, \&c.; enthusiast, encomiaist, \&c.

Ist-er, one who is engaged in.
Chorister, sophister (O.E. canonistre, legistre).
Trix (Lat. -trix), female agent.
Administratrix, negotiatrix.
Empress $=$ imperatrix $($ Fr. impératrice $)$, nurse $=$ nutrix $(\mathrm{Fr}$. nourrice).

Ture, sure (Lat. -turq, -sura), has an abstract signification in feminine substantives.
Concrete substantives.-Aperture, creature, nature, picture, \&c.
Armour (Mid. Lat. armatura).
Abstract substantives.-Adventure, capture, gesture, nurture, measure, \&c.

Tor-y, sor-y (Lat. -tor-iu-s, $-a$, -m; -sorium, -soria; Fr. -oire, -oir, -toir, -soir), (I) place, (2) of a nature to, relating to.

Substantives.-Auditory, dormitory, monitory, oratory, purgatory, refectory, repository, \&.c.

Adjectives.-Anatory, rotutory, \&c.
The following contain (1) Lat. -torium; Fr. -oire, -oir:-Coverturc, counter, laver, mortar, mirror, parlour, escritoire. (2) Lat. -sorium; Fr. -soir:-censer, razor, scissors.

Tery (Lat. - teriumı; Fr. -tric). $\mathrm{Y}=i u-m=$ condition: see Y , p. 229, and Ter, p. 239.

Mastery, ministry, mystery.
Nt (Lat. -a-ns, e-ns; Fr. -ent, -ant: a participial suffix).
Adjectives.-Abundant, discordant, distant, elegant, \&c. ; adjacent, latent, obedient, patient, prudent, \&c.

Substantives.-Defendant, dependant, inhabilant, servant, serjeant, zuarrant, agent, adherent, client, \&c.

The following words contain other forms of this suffix:-Brigand, diamond.

Und, bund (Lat. -unclus, -bundus, a gerundial suffix).
Facund, jocund, second, round, vagabond.
Nd (Lat. -ndus, -nda, -ndum), something to be done.
Garland, legend, prebend, provender, viand; deodand, memorandum.

L-ent (Lat. -lentus, $-a,-m$; -lens), full of.
Corpulent, esculent, fcculent, violent, \&c.
Lence (Lat. -lentia), fulness of.
Corpulence, opulence, succulence, \&c.
Nce (Lat. -nt-ia), quality of, act of, result of, Sc.
Abundance, chance, distance, instance, penance, indulgence, licence, fresence, \&c.

Ncy (Lat. -antia, -entia; Fr. -ance, -ence; It. -anza, -enza), quality of, result of, act of, \&c.

Brilliancy, consonancy, decency, excellency, exigency, infancy, \&c.
Tion, sion (Lat. ti-o [tionis], si-o [sionis]), act of, state of, \&c.
Absolution, action, caution, citation, confirmation, \&c.; confusion, profcssion, benison, malison, poison, ransom, reason, trason, venison, fashion.

## Verbal.

Ise, Ize (Lat. -ire; Fr. -iser; Gr. - $\varsigma(\omega)$, make, give, \&c. Apologize, sermonize, tantalize, \&c.
Ish (Lat. -ire; Fr. -ir; cp. Fr. participles in -issant: -iss = Lai inchoative suffix e-sc), make, give.

Admonish, establish, finish, \&c.
Ey (Lat. -are; Fr. -er), parley : cp. verbs in -fy; Lat. -ficare. Fr. -fier.

## 326. COMPOSITION OF ROMANCE ROOTS.

We have many compounds of Romance origin (French, \&c., Latin and Greek) in English, the elements of which can only be explained by a reference to those languages, as :-
(1) Aqueduct, solstice (cp. bridegroom, sunrise, \&c.), artifice, geography, homicide (cp. manslaughter, bloodshed, \&c.), aëronaut (cp. seafarer), somnambulist (cp. night-brawler).
(2) Verjuice $=\mathrm{Fr}$. verjus, vert-jus (cp. greyhound, \&c.).

Many Romance words have the adjective for the last element, as vinegar $=\mathrm{Fr}$. vinaigre $=$ vinum acer, \&c.
(3) Kerchief, O. Fr. cuevre chief (cp. catch-penny, breakuater).
(4) Omnipotent, grandiloquent (cp. almighty, deep-musing).
(5) Longimanows, magnanimous, quadruped (cp. long-handed, high-minded, four-footed).
(6) Carnivorous, pacific, \&c. (cp. heart-rending, peace-making, \&cc.).
(7) Armipotent (cp. arm-strong, heart-sick, \&c.).
(8) Edify, mortify (cp. backbite, kilndry).
(9) Fortify, magnify (cp. fine-draw, hot-press, whitewash, \&cc.).

The etymology of many words is disguised through the changes they have undergone, as:-
(I) megrim (hemicranium, Gr. $\boldsymbol{\eta} \mu \mu \kappa p a \nu i \alpha=$ pain affecting one-half the skull, from $\eta_{\mu} \mu$ and крау\{ov). ${ }^{1}$
parsley $=$ Fr. persil, Lat. petro-selinum (Gr. лє́ $\boldsymbol{\rho} \alpha$ $\sigma \in ́ \lambda(\nu 0 \nu)$.

[^130](3) grandam = Fr. grande dame.
gramercy $=$ Fr. grand merci.
mangre $=$ O.Fr. malgre $=$ Lat. male-gratum.
verdict $=$ Lat. vere-dictum.
viscount $=$ Lat. vice-comte from vice and comes.
(3) chanticleer $=$ Fr. chante, imper. of chanter, and clair, O.F. cler.
curfew $=\mathrm{Fr}$. couvre-fent.
wardrobe $=\mathrm{Fr}$. garde-robe.
(4) dandelion $=$ Fr. dent-de-lion.
debonair $=$ O.Fr. de bon aire.
legerdemain $=\mathrm{Fr}$. léger de la main.
paramour $=$ Fr. par amour.
pardy = Fr. par Dieu, \&c.

## 327. COMPOSITION WITH ROMANCE PARTICLES.

(I) A, ab, abs (Lat. ab, Sansk. apa), away from :-

Avert, abdicate, abjure, abscond, absent, \&c.
Advance, advantage $=$ Fr. avancer, avantage, from Lat. ao, ante.
$B$ is lost in abridge $=$ abbreviare, and assoil $=$ absolvere.
(2) Ad, ${ }^{1}$ A (Lat. $a d$, Fr. $a d$ ), to-

Adapt, adore, adhere, adjoin, accept, accumulate, affirm, affix, affront, aggrazate, alleviate, allege, appear, apply, arrive, assail, assent, assets, attain.
Achieve, agree, amerce, amount, a-cquit (O.Fr. a-quiter). acquaint ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. acointer $=$ ad-cognitare ), averse, avow.
(3) Ante, anti (Lat. ante, O.Fr. ans, ains, eins), before :-Antc-cede, ante-chamber.
Anticipate, \&c.
Ancestor $=$ O.Fr. ancessor ( $=$ antecessor ).
(4) Amb, am (Lat. ambi), about.

Amb-i-ent, am-putate.
(5) Circum, circu (Lat. circum), round about :-

Circumstance, circunscribe, circuit, \&c.
(6) Com, con (Lat. cum, O.Fr. com, cum, con, cun). Com remains unchanged before $n$ and $p$; it becomes col and cor before $l$ and $r$; co before vowels :-

[^131]Command, comprehend, collect, col-lingual, collecate, collate, \&c. Coval, coheir, co-operate, \&c.
Conceive, condemn, conduct, confirm, conjure, conqueror, consent, contain, convey.
Counsel, council, countenance.
Count (Lat. computare, U.Fr. conter), custom (Lat. consuetudinem).
Cost (Lat. constare, O. Fr. co-ster), curry (O.F. conroyer).
Couch ( $=$ Lat. collocare, O.Fr. colcher).
Accoutre (O.Fr. accoustrer, from Lat. ad eustoden).
Scourge $=$ Lat. cor-rigia, whence It. corregiare, to scourge.
Quash (O.Fr. esquachier, to crush, from Lat. co-actus).
Co occurs as a prefix with some Teutonic roots, as co-worker, counderstanding.
(7) Contra, contro, counter (I,at. contra, O.F.contre), against:-

Contra-dict, contro-vert, Sc.
Counter-balance, counter-feit, \&c.
Connter-weigh, counter-work.
(8) De (Lat. de, Fr. dé), down, from, away :-

Decline, descend, depart, \&c.
It is negative and oppositive in destroy, desuetude, deform, $\& \cdot \mathrm{c}$.
It is intensitive in derlare, desolate, desiccate, \&c.
(9) Dis, di (Lat. dis, di, O.Fr. des, Fr. dis, dés, $d i$, $d i$ ), and by assimilation dif, asunder, apart, in two ; difference, negation :-

Disarm, discern, dismember, disturb, discord, distance, \&c.
Differ, difficulty, disease, \&c.
Dilate, dilute, diminish, divorce, diverse.
Descry, descant, despatch.
It became de in defy, defer, delay, delugge, depart.
Dis is joined to Teutonic roots, as disown, dislike, \&c.
(Io) Ex, e, es (Lat. ex, O. Fr. ex, es, e), by assimilation ef, out of, from :-

Exalt, exempt, exhale, expatriate, \&c.
Elect, evade, \&c." .
Efface, effect, \&c.
It has a privative sense in ex-emperor, ex-mayor, $\& c$.
Amend = emend; award (O.Fr. esward), afraid (Fr. effrayer, to frighten).
Escape, escheat, essay, astonish, issue (O.Fr. issir, Lat. exire).
$S$-ample (O.Fr. ex-amplc), s-carce $=$ excerpt (O.Fr. es-cars), s-corch (O. Fr. es-corcer), special.
(11) Extra (Lat. extra), beyond :-

Extraneous, extraordinary, extravagant, extra-regzelar, extrazoork, \&ic. Stray for estray, from extra and vago.
(12) In, en, em (Lat. in, Fr. en, em), in, into, on, within; by assimilation, il, im, ir :-

Inaugurate, innovate, invade, innate.
Illustrate, illusion, \&c.
Imbibe, impart, immigrate, \&c.
Irritate, irrigate.
Enchant, encounter, encumber, endure, engage, enhance, ensign, cnviron, envy, entice, envoy.
Embellish, embrace, embalm.
Anvint (O.Fr. enoindre), ambush.
Impair.
Em and en are found prefixed to Teutonic roots, as-
Embillow, embolden, endear, enlighten, \&c.
(13) In (Lat. in, cp. Gr. äv, Eng. un), not; by assimilation, il, im, ir : like the Eng. $u n$, it is prefixed to substantives and adjectives:-
(1) Inconvenience, impiety, iliīberality, \&c.
(2) Incautious, impolitic, illegal, irregular, \&c.

It occurs in some few parasynthetic verbs, as incapacitate, indispose, illegalize, immortalize, \&c.

The prefix un sometimes takes its place, as in unable, unaft, uncomfortable, uncertain, \&c.
(14) Inter, intro (Lat. inter, intro, O.Fr. inter, entre), between, within, among:-

Interpose, intercede, interdict, intercept, interfere, interlace, intermix, intermarry.
Introduce, intromit, \&c.
Introduction, introgression, introit.
Entertain, enterprise, entrails.
(15) Mis (O.Fr. mes, més, mé, Lat. minus, O.E. mes, mis). This suffix enters into composition with Romance roots; it must not be confounded with the Teutonic suffix mis, mistake, \&c.

Misadventure, mischance (O.E. meschaunce), mischief (O.E. meschef ${ }^{1}$ ).

[^132]（16） Ob （Lat．ob，before $c, f, p$ ，becomes by assimilation oc，of， op ），in front of，against ：－

VERBS：Obey，oblige，obviate，occupy，occur，offer，offend，oppose
SUBS．：Obeisance，obedience，occasion，offence，office．
（17）Per（Lat．per，Fr．per，par，O．E．par），through ：－
Perceize，perfect，perform，perish，perjure，pierce，percolate， perennial，persecute，pursue，pardon，appurtenance，pertinence．
Per becomes pel in pellucid，and pil in pilgrim．
It is intensitive in persuade，peracute，\＆c．
（18）Post（Lat．post），after ：－
Postpone，post－date，post－diluचian，postscript，\＆．c．
（19）Pre（Lat．pra，Fr．pre），before：－
Precede，presume，pretence，\＆c．
Precinct，preface，prefect，prelate．
Provost（O．E．prepost，O．Fr．prevost）．
（20）Preter（Lat．prater，Fr．pr\＆ter），past：－
Preterite，preternatural，\＆c．
（21）Pro（Lat．pro，O．Fr．pro，por，pur，pour），forth，forward， before：－
Proceed，procure，progress，profess，proffer，progeny．
Purchase，purvey（＝provide），purpose，pursue，portray，por－ trait，portend．
Pro $=$ instead of，in pronoun，proconsul．
（22）Re，Red（Lat．re，red），back，again ：－
Rebel，－receive，reclaim，recreant，recover，re－adopt，re－admit，\＆c． Red－eem，red－ound，redolent，render（Lat．reddere，O．Fr． ＇rendre），rally（＝Lat．re＋alligare，Fr．relier）．
$R e$ is compounded with Teutonic roots，as rebuild，remind，reopen， $\& \mathrm{c}$ ．
（23）Retro（Lat．retro），backwards：－
Retrocede，retrograde，retrospect．
Rereward $=$ O．E．rereward（It．retro－gardia，Fr．arみでにこ garde），rear－guard，rear，arrear．
（24）Se，sed（Lat．se，Fr．sé），apart，away ：－ Secede，sechude，seduce，sedition．
(25) Sub (Lat. sub), under, up from below; by assimilation (before $c, f, g, m, p, r, s$ ), suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus :-

Subject, succour, suffer, suffix; suggest, summoner, suppress, surprise, suspend, sustain, supple, sojourn (O.Fr. so-jorner, Lat. sub-diurno).
Sub sometimes enters into composition with Teutonic roots, as sublet, sub-worker, sub-kingdom.
(26) Subter (Lat. subter), under :-

Subterfuge, subterraneous, \&c.
(27) Super (.Lat. super, O.Fr. sovre, sore, sor, sur), above, beyond :-

Superpose, superscription, supernatural, superfine, superfluous, \&c.
Surface (= superficies), surcoat, surfeit, surplice, surname, surcharge, surpass, surprise, survey, \&c.
The Ital. sopra occurs in sovereign (It. sovrano, Lat. supernus).
(28) Trans (Fr. tres, Lat. trans, tra), across :-

Transfigure, transform, translate, transitive, transmontane (tramontane).
Be-tray (O.Fr. trahir, Lat. tradere), treason ( $=$ tradition), travel, traverse, trespass.
(29) Ultra (Lat. ultra), beyond :-

Ultra-liberal.
To outrage $=$ O.Fr. oultrager.
(30) Un, uni (Lat. unus), one:-

Unanimous, uniform.
(31) Vice (Lat. vice, Fr. vis), instead of:-

Vicar, vice-agent, vice-chancellor, viceroy, viscount.
Some few Adverbial particles are used as prefixes :-
(32) Bis, bi (Lat. bi), twice; bini, two by two.

Biscuit, bissextile, biennial, binocular, \&c.
(a) Demi (Fr. demi, Lat. dimidium) :-

Demigod, demiquaver.
Semi (Lat. semi), half :-
Semi-column, semi-circle, semi-annual, \&c.
(b) Male, nal (Lat. male, mal, Fr. malé, mal, mau), ill :Maltreat, malediction, malewolent, malcontent, mausre.
(c) Non (Lat. non), not: -

Nonage, nonsense.
(d) Pen (Fr. pén-, Lat. pane), almost :Peninsula, penumbra, penultimate.
(e) Sine (Lat. sine) :-

Sinecure, sincere.
The Fr. sans = Lat. sine in sansculotte, sansculottism, ${ }^{1}$ sans-souci.

I Fr. culothe, breeches : sansculotie $=$ a ragged fellow, a radical republican.

## APPENDICES.

- 


## APPENDIX I.

## I. KELTIC ELEMENT IN MODERN ENGLISH.

1. Keltic words existing in the oldest English : ${ }^{1}$ -

Brock (badger), breeches, clout, cradle, crock, crook, glen, kiln, mattock.
2. Keltic words still found in English :-

Ballast, boast, bod(-kin), bog, bother, bribe, cam (crooked), cras, dainty, dandriff, darn, daub, dirk, gyve, havoc, kibe, log, loop, maggot, mop, motley, mug, noggin, nod, pillow, scras, spigot, squeal, squall.
3. Keltic words of recent origin :-

Bannock, bard, brogue, clan, claymore (great sword), clog, log, Druid, fillibeg, gag, garran, ${ }^{2}$ pibroch, piggin, plaid, pony, shamrock, slab, whisky.
4. Keltic words introduced by Norman-French:-

Bag, barren, barter, barrator, barrel, basin, basket, bassenet, bonnet, bucket, boots, bran, brisket, button, chemise, car, cart, clapper, dagger, dungeon, gravel, gown, harness, marl, mitten, motley, osier, pot, posnet, rogue, ribbon, skain (skein), tike.

[^133]
## II. LATIN ELEMENT IN THE OLDEST ENGLISH.

Of words borrowed from the Latin in the oldest period of the language-
(1) Some kept their full forms, as :-

Cometa, corona, culter, \&c.
(2) Others dropped the Latin endings, as :-

Candel, apostol, castel, \&c.
(3) Some take an English suffix, as :-

Draca (Lat. draco), mynetere (Lat. monetarius).
(4) A few acquired the Teutonic accent, as:-

Biscop (Lat. episcopus), munec (Lat. monachus).
(5) Some simulated an English form, as :-

Marman-stán (Lat. marmor), mere-greot (Lat. margaritit).
(6) A few hybrids made their appearance, as :-

Martyrdom, regollice (regularly).


mynet，
mynetian， marman－stán， mere－greot，
munt，
nunna，nunne，
nón，
offrian， ostre， organ， pæl，pel， palm， palant， papa， pard， pâwa， pinsian， pinn（treôw）， peru， persuc，persoc （treów）
pipor，pepor，
pisa， pistol， plant， plaster， plum（treów），
porr，por－leác，
pople， port， port， post， portic， preost， prâfort， predician， prim，
profian， peterselige， pervince， psalm，salm， pund， psaltere， purpur，

Lat．moneta，mint
M．Lat．monetare，to mint
Lat．marmor，marble
margarita（ $\mu a \rho \gamma \alpha \rho i \tau \eta s$ ），margarite （pearl）
mons，mount
nonna，nun
nona，noon
offerre，to offer
ostrea，osireum，oyster
organum，organ
pallium，pall palnta，palm
palatium，palace papa，pope
，，pardus（ $\pi \alpha ́ \rho \delta o s), ~ l e o p a r d ~$
＂，pavo，peacock
，，pensare，to weigh
＂，pinus，pinum，pine
，，pirum，pear
，，persica（malus），persicum，j＇each
，，piper（ $\pi \epsilon \in \pi \epsilon \rho 1$ ），pepper
，，pisum（ $\pi i(\sigma o \nu)$ ，pea，pease
，epistola，epistle
，，planta，plant
，，emplastrum（ $\epsilon \mu \pi \lambda \alpha \sigma \tau \rho o \nu)$ ），plaster
，，prumus，prunum，plum
，＂porrus，porrum，leek
，，popzulus，people
，＂，portus，port
，，porta，gate
＂，postis，post
，＂porticus，porch
，，presbyter（ $\pi \rho \in \sigma \beta \dot{\tau} \tau \epsilon \rho o s)$ ，č．\｛cr，priest
＂，prapositus，provost
，，predicare，to preach
，，prima，prime
，，probare，to prove
，＂petroselinum，parsley
，，vinca，periwinkle
，，psalmus（廿a入⿲ós）
，＂pondus，pound
，psalterium，psalter
，＂purpura，purple

| pytt, | Iat. | putere, spit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| regul, regel, | ," r | regula, rule |
| reliquie, | , | reliquia, relics |
| rute, | ,' | ruta, rue |
| rædíce, | ", | radix, radish |
| sanct, | , | sanctus, saint |
| scôlu, | " | schola ( $\sigma \chi 0 \lambda \eta$ ), school |
| sacerd, | ,' sa | sacerdos, priest |
| senepe, | ,, sin | sinapi ( $\sigma$ i $\nu \eta \pi t$ ), senvy |
| sigel, |  | sigillum, seal |
| solere, | M.Lat. | solarium, sollar |
| stræt, | Lat. str | strata (via), street |
| synod, | ", | synodus ( $\sigma$ ivoios), synod |
| tæf, tæfel, | ", | tabula, table |
| tempel, | " | templum, temple |
| titul, | " | titulus, title |
| tor, | " | turris, tower |
| truht, | ,, | tructa, trout |
| tınic, | " | tunica, tunic |
| turtle, | , | turtur, turtle |
| timpan, ynce, | " | tympanum ( $\tau \dot{\mu} \mu \pi а \nu о \nu)$, tambour uncia, ounce, inch |
| ynce, | " | uncia, ounce, inch |

## III. SCANDINAVIAN ELEMENT IN ENGLISH.

Abroad, agate, askew, aslant, athwart, bang, bellow, bask, bole (of a tree), blunt, bore (tidal wave), booty, bound (for a journey), brag, brink, bull, busk, buckle-to ( = buskle ${ }^{1}$ ), butt(ock), cake, call, cast, clip, clumsy, cross, crook, cripple, cuff, curl, cut, dairy, dash, daze, dazzle, die, droop, dub, dull, earl, fell (hill), fellow, fleer, flit, fond, fool, fro, froth, gable, gaby (cp. O. E. gabbe, to lie, deceive), gait, grovel, glow, hale (drag), hit, hug, hustings, irk, keg, kid, kindle, leap (year), lowv, loft (aloft), lurk, neve, neaf (fist), niggle, niggard, mump, mumble, muck, odd, puck (goblin), ransack, rump, ruck, root, scald (poet), scare, scold, skull, scull, scant, skill, scrub, skulk, skiul, sky, shaze (wood), sly, screw, sleeve, sledge, sled, sleek, screech, shriek, sleight, snug, sog, soggy, sprout, stagger, stag, stack, stifle, tarn (lake), trust, thrive, thrum, un-ru-ly (O.E. ro, rest), ugly, uproar, wafentake, zvindow, windlass.

[^134]
## IV. FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN.

[^135]

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quiver,
reward, guerdon,
ribald,
rife, ring, harangue,
range, arrange,
roast,
rob,
rohe,
seize,
seneschal,
shallop, skiff,
slate,
spy (to), target, tire (out),
towel,
tumble,
turn,
wage, gage,
wait (await),
war,
ward, guard,
wicket,
wimple,
O.E. cocer, O.H.Ger. kohhar, Ger. köcher, U.Fr. couire, cuiure.
O.H.Ger. widar-lön, M.I.at. wider-donum, O.F. zverdon, guerradon.
O. H. Ger. hriba, hritaz (prostituta), O.Fr. ribald, a ribald person.
O.N. hreffa, O.Fr. riffer, rifler.
O. H. Ger. hring, ring.
O.E. rostan, Ger. röstin, O.Fr. rostir.
O. H. Ger. ranbûn, U. E. reâfian, O.Fr. rober.
O.H.Ger. romb, O.E. raif, Fr. robe.
O.H. Ger. bi-sazian, Ger. besetzen, O.Fr. saisir, seisir.
O. H. Ger. sene-sealh (old servant), O. Fr. sene scal, seneschal.
Du. sloep, Fr. chaloupe.
O.E. scip, Ger. schiff, Fr. esquif, whence equip, O.Fr. esquiper.
connected with Eng. slit; O.Fr. esclat, O.E. sklat, slate.
O. H.Ger. sprehón, O. Fr. espier.
O. H.Ger. targa, O. E. targe, O.Fr. targe.
O. E. teran, Goth. tairan, Ger. herren, O.Fr. tirer.
O.H.Ger. dzuahila, twahila, O.E. bưâl, O.Fr. toialle, touialle.
O. N. tumba (to fall forward), tumbian (to dance), O.Fr. tumber.
O.N. turnan, O.E. tyrnan, O.H. Ger. turnian, O.Fr. turner, tornir.
O. E. veed, Goth. vadi, O.H.Ger. wetti, M. Lat. vadium.
O.H.Ger. wuhta, Ger. waht, O.Fr. waite, gaite, .guaite, watclı; O.H.Ger. wahten, O.Fr. gater, guiater, to wait.
$\mathrm{O}_{2} \mathrm{E}$ wyrre, O.H.(ier. werra (scandalum), O. Fr. wirre, suerre.

Goth. wardja, O.E. weart, O. H.Ger. zwart, O.Fr. suard; warde; cp. guardian, warden.
O.E. zufc, O.N. vfk, bight, haven, O. Fr. zuiket, grischet.
O.H.Ger. zoompal, O. Fr. guimple, gimple, grtimpe.
O.E. warish, guarish, O.E., O.H.Ger. zvarian, werien, Ger. zuahren, O. Fr. warir, guarir, garir.
O.E. warnish, garnish, O.E. ziearnian, O. H.Ger. warnôn, to warn, O.Fr. warnir, guarnir, provide, prepare, secure.

Some foreign words have simulated, wholly or partly, an English form :-
arblast, O.E.arow-blaste, O. Fr.arbaleste, Lat.arcubalista. beef-eaters, causeway, Fr. buffetiers.
Fr. chaussé, O.F. cauchie, M. Lat. calceata (vic), Lat. calciata (via).
cray-fish (crawfish), O.H. Ger. krebiz, Ger. krebs, crab, O.Fr. escrevisse, Fr. écrevisse, O.E. krevys, crevish.
gridiron, pil-crow, runagate

Cp. :-
furbelow,
lanthorn, pickaxe, rosemary, sparrow-grass somerset,
O.Fr. graile, Lat. craticula.
O.E. pyl-craft, Lat. paragraphus, Fr. paraje. $=$ renegate, renegado.

Fr. falbala, Sp. farfala.
O. Fr. lanterne, Lat. lanterna.
O.E. pikois.
O.E. rosemaryne, Lat. rosmarinus,
$=$ Lat. asparagus.
Fr. soubresaut, Lat. supra saltus.

## APPENDIX II.

OUTLINES OF O.E. ACCIDENCE.

## DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES, \&c.

## FIRST PERIOD OF THE LANGUAGE.

## (A.) Vowel Stems. ${ }^{1}$

I. Masculine.
dag, day ; hirde, shepherd ; gast, guest ; sunu, son ; wudu, wood.

| Sing. ... | $a$ Stem. |  | $i$ Stem. | « Stem. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N. dæg | hirde | gæst | sunu | wudu |
|  | G. dæges | hirdes | grestes | suna | wudu, wudes |
|  | D. dæge | hirde | graste | suna | wudu, wude |
|  | A. dæg | hirde | grast <br> grstê | sunu | wudu |
| Pl. |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | N. daga | hirdas | gastas (gistas) | suna | wudas |
|  | G. daga | hirda | gasta (gista) | suna | wuda |
|  | D. dagum | hirdum | $\underset{\text { (gistum) }}{\text { gastum }}$ | sunum | wudum |
|  | A. dagas | hirdas | gastas (gistas) | suna | wudas |

GOTHIC.

| Sing. | ... | $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{N} . \\ & \mathbf{G} . \\ & \mathbf{D} . \\ & \mathbf{A .} \end{aligned}$ | dags dagis daga dag | hairdeis <br> hairdeis <br> - hairdja <br> hairdi | gasts gastis gasta gast | sunus sunaus ssunau sunu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pl. | ... | N. | dagôs | hairdjôs | gasteis | sunjus |
|  |  | G. | dagê | hairdjê | gastê |  |
|  |  | D. | dagam | hairdjam | gastim | unum |
|  |  | A. | dagans | hairdians | gastins | sunun |

[^137]
## 2. Feminine.

gifu, gift ; dêd, deed ; hand ; duru, door.

| Sing. | ... |  | Stem. | i Stem. | u Stem. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | N. | gifu |  | hand | duru |
|  |  | G. | gife | dêde | handa | (dure) |
|  |  | D. | gife | dâde | handa | dura, duru |
|  |  | A. | gife | d ${ }_{\text {a }}$ (e) | hand | duru |
|  |  |  |  | dêde |  |  |

P1. ... N. gifa
G. gifa, gifena
D. gifum
A. gifa

| d̂̂da | handa |
| :--- | :--- |
| d̂̂da | handa |
| d̂̂dum | handum |
| dæ̂da | handa |

GOTHIC.

| Sing. | ... | N. giba <br> D. gibai <br> A. giba |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| P1. | -... | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { N. } & \text { gibôs } \\ \text { G. } & \text { gibô } \\ \text { D. } & \text { gibôm } \\ \text { A. } & \text { gibôs }\end{array}$ |

dêds
dêdais
dêdai
dêd
dêdeis
dêde
dêdim
dêdins
handus handaus handau handu
handjus handiwe handum handuns

## 3. Neuter.

word; fat, vat ; cynn, kin; no-u stems.

| S'ing. | $a$ Stem. |  |  | $i$ Stem. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ... |  | word | frt | cynn |
|  |  | ${ }_{\text {D }}$ | wordes | fretes | cynnes |
|  |  | A. | worde | fat | cynn |
|  |  | I. | wordê | fatê |  |
| P1. | ... | N. | word |  |  |
|  |  |  | worda | fata | cynna |
|  |  | D. | wordam | ${ }_{\text {fatum }}$ | cynnum |
|  |  |  | word | fatu | cynn |

GOTHIC.
Sing ... N. waurd
kuni
G. waurdis
D. waurda
A. waurd

PL. ... N. waurda
G. waurdê
D. waurdam
A. waurda
kunjis
kunja
kuni
kunja
kunjê
kunjam
kunja
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(B.) Consonant Stems.
(i) -N Stems.

| Sing | ... | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{N} . \\ & \mathrm{G} . \\ & \mathrm{D} . \\ & \mathrm{A} . \end{aligned}$ | Masc. <br> hana <br> hanan <br> hanan <br> hanan | Fem. <br> tunge tungan ${ }^{\prime}$ tungan tungan | Neut. <br> eâge. <br> eâgan <br> eâgan <br> eâge |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| P. | $\cdots$ | N. <br> G. <br> D. <br> A. | hanan <br> hanena <br> hanum <br> hanan |  | eâgan eâgena eâgum |

GOTHIC.
$\left.\begin{array}{lllll}\text { Sing } & \cdots & \begin{array}{l}\text { N. }\end{array} & \text { hana } \\ \text { G. } & \text { hanins }\end{array}\right)$

| tuggô | hairtô (= heart) |
| :--- | :--- |
| tuggôns | hairtins |
| tuggôn | hairtin |
| tuggôn | hairtô |
| tuggôns | hairtôna |
| tuggônô | hairtanê |
| tuggôm | hairtam |
| tuggôns | hairtôna |

(2) -R Stems.

| Sing. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. | freder | brôठor |
| G. | freder, faderes | brêðer |
| D. | fæder, fædere | brôder |
| A. | keder | brỗor |


|  | PL. |
| :---: | :---: |
| frederas | brôðru |
| fædera | brộ̆ra |
| fæderum | brôolrum |
| faderas | brốorıı |

GOTHIC.

|  | Sing. <br> N. <br> fadar | PL.. |
| :--- | :---: | ---: |
| G. fadrs | fadrus |  |
| I. fardr | fadrê |  |
| A. fadar | fadrum |  |
|  |  |  |

## Plurals formed by Vowel Change.

(1) $-i$ stems, fem.:-

Bêc, books, byrig, boroughs, lŷs, lice, mŷs, mice, tyrf, turis, gês, geese.
(2) $-u$ stems, masc.:-

Fêt, feet, tê̂, teeth, men.
This vowel change occurs also in the dative singular and acc. plural.

## SECOND PERIOD.

## I. Vowel Declension.

In the Second period of the language traces of the original vowelstems disappear, and substantives once belonging to this class are declined according to gender. In the following table the casesuffixes are given for comparison with the older forms :-

Sing.

| Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: |
| - | -cs |
| -e |  |
| -e ( -en ) | - |

PI.
(I) Gen. sing. fem.-Some few feminine substantives form their genitives (like masc. and neuters) in ees instead of $-\ell$.
(2) Nom. plural fem. -The suffix es begins to replace ee, -en, as dedes, mihtes, sinnes, \&c.
(3) Nom. plural neuter. - Many neuters, originally having no suffix in the plural, now take -es, as londes, huses, zoordes, worhes, thinges, though the original uninflected forms are frequently met with as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.

Deer, sheep, horse, \&ic., as in modern Linglish, remain without inflexion.

Many substantives originally forming the plural in $\imath u$, have $-\epsilon$ or -ent (and sometimes ees), as ruchen, riche (kingdoms), trewe, trewen (trees), ©ic.
(4) Gen. plural.-The old suffix $-a$ is now represented by $-\ell,-\in n$; and also by -ene (the gen. plural of $n$ declension).
(5) Dat. phural.-The old suffix -um has become -en and -e, and occasionally $-e s$.
(6) Plurals formed by vowel change:-fêt (fat), ment, \&c.; bêc (bac) is occasionally found side by side with bokcs.
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## II. -N Declension.

Sing.

PI.

| Fem. |
| :---: |
| -en, -e (-es) |
| -en, ${ }^{\text {en }}$, -e |

-en, -e (-es) -ene (-en)
-en, -e
-en, -e (-es)

Neut.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -e \\
& -\mathrm{n},-\mathrm{e}(-\mathrm{s}) \\
& -\mathrm{en},-e
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {-en, -e (-es) } \\
& -\mathrm{ene}(-\mathrm{en}) \\
& -\mathrm{en},-\mathrm{e} \\
& -\mathrm{en},-\mathrm{e}(-\mathrm{es})
\end{aligned}
$$

In the gen. plural eenen sometimes occurs for -ene.

## III. -R Declension.

(1) Brother, moder, dohter, suster, lave no inflexion in the genitive singular. Fader and faderes (gen. sing.) are found in writers of this period.
(2) The nom. plurals are in -e, -enz, or -es, as brethre, brothre, sustre, dohtre, \&c.; brethren, brothren, dohtren, dehtren, sustren, \&\&.; faderes, brothres, dohtres, sostres, \&c.
(3) The gen. plural -ene (-enne) sometimes disappears altogether. "His dohter namen" = the names of his daughters (LaJamon).
(4) The dat. plural ends in -en, ee (and sometimes -es).

In the Ormulum -es occurs as the genitive singular of substantives of all genders.

The nom. plural is ordinarily -es, and even deor (deer) makes plural ileoress.

The gen. plural ends mostly in ess; rarely in -e, as "aller kinge king" = king of all kings.

## .THIRD PERIOD.

## i. Formation of the Plural.

(1) -es $(-i s,-y s)$, without distinction of gender.
(2) Very many plurals in -ent, -12 , are still preserved, representing (a) old plurals in $-a n$ of the $n$ declension, (b) plurals originally ending in-a, -u:-(a) chirchen (churches); eЗen, eien (eyes); ben (bees);
for (foes) ; oxen, \&c.; (b) honden (hands), sinmen (sins), develcrn (devils), heveden (heads), modren (mothers), sostren (sisters), bropren, ken (kin), \&c.

Plurals in e are not rare, as blostme (blossoms), dede (deeds), mile (miles), childre (and childer), brebre (breber), \&ic.
(3) Many words have no plural inflexion, as hus, hous, hors, sclefp, deer, pound, her (hair); but horses, poundes, and haires occur in this period.
(4) Plurals formed by vowel change:-fct, teb, gec, ky, hend (hands).

## 2. Case Endings.

(1) Case-endings are reduced to two, genitive and dative.
(2) The gen. sing. for the most part ends in es ( $-i s,-y s$ ); it is not always added to feminine substantives, as "the queree fader" (Robt. of Gloucester, 1. 610) ; "the empresse sone" (Ib. 1. 9708).
(3) The gen. plural ends in ees, and sometimes in -ene $(-e n){ }_{2}{ }^{1}$ as clerkene, of clerks, monkene, of monks (Robt. of Gloucester).
(4) The dative sing. is often denoted by a final $e$ : nom. god, dat. gode.

There are frequent traces of it, however, in the Kentish Ayenbite (I340).
(5) The dative plural is mostly like the nom. plural.

## FOURTH PERIOD.

## i. Formation of the Plural.

(1) The plural suffix is $-e s(-i s,-y s,-2 t s)$.

In Romance words $-s,-z$, occurs for $-e s, \& c$.
(2) Plurals in -en are (a) ashen, been (bees), eyen, hosen, oxen, ${ }^{2}$ pesen, ${ }^{3}$ shoon, ton (toes), belonging to $n$ declension; (b) sustren, daughtren, brethren (r leclension); (i) children, calveren, eyren (egss), lambren ${ }^{4}$ (with $r$ inserted before en), originally forming plurai in $u$; kin, ken, kien for $c y, k y$, de 3 ter (daughters).

[^138](3) Some neuter plurals have no $s$, as ⿹ecr, hecr (hair), hors, hous, scheep, pownde, swyn, thing.
(4) After numerals the plural inflexion is often dropped.
(5) Plurals with vowel change:-fet, gees, lys, mys, mees, men, \&.c.

## 2. Case Endings.

(1) The gen. sing. ends in -es ( $-i s,-\mu s$ ), $-s$.
(2) The gen. plural terminates in -es.
(3) The old genitive plural suffix -ene is still met with, as childrene, clerkene, kyngene (Piers Plowman). ${ }^{1}$

## A D J ECTIVES.

## FIRST PERIOD.

## i. Strong (or Indefinite) Declension.

Mase
N. Blind
G. blindes
D. blindum
A. blindne
I. blind-ê

PI.
*.. N. blind-e
G. blind-ra
D. blind-um
A. blind e

Fem.
blind 2
blindre
blindre blinde
blinde blindra blindum blinde

GOTHIC.

Sigg. ... N. blinds
G. blindis
D. blindamma
A. blindana

Pl. ... N. blindai
G. blindaizê
D. blindaim
A. blindans
blinda
blindaizôs
blindai
blinda
blindôs
blindaizô
blindaim
blindôs

Neut.
blind
blindes
blindum blind blindê
blindu
blindra blindum blindu

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { blind(ata) } \\
& \text { blindis } \\
& \text { blindamma } \\
& \text { blind(ata) } \\
& \text { blinda } \\
& \text { blindaizê } \\
& \text { blindaim } \\
& \text { blinda }
\end{aligned}
$$

## II.]

2. Weak (or Definite) Declension.


Masc., Fem., and Neut.

| Pl. |  |  | blin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | G. | blindena |

A. blindan

## GOTHIC.

| Sing. | ... |  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | N. | blinda | blindô | blindô |
|  |  | G. | blindins | blindôns | blindins |
|  |  | D. | blindin | blindôn | blindin |
|  |  | A. | blindan | blindôn | blindô |
| PL. | -.* | N. | blindans | blindôns | blindôna |
|  |  | G. | blindanê | blindôno | blindanê |
|  |  | D. | blindam | blindôm | blindam |
|  |  | A. | blindans | biindôns | blindôna |

## SECOND PERIOD.

## I. Strong Declension.

## Masc.

Sing. ... N. blind
G. blindes
D. blinde
A. blindne

Fem.
blind
blindre (blinde)
blindre (blinde) blinde

Neut.
blind blindes blinde blind

Pl. of all gend. N. blinde
G. blindere (blinde)
D. blinden (blinde)
A. blinde
2. In the weak or definite declension -an becomes•(1) -en, (2) -e.

All cases of the sing. are often denoted by the final $e$.
The plural ends in -en or - .
In the Ormulum all the older inflexions of both declensions are represented by e.

## THIRD PERIOD.

In the Third period the older adjectival inflexions are represented by a final -e, and even this sometines is dropped.

In Robert of Gloucester and the Ayenbite we sometimes find the accusative in -ne of the strong declension. In the Ayenbite we find dative plural in -en, in indefinites like one, other.

The plural of adjectives (mostly of Romance origin) sometimes terminates in ees, especially when the adjective follows the noun, as wateres principales. Robert of Gloucester has "foure godes sones," "the godes kny 5 tes."

## FOURTH PERIOD.

A final $e$ marks (a) the plural, (b) the definite form, of the alljective.

Plurals in $s$ are common, as in the previous period.

## PRONOUNS.

## I. Personal Pronouns.

## First Period.



GOTHIC.
Sing. ... N. ik jut

| G. | meina | theina |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| D. | mis | thus |
| A. | mik | thuk |



| Sing. | ... |  | Second Period. <br> Ich, ic, ihc <br> min <br> me <br> me | Third Period. ich, ik, I me me | Fourth Prriod ich, ik, I me me |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pl. | ... |  |  | we | we |
|  |  |  |  | ure |  |
|  |  |  | us, ous | us, ous | us |
|  |  |  | us, ous | us, ous | us |
| Dual | ... |  |  | - |  |
|  |  |  | unker | - |  |
|  |  |  | unc, unk | - |  |
|  |  |  |  | - |  |
| Sing. | ... |  | ond Period. | Third Period. | Fourth Period. |
|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { pu, pou } \\ & \text { fin } \end{aligned}$ | pu, pou | pou |
|  |  | D.) |  | pe | je |
| PL. | ... | N. | 3 e , | 3e, yhe, ye | 3e, ye |
|  |  | A. | eow, ew <br> ow, 3uw, 3eow | $\} 3 \text { ou, yhou, ou }$ | you, 30w, yow |
| Dual | ... | N. | 3 it | , |  |
|  |  |  | inker, 3unker | unker |  |
|  |  |  | inc, gunc |  |  |

The dual is found as late as 1280, as in Havelok the Dane.
The older genitives min, thin, as early as LaJamon's time began to be employed only as possessive adjectives; ure, cowre, eouer, Jure, are mostly formed with indefinite pronouns, as ure ech $=$ each of us, 3ure nan $=$ none of us; but the partitive form ech of $u s$ is also in use at this period.

For other changes see Pronouns (Personal).

## II. Pronouns of the Third Person.

First Period.

| Sing. ... |  | Masc. | Fem. <br> heo <br> hire <br> hire <br> hi | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Neut. } \\ & \text { hit } \\ & \text { his } \\ & \text { him } \\ & \text { hit } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N. |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | him |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| P1. (of all genders) | N. hi (hig) <br> G. hira (heora) <br> D. him (heom) <br> A. hi (hig) |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

Gothic has no $h i$ stem.

|  | Second Period. |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masc. | Third Period. | Fourth Period. |  |  |
|  | … | N. He, ha | He, ha, a | He, a |
|  | G. | His | His | His |
|  | D. | Him | Him | Him |
|  | A. | Hine, hin, him | Him (hine) | Him |

Fem. ... N Hi, heo, hie, he, 3 e , Heo, hi, sco, ${ }^{\mathrm{r}}$ Hue, heo, ho,
seo, jho, scac ${ }^{\text {l }}$
G. Hire, heore, here
D. Hire, heore, here
A. Hi, heo, hie, hire (his, hes, es)

Neut. ... N. Hit (it)
G. His
D. Him
A. Hit (it)
sche, $2 y$, sge
Hire
Hire
Hi (his, is), hire Hire

| Hit (it) | Hit (it) |
| :--- | :--- |
| His | His, hit |
| Him | Him (it) |
| Hit (it) | Hit (it) |

PI ... N. Hi, heo, hie, he, 3
Hi , hii, heo, hue, hii, 4 pei, pai, tha ha, pe33, pei, pai
G. Hire, heore, here, the33re
D. Heom, hem, ham,
A. $\mathrm{H}_{1, h}$ heo heo, hie. heom, $\mathrm{H}_{1}$, hii, hem (hise, hem, tham, pem 3 am (his, hes) he, thei, thai (hii), a
Heore, here her, here, her, hir, hir, hare, pair thair, thar
Heom, hem, ham, hem, tham, hom is), bam, hom
(i) In the Third period the gen. plural is used with indefinite pronouns, as here non (none of them), here eyther (each of them), \&c.

[^139](2) The accusatives (simgular and plural) begin in the Second period to be replaced by dative forms, but the old accusative (hine) is found in the Ayenbite ( 1340 ), and is still in use in the South of England under the form -en.
(3) The Northern dialect (and those with Northern peculiarities) replace the plural of the stem $h i$ by the plural of the definite article.
(4) In the South of England $a=$ he is still preserved. In Lancashire ho is used for she.

## III. Reflexive Pronouns.

(I) In the First period silf (self) was declined as an adjective along with personal pronouns, as-
N. Ic silfa; G. mîn silfes; D. me silfum; A. mec (me) silfne, \&c.
(2) Sometimes the dative of the personal pronoun was added to the nom. of silf, as ic me silf; thu the silf; he him silf; we us silfe; ge ebrw silfe; hi himt silfe.
(3) Silf also stands with a substantive, as God silf $=$ God himself.
(4) With a demonstrative, silf was declined according to the weak or definite declension, as se silfo $=$ the same.
(5) In the Second period (asin La3.) the genitive shows a tendency to replace the dative, as $m i$ silf for me silf, but it is not common; and in all other cases the old form is preserved.

In the Third and Fourth periods mi self, thi self, our self, \&c. become more frequently used: Wickliffe has instances of the older forms, as we us silf, 5 e $\overline{0}$ ou self, as well as of we our self, 3 e 3 oure self. His self, occurs in Northern English of the Third period.
(6) Self is sometimes lengthened to selven in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, as $I$ miselven, he him selven (Chaucer).

## IV. Adjective Pronouns.

(1) The possessives in the First period are-min (my), thin (thy), his (his, its), hire (her), are (our), eower (your), hira, heora (their), uncer (our two), incer (your two).
$\operatorname{Sin}$ is found in poetry as a reflective possessive of the third person.
(2) In the Second period the possessives are-First person, mins (sing.), unker (dual), ure (plural). Second person, thin (sing.), inker, Junker (dual), eowre, eoure, Jure (plural). Third person, iis, hire (sing.), hire, here, heore, the3J̈re (plural).

Min is thus declined :-


Thin is similarly declined.
Ure is declined as follows in the First period :-

| Sing. | ... | Masc. |  | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Aser, Ôre | 0 aser, ûre | Aser, ûre |
|  |  | G. | Aseres, üsses, itres | Userre, Usse, ûre | same as masc. |
|  |  |  | asserue, Ôrne | Usere, ûsse, ûre | er, '̂̈re |
| PL. | ... | N. Ôsere, ûsse, âre <br> G. ûsera, ûssa, ûre <br> D. ûserum, ûssum, Grum <br> A. Âsere, ûsse, âre |  | - | ûser, ûre, \&\%c. |
|  |  |  |  | - | same as masc. |
|  |  |  |  |  | " |
|  |  |  |  | - |  |

In the Second period we sometimes find ure and cower (5ure) inflected like adjectives of the strong declension, as "Ures formes foderes gult" = the guilt of our first father (Moral Ode).
(a) As mine and thine are the plurals of $\min$ and thin, so in the Second and Third periods hise is the plural of his.
(b) Hire (her) is generally uninflected. Lajamon has plural hires, as "hires leores" = her cheeks.
(c) In the Ormulum we find genitive thej30res, as "till ejuperr be $\bar{\jmath} \bar{\jmath} r e s ~ h e r r t e " ~=~ t o ~ t h e ~ h e a r t s ~ o f ~ t h e m ~ b o t h . ~$
(3) In the Third period the dual forms disappear, and the possessives are-min, thin, his, hire, our, oure, Joure, here, thair; absolute
possessives-oures, urs; 3oures, yhoures; thaires, thairs, as well as oure, ure; 3 oure, here.

The plurals mine, thine, hise, \&c. are in use.
(4) In the Fourth period we find plural hise; and oures, youres, heres, hores (theirs), are more commonly used than in the Third period.

## V. Demonstrative Pronouns.

First Period.


PL. (of all genders) N. pâ
G. pâra, pâra
D. pâm, $\hat{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{m}$
A. pâ

GOTHIC.

Sing. ... N. sa
G. this
D. thamma
A. thana
I. thê

Pl. ... N. thai
G. thizê
D. thaim
A. thans

- Fem.
sô thizôs thizai thô

| thôs | thô |
| :--- | :--- |
| thizồ |  |
| thaim | as masc, |
| thôs | thô" |

In the Second Period we find se replaced by the; and often all inflexions are dropped, so that we get an uninflected the as in modern English.

## MASCULINE.

Singular. N. be, pa
G. pæs, pas, bes, peos, pis, be
D. pan, pon, pane, pone, ponne, beonne, ben, ba, pe
A. bene, pane, prene, pene, panne, bone, pon, pe
I. be

The old Kentish dialect of the thirteenth century is more archaic than other Southem dialects, and has se (m.), si (fem.), thet, that (n.).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "Nu lordinges pis is pe me miracle bet pet grdspel of te dai us telp. ac great is } \\
& \text { pe tokningge Se leprus signefiep po penuulle men. si lepre po sennen. pee scab } \\
& \text { bitokned po litle sennen, si lepre betokned po grete sennen pet biedh diadliche." } \\
& \text { "This is si glorius miracle." } \\
& \text { "This is si signifiance of the miracle." } \\
& \text { "po seide pe lord to his sergant."" } \\
& \text { "Of po holi gost; in pa time." s }
\end{aligned}
$$

feminine.
Singular. N. peo, pa, pie, pe, po
G. pare, pære, pere, per, pe
D. parc, pære, pere, pe
A. pa, peo, pe, po

## NEUTER.

Singular. N. and A. pat, pæet, bet, pe G. and D. as masculine

Plural. N. pa, po, paie, pe
G. pare, bere, per
D. pan, pon, pen, pane, pren, peon, pa, pe
A. paie, po, be

In the Ormulum and other Midland writers the gender of that is forgotten, and it is used as a demonstrative pronoun as at present.

In the Third Period the article is for the most part flexionless in the singular : though Southern writers, as Robert of Gloucester, Dan Michel (in Ayenbite), \&c., preserve some of the older forms, as acc. masc. tha-ne, the-n.

> " Zueche yeares driuep bane dyevel uram be herte as pet weter cachchep pane bond out of pe kechenc."-Ayenbite, p. $17 \mathrm{t}.{ }^{2}$

The Kentish of 1340 also preserves the fem. po.
The fem. gen. and dat. thare (ther) is employed by Shoreham, as "thare saule galle" = the gall of the soul (Shoreham's Poems, p. 92) ; "one thare crybbe" (Ib. p. 157).

The old dative $-n$ (O.E. $-m$ ) is preserved in such expressions as "for the nonce" (O. E. for than anes): cp. O.E atten ende $=$ at then ende (Robt. of Gloucester) ; " atter spousynge" (Shoreham, p. 57); atter $=$ at ther $=$ at the (fem.).

[^140]The plural forms in the Third Perion are po, peo, pa, ${ }^{1}$ pai, ${ }^{1}$ which are also used for the plural of that: e.g. of po, of $p a$, to $\mathrm{po}=\mathrm{of}$ those, to those.

In the Fourtir Period the plural po is still in use; but the singular is uninflected.

That, plural tho ( $=$ those), are demonstratives.
Skelton uses tho = those : "Alle tho that were on my partye."
pes, peos, pis, this.

## First Period.

Singular. N. pes
G. pises
D. pisum
A. pisne
F.
peos pisse pisse pâs

## N.

 pis pises bisum pisPlural.
N. pâs
G. pissa
D. pisum
A. pâs

In the Second Period we find the following forms :-


Plural. N. and A. pas, peos, pos, pes, pese, pis, pise
G. pisscre, pisse
D. pissen, pisse, peos

In the Ormulum, this has no inflexions except plural pise.
In the Third Period this is flexionless in the singular ; ${ }^{2}$ we find in the plural thes, this, thise, these.

In the Ayenbite we find in the singular nom. masc. this, acc. masc. therne ( $=$ thesnc), acc. fem. thise, dat. thisen, thise.

Shoreham has dat. sing. and pl. thy'ssere. ${ }^{3}$
In the Fourth Period we have sing. this, pl. thise, this, thes, these.

[^141]In the Northern dialects we find ther, thir, the plural of the Old Norse definite article, used for these ${ }^{1}$ :-

> "Alle mans lyfe casten may be Princip. Ily in this partes thre, That er thir to our understandyng, Bygynnyg, midward and endyng. Ther thre parties erd thre spaces talde, Of the lyf of ilk man yhung and alde.
> HAMPOLE, P. of C.

It is used by James I. in his Essayes in Pocsie (ed. Arber, p. 70) :
" Thir are thy workes."

## VI. Interrogative Pronouns.

## First Period.

Hiva, who.

> MASC. AND FEM. NEUT.

Singzlar. N. hwa
G. hwaes
D. hwam, hwæm
A. hwone, hwæne
I. hwî
hwet
hwæs
hwæm
hwæt
hwî

## GOTHIC.

|  | Masc. | fem. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| N. hwas. | hwo | hwat. |
| G. hwis | hwizos | hwa |
| D. hwamma | hwizai | as nase. |
| A. hwana | hwo | hwa |
| A. hwe | hwe | hwe |

In the Second Period we find the following forms:-

- MASC. AND FEM.

Singular. N. hwa, whæ, wa, wha, wo
G. hwas, whes, was, whas
D. hwam, whan
A. hwan, wan, hwam, whan, wham hwat, wheet, \&c. wham

In the Ormulum we find what used irrespective of gender; as what man, what thing, \&c.

[^142]In the Third Period the dative replaces the old accusative．

MASC．AND FEM．
Singzlar．N．wha，who，huo，wo，ho，quo
G．whas，whos，wos，quas
D．whom，wham，wom，quam
A．whom，wham，won，whan， wan，quam

NEUT．
what，wat，huet， quat as masc． what，huet

What is used as an adjective without inflexions，
In the Fourth Period，N．who，what ；G．whos，whoos，whose； A．whom，wehat．

Ifucter，whether，which of two．
First Period．

M．
Singular．N．hwæすer
（．）hwæJeres
1．hwæすうと
A．hwaずerne

F．
hwaederu
 liwaderre Һぃæずere

N．
hwoder as masc． hwe＂̃er

M．AND F ．
Pizeral．
$N$ ．hwaderre

G．hwaederra
1）．hwaj̀ crum
A．hwatere

N．
hwå゙ru
－ hwæu゙iru

Hwilc is decined like the strong declension of adjectives．

## Second Period．

In La ${ }^{2}$ amon we find in Text A：－

M．
Singular．N．while，whule
G．whuiches
1）．whuche
A．whulue

F．
whulche
whulchere
whulchere
whulche

Plural．N．whulche，\＆c．

In Text B we have wooch (oblique cases woclie).
In the Ormulum we have Sing. N. whillc, G. whillkes, Plur. N. whillke.

In the Third Period this pronoun is flexionless; the pl. often has the final $e^{1}$ :--whylc, whilch, whilk, wich, wusch, woch, huich; pl. whilche, wowiike, hutiche.

In the Fourth Period the is joined to which, as the which (relative).

## VII. Relative Pronouns.

## First Period.

(i) Se (masc.), seo, sio (fem.), thæt (neut.).
"Caron se hæffe eac prio heafdu and se was swioc oreald."-Boethius.
"He haefde an swive ænlice wif sio waes haten Eurydice."-1b.
" pa næfde he nâ scipa ponne ân paet was peah pre-repre."-Ib.

(2) be with se, seo, pat, as se-pe, seo-pe, bat-be (bat-tc).
" Is for-pi ân Fæder se pe æfre is Fæder."-Elfric, De Fide Catholica.
(3) be (indeclinable).
"Geszlig bio se mon pe magy geseon."-Boethius.
" Elc pâra pe yfele deठ, hataơ pret leoht."-Yohn iii. 20.
(4) Se pe . . se.
"Se pe bryd hæfo, se is brydguma." Yohn iii. 9 .
(5) be with personal pronouns, as pe ic (ic be ), bu $\mathrm{pe}, \mathrm{\& c}$.
" Ic eom Gabrihel ic pe stand beforan Gode." $-L u k e$ i. 19. .
"Fæder ure, $\mathrm{p}_{\geq 1}$ pe eart on heofonum."-Matt. vi. 9.
(6) be . . . he=who, be . . . his = whose, be . . . him=whom. " $p$ he he sylfa astah ofer sunnan up." $-P s$. lxvii. 4.
" Pæt næs nâ eôwres pances, ac purh God pe ic purh his willan hider asend was." - Ger. xlv. 8 .
In the Second Period we find-
(1) indeclinable be. (2) that, thet, with antecedents of all genders. (3) be be, beo be (= se be, seo be). Cp.
:The Ayenbite has dative plural in en, as huichen.
(1) "Eft se pe dæl" ælmyssan for his drihtnes lufon se behyt his goldhord," \&c. -O.E. Hom. p. 300.
(2) "Eft be be dele' elmessen for his drihtnes luuan : Je behut his goldhord." - Ib. p. 10g. ${ }^{\text {I }}$
(3) be be is further changed to be bat and he bat (he pet). Cp.
"Se Je" aihte wil holde."-Moral Ode, l. 55, in O.E. Hom. Second Series.
" pe Jet," \&c.-Ib. in O.E. Hom. First Series.
"Se pe her doø ani god."-1b. 1.53, in O.E. Hom. Second Series. " pe be," \&c.-1b. in O.E. Hom. First Series.
"He 3at, \&c."-Ib. in O.E. Miscellany, latter part of thirteenth century.
be pe is not found in La3amon's Brut.
In the Ancren Rizule be . . . bet = be pe . . . be:
" be is federleas pet haue . . . vorlore pene Veder of heouene."
" jeo deठ also peo is betere Jen ich am."
That as a relative replaced-(I) the indeclinable be; (2) be in be pe (se pe), \&c.
(1) First period-
"On anre dune $\mathfrak{b e}$ is gehaten Synáy."-Ælfric.
Second period-
" Uppon ane dune bat is \}e mont of Synai."-O.E. Hom. First Series, p.86.
(2) First period-
"Swa sceal se láreow don se đe biot," \&c.-たlfric.
Second period-
"Alswa scal pe larठeu don pe pet biơ," \&c.-O.E. Hom. p. 95
(3) First period-
"An (tyd) is seo ${ }^{\text {Ce }}$ wæes buten æ."-Alfric.
Second period-
"On is 了et wes buten e."-O.E. Hom. p. 89.
In the Ormulum, bat replaces be . . . pe, be, \&c. The pl. ba bat $=$ those that.

I Extract ( 1 ) is from the English of the First period, (2) of the Second period (about irso).
${ }_{2} S e \mathrm{pe}$ is borrowed from a version of the First period.

In Chaucer we find that $\ldots$. he $=$ who ; that $\ldots$. . his $=$ whose ; that... him $=$ whom.

> "A worthy man,
> That from the tyme that he first beran

To ryden out, he lovede chyvalrye." Prol. 11. 43-45.
" Al were they sore hurte and namely oon
That with a spere was thirled his brest boon."
Knightes Tale, 11. 1843-44.
" I saugh today a corps yborn to chirche,
That now on Monday last I saugh him wirche."
Milleres Tale.
For other forms see Relative Pronouns.

## VIII. Indefinite Pronouns.

(1) An (one, a) is declined according to the strong declension.

## First Period.

| Singular. | N. | ân | F. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | G. | ânes | ân |
|  | D. | ânum | ânre |
|  | A. | ânne, t̂nne | ânre |
|  | I. | ânêes | âne |
|  | ânum | ân |  |
|  | ânrê | ânê |  |

Plural (of N. âne
all genders). G. ânra
D. ânum
A. âne
I. ânum

In the Second period we find-
M.

Singular.
N. an, on, a
G. anes, ænnes, ones
D. ane, anne
A. ænne, enne
D. ane, anne
A. ænne, enne
F.

| an, on, a | an, a |
| :--- | :--- |
| æere, are, ore | as masc. |
| are, one | ", |
| ane, æne | an, a |

In the Third and subsequent periods it is uninflected. ${ }^{1}$

[^143](2) $\operatorname{Nan}(=n e+a n)$, no, is declincd in the same way.

In the Second and Third periods it is for the most part uninflected. In Southern writers we find gen. sing., as nones kurnes, of no kind. The Ayentite has acc. nenne, dat. nonen.
(3) Sum (a, certain, some) is declined in the First period according to the strong declension of adjectives.
In La3amas (Second period) we have the following forms :-
M.

Singular. N. sum
G. summes
D. summe
A. sumne
F.
sum
sumere
sumere
sum

Plural. N. and A. summe D. summen

In the Ormulum we find-
N. sum. G. sumess. Pl. sume

In the Third and Fourth periods we find sum, som, some; Pl . sume, summe, some, used mostly in its modern acceptation.
(4) Man (Ger. man), one, is used in the First period only in the nom. In the Second and subsequent periods we find mon, man, and $m e^{1}$ used with a verb in the singular.

Traces of this me are found in Elizabethan literature:-
"Stop me his dice you ${ }^{2}$ are a villaine" (Lodge); i.e. let any one stop his dice, \&c.
(5) 今太nig (any), negative nênig, was declined according to the strong declension.

In the Second period the $g$ falls away. The following forms are used by Laj̄amon :-Sing. N. ani, ai, ai, ei; Gen. aies, ai; Dat. ai; Acc. «ine, aie. Pl. ai.

In the subsequent periods we find ani, any, ony, eny, with Pl. enie, anic, \&c.
(6) OVer, one of two, the first or the second.

[^144][^145]In the Second period we find an operr, anij̄ operr, nan operr, sum operr-(Ormutum).

In the Third period-that an, that oon, the ton, the toon = the one, the first ; that other, thet other = the other, the second. We also find thother $=$ the other.

The pl. of oJer is osre. In the Third and Fourth periods we find -心官 and oder. In the Ayenbite we find pl. ơ̈ren.
(7) Wha (any one) and whæt (aught).

$$
\text { "And gif hzua to inc hwat cwyo."-MFatt. xi. } 3 .
$$

See other examples in Indefinite Pronouns.
We have also compounds, as swylces hzuet, Irwat lytles (in Ormulum, littless whatt), elles huwet.

In the Second period summzuhatt (Orm.) makes its appearance.
(8) Hwyle (any one).
" Gif eow hwylc segర."-Mic. xiii. 2 r.
$\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{p}}$ "Fai fande iii crossis; an was pat ilke. Bot wiste pai no3t quilk was quilk, pe quilk mupt pe penis be."-Legends of Holy Rood, p. x13.
(9) In all periods such is an indefinite pronoun :-
"Be swilcum, and be svirilcum pu miht ongitan," \&c. (Boethtus) $=$ By such and such thou mayest perceive, \&\%.
"Whi art thou swich and swich that thou darst passe the lawe."-Pilgrimagr, p. 78.
(1o) Even that becomes an indefinite pronoun :-
"Swich a time thou didest thus, swich a sonedai, swich a moneday thanne thou didest that and thanne that."-Pitgrimage.

$$
\mathrm{Cp} .
$$

> "Had it been
> Rapier or that and poniard..."
> ...I had been then your man."-A Cure for a Cuckold.
(11) In "Hakluyt's Voyages" ( 1589 ) we find he used indefinitely-he . . . he =one . .other: "After comes hee and hee." Cp. Chaucer's use of he in Kinightes Tale, 11. 1756-1761:

[^146]
## IX. Compounds.

 elles hiva (Lat. ali-quis), any ; swifh-hzuâ-siud, whoso, whosoever; hwet-lıvugu ( $=$ hwigu-higgu), anything.

In the subsequent periods, swâ-hwd̂-sw $\hat{d}$ becomes (i) $h w a-s w a$, hwa-se, (2) whoso, whose.

 $n$-a-hwayer, nâwoter, nowずer, nờer, neither. ${ }^{1}$

Later forms are owober, ejper, ouber, ober = either; nouber, nowwere, noper $=$ neither.
(3) Of hwilc:-ge-whilc, anybody; aghzuilc, whoever; hwilchtigz, anyone, anything; swâ-lzvilc-sivá, whosoever.

In the Second period we find ge-hzvilc softened down to ihzuilc.
(4) AElc (= $A$-ge-lîc), each, all, was declined like kwilc.

In the Second period we have the following forms :-

| Singular. N. ælc, ech M. | F. | ælc, ech |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| G. ælches, alches, eches | alchere, elchere |  |
| D. elchen, alche, eche | alchere, elchere |  |
| A. ælcne, alcne, echne | elche, eche |  |

We also find alcant $=$ each one, which is uninflected.
In the subsequent periods we find $i l k$, ech, uch, ilka, uch $a$, eck $a, y c h a$. In the Ayenbite we find echen, after the prepositions of, to, in.

AEuer-alc (every) was inflected like alc, and in the Third period we find-

$$
\text { " Evereches owe name."-St. Brandan, p. } 3 .
$$

In the Ayenbite we find Sing. Acc. eurinne, Dat. curicken.

## CONJUGATION OF WEAK VERBS.

## First Period.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.
Sing.
(1) nerie ${ }^{\text {r }}$ sealife ${ }^{2}$ nerest sealfast
(2) nereठ sealfiá

PL.
neriad sealfia neriað sealfiaర
neriat sealfiab

PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE

| Sing. | Pl. |
| :--- | :--- |
| nerie | nerien |
| sealfie | sealfien |
| nerie | nerien |
| sealfie | sealfien |
| nerie | nerien |
| sealfie | sealfien |

SUBJUNCTIVE PERFECT.

| Sing. | $\mathrm{Pl}_{\text {L }}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| nerede |  |
| sealfode | nereden |
| sealfoden |  |
| nerede | nereden |
| sealfode | sealfoden |
| neredes | nereden |
| sealfode | sealfoden |

INFIN.
nerian sealfian

DAT. INF.
to nerienne to sealfianne

> PRES. P. neriende sealfiende

PASS. P.<br>nered<br>sealfod

## GOTHIC.

INDICATIVE PRESENT.
SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.

II. 1 STRONG VERBS. 285

INDICATIVE PERFECT.
(1) nasida salbûda
(2) nasidês salbôdes
(3) nasida salbôda

PL. nasidêdum salbûdêdum nasidêdup salbôdêdup
nasidêdum salbôdêdum

SUBJUNCTIVE rERFECT.
Sing.
nasidêdjau salborêedjau
nasidêdeis salbôdêdeis
nasidêdi salbôdêdi

PL nasidêdeima salbôdêdeima nasidêdeib salbôdêdeip nasidêdeina salbôdêdeina

IMPERATIVE.
$\begin{array}{cc}\begin{array}{c}\text { Sing } \\ \text { (2asei } \\ \text { salbô }\end{array} & \begin{array}{c}\text { PL, } \\ \text { nasjip } \\ \text { salbồp }\end{array} \\ & \text { PRES. P. }\end{array}$ nasjands salbônds

INFIN.
nasjan
salbôn

## CONJUGATION OF STRONG VERBS.

First Period.

ACTIVE VOICE.
Niman, to take.


Pirfect.


## GOTHIC.

## indicative present.

(s) nima
(2) nimis
(3) nimip
(r) nam
(2) namt
(3) nam
(2) nim
Sing.
PL.
indicative perfect.

IMPERATIVE.
Sing.
nimam nimip nimand
nêmum nêmub
nêmun
im $P_{\text {L. }}$ nimip

## SUBBUUNCTIVE PRESENT.

Sing.
(x) nimâu
(2) nimâis
(3) nimâi

PL. nimâi-ma nimâib nimâi-na

SUBJUNCTIVE PERFECT.
(x) nêm-jau nêmeima
(2) nêmjeis nêmeib
(3) nêmi nêmeina

INFIN. niman

DAT. INFIN.
PRES. P.
nimand-s
-

## First Period.

(I) Many strong verbs have change of vowel in the second and third persons sing. pres. indic.

| (1) cume (come) | creope (creep) | bace (bake) | feallan (fald |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (2) cymst | crypst | becst | feist |
| (3) cyms | crypo | bec |  |

(2) Some lose their connecting vowcl and assimilate the suffix of the second and third persons singular pres. indic. to the root, ${ }^{1}$ as :-
(i) ete (eat)
(2) ytst
binde (bind)
slea (slay)
(3) yt
binst
slehst (slyhst)
sleh\% (slyhe')
(3) Strong verbs have the same vowel-change in the second person perfect indicative as in the plural, as Ic fand (found), bu funde ( $=$ foundest), pl. we fundon, \&c.

## CLASSIFICATION OF STRONG VERBS.

|  | , | DIVISION | I. Class $I$. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (x) | Pres. a, ea. fealle | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Perf. ed, ê. } \\ & \text { feôll } \end{aligned}$ | Pass. P. $a$, ea. feallen | fall |
|  | wealle | weôll | weallen | well |
|  | fealde | feôld | fealden | fold |
|  | healde (halde) | heôld | healden | hold |
|  | stealde - | steôld | stealden | possess |
|  | wealde | weôld | wealden | wield |
|  | banne | bên (beôn) | bannen | order |
|  | spanne | spên (speôn) | spannen | span |
|  | fange (fô) | fêng | fangen | take, catch |
|  | gange | gêng (geông) <br> hêng | gangen <br> hangen | go |
|  | hange | hêng | hangen | hang |
|  | Pres. 2. | Perf.ed, ê. | P.p. 2. |  |
| (2) | swâpe | sweôp | swâpen | sweep |
|  | ge-nâpe | geneôp <br> forsweôf | genâpen <br> forswâfen | whelm |
|  | blâwe | bleôw | blâwen | drive |
|  | cnâwe | cneôw | cnâwen | know |
|  | crâwe | creôw | crâwen | crow |
|  | mâwe | meôw | mâwen | nlow |
|  | sâwe | seôw | sâwen | sow |
|  | brâwe | breôw | prâwen | thrown |
|  | wâwe | weôw | wâwen | blow |
|  | blâte | blêt (bleôt) | blâten | pale |
|  | hâte | hêt (hêht) | hâten | order |
|  | hnâte | hneôt (hnêt) | hnáten | knock |
|  | scâde | scêd (sciod, sceod) | scâden | shed, divide |
|  | lâce | leôlc (lêc) | lâcen | leap |
|  | Pres.eâ. |  |  |  |
| (3) | heâfe | heôf | heâfen | weep |
|  | hleâpe | hleôp | hleâpen | leap |
|  | â-h-neâpe | a-hneôp | ahneâpen | sever |
|  | heâwe | heôw | heâwen | hew |
|  | beâte | beôt | beâten | beat |
|  | breâte | breût | breâten | break |
|  | gesceâte | gesceot deôg | gesceaten deâgen | dall to dye |

I Weak verbs are also subject to this assimilation.
(4) slâpe gręte 1ête
on-drâde
rêde
Presi, 8.
(5) hrôwe
hwôpe
blôwe flôwe grôwe hlôwe rỏwe swôwe blôte swôge

PRES. 2.
(6) brêpe wêpe

Perf. ed, e. P.p. é.

## slêp slêpen gret graten leôrt (leôt, lêt) làiten -dreôrd (-drêd) -dræ̉den reôrd (rêd, râd) rêden

Pref.ed, e. P.p. o.

## hreốw

hweôp bleôw fieôw greôw
hieốw heôw reôw
swê̂w (swêg)
bleôt
sweôh (sweôg)

| hrôwen | cry |
| :--- | :--- |
| bwôpen | whoop |
| blôwen | blow |
| foôwen | flow |
| grôwen | grow |
| hîwen | low |
| rôwen | row |
| swôwen | speed |
| blôten | sacrifice |
| swôgen | sough |

Geing was replaced by a weak form eode (eade) from a root $t$, tre $\mathrm{g}_{3}$.
A weak form gengde is alsn met with.
Slëpde occurs for slęp in the Northern dialect.

## Second Period.

Pres.
falle, ualle halde (holde)
falde (folde) walde (welde) walke fo (fange)
ga (go, gange) hange
hate (hote)
lake
blawe (blowe, blewe)
cnawe (cnowe)
sawe (sowe)
mawe (mowe)
prawe (prowe)
slape (slepe)

Perf.
P.P.
ueol, feol, fol, fel iuallen, ineol!en y fa heold, held, hald, ihalden, iholden bold huld

| feold | ifolden | fold |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ld, weld | awald | iel |
| eolk, welk | iwalken | alk |
| ng | ifon, ifongen | ak |
|  | igan, igon, gange |  |
| eong, heng | hongen, hon | hang |
| hahte, hehte, het | ihaten, ihote, ihaten | order |
| lac | - | leap |
| bleou, bleu, blew, blou | iblowen | blow |
| cneow, cnew, kneu | icnawen | know |
| ow, sow | isowen, isawen | sow |
| eow, mew | imowen | mow |
| preou, preu | ithrowen | throw |
| slop, sleap | islepen | slee |

* The Southern dialects retain the prefix $i$ or $y$ before the p.p., and frequently drop the final $-n$. The Northern dialects drop the prefixal $i$, but seidom lose sle $\boldsymbol{\pi}$.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pres. } \\ & \text { læpe (lepe) } \end{aligned}$ | Perf. leop, lep, leoup, lup | leup, | P.P. <br> ileopen, ileapen | leak |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| late (lete) |  |  | ileten, ilæten | let |
| wepe (weope) | weop, wep heow, hew |  | iwepen <br> iheawen, iheouwen, | wece ${ }^{\text {hew }}$ |
|  | heow, hew |  | hæwen |  |
| bete | beot, bet |  | ibeaten, ibæten | beat |
| rowe | rew, reu |  | irowen | row |
| growe | greu, greow |  | igrowen | grow |

Some few perfects have become weak, as :-

| late (lete) | lette $(\text { lætte, leatte })^{I}$ | - | let |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lepe | leopt 1 | leap |  |
| slepe | sleapte $(\text { slapte })^{2}$ | - | adrad I |
| drede | dredde 3 | sleep |  |
| shæde | shadde 3 | shadd 3 | dread |
|  |  |  | shed |

Third Period.

| $\text { falle }{ }^{\text {Pres. }}$ | Perf. <br> vil, fel, fil, ful | P.p. yfalle, yfallen, yvalle, fallen | fall |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| halde (holde) | held, hield, huld | yholde, iholden | hold |
| fange (fo, fonge) | afong,afeng,aveng, avong, veng | yfonge, ifongen, ivongen | take |
| hange (honge) | heng | yhonge | hang |
| go |  | ygo, gon, gan |  |
| hote | het, hight | ybote | call, name |
| blowe (blawe) | blew | yblowe, yblowen | blow |
| knowe (knawe) | knew, kneu | yknowen, knawen | know |
| sow | seu, sew | sowen |  |
| prowe | brew, breu | ibrowen | thrown |
| slepe | slep, sleep, sleop, slup | - | sleep |
| bete | byet, bet | byeten, ibeten | beat |
| lete (late) |  | ilate, laten |  |
| drede | dred | - | dread |
| lepe | lep, hliep, hlip |  | leap |
| wepe | wep | - | weep |
| hewe | hew | ihewen | hew |
| rowe | rew, row | . - | row |
| growe | grew, greu | igrowen | grow |

The following weak forms are to be met with :-
idrad (p.p.), dradde (perf), and fanged (perf. and p.p.), hatte (p.p.), shadde (perf.), shad (p.p.), lette (perf.), ilet (p.p.), veepte, weeped perf.), Jede and wende, wente (perf.), hanged, henged (p.p.).

[^147]Fourth Period.

| Pres. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| falle | fel, ful | fallen | fall |
| holde | held, buld | holden | hold |
| walk | welk | - | walk |
| under-fong | -feng | -fongen | undertake |
| honge, hauge | heng, heeng | hongen | hang |
| gon, goon, goo, go |  | goon, gon, ygo | go |
| hote | hight | hoten | call, name |
| blowe | blew | blowen | blow |
| knowe | knew | knowen | know |
| crowe | crew, creew | crowen | crow |
| growe | grew | growen | grow |
| sowe | sew, seew | sowen |  |
| throw | threw | throwen | throw |
| slepe | slep, sleep | slepen | sleep |
| lepe | leep, lep | lopen | leap |
| lete, late | let, leet | leten | let |
| hewe | hew, heew | hewen | hew |
| bete wepe | bet, beet | beten | beat weep |

(1) The following weak forms make their appearance:-
weeldide (p.p. weeldid), walked (perf. and p.p.), underfonged (perf.), hangide, hongede (perf.), hanged, honged (p. p. ), swepide (perf.), isweped (p.p.), knowide (perf.), sowide (perf.), sowvid (p. p. ), leppide, lepte (perf.), growed (perf.), leppia, lept (p.p.), slepte (perf.), slept (p.p.), dredde, dradde (perf.), adred, adrad (p.p.).
(2) Held, heng, are sometimes used for the p.p.
(3) A mute final $e$ is often found in the perfect, as blewe, crezue, leete, \&c.

## Division II. Class $I$.

First Period.

| Pres, e, i. | Perfa, a (ea, try). | PL. $\%$. | P.p. u, o. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (I) belle | beall | bullon | bollen | bellow |
| swelle | sweal (sweoll) | swullon | swollen | swell |
| helpe | healp | hulpon | holpen | help |
| delfe | dealf | dulfon | dolfen | delve |
| melte | mealt | multon | molten | melt |
| swelte | swealt | swulton | swolten | die |
| be-telde | teald | tuldon | tolden | cover |
| melce | mealc | mulcon | molcen | milk |
| belge | bealh (bealg) | bulgon | bolgen | be wro |
| felge | fealh (fealg) | fulgon | folgen | go into |


|  | Pres. e, i. swelge | Perfa áer,a swealh (sweal | PLu. swulgon | $\text { P.p. } u, 0 \text {. }$ swolgen, | swallow |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | gille | geal | gullon | swelg gollen | yell |
|  | gilpe | gealp | gulpon | golpen | boast |
|  | gilde | geald | guldon | golden | pay |
| (2) | hlimme | hlam | hlummon | hlummen | sound |
|  | grimme | gram | grummon | grummen | rage |
|  | swimme | swam | swummon | swummen | swim |
|  | climbe | clamb, clom | clumbon | clumben | climb |
|  | gelimpe | gelamp | gelumpon | gelumpen | happen |
|  | gerimpe | geramp | gerumpon | gerumpen | rumple |
|  | on-ginne | -gan | -gunnon | gunnen | begin |
|  | linne | lan | lunnon | lunnen | cease |
|  | rinne(eorne) | )ran | runnon | runnen | run |
|  | sinne | san | sunnon | sunnen | think |
|  | spinne | span | spunnon | spunnen | spin |
|  | winne | wan | wumnon | wunnen | fight (win) |
|  | stinte | stant | stunton | stunten | stint |
|  | printe | prant | brunton | prunten | swell |
|  | binde | band | bundon | bunden | bind |
|  | finde | fand | fundon | funden | find |
|  | grinde | grand | grundon | grunden | grind |
|  | hrinde | hrand | hrundon | hrunden | push |
|  | swinde | swand | swundon | swunden | pine (swoon) |
|  | pinde | pand | pundon | punden | swell |
|  | winde | wand | wundon | wunden | wind |
|  | crince | cranc | cruncon | cruncen | yield |
|  | â-cwince | -cwanc | -cwuncon | -cwuncen | go out (quench) |
|  | drince | dranc | druncon | druncen | drink |
|  | for-scrince | -scranc | -scruncon | -scruncen | shrink |
|  | since | sanc | suncon | suncen | sink |
|  | stince | stanc | stuncon | stuncen | stink |
|  | swince | swanc | swuncon | swuncen | toil |
|  | bringe | brang | brungon | brungen | bring |
|  | clinge | clang | clungon | clungen | cling (wither) |
|  | cringe | crang | crungon | crungen | cringe, fall |
|  | gefringe | -frang | -frungon | -frungen | ask |
|  | geonge | gang | gungon | frugen | go |
|  | singe | sang | sungon | sungen |  |
|  | springe | sprang | sprungon | sprungen | spring |
|  | stinge | stang | stungon | stungen | sting |
|  | swinge | swang | swungon | swungen | swing, beat |
|  | gepinge | gepang | gepungon | gepungen | grow |
|  | pringe | prang | prungon | prungen | throng |
|  | pwinge | pwang | pwungon | pwungen | constrain |
|  | wringe | wrang | wrungon | wrungen | wring |
| (3) | Pres.eo. <br> georre meorne speorne weorpe ceorfe deorfe | Perf.ea. gear | $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L} .}, u .$gurron | P.p.o. |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | whirr |
|  |  | mearn | murnon | mornen | mourn |
|  |  | spearn | spurnon | spornen | spurn |
|  |  | wearp | wurpon | worpen | warp, throw |
|  |  | cearf | curfon | corfen | carve. cut |
|  |  | dearf | durfon | dorfen | suffer |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |



## Second Period.

| Pres. | Perf. | PL. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| swelle | swal, swol | swolzen | swollen | swell |
| 3 Jelpe | 3ealp, Jalp | 3 ulpen | 3 3olpen | yelp |
| selle | 3 al | 3ullen | 3 ollen | yell |
| helpe | halp, help | holpen | holpen | help |
| delve | dalf, dolf, delf | dulfen, dulven | dolfen, dolven | delve |
| 3elde | 3eald, 3ald | 3ulden, 3olden | 3olden | yield |
| s.welte | swalt | swulten | swolten | swelter, dic |
| beige | balg, bxelh, belh, balh | bul3en | bol3en, bolwen | be angry, swell |
| swel3e | swealh | swol3en | - | swallow |
| sw mue | swam, swom | swummen | swommen | swim |
| (1): )-limpe | -lomp, -lamp | -Jumpen, -lom- pen | -lumpen | happen |
| climbe | clanh, clomb | clumben | clumben | climb |
| b-linne | blan | blunnen | blunnen | cease |
| (ae)-ginne | gan, -gon | -gunnen | -gunnen | begin |
| (i)-winne | -wan, -won | -wunnen | -wunnen | win |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { rinne (irne, } \\ \text { corne, } \\ \text { erne) } \end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ran, ron (orn, } \\ & \text { arn) } \end{aligned}$ | uruen | runnen | run |
| beorne, lieme. | born | burnen | - | burn |
| l leme. lirinne |  |  |  |  |
| binde | band, botid | bunden | bunden | bind |
| finde | fand, fond, vond | funden | funden | find |
| grinde | grand, grond | grunden | grunden | grind |
| swinde | swond | - | - | - |
| winde | wand, wond | wunden | wunden | wind |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { swinche, } \\ \text { swinke }\end{array}\right.$ | swanc, swonc | swunken | swunken | toil |
| Sdrinke | dranc, dronc | drunken | drunken | Jrink |
| \{ (drinche) |  |  |  |  |
| stinke | stanc, stonc | stunken | stunken | stink |
| singe | sang, song | sungen | sungen | sing |


| Pres. | Perf. | PL. | P.P. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| springe | sprang, sprong | sprungen | sprunge | spring |
| swinge | swang, swong | swungen | swungen | swing |
| ringe | rang, rong | rungen | rungen | ring |
| clinge | clang, clong | clungen | clungen | cling |
| stinge | stang, stong | stungen | stungen | sting |
| ]ringe | prang, jrong | prungen | prungen | throng |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { weorpe, } \\ \text { worpc, } \\ \text { werpe } \end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { warp, worp, } \\ & \text { werp } \end{aligned}$ | wurpen | worperi | warp |
| sterfe | starf, sterf | sturven | storven | die |
| kerfe | carf, cærf, kerf | curven | corven | cut |
| wurpe (worpe) | war\} | wurpen | wurpen, pen | become |
| breste, berste | brast, barst, borst | brusten, b | brosten, sten, br burste | burst |
| presce | prash | prushen | proshen | thresh |
| swarce fehte |  | swurken fuhten |  | grow faint |
|  | faht, feaht, fogt, feht |  | fohten, fo |  |
| berge | barh, barg | bur3en | borگen | protect |
| (brede labrede | braid (breid) | bruiden |  | braid |

(1) Southern English dialects have a for the Northern $a$ in the perfect, as fond $=$ fand ; stonc $=$ stanc, \& c .
(2) A few verbs have become weak in La3amon, as-
mornede (perf.), muerned (p.p.); freinede (perf.), freined (p.p.); barnde (perf.) ; derfde (perf.), derved (p.p.) ; clende (perf.) ; ringede (perf.). Frā̄nedd (p.p.) occurs in the Ormulum.

## Third Period.

| Pres. | Perf. | PL. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| helpe | help, halp,heolp | holpen | holpen ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | help |
| yelpe | yalp | - | yolpen | bnast |
| delve | dalf | dolven | dolven | delve |
| melte | mait, molt | molten | molten | melt |
| 3elde | 3ald, 3old, 3eld | 3olden | 3olden, yolden | yield |
| swel3e | swal | - | - | swell |
| climb | clam | clomben | clomben | climb |
| swimme | swam, swom | - | - | swill |
| ginne | gan, gon | gonnen | gonnen, gun- nen | beg. 12 |
| winne | wan, won | wonnen | wonnen | win |
| rinne, renne | ran, ron | ronnen | ronnen, rum- nen | run |

[^148]| Pres. | Perf. | $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L}}$ | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| irne | orn, arn, yarn |  | y-yerne | run |
| linne, b-linne | blan, lan | blonnen | blonnen | lease |
| binde | band, bond | bonden, bounden | bonden, bounden, bunden | bind |
| finde | fand, fond, vond | fonden, founden | fonden, funden, founden |  |
| winde | wond, wand | wonden | wonden | wind |
| driake | drank, dronk | drunken | dronken, drunken | drink |
| sinke | sank, sonk | sunken, sonken | sonken | sink |
| stinke | stank, stonk | stonken | stonken | stink |
| swinke | swank | swonken | swonken | toil |
| singe | sang, song, zang, zong | songen | zongen, songen, sungen | sing |
| slinge | slong, slang | slongen | slongen | sling |
| bringe | jrang, prong | Prongen | prungen | throng |
| springe | sprang, sprong | sprongen | sprongen | spring |
| ringe | rong, rang | rongen | rongen, rungen |  |
| wringe | wrang, wrong | wrongen | wrongen | wring |
| stinge | stang, stong | stongen | stongen, stungen | sting |
| swinge | swong, swang | swongen | swungen | swing |
| kerve | carf, kerf | corven | corven | carve |
| sterve | starf | storven | storven | starve |
| werpe | warp | - | worpen | warp |
| berste, breste | brast, barst, borst | borsten | borsten, bursten | burst |
| ber3e | bor3 | - | bor3en | protect |
| brede | braid (to-bred) | - | - | braid |
| worbe | werp, worb | worben | - | become |
| fi3te | $\underset{\text { fo3t, faght, }}{\text { vo3t }}$ | fo3ten | fo3ten, foughten | fight |

Weak perfects replace strong ones, as :-
Clemde (Early Eng. Poems) ; swelled (Tristram) ; swalte (Ayenbite) ; swel3ed (Psalter) ; arnde (Robt. of Gl.) ; helped is a p.p. in Psalter; melted; slenget (Havelok).

## Fourth Period.

| Pres. | Perf. | PL. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| swelle | swall | swollen | swollen | swell |
| helpe | halp, holp . | holpen | holpen | help |
| delve | dalf | dolven | dolven, delven | delv |
| melte | malt, molt | molten | molten | melt |
| swelte | swelt | - | - | die |
| 3elde, 3eelde | 3ald, 3old, 3eld | 3olden, 3elden | 3olden | yield |
| swimme | swam, swom | swommen | swommen | swim |
| climbe | clamb, clomb | clomben, clamben | clomben | clim |
| biginne | (bi)gan | (bi) gonnen, (bi)gunnen | (bi)gunnen, (bi)gonnen |  |
| spinne | span | sponnen | sponnen | spin |


(1) Weak perfects-helpede, delvide, meltide, Jeldide, kervyde, rennede, threschide (Wickliffe), suymmed (Allit. Poems).


## Division II. Class 11.

First Period.
Pres. $i$.
Perf.a,a.
P.p.u,o.

: Pl. cwalon. All verbs of this class have a long vowel in plural.

Pkes.
(3) bere
scere
tere
ge-pwere sprece
brece

Pekf.
bear
scar
tzr
-bwar
sprac
bræc
P.p.
boren
scoren
toren
-pworen sprecen
brocen
Second Period.

Pres. Perf. P.p.
(1) stele
(z) nime
stal (stalen, pl.) stolen
nam, nom, næm numen, nomen steal (nomen, nemen, pl.)
come, cume com (comen, pl.) cumen, comen come
(3) bere
soere, schære tere
(4) break
speke, spacke
bæer, bar, bor, beer boren bear (pl. beren, bæren)
scar, schær scoren shear tar (toren, pl.) toren tear
brac, brec, breac, broken break brec (brocen, braken, pl.)
spac, spæc, spec speken, spoken speak
(pl. spæken, speken)
Weak perlect-helede (LaD̃amon).

## Third Period.

(1) hele, hile
stele
(2) nime come
(3) bere schere tere
(4) breke speke

| Perf. | P.s. | hide |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hal |  |  |
| stel, stal | stolen | stcal |
| nom, nam | nomen, numen | steal |
| com, cam | comen, cumen | come |
| ber, bar, bor | boren | bear |
| scker, schar, schor | schoren, schorn | shear |
| tar | toren | tear |
| brac, brek | broken | break |
| spac, spec | spoken | speak |

## Fourth Period.

| Pres. |
| :--- |
| stele |
| nime |
| come, cume |
| bere |


| Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| stal, staal, stol, | stolen | steal |
| stel |  | noke, steal |
| nam, nom, nem | nomen | comen, cumeo |
| cam, com | come |  |
| bar, baar, beer, bor boren, born | bear |  |
| (bare) |  |  |


| Pres. | Perf. | P.P. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| schere | schar | schoren | shear |
| tere (teere) | tar (tare) | toren, torn | tear |
| breke, breeke | brak(brake), breek | broken | break |
| speke | spak (spake), spek | spoken | speak |

Weak perfects-hilede and terede (Wickliffe).

## Division II. Class III.

## First Period.

| Pres. e. | Perf.a (pl.a). | P.p.a, i, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drepe | dræp | drepen | strihe, kill |
| swefe | swæf | swefen | sleep |
| wefe | wæf | wefen | weave |
| ete | xt | eten | eat |
| frete | fræt | freten | eat up |
| mete | mæt | meten | mete, measure |
| cnede | cnæd | cneden | knead |
| trede | træd | treden | tread |
| cwepe | cwab | cwepen | quoth |
| lese | læs | lesen | gather |
| ge-nese | -næs | -nesen | recover |
| wese | wæs | wesen | be (was) |
| wrece | wræc | wrecen | wreak |
| wege | wæg | wegen | carry |
| gife | geaf | gifen | give |
| (for'gite | -geat | -giten | (for)get |
| on-gute seche (seo) |  | -geten ${ }_{\text {gesen, }}$ | perceive see |
| seohe (seo) | seah (pl. sægon, sâwon) | gesen, gesewen |  |
| fricge | fræg | gefregen | inquire |
| licge | læg | legen | lie |
| picge | beah, ]ah (pl. | jegen | take |
| sitte | sæt | geseten | sit |
| bidde | bæd | beden | bid |

## Second Period.

| Pres. | Perr. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drepe | drap | dropen | slay |
| 3ete | æt, et, at, eat | eten |  |
| (under)3ite, (bi3ete) | -3æt, -gat, -3at -3et | -3eten,-geten,-3iten | perceive |
| (for)frete | fræt | freten |  |
| mete | mæt | meten | te |
| trede | træd (pl. treden), trad | treden | tread |
| quebe | cwep, quæ\}, cwa\} (pl. cwæjen, quejen) | quejen | quoth |
| - | wæs (pl. weren) wrec, wrec | wreken, wroken | was wreak |


| Pres． | Perf． | P．p． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 3ife | $3 \mathrm{iaf}, \mathrm{3af}$ ， 3 ef | Siven，3even | give |
| lyge | lax，leai，las3（pl． ふِeven，læろen） | leien，laien，le3en | 兂 |
| seo，se | sach，seih，sag，seg， sah（pl．sæjen， segen） | se3en，sen，sogen， sowen | see |
| sitte | sxt（pl．seten），sat， set | seten | sit |
| bidde | baed，bed，bad（pl． bæden，beden， boden） | － | bid |

Tredded $=$ trodden occurs in Ormulum，1． 5728.
Third Perion．

| Pres． drepe | $d_{\text {drap }}^{\text {Perf. }}$ | P．P． | slay |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ete | et | eten | eat |
| frete | fret | freten | fret |
| jete | 3at， $30 t$ ， et | 3eten，3iten | get |
| trede | trad | treden，troden | tread |
| quepe | quop，qual，quad | － | quoth |
| wrele | wrak，wrek | wroken | wreak |
| 3ive | 3ef，naf | 3iven，3oven | give |
| ligge，lie | lai，lei，le3 | leyen，liggen | lie |
| sitte | sat，zet | seten | sit |
| bidde | bad，bed | beden | bid |
| se，seye | say，sau，saw， sagh，sauh，sei | seyen，seien，sewen， zo3en，ze3en， seen，sain，sen | ，sce |

Fourth Period．

| Pres． | Perf． | P．P． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| weve | waf？ | woven | weave |
| ete | et，eet＊ | eten | eat |
| mete | mat，met | meten | mete |
| 3ete | 3eet，3at， 30 t | 3etten，5oten | get |
| trede（treede） | trad（trade） | treden，troden | tread |
| quebe | quod | － | quoth |
| wreke | wrak，＊wrek | wroken | wreak |
| se | sa3．saȳ，sei，sagh， saw，si3，sih， sauh，saugh | scien，scen | see |
| 3 ife，3efe，3eve | 3af，sef，yof | 3iven，3even，yoven | give |
| sitte | sat（sate） | sitten，seeten，seten | sit |
| bidde | bad | － | bid |
| ligge，lie | lay，ley | leyen，leien | lie |

Weak forms－metide for mat or met．

## Division II. Class IV.

## First Period.



Second Period.

| Pres. <br> gulle, 3elle | Perf. <br> goll (pl. gollen, <br> gullen) | P. | 3olen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |



## Third Period.

| Pres. gale | Perf. <br> 3al, 301 | P.8. | sing, yell |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stonde | stod | standen, stondea | stand |
| fare | for | faren | fare |
| swere | swor, swar | sworen, sworn | swear |
| schape | schop | schapen | shape |
| wade | wed | - | go |
| washe | wesch, wosch | waschen | wash |
| schake | schok | schaken | shake |
| ake | ok | (oken) | ache |
| forsake | forsok | forsaken | forsake |
| take | tok | taken | take |
| wake |  | waken | wake |
| drawe | drow, dreuh, drew | drawen | draw |
| waxe, wexe | wax, wex | waxen, woxen | wax |
| sle, sla, slo | slow, slogh, slouh, slou | slawen, slain | slay |
| fle, fla, flo, flase | flogh, flouh, vlea3 | flain, flawer | flay |
| lighe, lawghe, hleje | -low, lowz | - | laugh |
| stepe | step, stap | stopen, stoupen | step |
| hefe, hebhe |  | hoven, heven | heave |
|  | Fourth | Perion. |  |
| Pkes stonde, stande | Perf. stod, stood | P. P. <br> stonden, standen | stan |
| swere, sweere | swer, swor, |  | swear |
| fare | for | faren, foren | go, fare |
| shape | shop | shapen | shape |
| stepe |  | stopen, stoupen | step |
| heue | haf, hef, hof | hoven | heave |
| grave | (grof) | graven | grave |


| Pres. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lade | lade | laden | load |
| have | schoof | schaven, schoven | ve |
| asche | wesch, wosch | waschen | wash |
| ke | book | baken | bake |
| 2k | schok, schook | schake | shake |
| rsak | forsok | forsaken | orsake |
| 通 | tok, too | taken | ke |
| wake |  | waken | che |
| ake, aake, ache | ok | - | ache |
| draw | dro.3, drow, drowh, drew, drouh | drawe |  |
| naw | gnew, gnow | gnawen | gnaw |
| laghe, lawe, ley3̃e | low, low3, lo3. lough, loow3 | la3en | laugh |
| sle, slea, sla | slo3, slow, slew, slew3 | slain, slawen, slawn | slay |
|  | flouh | fain | flay |
| wexe, waxe | wox, wax, wex, | woxen, waxen, | wax |

(1) Weak perfects :-Zollide, Jellide, shapide, stept, hevede, graved. schaved, waschede, bakede, shockide, shakide, zuakide, akide, leiöede, drawede, waxed.
(2) Weak p.p.:-heved, graved, waischid, waked, shapid, awak:id.

Division II. Class $V$.

## First Period.

| Pres. 1. | Perf. ${ }_{\text {ch }}$ | PL. $i$. | P.P. i. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cine | cân | cinon | cinen | split |
| dwine | dwân | dwinon | dwinen | dwindle |
| gine | gân | ginon | ginen | yawn |
| hrine | hrân | hrinon | hrinen | touch |
| hwine | hwân | hwinon | hwinen | whiz |
| scine | scân | scinon | scinen | shine |
| gripe | grâp | gripon | gripen | gripe |
| nipe | nâp | nipon | nipen | darken |
| ripe | râp | ripon | ripen | reap |
| to-6llpe | -slap | -slipon | -slipen | dissolve |
| be-i! | -lâf | -lifon | -lifen | remain |
| clife | clâf | clifon | clifen | cleave |
| dife | drâf | Arifon | drifen | drive |
| scrife | scrâf | scrifon | scrifen | shrive |
| slife | slâf | slifon | slifen | split |
| swlfe | swâf | swifon | swifen | swecp, tur |
| spiwe | spâw | spiwon | spiwen | spew |
| bite | bât | biton | biten | bite |
| flite | flât | fliton | fliten | flite, utrive |
| hnite | hnât | hnitnn | hniten | butt |
| slite | slât | sliton | sliten | stit |


| Pres. 2. | Perf. ${ }_{\text {a }}$ | Pl. $i$. | P.p. i. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| smite | smât | smiton | smiten | smite |
| bwite | pwât | pwiton | 3witen | cut off |
| wite | wât | witon | witen | see, visit, go |
| wlite | wlât | wliton | wliten | look |
| write | wrât | writon | writen | write |
| bide | bâd | bidon | biden | bide |
| cide | câd | cidon | ciden | chide |
| glide | glâd | glidon | gliden | glide |
| gnide | gnâd | gnidon | gniden | rub |
| hlide | hlâd | hlidon | hliden | cover |
| ride | râd | ridon | riden | ride |
| slide | slâd | slidon | sliden | slide |
| stride | strâd | stridon | striden | stride |
| wride | wrâd | wridon | wriden | bud |
| lite | lâ' | lidon | liden | sail |
| mide | mâð | midon | miden | hide |
| scriole | scrâol | scridon | scriden | go |
| snite | snấ | snidon | sniden | slit |
| wrice | wrâb | wridon | wriden | writhe, wreathe |
| wrioe | wrâ̧ | writion | writen | bud, grow |
| â-grise | -grâs | -grison | -grisen | dread |
| â-rise | rấs | rison | risen | rise |
| blice | blâc | blicon | blicen | shine |
| sice | sâc | sicon | sicen | sigh |
| snice | snâc | snicon | snicen | sneak |
| strice | strâc | stricon | stricen |  |
| swice | swâc | swicon | swicen | deceive |
| wice | wâc | wicon | wicen | yield |
| hnige | hnâh | hnigon | hnigen | nod |
| mige | mâh | migon | migen | water |
| sîge | sâh | sigon | sigen | sink |
| stige | stâh | stigon | stigen | ascend |
| wige | wâh | wigon | wigen | fight |
| lhe | lâh (lâg) | ligon | ligen | lend, give |
| sîhe (seo) | sâh | sigon | sigen | strain |
| tihe (teo) | tâh (teâh) | tugon (tigon) | tigen, togen | draw, pull |
| plihe (peo) | pâh ( | (pigon) pugon | Jogen | grind |
| wrihe (wreo) | wrâh (wreâh) | wrigon | wrogen, wrigen | cower |

Second Period.

| PReS. chine scine | Perf. chan, chon scæn, son ( shon) | $\frac{\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L}}}{\text { shinen }}$ | P.p. chinen shinen | split shine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rine | ran |  | rinen | touch |
| gripe | grap, grop, | gripen | gripen | gripe |
| ripe drive | draf, drof, | sipen drifen | ripen driven, drifen | reap drive |
| prife bite schrive stite strive | praf bat, bot schrof slat strof | prifen biten schriven sliten striven | prifen <br> biten <br> schriven <br> sliten <br> striven | thrive <br> bite <br> shrive <br> slit <br> strive |

II.]

| Pres. smite | Perf. smat, smot, smæt | $\underset{\text { Pmiten }}{\text { PL. }}$ |  | P.p. smiten | smite |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| write | wrat, wrot | writen |  | writen | write |
| wite | wat | witen |  | witen | go |
| wlite | wlat | - |  | - | look |
| a-bide | -bad, -bod | -biden | - | -biden | abide |
| stride | strad |  |  | - | strive |
| glide | glad, glæd, glod | gliden |  | gliden | glide |
| ride | rad, rod, ræd | riden |  | riden | ride |
| gnide | gnad |  |  | gniden | rub |
| liote | 1а", 1æ゙ | - |  | liden | sail |
| snide | snæ\%, snat | sniరen |  | sniten | cut |
| scriole | scrab, scroo' | scriben |  | scriden |  |
| wribe | wreé | - |  | wriven | writhe |
| a-rise | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-ras, -ros, } \\ & - \text { ræs } \end{aligned}$ | -risen |  | -risen | rise |
| a-grise | -gras, -gros | - |  | -grisen | dread |
| strike | strak | striken |  | striken |  |
| swike | swac | swiken |  | swiken | deceive |
| si3e | sah, seh, soh | siJen |  | sizen | sink |
| stije | steih, ste3, stah, stæh | stizen |  | sti3en, stien | ascend |
| teo | tah, tah, teh | tu3en |  | to3en, tuhen | accuse |
| wreo | pah, Jeg, peah wreih | bizen wrizen | wrien | wrijen, wrien | grow, thrive cover |

Weak forms-liðede, liðde = lað (La3.); bilafde = belaf (La3.); bilefed (p.p. Orm.) ; bilefde (Ancren Riwle) ; Seonede, Jenede (from geonian, ginian, to yawn-a weak verb) occurs in St. Marherete.

Third Period.

| Pres. | Perf | Pl. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| chine | chon, chan |  | chinen | split |
| schine | schon | schinen | schinen | shine |
| ripe, repe | [rop] |  | ropen | reap |
| gripe | grop | gripen | gripen | gripe |
| drife, drive | draf, drof | driven | oriven | drive |
| schrive | schrof | schriven | schriven | shrive |
| (to) rive | -rof | -riven | -riven | rive |
| prife, thrive | throf | thrifen | thrifen | thrive |
| bite | bot, bat | biten | biten | bite |
| flite | flot | - | - | strive |
| smite | smat, smot | smiten | smiten | smite |
| write | wrat, wrot | writen | writen | write |
| abide | abad, abod | abiden | abiden | abide |
| ride | rad, rod | riden | riden | ride |
| - | gnad | gniden | gniden | rub |
| stride | strad, strod | striden | striden | strive |
| writhe | wrop | - | wriben | writhe |
| rise | ras, ros | risen | risen | rise |
| agrise | agsos | agrisen | agrisen | dread |


(1) Weak perfects-sripte, griped, schinde, chidde, biswiked, bilifue, belafte, blefede.
(2) Some singular forms (especially in Northern writers) have a mute $e$, as smate, bate; abade, abode.
(3) Northern writers keep $a$ (or $o$ ) in the plural instead of $i$, as ras $=\operatorname{ris}(\mathrm{en})$.

## Fourth Period.

| Pres. | Perf. | Pl | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| schine | schon, schoon | shinen | shinen | shine |
| repe | - | - | ropen | reap |
| dryve | drof, draf | driven | driven | drive |
| shryve | shrof | shriven | shriven | shrive |
| stryve | strof, stroof | striven | striven | strive |
| shrive | throf | thriven | thriven | thrive |
| byte | hot, boct, bat | biten | biten | bite |
| flite | flot |  |  | strive |
| smyte | smot, smoot, smat | smiten | smiten | smite |
| wryte | wrot, wroot, wrat | writen | writen | write |
| thwite | - | - | thwiten | cut |
| bide | bod, bood, bad | biden | biden | bide |
| chide | - | $\cdots$ | chidden | chide |
| glide | glod, glood | gliden | gliden | glide |
| ryde | rod, rood, rad | riden | riden | ride |
| slyde | slood | sliden | sliden |  |
| stride | strad | - |  | stride |
| wrythe | wrooth | - | writhen, wrethen | writhe |
| ryse | ros, roos, ras | risen | risen |  |
| (a)grise | -gros *- | - | -grisen | dread |
| ste3e, stye | stey, stei3, stigh | sti3en | stijen | ascend |
| wrie | - | - | wrien | cover |
| tee | tigh | - | towen | draw |

Weak perfects-dwynede, agriside, sykide, stī̄ed (Wickliffe); p. $\gamma$ ). dwinad (Chaucer).

In " Alliterative Poems" we find:-fine, to cease, with a stror.s" perf. fine ; and triue, to go (of Norse origin). with perf, tront.

## Division II. Class VI.

First Period.

| Pres. eo (ii). creope | Perf. eá. creâp | PL. $u$. crupon |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dreope | dreâp | drupon |
| geope | geâp | gupon |
| slâpe | sleâp | slupon |
| sape | seâp | supon |
| cleofe | cleâf | clufon |
| deofe, dûfe | deâf | dufon |
| sceofe, scûfe | sceâf | scufon |
| leofe | leâf | lufon |
| reofe | reâf | rufon |
| breowe | breâw | bruwon |
| ceowe | ceâw | cuwon |
| hreowe | hreâw | hruwon |
| preowe | breấw | pruwon |
| breote | breât | bruton |
| fleote | fleât | fluton |
| geote | geât | guton |
| greote | greât | gruton |
| hleote | hleât | hluton |
| hrute | hreât | hruton |
| lîte | leât | luton |
| neote | neât | nuton |
| reote | reât | ruton |
| scote | scêât | scuton |
| peote | peât | puton |
| a-jreote | -preât | -bruton |
| beode | beâd | budon. |
| creode | cneâd | criudon |
| creode | creâd | crudon |
| leode | leâd | ludon |
| reode | reâd | rudon |
| strûdc | streâd | strudon |
| â-breote | -breẫ | -bruすon |
| â-hîte | -heâd | -hudon |
| hreobe | hreâð | hrudon |
| seode | seât | sudon |
| ceose | ceâs | curon |
| dreose | dreâs | druron |
| freose | freâs | fruron |
| be-greose | -greâs | -gruron |
| hreose | hreâs | hruron |
| for-lcos | -leâs | -luron |
| brûce | breâc | brucon |
| lûce | leâc | lucon |
| reoce | reâc | rucon |
| smeoce | smeâc | smucon |
| sûce | seâc | sucon |
| bitge | beâh | bugon |
| dreoge | dreâh | drugon |
| tlcoge | fleâh | flugon |


| P.p.o. cropen dropen | creep drop |
| :---: | :---: |
| gopen | take up |
| slopen | dissolve |
| sopen | sup |
| clofen | cleave |
| dofen | dive |
| scôfen | shove |
| lofen | love |
| rofen | reave |
| browen | brew |
| cowen | chew |
| hrowen | rue |
| prowen | throe |
| broten | break |
| floten | float |
| g.ten | pour |
| groten | greet |
| hloten | cast lots |
| hroten | snore |
| loten | lout, bow |
| noten | enjoy |
| roten | weep, cry |
| scoten | shoot |
| poten | howl ${ }^{-}$ |
| -proten | loathe, irk |
| boden | bid |
| cnoden | knot |
| croden | crowd |
| loden | grow |
| roden | redden |
| stroden | despoil |
| -broすen | to make worss |
| -hoden | spoil |
| hroden | adorn |
| soden | seethe |
| coren | choose |
| droren | mourn |
| froren | freeze |
| -groren | frighten |
| hroren | rush |
| -loren | lose |
| brocen | brouk, use |
| locen | lock |
| rocen | reek |
| smocen | smoke |
| socen | suck |
| bogen | bow |
| drogen | suffer |
| flogen | fiv |


| Pres, co (4). | Perp. ed. |
| :--- | :--- |
| leoge | leâh |
| smûge | smeâh |
| fleohe (flê̂) | fleâh |
| teohe (teô) | teâh |
| oeo | Øeâhh |
| wreô | wreâh |


| Pl. 7. | P.p. o. |
| :--- | :--- |
| lugon | Jogen |
| srmugon | smoger |
| flugon | flogen |
| tugon | togen |
| tugon | togen |
| wrugon | wrogen |

lie
creep
flee
thg
cover

## Second Period.

| Pres. crepe deofe scuve | Perf. crap, crep deaf, def scaf, scaf, scef | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pl. } \\ & \text { crupon } \\ & \text { scuven, } \\ & \text { schoven } \end{aligned}$ | P.p. cropen schoven | creep dive shove |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cleove | claf | cluven, clufen | cloven, clofen | cleave |
| brewe | brew | - | browen | brew |
| reowe | rew, rew, reuw, reu | , | - | rue |
| geote | gret, get | guten | goten | pour |
| sceote | sceat, scat, scheat, schet | scuten | scoten | shoot |
| veote, flete | flet, flat | fluten | floten | float |
| lute | leat | luten | loten | bow |
| beode, bede, bidde | bed, bad, bed, bead | buden, biden | boden, beden, beoden | bid |
| for-beode | -bred, -bad, -bead | -buden | -boden | forbid |
| rheose | chæes, ches | curen, chosen | coren, chosen | choose |
| frese | - | - | froren | freeze |
| rense, rese | res, res |  | - | rush |
| lease | $\begin{aligned} & \text { las, les, lees, } \\ & \text { leas } \end{aligned}$ | loren, luren | loren | lose |
| soope | sep | suden | soden | seethe |
| luke | leer, lok | luken | loken | lock |
| suke | saec , sme | suken | soken | suck |
| bu3e, butwe | bech, bah, beh, beih | bu3en | bo3en | bow, bend |
| dri3e | dreih. dreg | drosen | dro3en, drohen | suffer |
| li.3e, le3e, lu3e | lxh. leh | lu.jen | losien |  |
| fleo | fixh, fleh, fleih | flusen, fluwen | flusen, flosien | $f y$ |
| Heo | flæh, fleh, | finsen, flowen, | flozen, flowen | flee |
|  | fleal, fleih, | fiuen |  |  |

(1) Weak perfects:--losulc, bo ̄̄eile, resden (Lā̃.); defile $=$ dived (St. Marherete).
(2) Weak p.p.:-ilosed (Lay.), bilefed (Orm.).

Third Period.

| Pres | Perf. | PL | P.P. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| crate | creap | cropen | cropen | creep |
| cleve | clef, cleef | sloven | cloven | cleave |
| lrewc | brew | browen | browen | brew |


| Pres. schete | Perf. schet, schot, scheat, sset | $\underset{\text { schoten }}{\mathrm{PI}_{r}}$ | P.p. schoten, schotten | shoot |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| schuve | schef, schof | schoven | schoven | shove |
| brewe | brew | - | browen | brew |
| rewe | reu | - | - | rue |
| 3 ete | yhet, 3et | 3oten | 3oten, 3et(en) | pour |
| loute, lute, lote | leat | louten | louten, loten | bow |
| flete | flet | - | floten | float |
| bede | bed, bad | boden | boden, beden | bid |
| sepe | sep, seath, sod | soden | soden, sodden | seethe |
| chese, chese | ches, cheas | chosen | chosen, corn, coren | choose |
| lese | les, lyeas, lees | lesen, losen, loren | losen, loren, lorn | lose |
| frese | fres | frosen | frosen, froren | freeze |
| loke, luke | leac, lok | loken | loken | look |
| a-huje, abowe | -bea3 | -bowen | -bojen, -bowen | bow |
| lize | leigh | - | lowen | lie |
| fle, flize | fleh, fley, flegh | flowen | flowen | fly |
| fle, fle3e | flew, fleu, fley | flowen | flowen | flee |
| drize | dregh | - | - | suffer |

Weak forms :-lost, lest, (bi)louked, bowved, lighed, fled, schette.

## Fourth Period.

| Pres. crepe | Perf. crop (crope) | Pl. <br> cropen | $\underset{\text { cropen }}{\text { P.P. }}$ | creep |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| soupe | soop, sop |  | sopen | sup |
| clyve, cleve | cleef, clef | cloven, cleven | cloven | cleave |
| schove | schof | - | schoven | shove |
| brewe | brew | - | browen | brew |
| for-bede | -beed, -bad | -beden | -boden, -biden, -beden | bid |
| sethe | seth | - | soden, sothen | seeth |
| 3eete, yete | 3 ot | - | 3oten | pour |
| schete | schete | - | schoten | shoot |
| flete | flet, fleet, flot | - | - | float |
| chese | ches, chees, chos | chosen, chesen | chosen | choos |
| frese | frees, fres | frosen | frosen, froren | freeze |
| leese | les, lees | losen | losen, loren | lose |
| brouke | broke | - | - | brook |
| loke | lek | - | loken | lock |
| li3e, lie | leiz | - | lowen | lie |
| flee, fle3e, flie3e | flei3, flew, flegh, fleigh | flewen | flowen | fly |
| flee, flizhe | flei3, flew | flowen | flowen | flee |

(1) Weak perfects:-brewedc, sethede, Jetide, Jotte, schotte, Aletide, lowtide, cheside, freside, losed, loste, leste, bowide, liede, fledde.
(2) Weak p.p.:-schot. cleft, lowtid, lost, lest, lyed, fied, slokked, ooutid, soupide.

## CLASSIFICATION OF WEAK VERBS.

First Period.

## Class 1.

(1) Radical short.-The first class has the connecting vowel $e$ ( $=i=i a$ ), and contains verbs with short and long radical vowels, as ner-e-de (perf.), ner-e-d (p.p.).
(2) Radical long.-The connecting vowel is lost in the perfects of those verbs with long radicals.

| Inf. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ditlean | dâl-de | ged $\hat{\text { chled }}$ | divide |
| mên-an | mên-de | mén-ed | lament |
| lêd-an | lâd-de | lâd-ed | lead |
| dêm-an | dêm-de | dêm-ed | deem |
| fêd-an | fed-de | fêd-ed | feed |
| \&c. | \&c. | \&c. |  |

The perfect and p.p. of the following verbs retain the original radical vowel $(\delta)$ of the stem :

| sêc-an | sôh-te | sôh-t | seek |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| têc-an | rôh-te | rôh-t | reck |

(3) Stems ending in $m n, n \pi, r m, r n, l d, n d, r d$, lose the connecting vowel $e$ in the perfect.

The perfects of stems in $m m$ drop $n$ before de.

| nemn-an | nem-de | memn-e-d | name |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| spreng-an | spreng-de | spreng-e-d | spriug |
| bærn-an | bærn-de | bærn-e-d | burn |
| styrm-an | styrm-de | styrm-e-d | storm |

(4) Stems ending (through gemination) in $l l, m m, s s, d l d, c g, c c$, op (for $l j, m j, s j, d j, z j, c j, p j)$, have no connecting vowel in the perfect.

| wemm-an | wem-de | wemme-ed | defile |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cenn-an | cen-de | cemn-e-d | bring forth |
| spill-an | spil-de | spill-e-d | spill |
| âredd-an | âhred-de | âhredd-e-d | rescue |
| lecg-an | leg-de | leg-e-d | lay |

[^149]Some verbs in the perfect and p.p. retain the radical vowel ( $a$ ) of the stem.

| Inf. | PERF. | P.p. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cwell-an | cweal-de | cweal-d | kill |
| sell-an | seal-de | seal-d, sal-d | sell |
| tell-an | teal-de | teal-d | tell |
| recc-an | reah-te | reah-t | reck |
| strecc-an | streh-te (streahte) | streah-t | stretch |
| wecc-an | weah-te | weah-t | arouse |

In the following verbs (with stems in $l d, n d, r d, n t, r t, f t, s t, h t$ ) the connecting vowel is lost, and the suffix $d$ of the perfect is assimilated to the final dental of the stem, so that $d+d e=d e$.

| scild-an | scild-e | scild-ed | shield |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| send-an | send-e | send-ed | send |
| gyrd-an | gyrd-e | gyrd-ed | gird |
| stylt-an | stylt-e | stylt-ed | stand astonished |
| hyrt-an | hyrt-e | hyrt-ed | hearten |
| mynt-an | mynt-e | mynt-ed | purpose |
| hæft-an | hreft-e | hæft-ed | bind |
| riht-an | riht-e | riht-ed | set right |
| rest-an | rest-e | rest-ed | rest |

$D$ becomes $t$ when added to stems ending in $p, t, n c, s, x$.

| dypp-an | dyp-te | dypp-ed | dip |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sett-an | set-te | sett-ed, set | set |
| drenc-an | drenc-te | drenc-ed | drink |
| cyss-an | cys-te | cyss-ed | kiss |
| lix-an | lix-te | lix-ed | shine |

When $t$ is added to stems in $c c$, the perf. and p.p. have only a single $h$ before the suffix.

| recc-an | reah-te | reah-t | reck |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wecc-an | weah-te | weah-t | arouse |
| strecc-an | streah-te | streah-t | stretch |

In verbs with long stems ending in a sharp mute, $d$ in the peri. becomes $t$, as -

| rêp-an | rêp-te | rêp-ed | reap |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mêt-an | mêt-te | mêt-ed | meet |

$C$ becomes $h$ before $t$, as-
tac-an
tâh-te
tâh-t
teach

## Class 11.

The second class of weak verbs has ofor its connecting vowel, as lufian, to love; perf. luf-o-de; p.p. luf-od.

This $o$ is weakened to $a, z$, and $e$, as :-

> browade $=$ proveo-de, suffiered.
> cleopade and cleopede = cleopode, called.
> singzde $=$ singode, sinned.

## Subsequent Periods.

In the Second and subsequent periods, the two conjugations are mixed up, because the connecting vowel $o$ has become $e$.

In the earlier part of this period we find perfects in -ode, -ude, side by side with -ede; they are to be regarded as exceptional forms.
(1) Radical short.

Second Period.

| Inf. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sweven | swev-e-de | iswer-ēd <br> pankien | lank-e-de |

In the Third and Fourth periods we find $-i d$ and $-u d$ in the perfect tense and passive participle, as well as -ede, -de.

The Fourth period keeps the connecting vowel e, but frequently drops the $e$ of the suffix $d e$.
(2) Radical lons. -The connecting vowel disappears in long s) 1 -lable-stems, and $d$ is added immediately to the verbal stem.

Second Period.

| Inf. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dalen | dxl-de, del-de | idel-ed | divide |
| demen | dem-de | idem-ed | deem |
| lemen | len-de | ilen-ed | lend |
| heren | her-de | iher-d | hear |
| leden, laden | led-de | iled, ile-d | lead |
| feden | fed-de | ifed | feed |

Third and Fourth Periods.

| lnf. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dele | del-de | deled | divide |
| deme | dem-de | dem-d | deenı |
| lede | led-de, lad-de | led, lad | lead |
| drede | dred-de, drad-de | dred, drad | dread |
| \&c. | \&c. | \&c. |  |

(3) The suffix $d$ assimilates to the $d$ of the combination $-l d$, $n d$ $\left(-d d^{\prime}\right)^{1} ;-r t,-s t,-h t$, $-t t$.

|  | SECOND PERIOD. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Perf. | P.P. |  |
| INF. | bulde | buld | build |
| bulden | sende | isend | send |
| senden | wende | iwend $=$ | turat |
| wendert | sette | iset | set |
| setten | reste | irest | rest |
| resten | hurte | ihurt | hurt |
| hurten | caste | icast | cast |

## Third Period.

| INF. | PERF. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| bulden | bulde | iibuld | build |
| senden | sende | isend | send |
| casten | caste | icast | cast |
| setten | sette | iset | set |
| \&c. | \&c. | \&c. |  |

In Northern writers we find $t$ often replacing $d$, as-

| sende | sent(e) | sent | send |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wende | went(e) | went | wend, go |

## Fourth Period.

The $d$ is now regularly converted into $t$, as-

| Inf. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| blender | Perf. |
| blente, blent | P.p. <br> blent$\quad$ blend |

(4) The suffix $-d$ is changed into $-t$ after $p, f, c h, c c h, s s, t ; c k$ becomes $h(\bar{J})$ before $t e$; $n c h$ becomes $n g$ or is vocalized before $t e$.

[^150]Second Period.

|  | INF. | Pitr ${ }_{\text {F }}$. | P.P. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (2) | kepen | kepte | ikept |  | keep |
|  | cussen | custe | icust |  | kiss |
|  | cutten | cutte | icut. | - | cut |
|  | putten | putte | iput |  | put |
|  | racchen | ræhte, rahte | iraht |  | explain |
|  | (cacchen | cahte | icaht |  | catch |
|  | 'kecchen | keihte, caubte | ikeiht $\}$ |  | catch |
|  | sachen | tahte | itaht |  | teach |
|  | smecchen | smeihte | ismecched |  | taste, smack |
|  | lacchen | lahte | ilaht |  | seize |
|  | drenchen | drengte, dreinte | adreint |  | drench |
|  | mengen | meinde | jmeind |  | mingle |

In the following verbs there is a return to the radical vowel of tie stem :-
(3) Ssæchen sechen recchen \{strecchen |strecchen tellen sellen


Third Period.
(1) Inf.
(1) kepen lefen refen wefen cacchen clenchen techen

Perf.<br>kepte lefte (left)<br>refte (reft)<br>wefte (weft)<br>ca3te<br>cleinte, clente<br>tau3te, tei3te, tauhte (taght)

P.p.

| ikept, kept | keep |
| :--- | :--- |
| ileft, left | leave |
| ireft, reft | (be)reave |
| iweft, weft | wcave |
| ica3t, ca3t | catch |
| icleint, iclent | clench |
| itan3t, tau3t | teach |

(2) drenchen
(3) sechen rechen rechen
dreynte
dreynt
drown
tellen
sellen

| so3te, souhte (souht) <br> ro3'e | iso3t, so3t | seek |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rauhte, rei3te, | - | reck |
| rau3te, raughte <br> tolde, tald | itold, told, tald, <br> teld | tell |
| solde | isold, sold | sell |

The Ayenbite keeps the old ea, as :-
telle
tealde
zealde
yteald, tald
tell
zealde
yzeald, zald
sell

## Fourth Period.

| (1) | $\underset{\text { keper }}{\text { IN. }}$ | Perf. <br> kepte (kepide) | ${ }_{\text {kept }}$ Fr. | keep |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | leeven, leven | lefte, lafte (laft) | left, laft | leave |
|  | refen | refte, rafte (raft) | raft (refed) | e |
|  | greten | grette | gret | greet |
|  | sweten | swatte, swette | swet, swat | sweat |
|  | meeten | mette | met | meet |
|  | kepen | keste, kiste | kest, kist | kiss |
|  | twicchen | twight(e) | twight | twitch |
|  | picchen | pignt(e) | pight | pitch |
|  | plicchen | plight(e) | plight | pluck |
|  | techen | tou3te, tau3te | tou3t, tau3t | teach |
|  | cacche | causte, caughte | ca3t, cau3t, caught | catch |
|  | lachen | lau3te | lau3t | seize |
| (2) | blenchen | bleynt(e), blent(e) | . | hlench |
|  | quenchen | queinte | queint | yuench |
|  | drenchen | dreint(e) | dreint | drench |

The $g$ in $n g$ becomes vocalized before the suffix $d$ or $t$.

| INF. | Perf. | P.p. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sprengen | spreynde, spreynte, sprengide | spreynt, spreyned | sprinkle |
| mengen | meynde, meynte, myngede | - | mingle |
| sengen | (seynde) | seynd, seind | singe |
| sechen | sou3te | sou3t | seek |
| be-sechen | -sou3te | -sou3t | beseech |
| recchen | rou3te, roughte, rau3te | rau3t, rou3t | reck |
| reche | rau3te | rau3t | reach |
| strecche | strauhte, strau3te | straught, strau3t | stretch |
| biggen | bou3te | bou3t | buy |
| smeken | smaughte | - | smack |
| tellen | tolde, telde | told, teld, tald | tel! |
| sellen | soold, selde, solde, salde | sold, seld, sald | sell |

Anomalous forms are treated along with their modern representatives ; see Anomalous Verbs.

## ADVERBS.

## I. Substantive.

(a) Gexitive.

First Period.-Dages (of a day), ford-dages (late in the day), summeres and winteres (summer and winter), nilites (of a night), neades (needs), so才es (of a truth), \&c.

Second Period.-Forðdaies, daies (deies), nihtes, 'aday and nyhtes' (daies and nihtes), lifes (alive), deathes (dead), tedes (needs), winteres, sumeres, willes (willingly), zvaldes (purposely), unzualdes (accidentally), sotes (of a truth), his ponkes (of his own accord), hwiles (hzwils), the hzviles, ōerhzuiles (sometimes), summes weis, odres weis (oJerweis). nanes zweis, alles weis, allegates (always), soörihtes (truly), halfinges (by half), Sic.

Third Period.-Dayes, nyhtes, anītes, bonkes, unponkes, nedes, hzviles, \&ic.

Fourth Period.-Adayes, nedes, other-weies, algates (always), egselinges, hedlynges (headlong), noselynges, sidelonges, grovelonges, \&ic.

## (b) Dative and Instrumental.

First Period.- $\hat{A} f r e, ~ n \hat{a ̂ f r e, ~ h e o d a g e ~(t o-d a y), ~ h w i l t s m ~(w h i l o m), ~}$ stundum (at times), dagzm (by day), nahtum (by night), situnc.-mél-um (by little times, at spare times), nahtum (nightly), \&c.; handlunga (hand to hand), baclinga (backwards), sûdan (from the south), eastan (from the east), \&c.

Second Period.- Ffre, efre, nafre, newere, nede (of necessity), whilum (hwilem, hwilen, whilen), wuke-malum (weekly), drope-meie (drop-meal), lim-mele (limb-meal), wender $=$ wundrum (wonderfully). nedunga, nedlunge (of necessity), ruglinge (backward), stundmeit, umbstunde (at intervals), euerte, newerte, eauer3ette, \&ic.

Third Period.-Evere, euer, nevere, never, whilom, while, lymmele, pecemele, stundemele, cuerte, neverie, wonder, cuppemele, pouna. mele, floc-mele (by companies).

Fourth Period.-Ever, never, whilom, alleweyes, gobbetmele, pecemet. by pecemele (piecemeal), kipyil-melum (by heaps), stowndmeed, lynl. vuele, parcel-mele, egrelynge, grovelonce, \&c.

## (c) Accusative.

First Period.-Hâm (home), câst, wuest, sầ , nor $\delta, \hat{a}$ (ever), na (no), ealne weg (alway), pa hwile (whilst), sume hzvile (somewhile), dîal, sumne dầl (somedeal), wiht, $\hat{\text { and }}$-wiht (something, somewhat), ờre wisan (otherwise), sume zuîan (somewise), sồ (truth), nênigbing (nought), \&c.

Second Period.-Ham, hom, nord, east (rest), suð', zuest, sumedale, sumdel, what-gate, allegate, oper-gate, beo hzuile (the while), otherhwile, sumewhile, oper (= operwise), fulsờ, o, a, aa (ever), eawiht (aught), \&c.

Third Period.-Hom, norb, est, west, soub, $a, o o, ~ a y$, somdel, o3t, ilka dele, alwei, alnewey, often-tide, sumhzoile, operhwrile, thus-gatc, allegate, szuagate, \&c.

Fourth Period.-Hom, algate (allesate), alway, sometime, somdel, somdele, gretdel, everydel, auJt, oberwise, \&c.

## (d) Prepositional Forms.

First Period.-On weg (away), on bac, underbac (aback), on-geân (against, opposite); togeênes (against), tô-afenes (in the evening), on-dage (a-day), on-niht (anight), tô-dage (to-day), tô-nihte (tonight), on arne mergen (early mornings), on morgen (a-mornings), on midne-dag (at mid-day), âdune (down), on midre nihte (at midnight), \&c.

Second Period.-Umbe-stunde, umbe-hwile (at intervals) ; bysydes, biside, bisiden, bisides; bi-daye, bi-nyhte; bihalves (beside); bilife, bilifes (quickly) ; adun (down), a-bac, abacch; on-3an, a3an, ajein. tô-Z̧ines (against, towards); adai, adai, aniht, an-hond, an-efne. (at eventide); an-ende, on-ende (lastly); a-lyve, a-marwe, $a$-mar 3 en , a-morwe, a-mor3e (a-morrow); arewen (aronu), a seoven nihte (a sen night); aslepe, awei, awai (away); an erne morew (on early morrow) on live, a bes half (on this side of); oslape (asleep); on nihtes, atten ende, at ben ende (at last); at morvinen, at morven, to-marhen, to. morwe, to-marewene, to-niht, to-daie, to-Jere, to-sumere, \&c., to-sode (truly), bi dages, bi nyhtes, \&c.

Third Period.-Abak, adoun, afelde, agrund, alonde, awey, amorwe, anȳ̄t, awynter, ayen, ayenward, an haste, an hond, on hi3e, onlive, on niJtes, on dayes, on morwe, on peces; bilife, bilyze, biside, bysydes, bicas, becas (accidentally), attenende, bynorbe, bysoupe, by este, by weste,
uphap, upon hast, forcas, forsobe, to-day, to-ny'Jt, to-morn, tey (to-eve), insped (speedily), at ese, \&c.

Fourth Period.-Umbe-stoundes, in-stoundes (at intervals), 2 um hwile, adoun, abak, asyde (asidishalf), afire, aj̃en, amoreure, anight, afote (on fote), arow, aslope, on egge (on edge), onsydes, on sidishand (aside), a-dregh, o-dregh, on-dre3 (aside); bejorehand, to-morwe, to morn, to-jere, \&c.

## II. Adjective.

(1) With final -e.

First Period.-Fäst-e, hlud-e, biter-lic-e, \&ic.
Second Period.-Feste, lhude, ille, ufile, depe, swibe, vastliche; blibelike, baldeliz, \&c.

Third Period. -Widi, side, dere, depe, harde, unebe, nobliche, \&ic.
In the Northern dialects we find -like and -ly for -liche.
Fourth Period.-Faste, fulle, righte, hevenlich, hevenliche, scharply, passendli, felendly, \&c.
(2) In the comparative and superlative degrees, adjectives (First period) end in -or and -ost, without any other inflexion, as geornor (more diligent), fastor (faster), castelicor (more easily), heardost (hardest), eatelicost (easiest). Some few comparatives drop the suffix, as leng (longer), bet (better), md (more), áp (easier).

In the subsequent periods, adverbs form their comparatives in -ere (-er, -or, -ur) ; superlatives in -este (-est).

The comparative of words in -liche becomes-
(a) -liker, -lukèr, -loker, -laker.
(b) -lyer.

The superlative of ${ }^{\circ}$ ardjectives in -liche ends in-
(a) -likest, -lukest, -lokest, -lakest.
(b) -lyest. Cp. depliker, gerenluker, deorluker, blipeloker, fellaker (more fiercely), \&c.

In the Fourth period -lyer predoninates.
We also find as late as Chaucer the shortened comparatives bet. m.o. leng.
(3) Many adjectives are used as adverbs, especially those with irregular comparisons.

First Period.-Wela, wel (well), ufele (ill), lytl̂̂, lytlum (little), micles, miclum (much), neâh, aih (nigh, near), feor (far), fort (forth), latc, latan (late), bet (better), be bet (the better), betst (best), wyrs (worse), zuyrst (worst), by las (the less), mâ (more), \&c.

Subsequent Periods. - Ufele, zuvele, ille (ill), lute, lyte, lytyl, bet, best, worse, wurst, lisse, lesse, lest, ma, mare, more, \&c., fer, neor, ner, nerre, nyJ, nexst, nest, forth, forther, later, latere, latst, ner be later, never the later, \&c.
(4) Case-endings :-

## (a) Genitive.

First Period.-bweorhes (across), sones (soon), ealles (altogether), efnes, emues (evenly), micles (greatly), elles (else), \&c.

Adverbs in -zueards (-wards), \&ic.
Second Period.-Alles, elles, rihtes, duvcl-rihtes (with a dive), adunrihtes, alrihtes, ananrihtes, fororihtes, berihtes, upwardes, hiderzuardes, forsivardes, eftsones, mucheles, cwices (alive), alunges (altogether), adunwardes, ả̃inwardes, \&c.

Third P'eriod.-Alles, elies, eftsones, amiddes, rijtes, dounrijtis, azeeivardes (away), \&c.

Fourth Period.-Elles, unebes, unwares, hiderwardes, upwardis, forwardes, halfinges, endlonges, afterwardes, towardes, uprihtes, \&i-

## (b) Instrumental.

First Period.-Geara (of yore), sôna (soon), geta (yet).
Second Period.- Зore, sone, इette, इet, eftsone, cverЗet, neverラet.
Third and Fourth Periods.-Sone, 亏et, everכet.

## (c) Dative.

First Period. - Lythum (little), wicluen (greatly, much), zuundrum (wonderfully), furbum (even), dearnunga (secretly), callingra (wholly), \&c.

Second Period.-Lutlen, lytlin, muchele, forbe, allinge, unmuna unge (unmindiully), seldum, sildin, silde, ane (alone), \&ic.

Third Period.-Lytlen, muchele, moche, selde, selden, one. ferinkli (suddenly), sunderlyng (separately), \&c.

Fourth Periou.-Lytlen, lytlum, muche, muchel, allynge, \&c.

## (d) Accusative

First Period.-AEr (ere), cal (all), nedh (nigh), nobh, genok (enough), feor (far), lyt, lytel, riht; adverbs in -weard (ward), \&c.

Second Period.-Al, ar, er (ere); a-neoh, neh (nigh), inoh (enough); hidenward, Brondward, binzuard (within), biderward, forpward, forbrihl, anonriht, aweiward, amiddeward, \&c.

Third Period.-Al ; er, ar, or (ere) ; neh, ny 0 , rijt, fer, ymo3, imydward, biderward, awkeward ( $=$ wrongly), for ${ }^{\text {riht, }}$ \&c.

Fourth Period.-Al; er, or ; negh, nyJ ; afer, nī̃t, ynow; estuard, to-zvarde, \&c.

## (e) Prepositional

First Period. On-middum (amidst), on-efen (anent), on-baveorh (across), on-geador (together), on-fdel (in vain), on-sundrum (asunder), on-eornost (in earnest), to-middes (amidst), to-weardes (towards), $t 8$-gadere (together), tô-somne (together), ofer-eall (everywhere), atgadere (together), be ánfealdum (singly), \&c.

Second Period.-Amidden (amid), amiddes, a-neah (nigh), a-zu'Jere (against), an-vest, on-fest, anewist, a-necuest (fast by, near), ariht, anhelz (on high), alast, anewe, an-anriht, on widere (against), onstunder, on oper (otherwise), on-idel, in-idel, to-samen, to-somne, togrederes, togedere; to-gode (gratuitously), overal, of lah (from below), of feor, of feorren (afar), of heh (from on high), mid-rihte (rightly), atte laste, \&c.

Third Period.-Alast, alefte, amidde, amiddes, in-middes, anhey, on hie, an hei3, on hei3, abrod, abrood, on-ferrum, an ecen (at last), anā̄t (to nought), to gedere, togedere, togederes, oceral, uppon heij, at al, at alle (in all things = alles), at alle rijutes, anomrijtes, to-rijtes, uprijtes, at arst, atte fulle, ate laste, atte laste, atte best, ate verst (at first), albidene, bydine ( $=$ by that, subsequently), \&ic.

Fourth Period.-Abrood, alarge, afer, aferre, anhey, in melle, amel (amid), on reunde, in myddes, in mydde; in seme (together), on rī̄t, on-wyde, to-geder, in-idel, aloJ, at be fulle; overthiart, endlonge, endlonges, \&c.

## III．Numeral．

First Period．－Fine（once），teninga，an－unga（once），on－în（con－ tinually，once for all），for an（for ever），on ane（at same time， together），twizva（twice），betwih（between），prîga，prizwa（thrice），\＆c．

Second Period．－Ene，anes，enes，twies，tweien，tweie，priJes，at anes，at eanes，ansije（once），anan，al onan，a twa，a two，on twinne，on pre，betweonen，betwenen，bitwixen，to ban ane，to ban anes，for pe nanes，for pan one，\＆c．

Third Period．－Ene，ones，enes，anes，twie，thrie，twoyes，thries， anon；in on（continually），at one，at on，at ene，atwo，a pre， atwinne，asevene，bytweyne，for pe nones，\＆c．

Fourth Period．－Anes，ones，twoyes，thries，twye，three，anoon，ato， in two，in on，atone，at ene，after on，bytwene，for be nones，\＆c．

## IV．Adverbs formed from Particles．

First Per．Second Per．Third Per．Fourth Per．
æft，eft æfter æfterward
wftan

| wiol－wftan |
| :--- |
| be－xftan |
| bi，big |
| fore |

$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { foran } \\ \text { be－foran } \\ \text { tô－foran } \\ \text { wiofforan } \\ \text { forð } \\ = \\ = \\ = \\ = \\ \text { 二 } \\ \text { geo，iu }\end{array}\right.$
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { eft } & \text { eft } \\ \text { efter，after } & \text { after }\end{array}$ efterward（adv．efterward \＆prep．）
二
bi－æften，
bæftan
bi，be
fore
form－on，
forn－an（as
before）

## foren

bi－foren bivoren

## $=$

## avoreward

 forob，vor＇ ford－rihte fort－ward
## swire－forø

 for－to，for－te， vorte둫at
efterbanne
nevereft
－
by，bi，be
fore
bivoren，
biforen，
bvfore，
beforn
$=$
forth，vorth
for $\bar{\delta}$ ward
forth－with
forte，fort
her－forb
her－forp
per－forp
-
beforn，byfore，before biforen

| － | （here）to－fore |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | forward |
| forth | forth |
| － | forth－right |
| 二 | forward |
| － | neck－forth |
| － | until |
| － | － |
| 二 | until |
|  |  |


| First Phr. S geond | Second Per. 3ond | Third Per. be-3ende, bi-3onde, bi-3unde | Fourth Per. bizonde, bi3onden | beyond |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3eondward | yondward |  |  |
| her | her, here | her, her' | $1 . \mathrm{e}$ here | here |
| hider, hidres | hider | hider, huder | hider | hither hitherward |
| hinan, heonan, | hiderward heonne | henne, hennes | hennen, henen, | hitherwar hence |
| heonane, heonone, heona |  | henne, heanes | hennes, henne, hen, hennus, hennis, hens |  |
| 1 - | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { hepen } \\ \text { hepen-ward } \end{array}\right.$ | hejen | hepen | hence hencefurth, |
|  |  |  |  | henceforward |
|  |  | fra hepen | fro hennes | from hence |
|  | heonneuord, henonforo |  |  | henceforth |
| hinde: , hinder, | , - | hindward | hindeward | hindward |
| behindan | bihinden | byhynd | behinde | behind |
| hwat (what) | mesthwet (almost), alse wat se (as soon as) | alhuet (until), ney-wat (nea |  |  |
|  | monihwat | - were |  | many-what |
| hwar, hwaer | hwer, war, whær, whære | where, were | wher, wore | where |
| $\leftarrow$ | .- | elles wer | - | elsewhere |
| - | ichwer |  |  | eachwher |
| lawader, hwider, | hwuder | wyder, whider | whider, where | whither |
| hwyder | whiderward | whiderward | - | whitherwar |
|  | elleswhider, elles hwar, |  | - | elsewhere |
|  | other hwar wonene, | wanne, wheö |  | whence, from |
| hwana, Aghwonene | hwenene, whepen |  | whens, from whennes | whence |
|  | whepenward | - |  | whence-ward |
| æghwar, âhwar, gehwar, ※ghweder | e 33 whær, aihware, owhar, uwher, * ihwer | ouwhar | our whar, owhere, aywhere | anywhere, everywhere |
|  |  | nour, nowhar | - | nowhere |
| se!d-hwonne | seldhwonne, selden, selde, seldunı | selden, selde | selde | seldom |
| in | in | in, yn | in | in |
| icnan | inne | inne, ine | ine |  |
| binnan | binnen, binne, bine, | bin | - | within |
| - | inwardes | - | - | mward, wit |


| 11．${ }^{\text {？}}$ | ADVERBS |  |  | 22 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per． wiJinnan | Second Per． wioinnen， wiJimne， inwiut mid，mide midalle | Titird Per． wipinnen， wipinne， inwip | Fourth Per． wipime，iosip | within |
| niid midealle |  | mid | － | with |
|  |  | midalle， wipall！ | wiral | withal， altogether， |
| niobor，niter ni邓an bensØ゙an | neober，niofer neØ̃an binoむ̃en， bine Co n， bineaざer． bineote | neJer | ncter | weither |
|  |  | beneje， |  | from beneath |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { benepe, } \\ & \text { bineper. } \\ & \text { bineps } \end{aligned}$ | inepers； binete， benepe | beneath |
| neo\％eward | neoऐет－ward， nejewarde | $\cdots$ | － | nether－ivard |
| na | nu | now，nous | กูพ | now |
| on | on | On | on | on |
| Of | of swa，swo，so，se | of | of | of |
| Sxà | swa，swo，so，se alswa，alswo， also，alse， als | swa，$£ 2$, so，se alswa，also， | so，se | so |
|  |  | alswa，also， alsa，alse， asic， $\mathrm{al}_{3}$ | also，als， 25 | as |
| swylce（as if） | swilce | $\rightarrow$ | － |  |
| to | to，te | to | to | to for to |
| － | forto，forte （before infin．） | － |  |  |
| － | ever－te（ever－to， ever as yet） | ，－ | － | － |
| － | never－te （never as yet）， never－to |  | － | $\cdots$ |
| par | per，par，por | til and fra | til and fro | to and fro |
|  |  | per，pere，par， pore | pere，pare， per，par， | there |
| preder，pider piderward， piderweardes panon，bonon | pider piderward | Pider，Puder | pider | thither |
|  |  | piderward | biderward | thithenvar＠ thitherwards |
|  | ponene， panene， panne | panne， pannene | fennes | thence |
| panne，ponne | banne，penne | penne，banne | 了ennes，benne， pan，pen | then |
| bâ | pa，po <br> pepen， <br> pepenfor＂ <br> nupe，nupen pes | pa，po pepen noupe | popen，bien | then |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| nữa |  |  | noupe | thenceforth now，now then |
| bas（so，very） |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { tô pam, tô bon } \\ & \text { (so, very) } \end{aligned}$ |  | － | － | － |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { pus } \\ & \text { purh } \end{aligned}$ | pus <br> purh，purch pureh thurh－ut under | pus，pons porh，porgh purf | $\begin{aligned} & \text { pus } \\ & \text { porgh } \\ & \text { purgh, porow } \end{aligned}$ | thus |
|  |  |  |  | through |
| － |  | － |  | thorough throughout |
| under |  | under | under，undre | under |
| up | up upwardes |  | up | from under |
|  |  |  |  | up upward |
|  |  |  |  |  |


${ }^{2}$ al-mest $=$ alre mest $=$ most of all ; alre $=$ gen. pl. of $a l$.


## PREPOSITIONS.

## 1. Prepositions Proper.

| Errst Per. tefler, xft | Second Per. $x f t e r$, eftere, after, efter | Thind Per after | Fourth Per. aftre, after | after |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | efterward | - |  |  |
| batran, bo-xtran | breflan, biaiten, baften, bieftent | - | baft | behind, after |
| wit-3xtan | - | - | - | behind |
| and | $\square$ | - | - | with, in |
| ast | ret, at, et |  | at |  |
| bi, be | bi, by, be | bi, by, be | bi, by, be | by |
| for, fore | fore, for, vor for-bi | for, vor, fore | for, yor |  |
| foran | for-fil | atvore | forbi | before |
| bi-foran, be-foran | foren, elforan | byforen, bifore, bivore | biforc, before, beforn, beforen | before |
| on-toran | aforen | - | afore | afore |
| to-foran wio-foran | tofore, toforen | tofore, tovore | to fore | before before |
| forth (adv.) | forbe (prep. $=$ beyond) | - . | withontforth $=$ outside of | $\begin{aligned} & \text { forth }=\text { forth } \\ & \text { from (in } \\ & \text { Shakspeare) } \end{aligned}$ |
| 4 | $\sim$ | - | even-forth, em-forth, ferforth (according, to the catent of) | - |
| fram | from, vrom | from | from | from |
| frommard | $\mathrm{fro} \mathrm{fra}$ | fro, fra | froward | fromward from |
| giond, geond | $\text { geond, } 3 \text { eond, }$ | 3eond | - | through, after |
| (fram)geondan |  | -- | - | from beyond |
| be-geond, be-geondan | bizende, bi3onden | bizonde, bizende | be3onde, bizonds | over, by, beyond |
| wit-geondan |  | - |  | beyond |
| be-heonan |  |  |  | this side of |
| be-hindan in | bihinden in, innen | behynde inne, ine | behynde in | behind in |
| innan | inne, innan | - | - | in, within |
| b-innan | binnen, bine, binne | bin | - | within |
| wiv-innan | wipinnen, wipinne, in-wip | wypinne | withinne, within, in with | within |


| I1．］ | PREPOSITIONS． |  |  | 325 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per. | Second Pre． mime midde－ ward | Thind Per． amidsard | Fourth Per． | amid |
| mid ： | mid | mid | mid | with |
| － | on－midden | amiddes，imyd， imyddes（in the midst of |  | in the midile of |
| neo\％an | bineope |  |  |  |
| be－neoざan | bineope， binepen， binopen | Ginepe， benepe | beneje | Eeneath |
| under－neoあan <br> of | underne］e <br> of | undcrneape <br> of | underneje | underneath |
| or | on，o（before <br> pe），an，a | on，an，a | on，an，a | on，in |
| on innon |  | － | － | within，into |
| inne on | an inne | － |  | within，into |
| up + on | up on，an uppe | upon | upon，in upon （Wickliffe） | upon I |
| （0\％ | abet＝of pat （O．E．Hom． Ist Series） | －Jat | （Wickine） | until，unto |
| los in | forte，fort | forte，fort | － | until |
| to (Northum- | to | to，alto（unto） | to | to，for |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { brian Gos- } \\ & \text { pels) } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | til |  |
| ＝ | forte | unto | unto | unto |
| － | forte（forto） | forte，vort， fort for |  | until |
| into | into | into | into | into |
| b－afan | intil buuen，boue， | intil，until | intil，until | into，until |
|  | bufen，buse |  |  | bove |
| － | a－bufen | above，aboven， oboune， oboven | above，aboven | above，over |
| on－ufan | oven an， uhenen， ovenon | － | － | from above， upon，over |
| － | － | an－ouc－ward， an－ou－ward on（at the top of） | － | － |
| ofer | ofer，over | over | aver | over，above |
|  |  | － | at－over，at－ above | beyond，above |
| up（adv．） | up | up，op | up |  |
| uppan | uppan，uppen， upen，uppe， uppo，uppon | $\begin{aligned} & \text { upe, up, } \\ & \text { op, ope } \end{aligned}$ | upe，up | up（upon，on） |
| on－uppan | an－uppe，on－ uppe，an－ | － | － | upon |
| under | tppon under | under | under | under |

[^151]| 326 | ENGLTSH ACCIDENCE. |  |  | [APP. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { First Per. } \\ & \text { itan } \end{aligned}$ | Second Per. anunder ute | Third Per. out, out-of | Fourth Per. anunder out | under out of, from out |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { batan } \\ \text { utan }) \end{gathered}=\text { be- }$ | buten, bute ${ }^{\text {3 }}$ | bute, bote, bot, but | bute, but, bot | but, out of, without, except |
| on-bôtan | abutan | - | - | about, around |
| ab-butan | abuten | abute, aboute, oboute | boute, aboutc | about |
| wi¢-ûtan | wiơuten, wio-ute, utwip, utewip, wiputan | withouten, withoute, outwith | withouten, withoute, outwith | without |
| ymb-atan, ûtan-ymbe | - | uteover (above) |  | about, round about |
| wiฮ | 3urb-ut | thorgh out | thur3out | throughout |
| - |  | for ${ }^{\text {b }}$-wip |  | forthwith |
| wider (against) | umben, embe, |  |  | - |
| ymbe, ymb, embe, emb | umben, embe, umbe | embe, umbe, umbe-mong (about, round about) | umbe (about) um- only as prefix to verbs | around, about |
| purh | purh, purch, pureh | burb, poru, bur3, purf | thurgh, thor3, thorgh, thorow | through |
| - | - | poru-out | - | throughout |

## II. Compound Prepositions.

(a) Substantive.

| First Per. eâc (in addition to) | Second Per. ek, ec (adv.) | Third Per. ek, eke (adv.) | Fourth Per. eke, ek (adv.) | eke |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| to-eâcan. | to-eke (adv.), teke (adv.), tekan (adv.) | perteke (adv.) |  | thereto |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { on-gegn, } \\ & \text { on-gên, } \\ & \text { on-geân, } \\ & \text { â-geân, } \\ & \text { â-gên } \end{aligned}$ | on-3ein, on-3an, од-ろænеs, 3zen, an3en, ajen, o3en, a3eines, ajenes, yeynes | gayn, a3en, a3ein, ajeyn, a3ain, a3aine, ogain, ảaines, ayen, ayans, aye | a3en, a3ien, a3ens, a3eines, ayens, ajeinst, ayenst | against, towards (opposite) |

[^152]| II．］ | PREPOSITIONS． |  |  | 327 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per． | Second Per． | Third Per． avoreye， avorye （against， towards） | Fourth Per． | over against |
| tô－gegnes， to－gênes， to－geanes | to－zene， to－3enes， to－3eines， to－3eine， to－yeynes | toyenes， to3ens | to－a3ens | against |
| ge－mang， on－gemang， ob－mang， â－mang | imæng，imong， amang， among， bimong， imang | among，omang amanges， imang， umbe－mong | among， amonges， immon3es | among，amongst |
| be－norずan | － | bymorth | by north | north of |
| be－eâstan | bi esten | by este | by este | east of |
| be－westan be－sûす̛an | biwesten | by weste by soupex | by weste | west of south of |
| － | bi－side， bisiden， bisides | bysyde， bysides | byside， bysides | beside，besides |
| be－hcalfe | bihalf，bihalves bihalves | ，－ | － | besides（on this side of），on be－ half of |
| â－dûn | adun，dun | instude of doun | instede of doun | instead of down，adown |
| － | purbdynt （with gen．） | thorgh dynt of， with dynt of | － | with dint of， by dint of |
| on－lyfte（adv．） | o－lofte（adv．） | alofte（adv．） | alofte | aloft（Shak－ speare） |
| － | － | toppe（above） | － | － |
|  | － | （b）Adjectiv |  |  |
| fer | ar，er | er，ar，or | er，ere，or | ere，before |
| unfeor | － |  |  | not far from |
| gehende （cp．O．Sax． at－handum， at hand） | ihende | hende（adv．） | hende，ende | handy to，near to |
| neah <br> ncâr | neh | ney | ny3，nygh ner，nerre | nigh，nigh to nearer，nearer |
|  | next | next nest |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { nearer, nearer } \\ & \text { to, near, } \\ & \text { near to } \end{aligned}$ |
| nehst | næxt | next，nest | $\text { next ( }=\text { next }$ | next，next to |
| neâh－hand （nearly） | － | ncihand | ner hond | near |

In the provincial dialects we find besouth，be zeest，\＆c．In the Second period these forms are also used adverbially．

| 328 | ENGLISII ACCIDENCE. |  |  | APP. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per. neâwiste | Secont Per. ancoweste, ancousto | Timed Per. | Fourth Pez | by, near |
| tơ-we.ard | toward, | toward | toward | toward |
| to-weardes | $\bigcirc$ | $\cdots$ | towardes | towards ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ |
| - | 2dunc-ward | - | - | down |
|  | after-ward |  | $\square$ | after |
| from-ward | frommari, fromword, fraward | framward | fromward | from |
| - |  | upward | - | (apwards of) |
| wana | wane, on wasc, awane |  | - | minus |
| and-lang, ond-long | on-longen, an-long, inlanges | endelong, end-lang | along, ende-long, endelonges | along |
| ge-lons, preceded by prep. 078 | ilang, ilong, preceded by on | along (on) | along (on) | all 'long of, along of |
| on middas | on midden, imiddes | - | - | amid |
| on-middum | amidden, amidde, amideward | amydde, amid, mydde, amidward | amyddis, amyddes, amiddes | amid, amidst |
| to-middes on-middele | - | in pe middes of | in pe middis of in pe mydil of, in Je myddylle of amel, ymel ${ }^{2}$ | in the midst of in the middle of, by the middle of amid |
|  | - | - | omell, amel |  |
| betwil, be-tweoh, betwuh, betuh (beturhs, betweohsh, betweox, betwux | bitwihan, bituhher, bituhhe, bitwixan, bitwixe, bitwixen, bitwixte, bitwix | betuex, bitwix | bitwise, betwixen, betwixt, bytwyste | betwixt |
| ber | - | - | - | a-twixt (Spenser) |
| be-twéonum, be-tw9num | bitweonẹn, bitwine, bitwene, bitwenen | bytwene | betwen, bytwene | between |
| efene, efne (adv.), nefne, nemne (except), ti-emnes, tô-efnes (along, evenly) | æfne (upont even with) | emne, efne, an emn , \&c. (adv.) | - | even, evenly |

In the Second period we find towardes (adv.) $=$ about to come, future. Shakspeare uses toward in the same sense.

- O.N. is medel, a milli; Dan. imellem; Swe. emillem.

| First Per. an-efn, on-cinn | Second Per. on efn (adv. in La3.), anundes, anont, onont, on-onde, onefent | Third Prir. onence, anentc, anendeà | Forstit Per. anent, anens, ${ }^{2}$ ancntis, meuptis, anentist, aneynst, anende | anent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | -ncter | - | emfor? | according to |
|  | - | - | eveneforb ${ }^{2}$ <br> (adv.) | according |
| on-lest | onfest, onfast, anfest, faste bi | - | faste by | fast by |
| pwyrs, | supphe, sippe fwer-t-ut | suppe, sije | sipe, sin, sen | since athwart, |
| pwirhes, pweorh, pwer, on pweorh (adv.) | (O.N. Pvert) |  |  | thwart |
| = | pwertover | overpwert | ${ }^{\text {p }}$ part | athwart, thwart athwart |
| - | onward |  | - | $\underbrace{\text { ind }}_{\text {instead }}$ |

## CONJUNCTIONS.

## I. Pronominal.




| II.] | CONFUNCTIONS. |  |  | 331 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per. | Second Per. for | Third Per. for | Fourth Per. for for al | for, because for all (notwithstanding) |
| - | - | - | - | for and (and |
| - | fra bat | from pat, | - | moreover) |
|  | ipat pat | fram pat |  | in that |
| mid pam pe, mid pŷ pe |  | - | - | with that, |
| neine, nemne, nymóe | - | - | - | unless w, |
| 000 prot | a pet, forto, forte, vorte, fort, | al huet, fort, forte | - | until |
| of bon (= syöan, since) | of jat (when that) | - | - | - |
| sioran $\begin{aligned} & \text { (= siøpam } \\ & \text { pæt) } \end{aligned}$ | on3æn pat seoठర"n | seppe, sen | sipen, sip, sipens, sins, sin pat | against <br> since, sith that (Spenser), sithens (Ib.), sithenee, since that (Shaksp.) |
| 二 | til Pat | frapat tille, til, to | fropat til, unto, to | since |
| - | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { forte pat } \\ \text { forర pat, } \\ \text { forte } \end{array}\right\}$ | forto, forte | til, unto, to | till, until until, till that |
| wiot pon pe | wit pon be, wib pan-pe | wip be pat, wip pat | with that | provided |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tô bain pxt } \\ \text { tô pe pret } \\ \text { tô pô pxet } \end{array}\right.$ | to pan pat | - | - | to the end that |
| - | - | - | wipouten | unless that, |
| - | purh pat, purh pat pat | - | pur3 pat, pur3 pat pat, ther thury pat (because that) | except, without |
| - | - | 二 | - | besides that |
|  |  | - |  |  |
| - - | - | - | by pe cause pat, because | because that |
| - | - | - | for because bat | for because (vulgar) |
| - | - | - | no but, no but 3if, but | except that, except, excepting that |
| - | - | save | save that, saf only that | save, save only that |


| $33^{2}$ | ENGTISII ACCIDENCE： |  |  | ［AIP， |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Pel. | Second Per． | Third Per． on lesse | Fourtit Pek. | saving，unless |
| squn．．．sam， same．．．same | sam．．．sam | － | － | whether．．．or |
| ge | － | $\cdots$ | － | and |
| ge．．．ge | gc．．ge | － |  | both．．．and |
| ge．．．snd | ga ja．．．ga ya | － | ye bo\}, уа bope．．．and | both．．．and |
| ge | 3 c | 3e | 3e（3he） | even，yea， nay，nay even，ay |
| git，get | 3et，3ette | 3 et | 3 set | yet |
|  | hwet．．．hret | wat．．．w＇at， what．．．what | what．．．what， what．．．and what，what ．．．and | what．．．what， what．．．and |
| bwonce | wenne，whan， whanne， wane（ ）onne panne） | wan，wannc， huen | whan，when， when that | when， when so， when as， whensoever |
| hwar，huer， swâ huer | hwar | wher，huer， whar | wher，whar | where |
| － | ware so， hware－swa， war－swa， wer－swa， wher－swa－se， whær－sum | － | $\cdots$ | whereso |
| － | － | war－by | wherby that， wherefore that | whereby． wherefore |
| $\pm$ | － | wher－with： | － | where－with |
|  |  | war－poru |  | where－through whither |
| swa－hwider－ swa | wuder－swa | whider－ever | ， | whithersoever |
|  | woder Jat wheper．．．oper， whether．．．pe | － | whether．．．or， wher．．．wher | whither that <br> whether．．．or， whether， or whether |
| hwæరer．．．0\％ัc， <br>  | － | － | － | whether．．．or |
| swa－beah． hwaずere | be | pogh－queper， thogh－ whether | the quether | or nevertheless， yet |
| ̂eß Àgores．．．ge | e3ずer．．． 3 e， ziðer．．．and， e3per．．．and， bobe．．．and | － | either．．．and | both．．．and |
| A＊or（astr） | －\％er arer | pber or | eyper．．．or， ejer．．．or | either．．．or， either，or else |
| âరor（âठัer） ．obbe | Oరer．．．oすer | oper．．．or | oper．．．or | cither．．．or |
| － | － | － | eper．．．or | either．．．or |

[^153]| 11.]. | COMYUNCTIONS |  |  | 333 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Finst Per. | Second Per. | Thigd Per. | Fourth Per. eyper...or, or...0ubler | eithcr...or |
| $\pm$ | oper | ober, op | or...or <br> ober or | or...or |
| nfరor..ne | neoठer...ne, neoťer...nar nowber...ne | nojer...ne, nouper...ne | ncij'er...ne, noper...ne, neyper...ne | neitber...not |
| - | - | - | nouper...ne, nełer...ueper, nciper... neiper | ncithes...noither nor...fior |

## II. Numeral.



## III. Adjective (Adverbial).

| on êfne | an xfre | evene | - | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eornostlice | - | - | therfore | therefore |
| for pon | - | - | therefore | therefore |
| sỗlice | - | - | forsope lo ! | truly |
|  |  |  | sooply, |  |
| witollice | - | - | soply | truly |
|  |  | - | forsole | truly |
| elles | and ælles | - | and elles, elles, or | else, or else |
|  |  |  | elles |  |
| gelice, gelice-swa, | diche ( | (an-liche) | - | like as, likewise, alike...and |

I It was inflected.

| 334 | ENGLISH ACCIDENCE. | [APP. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Per. | Second Per. Third Per.  <br> 二 - Fourth Perthermore <br> furtherover <br> 二 as moreover <br> - as ver forb as as fer forb | furthermore further moreover where that as far as |
| - IV. Substantive. |  |  |
| hwilum... hwilum | while (wile)...while (wile) $\quad$whilom...and <br> whilom | awhile...awhile, sometimes... sometimes, at times...at times |
| - | peonne...penne - now..now . | now...now |
| pâ hwile pe | peonne... ${ }^{\text {peonne while pe - - }}$ | the while that |
| pa hwile | pa while pat the while pat while that | the while that |
| - | be while be, $\Omega$ the while, while that, whil pat, while, whiles the while, bwils pat, to while whils, whiles pat, to whils | while, whilst, the while (the whiles), while that, whilst that, during the while that |
| - | for be case pat ${ }^{\text {a }}$ in case if | in case, in case that |
| on pæt gerâd | $\therefore$ | on condition that |

## V. Prepositional.

See ar, after, biforan, butan, bi, for, from, in, mid, nemne, of, of, ongeinn, si̊d, til, tô, wì̛, wiotutan, burnh, \&c. These forms are generally followed by bat, be (that).
VI. Verbal.

-     - . to iwiten - to wit


## VII. Compounds.

| nâlæs prot an ...ac câc | - | no3t one...ac | not only...but, not only... but eke, not only... but and | not only ...but, not merely... but |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |



## INTERJECTIONS.

| eâ | a | a | A! A! A (Wickliffe, fer. xiv. | ah ! |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - | = | aha | aha | aha |
| eâ-lâ ${ }^{2}$ | - | alas, allas | alas; allas | O; alas, alas the day |
| - | - | - | fy allas | alack, |
| - | - | - | - | bah (O.E. bah) |
| - | - | - | ey | eh (O.F.eh), |
| - | - |  | vath or fie | fie (O.F. fi) |
|  |  | ( $=$ fie a | to thee, |  |
|  |  | devils) | fy3 (vath) |  |
|  |  | - | vah (vath) | foh, fah, faugh |
| big | - | - | - | heigh, hey, heyday |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| hû | - | - | - | how |
| hû lâ |  | - | - | how now |
| hwg |  | - | why | why |
| lâ | la, lo, lour | 10 | lo, 100 | lot la! Ola! |
| - | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | ow, ou | O, oh |
|  |  | - | a | $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{O} \mathrm{me}$ ! |

Ne for thi, nat for thi occur in the Third and Fourth periods' for nevertheless.
${ }^{2}$ Eâ-la seems to be mixed up with F. hélas (Lat. lassus, weary), hence alas ! alack

| 336 | EVGLISII ACCIDEVCE. |  |  | [APP. 11. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Elist Per. | Second Per. | Third Per. | Fousth Per. te he ${ }^{1}$ | aha'! |
| - |  | - | พeแ | aha! |
| $\cdots$ |  | - | - | ugh ! |
| hwæt | - | what | what | what ! |
| wa |  | no | woo, wo | woe! |
|  | wola, wallan, wela, iveolia, wele | - | - |  |
|  | - | - 5 laway | alas |  |
| wầ lâ wâ | ah wala wa, walawa, wolavo, waila, wæi, weilawei | weslaway, weilawey | wa la va | ah, well-a-dzy, well away |
| - | awzi, awci, awcih | ${\underset{\text { wei }}{\text { ansei }}}_{\text {awey. }}$ | - | alas! 0 woe! ay me! aye! |
| - | - | - | harow | harrow! |
| - | - | On3 | whist | whisht! hush! God's wounds |
| - | - | On3 | - | God's wounds $\Rightarrow$ zounds |
| $\cdots$ | heil (be pou) | - | bew | hail! al hail! |
| $\pm$ | - | - | baws bawe | bow-wow gee |
| - | - | - | jossa | whoa |
| - | - | - | $\begin{gathered} \text { avoy (O.Fr. } \\ \text { avoi) } \end{gathered}$ |  |

In the Second period we find witicrist, wot Crist $=$ Christ knows, by Christ!

In the Third period we find (1) deus, douce $=$ the deuce ; ( $\mathbf{z}$ ) ddo. beit, dahet (O.Fr. deshait, dehait, dehet) = ill betide. In subsequent writers it became dapet, which has given rise to dase you! dise you! dash you! (3) goddot, goddoth $=$ God wot, God knows. It oceurs also in the subsequent period.

Peter $=$ St. Peter, is a common interjection in the Third and Fourth periods, like Marry ${ }^{\prime 2}$ ( $=$ the Virgin Mary) in later times.

Bi Crist, for God, Lorde, \&c. occur in the Third and Fourth periods.

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## APPENDIX III.

## WORDS OF NORMAN-FRENCH ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BEFORE 1300.

I. In the "Saxon Chronicle," before 12co:-

10S6. dubban, dubben, to dub.
1135. pais.
1137. tresor, prisun, justise, rente, privileges, miracles.
1138. standard.

1r40. emperice, cuntesse, tur.
1154. curt, processiun.
II. "Lambet/2 Homilies" (" O.E. Hom.," First Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, before 1200 :-

Castel, processiun (p. 3), palefrai, saltere, prophete (5), fructe, messe (10), munte (II), asottie ( I 7 ), rubbere ( I ), sottes, iugulere ( 29 ), meister (41), merci (43), manere, sacremens, ureisuns (51), riche, lechurs, blanchet (53), parais ( 61 ), elmesse, cherite ( 69 ), salm, font (73), sermonen, ewangeliste (81), liureisun (85), ioffred (87), cachepol (97), passiun (119), crunede (129), seinte (131), clerk (I33), flum (141), erites ( $=$ heretics), munek, elmesful, poverte, large, prude, spus-had (143), sauter (155), fou, cuning, ermine, ocquerin, sabeline (181), servise, prut.
III. "Trinity College Homilies" ("O. E. Hom.," Second Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, ${ }^{1}$ before 1200 :-

Clerc (9), chastren, custume (II), gestninge, spuse (13), penance (17), richeise, lechure (29), orgele, barun (35), miseise (43), aisie, poure, candel, taper (47), religiun, turtle (49), mesure (55), minster, penitence, roberie (61), meister, onur ( $\$_{3}$ ), munt, palm, olive ( 89 ), calice, messe, sepulcre (91), crisme-cloth (95), maisterlinges (III),
olvente, languste (locust), prisune, marbreston, salm, prophete, turnde, oregel, underplanter, underplantede, tur, corporeals, caliz, bispused, almes, archebissopes, sole, chemise, albe, sol, saffran, fustane, mentel, burnet, sergantes, acheked, martirs, confessors, patriarche, virgines, calch, waferiht, strect.
IV. Words from Lāamon's "Brut," ed. Madden (? 1205 ) :-

In the first text-achaped, ascaped, admirail, armite, appostolie, archen, astronomie, avallen, balles, barun, biclusen, bounie, bolle, brunie, burne, iburned, bunnen, cacchen, canele, cantelcope, cathel (chattels), cheisil, cludina (or cuiress), clusden (closed), comp ( $=$ camp), coriun (musical pipe), crune, cruneden, cros, crucche, dotic, dubben, duc, dus3e-pers, eastresse, falsie, flum, ginne, hardiliche, hiue (hue and cry), hose, hune (topmast?), ieled (anointed), hurte, ire, kablen, lac, lavede, latimer, legiun, licoriz, liun, lof (luff), machunes, mahun, male, mantel, martir, messagere, mile, montaine, munstre, munt, must, nonne, olifantes, pal, paradis, peytisce ( $=$ of Poitou), pilegrim, pouere, pore, porz (ports), postes, processiun, puinde, putte, quecchen ( $=$ quasser, casser?), riche, riches ( $=$ richesse), salmes, salteriun, scærninge, scare, scarn, scornes, sceremigge (scrimmage), scole, scurmen, seælled, senaht, senaturs, seint, servise, servinge, sire, sot, sumunde, talie (?), temple, timpe, toppe, tumbel, tunne, tur, turne, vlette (flat, floor), warde, weorre (war), werre (to war, ravage), ymages.

In the.later text we find the additional words-abbey, anued, aspide (espied), atyr, canoun, changede, chapel, chevetaine, chowles (jowls), cloke, conseil, contre (country), cope, cri, delaie, dosseperes, eyr, failede, fol, folie, gile, gisarme, grace, granti, guyse, harsun (arçun), heremite, honure, hostage, manere, marbre-stone, nonnerie, note, paide, pais, paisi, parc, passi, pensiles, porses, prisune, rollede, route, sarvi, scapie, seine (ensign), siwi (follow), soffri, istored, tavel, tresur, truage, tumbe, urinal, usi, waiteth.
V. (1) "Seinte Marharrete"" ed. Cockayne, for E.E.T. Society, about 1220 :-

Seinte, passiun, crunede, font, martir ( 1 ), grace, prince (2), merci, chevese, changede ( 3 ), salve, samblant ( 5 ), liun ( 6 ), mantles (7), warant (8), bascin (9), drake (IO), crauant, crune, castel (II), ibreuet (16), taperes (18), fontstan (19), chapele, lampe (20), martirdom, turnẹn (21), grandame, prisun (23).
(2) "On Ureisun," \&c. in Lambeth MS. and Cotton MS. Nero, A. xiv. ("O.E. Hom.," First Series), about 1220 :-

Privite, medicine, cunfort, fals (185), delit, unsauuet (187), salvi, abandun (189).
（3）＂On God Ureisun，＂Cotton MS．Nero，A．xiv．（＂O．E． Hom．，＂First Series）：－

Paradise，servise，ciclatune，ikruned，krune（193），munuch， cherite（199）．
（4）＂On Lofsong of are Lefdi＂（Ib．）：－
Passiun，prude，pris（205），bufettunge，crununge，sacrement， sacreঠ＇，grace（207）．
（5）＂On Lofsong of ure Louerde＂（Ib．）：－
I－sacred，merci，ewangeliste（209），merciable，warant（211），turnen， obedience（ 213 ），sawter，seruunge，of－seruinge，unofserued（ 215 ）．
（6）＂Soules Warde＂（Bodl．MS．34，Royal MS．17，A．27，Ib．）：－
Semblant，irobbet，tresur，tresor，castel，meistre $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text { ，cunestable，}\end{array}$ meistre，meosure，crune厄゙（247），preouin（249），mealles（253），mesure （255），meoster，icheret，aturnet（257），keiseres，trones，cunfessurs （261）．
（7）＂Wohunge of are Louerd＂（Cotton MS．Titus，D．18，Ib．）：－
Druy＇，largese，＇noblesce，debonairte（269），large，druri，hardi （271），praie，robbedes，prisun，noble，gentile，gentiller，gentileste （273），deboneirschipe，grace，passiun，calenges（275），spuse， pouerte，strete，poure，beast（277），mesaise，treitur，tresun，ribauz （279），buffet，prince，piler，crune（281），munt，schurges，lettres（283）， dol，derennedes，chaumbre，paie（285），prei，eise，carpe（287）．
（S）＂Hali Meidenhad，＂（Ib．）ed．Cockayne ：－
Eise（1），servise，chaunger，confort，grace，delit，serven（7）， cuntasse，treitre，gentil（9），leccherie，tresor，acovered，coveringe， meistre（1I），uerte，estat，beast，basine，prophete（I3），dignete， irobbed，chaiste§，crunen（19），weimeres，chaste（2I），aturn，icruned， gerlaunde，flurs，degrez，preoue§（23），haunte§，heritage（25），un－ coverlich，acoveringe，vanite（27），sauuure，trubuil，seruise（29）， richesce，huler，semblaund（30），greue，prisun，cuncweari，puisun， cangun（33），sule才，turnunge，angoise（35），adamantine stan，nurice （37），laumpe，paraise（45），prokie，asail3et（47）．
（9）＂Ancren Rizule，＂ed．Morton，for Camden Society ：－
Spus，riwle（3），riwlen，religiun（4），chaungunge，chaungen， clergesse，ures，manere，professiun，obedience，chastete（ 6 ），cherite， penitence，riwlunge，seint，ordre，descriued，canoniel（8），recluses， prelaz，prechures，religiuse，maten（10），abit，scandle，prophete，
gile, seruien, distinctiuns (12), seruise, cheapitres, sauter, kunfort, saluen (14), crucifix, auez, relikes (16), creviz, collecte, vers, salme, crede, prime (20), eise, silence, lescuns, feste, cumplie, anniversaries, ureisuns, letanie, observaunce, trinite (24), servie (26), verset, merci (30), prisun, prisune, temptaciuns (32), igranted (34), antefne (36), verslunge, meditaciuns (44), uenie, clauses (46), parlures, unseaueliche, creoice, chastite (50), preoue, deliten, point (52), kalenge, parais, feble ( 54 ), cope, sleve, mesur, treisun, speciale (56), lecheries, folherdi, asaileठ, quarreaus, castel, weorreur, cwarreaus, kerneaus, kernel, ancheisuns, sacrement, kurteisie, creoisen, duble, advent, parten, blamen, preisen, fantesme (62), sot, pris, kecche`, noise ( 64 ), mercer, salve (66), preche, prechen, counsail, semblaunt, chastiement, cluse (72), mesure (74), noces, reisun, autorite, turnes, spice (78), eresie, nurice ( 82 ), charoines, corbin, mesteres, menestraus, preis-unge-(84), rob, poure (86), chere, bisaumple才, grace, rikelot (SS), gelus, gelusie ( 90 ), chaumbre ( 92 ), crune, anui (94), pleinte ( 96 ), zauncre, sauuen, propreliche (98), scorn (100), cumfort (102), joie, wardeins (104), trufles, bitruflex, munt, buffeten (106), dangerus, schauncle, meseise, ipaied, mesterie (108), bi-clusinge, anguise (ino), anguisuse, largeliche, asaumple, tendrust, fefre, berebarde (112), reisuns, dieie, presente, pitaunce (114), eaise, gibet (I16), pellican, juggen, juggement (118), leun, unicornc, versalie, remedies, unstable (120), raunsun, ransun, dette, detturs, acwiten (124), cwitaunce, purgatorie, andetted, persun, persone ( $\mathbf{I} 26$ ), cul, simple. ipocrite, gilen (128), achate, defautes, regibbeð, disciplines, sacrifise, sacrefises, sauur, ikupled, paien ( $13 S$ ), ameistren, dignite, cwointe, cwiver, meistrie (140), i-ancred, ancre (anchor), cuntinuelement, contemplaciun (142), ipreised (144), priuement (146), leprus, figer, despoiled (148), frut, figes, tresor, robbares, muchares ( 150 ), mercer, riche, celles, aromaz ( $\mathrm{I}_{5} 2$ ), present, priuite, sturbinge, turne, baret ( I 54 ), auaunceb, barain, ymne, suiilede, ancheisun (158), baptiste, priuilege, prechur, merit, astaz, preeminces, preofunge ( 160 ), disturben, licur, bame, chaste, medicine (164), hurlunge, noble, gentile, noblesce, largesce, itrussed (166), trusseaus, purses, burgeises, renten, larger, relef, genterise, richesses, familiarite, prive, presse (16S), sepulcre, bi-barred ( 170 ), fol, peis ( 172 ), entermeten, preouen, awaitie (174), orhel (176), itempted, puffes ( 178 ), pacience, meister (180), grucche, debonere (IS6), crununge, pilere (188), messager (190), cwite (192), treitre, plenté, adversité, prosperité, lecherie, glutunie, salue (194), aspieden, propre, assauz (196), liun, unicorn, scorpiun, mis-ipaied, chastiement, inobedience, prelat, paroschian, blasphemie, impacience, continaunce, riote (198), rancor (200), tricherie, simonie (202), stat, incest, waite, gigge (204), presumciun, accidie, terme (203), kurt, iuglur (210), angoise, skirm (212), augrim, kuuertur, glutun, manciple, celere, neppe (214), lechur, vileinie, eremite (216), ten-
taciun, akointed, miracle (218), adote; chetel (222), ampuiles (226), tur, tenten, asailen, cite, weorrur, kunscence, tempti (228), dialoge, greuen, dame ( 230 ), feblesce ( $23^{2}$ ), baban (234), champiun (236), trone, prokie (238), armes, peinture, sauuaciun, pope, sucurs, efficaces (246), ape, ape-ware ( 248 ), cwaer, departunge, driwerie, spitel (250), attente, deskumfit (252), recorde, misericorde (256), turnen, capitalen, garcen, skurgen (258), palm, despuiled (260), sponge, mistrun, unsauure, articles, sulement, iturpled (266), sacrament, sacre才', messeঠt, trublen, dewleset ( 268 ), amased, bimased, maseliche (272), rosen ( 276 ), ignorance ( 278 ), haunche (280), ameistre, quaer (282), afeited (284), robben, pagine (286), cogitaciun, affectiun, creaunt (288), lettre, passiun (292), recoilen, gunfaneur ( 300 ), urnemenz, eritage (302), belami, weorrede, chaunge (312), sarmun, totages, circumstances, cause ( 316 ), munuch, clerk (318), flatterunge (320), trussen, torplen (322), sol, sutare (324), harloz, festre ( 328 ) truwandise, cancre (330), arche (334), baundune (338), iflured, flures, abstinence, delices, auenture (340), ipocrisie (342), enbreued, sire, absoluciun, remissiun (346), sentence, pilegrimes ( 348 ), rute, spense, isonted, untrussed ( 350 ), jurneie, vilte, asperete ( 354 ), harlot, glone, seinte, gredil, sotschipe, pilche (362), sabraz, alkoveren (364), deuociun, ungraciuse, feblie ( 368 ), fisiciens, spices, gingiuere, gedewal, cloudegelofre, letuarie ( 370 ), mirre, aloes, perfectiun, tures ( 372 ), devot ( 376 ), reclus ( 378 ), ententes, testament, saluz, destruied, beaubelet ( 388 ), debonerte, turnement (390), peintunge (392), giwerie, depeinten, passen (396), tribulaciuns (402), failede, piment (404), chaumberling, kunsiler (410), seruen, deinte, assumciun, natıvite (412), potage, rentes, kurtesie, gingiure (416), vestimenz, stanin (4I8), vaumpez, ilaced, veiles, atiffen, broche (420), obedient, hesmel (424), aturn (426), isturbed, servant (428).
VI. (1) O.E. "Bestiary," in "An O.E. Miscellany," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240 :-

Leun, funt-fat, crede, grace, venim, poure, capun, market, cethegrande, cete, elpe, mandragores, turtre, spuse, panter, dragrun, robbinge, simple.
(2) "Gcnesis and Exodus," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240 :-

Aucter, auter, astronoinige, arsmetrike, bigamie, crisme, charité, canticle, circumcis, corune, crune, desert, graunte, gruchede, holocaust, hostel, iurnes, iusted, lecherie, lepre, munt, mester, meister, offiz, pais, plente, pore, present, pris, prisun, promissioun, prophet, roche, sacrede, cite, spirit, spices, suriun, swinacie, serue, service, ydeles, ydolatrie.

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(3) "Old Kentish Sermons," in "An O.E. Miscellany," about 1240 :-

Seinte, aperen, conseil, anuri, onuri, aparailen, anud, somoni, glorius, miracle, ensample, cuuenable, sacrefyse, verray, signefien, suffi, amunte§, defenden, cors, pelrimage, visiti, poure, amonestement, signefiance, urisun, ofserven, cite, auenture, sergaunz, ydres, seruen, religiun, custome, contrarie, commencement, natureliche, lecherie, roberie, spusbreche, orgeilus, umble, lechur, chaste, folies, vertu, montayne, sarmun, leprus, onure, lepre, iwarised, maladie, glutunie, desevird, compainie, asoiled, perissi, peril, merci, acumbri, marcatte, travail, commandement, isauued, deliuri, seruise, paie, gruchche, serui, aresunede, diuers, nature, grante.
(4) "Ozv and Nightingale," ed. Stratmann, 1244 :-

Plaid, plaiding, ipeint, dahet, faucun, castel, acorde, plaidi (6), grante, afoled (7), schirme (10), weorre (12), barez, grucching (13), plaites, riche, povre, cundut (15), ginne (21), purs (22), clerkes, munekes, canunes, pope (23), manteine (24), fitte (23), mester (29), gelus (33), merci (34), spusing (41), sot (42), spus-bruche (42), sothede (46), sputing (47), pais (54), rente, maister (55).
(5) "Fesus Poems," in "An O.E. Miscellany," about 1244 (MS. written after 1250):-

Duzeper, turnen, flum, seruy, prechi, bitrayen, fowe, robe, palefray, temple, prute, maystres, feste, askape, munt, prysune, calehe, trayen, hardy, mantel, cendal, dute, princes, kustume, crune, quyte, croyz, cheysil, sepulchre, mercy, prechen, prechynge, turn, ofseruie, pouernesse, playdurs, drywories, spusynge, lecherye, sermonye, laced, warantyc, poure, flur, kastel, spis, amatiste, grace, calcydone, lectorie, tupace, iaspe, saphir, sardone, smaragde, beril, crisopace, amur, symonye, clergie, weorrep, crysme-child, prynce, sermun, barun, scarlat, reñcyan, russet, meyné, reyne, fyn, culur, buffet, gayhol, curteys, skarlet, palle, persones, matines, quiten, nappes.

## VII. "Havelok the Dane," ed. Skeat, for E.E.T. Society, about

 1280:-Fyn (1), barun, robberes (2), pouere, ayse, preyse, menic (3), merci, large, eyr (4), pleinte, poure, preyden, turnen (5), preye, paycd, messe-bok, caliz, messe-gere, corporaus (6), curteysye, luuedrurye, tendre, arke (7), catel, sauteres, sayse (8), fey, justises, grith-sergeans, gleyues, cri, beste (9), chaste, datheit, sirc, trayson, traytur ( IO ), pourelike, feble, chanounes (II), auter, castel, feliclike ( 13 ), malisun, kopes, hermites, trechery, felony (I4), waiten (16),
anker, riche (17), poke, croune, leoun, best (18), cerges (19), pastees, flaunes (20), chartre (21), traytour, doutede (22), flote, sturgiun, turbut (23), tumberel, paniers, gronge, laumprei, wastels, simenels (24), gruched (25), mester (26), segges (28), parlement, chaumpioun (31), baroun (32), traysoun (33), maugre, grauntede (35), spusing, spusen (36), ioie, syre (37), uoyz, croiz (39), closede, trone, conne, burgeys (40), prey (4I), iustise (44), storie (45), curt (46), seinte, beneysun, veneysun, pyment, plente (47), gleiues, chinche, supe, ioupe (48), barre (49), asayleden, leun (51), allas, ribbe (52), ser'gaunz, baret (53), sleues, frusshe (55), trusse, mayster (56), couere, dubbe, mele, palefrey, seriaunz, warant (57), glotuns, serganz, serges, pappes (59), gent, charbucle ( 60 ), saue ( 62 ), per ( 63 ), conestable ( 64 ), taleuaces, hasard, romanz, tabour ( 65 ), cauenard ( 67 ), blame (68), leteres (70), seysed (71), desherite, gisarm, aunlaz ( 72 ), runci, priorie, nunnes ( 73 ), noblelike, wade ( 75 ), pateyn (77), eritage, utrage, feyth, conseyl (81), curteyse, spuse (82), curteys, rose, roser, floar (83), barnage, coruning, parted (84), tresoun, felonnye ( $\mathrm{S}_{5}$ ).
VIII. (1) "Xining Horn," ed. Lumby, for E.E.T. Society, before 1300 :-

Flur, colur, rose, payn, serue, roche, admiral, arive, galeie, mestere, seruise, curt, squiere, spusen, dubbing, gegours, crune, gestes, proue, manere, prowesse, grace, bataille, denic, maister, assaille, auenture, turne, homage, enuye, folye, couerture, messaventure, lace, place, graunt, iarmed, paynyme, prime, compaynye, scaped, rengne, rente, devise, enemis, bigiled, spuse, posse, ankere, palmere, ispused, castel, deole, chaunge, sclavyne, scrippe, colmie, bicolmede, ture, pure, squier, galun, glotun, disse, pilegryn, damesele, preie, bitraie, palais, chaere, blame, heritage, baronage, crois, passage, banere, chapeles, roch, serie, cosin, ginne, gravel.
(2) "Assumpcioun," in the volume containing "King Horn:"

Lescoun, assompcion, temple, serui, poure, mester, messager, frut, palm, meigne, belamy, chauntre, gile, bitraic, space, amendy, parchement, seruise, chere.

## (3) "Florice and Blauncheflur," in "King Horn":

Date, grace, place, departe, chaumberlein (51), marchaunt, semblaunt ( 52 ), mariner, largeliche, parais, baruns, cite, paleis (53), riche, ioie, meniuier, pane, burgeis, curtais (54), ginne, pirate, porter, marbelston (55), sopere, marchaundice, curties, gref (56), entermeten, aquite, tures, plenere, kemel, crestele, charbucle (57), lampe, torche, lanterne, barbecan, culuart, felun, areisun, serinuns,
stage, parage (58), capun, cristal, cler, saphir, flur, onur (59), chaunge, pris, coniureson, chauntement, ginnur, squire, schauntillun, mascun (mason), culvert, felun, resun, felonie, spie ( 60 ), esceker, covetus, envius, preie, grante, angussus, coveitus, honure ( 6 r ), compaygne, druerie, parte, cunsail (62), fin (end), chaumbre (63), crie, par amur (64), art, part (65), certes, merci, crien, pité, dute, pal, admiral (66), tur, towaille, bacin, peire, oresun, passiun, sire, demure (67), piler, chamberlayn (68), belamy, hardy, barnage, iugements, prison, palais, barons, deshonur, accupement ( 69 ), suffre, tendep, parting (70), quite (71), engin, granti, igranted (72), mainé, dubbede, spusen (73).

## IX. "Kyng Alixaunder," ed. Weber, before 1300 :-

Divers, defaute, poverte (3), flour, annye, maner, fool, duyk, pris, desireth, solas, cas, ribaudye, joye, baret, pais, jeste, maister (4), deliciouse (5), clerk, maistrie (6), ars, planet, chaunce, baroun, popet, bat (stick), enemye, chain, conjureson, asaied, regioun, assaile, puyr, bataile, cler, nacioun, dromoun, batayling, $y$-chaunged (8), ymage, basyn, distinctioun, weorre, disgysed, sojournyng, cité, anoyed, distryed (9), iniquité, saun fable, table, astromyen, astronomye, nygremauncye, discrye (io), justes, turnay, jay, accord[e]〈II), jolif, feste, honeste, burgeys, jugoleris, mesteris, desirith, los, praisyng, folie, dame, gentil, face, marchal, atire, damoselis, delis, muyle ( $\mathbf{I} 2$ ), orfreys, roite ( $=$ rute), swte ( $=$ sute), trumpes, orgles, tymbres, carolying, champion, skyrmyng, lioun, chas, bay, bandekyn, pres, sengle, mantal-les, croune (13), atyred, gentil, gent, faile, mervaile, contray, abasched, leisere (14), $y$-chaste (15), undur-chaumburleyn, by-cache, jugge, matynges, pryveté, madame, heygh-maister (16), sacrefying, chaisel, place, certes, ars-table, cours, colour, cristal, propre, nature, saffer [saphir] (I8), irrous, herbes, herber, stamped, morter, virgyn, charmed, conjuryng, dragon, covertour, preost [ = pressed] (19), messanger, pallis, riche, chaumbre, voidud, aspyed (20), refuse, maisterlyng, conqueren, charmyng, aferis (21), mesanter, desirous, repentyng, solace, losynger (22), priveté, gileful, suspecioun (23), galopith, encheson, hardy, chere, powere, comburment, fruyt, comforted, sorcerye, dressed, pavyloun (25), best (26), greved, ameye, semblaunt, gentil-men (27), drake, pray ( $=$ prey), faukon (28), strete, dotaunce, signifiaunce, signifyng, estellacioun, signefieth, sourmouncie (29), poisond, return, traitour, dragonet, resset, gynne, cowart, feynt (30), planete, werryour, hardyest(e), norice (3I), geste, dosayn, afatement, demayne, skyrme, pars, romaunce, storie, disraying, justyng, (a)sailyng, defendyng, reveryng (32), playn, chayn, presented, perce, cheyn (33), firmament, verrament, tresond, afaunce, quyt (34), part, art, failith, sclaundre, aire [heir] (35), soun, stable,
monteth, reyne, demeynith, aforced (36), reverence, crouned (37), somound, roune (38), issue, dubbed, servise, dubbyng, plenté, deynté, tresoreris [treasurers], someris, comaundement, present, departed, botileris, jogoleris, page (39), y-greved, manas, trussed, barge, olifauns, camelis, vitailes, armes (40), party, savage, asteynte [?] (41), ascaped, gage, maltalent, ire (42), departyng, armed, trumpyng, laboryng, demaynyng, baner, ynde [blew], asaied, launce, armures, yperced (44), amoure [lover], socour, scoumfyt, damage, grevaunce (45), visaye, rage, pité, spoile, perile, duk, delivered, liversoon, foisoun, skarsliche, counsail, spouse, grauntid, counsailyng, spoused, message, flores (47), samytes, cortined, gardynes, people, harneys, prynce, nobles, sytolyng, carolyng, turneieyng, tour (48), arived, paleis (49), praised, y-crouned, chaunge, anired, coup (50), maigné, aschape, purveyede, contek, prison (5I), à reson, to reygne, male ese, acorded, gestnyng ( 52 ), defende, veynes, deray, amende, olifaunt, sones, prest, batail, boceleris, forkis (53), touched, y-siwed, mangnelis, alblastres, engyn, myne, mynoris (54), poraile, apertelche, pore, sire, pes, ese, 'countryng, to hardye, talant, trouage, usage, anoied, truage (58), daunte, manace, rent, deliverid (59), to dres [se], presentis, compissement, verament, noise, cry, richely, treson, siwith, palfrey ( 6 I ), coroune, feute, parted, tresour, nobleye, noumbre, ancres, acise ( $=$ asise), mariners, vigor, bac[h]elur, sojour $[\mathrm{n}]$, encresed (63), lettres, renoun, honour, seignour, weorriour (64), senas (senates), assentyn, servisd, distruyed ( 65 ), chivalrie, castel, seignorie, sojornith, temple, market, purtreyed ( 66 ), curteis ( 67 ), travaile, vestement, sacrifise, sacrefyeng, besans (68), peoren (peers), ribaud, (69), jewelis, empire, barbicans, mayntenid, quarellis, Dieu mercy, trappen (70), travailled, cors, launceynge, peys, metal, fronst, tolonst (71), assaut, solaced, angwysch (72), trowage, salved, distrene (? derreyne), parlement, comune, assent (73), braunche, scourge, haumudeys, paramours, neyce, cosynes, governor, robbour, coinoun (74), cutrage, peer, pautener (75), amayed, doute, round ( 76 ), amiraylis, chast[e], purs (77), chaunselere, frusche, appertenaunce (78), amye (friend), mercye, trespas, juggement, acordement ( 80 ), verreyment, carole, tent, entent, justis, ven(e)sounes (8I), bikir, bocher, lyon, mace ( 82 ), pleynt, soudan, verger, long-berdet ( 83 ), counselers, matere, ost, messantour ( 84 ), gonfanoun, sendel, siclatoun, joly, perceyved (85), standard, orgulous (86), conseillynge, arme, ordeyn, astore, apaied, graunt, covenaunt, y-pavylounded, prechid (87), honourith, kourith, coward ( 89 ), siwen ( 90 ), menage, compaignye, samyt, delyt, ches [chess] ( 91 ), warante, akedoun, tronchon, certe(s), melodye, crye, labour (93), assaylyng, bray, poudré, quarel, aspieth (94), destuted, autour, conceyved, drewery (96), basnet, gysarme, peces, saun faile, saun dotaunce (99), yprenst, arsoun, weilyng, mason, hawberk, vertuous, socoure (IOI), passed,
veyne, batelynge, nobleys ( $=$ noblesse), acost, croupe, batalye, aperte (103), defoille, boyle, corour (104), raundoun, asiweth, curtesye, vylanye, garsounes, comunes (105), pellis, harneys, quystron, warysom, castles, arayed, assailed, valoure, parforce, ascapith, pavelounes (107), spoil, payed, deol, turneth, sojorneth, avauncement, amour (ro9), chevalry, messangers, justices, alblastreris, defence, dispence, vygoure, noble (112), barounye, bachelrye, fortresses, segedyn, aviroun, asawt, gyse, pencil ( (II3), avetrol, justyng, acorde, y-foiled, emperour, armure (115), berfreyes, quarelis, hurdices, dismayng (II7), coyntise (118), favour, nortoure, adaunt, preche (119), venyme, cleir (120), flourith, pertyng [parting] (122), homage, feuté, lewté, servys, marchauns, clergie, acord, parage (124), dispised (125), pyrie (jewels), unplye, palys, acoste (126), tence, distroied, rebel, chast, almatour, qnoynte, coragous, trayed (127), busard, povert, lynage, servage (12S), reherce (i29), paye, norysched, baronage, plas (place), chesse ( 13 I ), avowe, crount, rannsoun, soffraunce, amendement, haven, cheventeyn, asoyne, gay, geaunt (133), magnelis, rowte, torellis (134), pypyn (pipe), malc-aperte, duyre, hast, tayl, gomnes ( 135 ), dure, speciale, gyle ( 136 ), person, rybaud, verger, velasour, swyer (137), harlot, cowardieth, continaunce, hardieth, rente, by-lace, dosseyn (139), pays, travaille, soudans (140), ordeyne, dragman ( $=$ interpreter), flum, mangre, camailes, dromedaries, somers, justers (141), trappe, croper, queyntise, laboures, trumpours, jangelours, route, robbedyn, tresours, corant, palfray, amblant, sergant, serjans, asemblaye, gylyng (145), ficicion (146), pocions, lettrure, aprise, spies ( $14 \frac{1}{7}$ ), proferid, scarceliche, perage ( $=$ parage); cage, corage, forest, sodeynliche (148), hardinesse, prowesse (149), chaunse, defendit, entraile, gargaze, gorger, joster (151), mace, lyoun (152), pesens (154), faynt, flank, launche (155), weorryours, meschef, agref, asay (157), pray, favasour, slyces (158), amy, voys (I59), deshonour, descharged, aquyted, asyghe (= essay), oncas, antoure, lechour, traytour, aliene ( $\mathbf{1 6 1}$ ), aventure, victorie, chesoun, acoysyng, amiture ( 163 ), traytory, pere, preoire, glove (164), honest, cure, entermetyd, dispoyled, joyned (165), tastyng, feyntise, corsour (166), trouble (168), aspye, tyffen, pryveliche (169), contynaunce, demorrance, peolure, destrere ( 1 多) , perlement, message ( 171 ), fable, pyment, botileir, vengaunce, laroun, usage, court, richesse, repentand (173), vysage (174), auntred, keoverid, folye (175), eschape (176), dragoun, failleth ( 178 ), constable, ostage, ape, scape ( 180 ), disray, pomon, arsun (181), soket, perced (182), pryvé, vygour, antur, assoyne (I85), tressours, autors, peyn, autorité, salueth (I86), purchas, discryve (187), posterne (188), norische, medlay (189), tyger, spirit, vaite (190), amended, gentiliche, bawmed, schryne, entaile, fyne (191), maried, ystabled, avaunce, baudry, keouere, harnesche (192),
gybet, dispit, noyse, bailifs (193), siweye, jolifliche, partie, ylis, afyhe (197), botemeys, merveille (198), desert, apert (199), memorie, sklaunder (200), gyoures, peryl, straungest, lessoun, mountayne, engyneful, avenaunt, asperaunt, conquerrende, jugge (203), fest, joliffe, damoysel, haunteth (205), garnement, penaunce, discipline, medecyne (206), palmer, ermine, skarlet, pers, furchures (207), coloure, malicious (209), pleyne, laak, tryacle (210), charrey, astrangled, magnels (21I), nombre (212), oost, mangenils, aketoun, plate, gaumbisoun, meschaunce, greuance ( 213 ), ypotame, semblabel, reisyn (214), purchacyng, pas, mendyng, soiournyng (215), tornay, dauncen, leopardes, unces, baneret (217), beef, motoun, venysoun, seysouns, sopere, charbokel, laumpe, aveysé, scorpion, bugle, cheyne, glotoun, fuysoun, meyntenaunt (218), lake (220), saven, loos, mounde (221), tressed, pecock (223), envenymed, molest, perch, saumoun, foysoun (225), estre, robe, furred, menevere, tabard, borel (227), scarseté, mantel (22S), ennesure, defyeaunce, chaumpe, defendynge, assailynge, pardé (230), merveilynges, ymages, pure, stage, conquerde (231), envenymen, gorgen (232), dromuns, barge, spyces (233), faas, preciouse, conceyveth (234), jacynkte, piropes, crisolites, safyres, smaragdes, margarites, terrene, fourmed, doloure, remenaunt (235), cokedrill, monecros (236), vitailles (237), yportami, entreden, fygeres (238), delited, tempestes, entree, rekowered, duzeyn (241), tourment (242), doutaunce (244), consent (246), mynstral, juwel, sumpteris (250), lumbars, cayvars (251), ryvage, vysite, mont (252), hurdles, strayte, greven, anoye, vermye (253), destruye, sacrefyse, queyntaunce, yle, syment, pyrates (255), power, mountaunce, purveyed, $y$-changed (256), tempreth, muray, koyntise (258), merveillouse, robbery (259), lecherie, pasture, furchur, sustinaunce, honouryng, archeris, panter (260), nobleyse (262), fame, langage, encence, flum (263), arnement (264), carayne, unhonest (266), rinocertis, hont, medli, monoceros, marreys, front, rasour (270), noricetl, delfyns, valour (271), treble (272), enbrace (273), tenour (274), desyre, caries (carats), chargen, perdos, unycornes (275), ceptres, mester, cortesy (276), delit, solasying, aresoned (277), sakret, notemugge, sedewale, wodewale, canel, licoris ( 278 ), gilofre, quybibe, gynger, comyn, odour, delices, spices, broches (280), destenyng (281), largenesse, prowes[se] (282), fairye, comforte (283), creature (284), poysond, amonestement, certeyn, dysours, dalye (286), tressen, sygaldrye, emeraundis, peopur (288), soffred, mesureabele, bonere, assise, marchaunt, baudekins, pelles (290), latimer, rocher, distresse, teste [head], counseiler, enherit, hostel, lyvereyng (293), defyghe, vawte, alouris, corner (295), preove, dette, atyr, defyeng, deffyeng (297), demere, seynory, chalangith (298), blamed, affye, dereyne, afeormed ( 300 ), acount ( 301 ), malese, devyse ( 302 ), rere-
mayn, spye, gangle [jangle] (303), discoverte, covenaunt, glorious, warentmentis (304), batest, abatest, tyranné (306), amendyng, pilgrimage, chalenge (307), to coverye, tapnage (308), demayn, paleys, qweynte (311), certyn, esteris, evorye (312), ymagour, disseyte, losenger, konioun (315), trace (316), reirwarde (317), remuwing, depose, encombrement (318).
X. A. "Lives of Saints," Erc., in "Early English Poems," ed.
Furnivall, for Philological Society, about 1295 :Furnivall, for Philological Society, about 1295 :-
(1) St. Dunstan. - Miracle, doute, manere, sodeynliche, taper (34), crouning, norischi, crede, uncle, ioye, deynté, grauntede, abbei, ordeynour, rente, ordre, monek (35), cordeyned, amende, privei, celle, orcisouns, servie, poure, enuye, treoflinge (36), contrai, pose, poer, consailler, abbey, sojournede, sire, grace, folliche ( 37 ), blamie, persoun, persones, lecherie, maistres, preveie, place, aperteliche, priveite, masse (38), kirileyson, solaz, joyfulle, anteyn, specials, servede, trespas, assoillede, freres (39).
(2) An Oxford Student. - Madame (40), scole, penance, repentant, iserved (4I), onoury, servise, privé, clerk, onourede, priveiliche, cors (42).
(3) The Jews and the Cross.-Sacring, trecherie (42), forme, vylté, priveité (43).
(4) St. Swithin.-Confessour, turnde, seint (43), chiefe, consail, heir, norissie, portoure, ioyous, bobaunce, squiers, bost, amendede (44), masoun, ribaudie (45), ischryned, doutest, poynt, signe, iolyf, igreved, honer, assignede, consayl (46), sumnede, oreisouns, irevested, devocioun, processioun, schrine, noble (47).
(5) St. Kenelm.-Abbai, principales (48), departed (49), accountes, folie, enuye, heritage, outrage, purveide, felonye, poisoun, ymartred, ambesas, wardeyn, traitour, trecherie, frut (50), deol, priveite, norice, tendre (51), travaillest, iugement, valleye, vers, cumpaignyc, martirs (52) honury, seisi (53), larder, awaitede, lettres, diverse (54), nobliche, relike, noblerere, feste, messager (55), conteckede, pees, for-travailed, sauf, suy, bigyled, chapel ( 56 ), sautere, sauvoure, attefyne, schryne (57).
(6) St. James.-Isued, preisi, beau, membre, pelegrim, cas, bitraye, queyntise, bigyli, resoun (58), justise, dulfulliche, merci, doutede, aryled (59).
(7) St. Christopher.-Melodie, iugelour, firce, beau sire, delyvri (60), poer, mester, croiz, croice, ipassed, turnede, hermyte [here-
myte, ermyte] (61), prechi, confortie, tourment (62), virtu, preching, tourne, yarmed, cowardz (63), icristned, cristnede, sige, prisoun, itournd (64), gridire, roste, piler, arblestes, angusse, feble, clere (65).
(8) The 11,000 Virgins.-Virgines, fame, queynte, noblei, spouse, Marie, heir, destruye, message, deol, paye, grante, certeyn (66), honoure, servie, cristenie, priveite, preisi, tresches, sustenance, aryve, damaisele, aryvede, honourede, dignete (68), chast, baptize, ibaptised, suffrie, suede, cride, creatoure, gent(r)ise (69), nonnerie, granti, martyrs, enclynede, covent, tumbe, abbesse, honoury, chere (70).
(9) St. Edmund the Confessor.-Confessour, seint, isoilled, ordre, nonnes, hauberk, spense, scole (71), usede, grace, signe, grevy (72), yused, grevede, ensentede, chastete, ymage, pryveiliche, spoushode, mariage, ostesse, febliche (73), discipline, fyne (end), chaste, catel, flour, porveide (74), symonye, desire, priorasse, quitoure, itourmentede, tuochi (75), confort, oreisoun, custume, lessoun, pamerie (76), contynuelliche, profound, arsmetrike, cours, figours, numbre, visciun, entende, paume, rounde, cerclen, trinité, divinité, chanceler, alosed, université, pitousliche, religioun, desputede, scolers (77), savour, clergie, magesté, stat, desputie, studie, delyvre (78), prechour, croserie, procuracies, persones, largeliche, pouere, prechede (79), merci, roveisouns, baners, desturbie, desturbi, grevede (So), canoun, seculer, tresourer, avanced, sojournede, defaute, abbod, disciple, comun, ellectioun, messager (81), chamberlayn, archebischop, maistrie, messagers, semblant, lettres, chapitre, plener, queor, consailli, certes, obedience (82), ioyful, pité, heriet, deoliulliche, meseise, best ( 83 ), envie, contek, grandsire, legat, acordi, ensample, werrie, franchise, payest, amende, sentence, stabliche (84), anuy, isustened, ancestres, amendement, feble, soiourny (85), ipreched, minstre, faillede, ischryned (86).
(Io) St. Edmund the King.-Hardie, corteys, quoynte, robbede (87), bisigede, scourgen, tourmentours (88), pitousliche, suede, pelrynage, honoury, noble (89).
(II) St. Katherine.-Artz, emperour, gywise, sacrifyse, temple, reisouns, preouede, queyntise (90), justise, gent, preise, blame, veyne glorie, resoun, maister, maistrie, sustenie (91), desputi, plaidi, preovie, falliest ( 92 ), philosophe, iscourged, prophete, traitours, conforti (93), apeired, paleys, blandisinge, tourmentz, scourges, turne, prisoun, emporice, privei (94), prisones, ibaptized, turmente, tourment, iugement, gentrise, emperesse (95), rasours, mossel-mele, turmende (96), preyere, igranti (97), iourneyes, nobliche, oylle (98).
(12) St. Andrew.-Pur, doutede (99), folie, itournd, doutie, scourgi, tourmentours, preciouses ( 100 ).
(13) Seinte Lucie. - Grevous, fisciciens, ispend, meneisoun, amende, tuochede, presse, tuochinge (IO2), igranted, norice, que(y) nteliche, spere, lechour ( $\mathrm{IO}_{3}$ ), comun, bordel, defouled, sauter, aprochi, enchantours, enchantementz (104), tendre (105).
(14) St. Edward.-Blame, aventoures, pore (ro6).
(15) Judas Iscariot.-Norischie, barayl (107), hurlede, bicas, heire, privite, ichasted, awaitede (ioS), maugre, anuyed, peren [pears] (109), repentant, purs-berer, susteynie, oignement, keoverie (IIO), baret.
(16) Pilate. - Spousbreche, norisschi (III), hostage, truage, faillede, queyntere, gyle, peer, chasteb, duri, enquerede, yle (II2), amaistrede, ascapede, crede, felonie, tresour, baillie, trecherie, accountie, bitrayd, acorded ( $\mathrm{II}_{3}$ ), repentede, keverchief, face, defaute, forme (114), assentede, tempest (i15), swaged, iuggede, enqueste, destruyde, passede (II6), passi, gailer, gentrice, curteisie, aventoure, atroute ( $\mathrm{II}_{7}$ ), roche, dulfol (IIS).
(17) The Pit of Hell (in "Fragments of Popular Science," ed. Wright).-Cours, cler, candle, firmament, planéte, frut, diverse, glotouns, qualité, crestal ( 133 ), balle, elementz, rounde, eir [air] (134), post, noyse, pur (135), debrusede, turment, tempest, mayster (136), occian (ocean), veynes, bal, boustes (? boustus), debonere, bosti, hardi, lecherie, temprieth, entempri ( 138 ), change, turneth, maner, norisschinge (I39), purveide, forme, resoun, departi, attefyne, angusse, iclosed, i -strei t t, semblant, signes (140).
X. B. "pe Holy Rode" (in "Legends of the Holy Rood "), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society :-

Parais, valeie, envie (IS), failede, anuyd, oile (20), defaute, doute (22), delit, ioie, floures, frut, maner, place (24), stat, prophete, trinyté, honur, confermy (26), power, cercle, honured (28), lecherie, penaunce, sauter, temple noble, carpenters ( 30 ), defoulede, grace, destrued, vertu (32), croys, paynym (34), batail, fyn, lettres, signe, maister, enquerede (36), baptizen (37), conseil, somounce, amounty, enqueri, comun (38), sepulcre, prechede, debrusede (40), prison, cristeny, hasteliche, icristened (42), chere, fourme, servy, paie (44), treson, procession, ibaptised, scryne, presiouse (preciouses), desirede (46), ahansed, feste, partie, presious, queyntise (48), sege, trone, cok, bast (bastard), emperour, dedeyned (50), baundone, siwy, mark, sertes (52), honur, pascion, nobleie, feble (54), scivede, price, contreie, honouri, save, companye, offring, melodie (56), prechede,
turne, gredice, rosti, gynne, honure ( $5 \$$ ), deboner, caudron, tormentynge (60).
XI. "Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle," ed. Hearne, about 1295 :-

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XII. Harl. MS. 2253.
(1) Proverbs of Hendyng, 1272-1307 (in "Specimens of Early English").-Servys, warysoun, fule, tempred, sot, male, gyleth.
(2) Lyric Poetry (ed. Wright, for Percy Society).-Soteleth, sotel, poure (23), siwith (24), flour, feynt, beryl, saphyr, jasper, gernet, ruby, onycle, diamaunde, coral (25), emeraude, margarite, charbocle, chere, rose, lilye-white, primerols, passeth, parvenke, pris, Alisaundre, ache, anys, coynte, columbine, bis, celydoyne, sauge, solsicle, papejai, tortle, tour, faucoun, mondrake, treacle, trone, licoris, sucre, saveth (26), gromyl, quibibe, comyn, crone, court, canel, cofre, gyngyvre, sedewale, gylofre, merci, resoun, gentel, joyeth, baundoun (27), bounte (29), richesse, reynes (31), croune, serven (32) noon, spices, romaunz (34), parays, broche (35), gyle, grein (38), chaunge (40), non, pees (42), doute, bref, notes (43), mandeth [mendeth] (44), tricherie, trichour (46), asoyle, folies, 'wayte glede' (watch-ember), goute (48), glotonie, lecherie, lavendere, coveytise, latymer (49), frount, face, launterne, fyn, graciouse, gay, gentil, jolyf, jay (52), f (th)ele., rubie, baner, bealte, largesse, lilic, lealté, poer, pleyntes, siwed, maistry (53), eygyn, preye, fourme (59), fyne, joie ( 60 ), peyne (62), duel (dole), lykeruscre, alumere (68), servyng, preie (69), grace (72), graunte (73), soffrede (83), compagnie, scourges (84), blame, virgyṇe, medicyn, tresor, piete, jolyfte, floures, honoures (89), par-amours (9I), flur, crie, soffre, cler, false (93), solas, counseileth, presente, encenz, sontes (96), ycrouned (98), vilore, dempned (100), feble, porest, eyse (102), maister, precious (103), counsail (104), palefrey, par, charitć, tressour (105), champioun (106), trous, forke, frere, caynard (110), maystiy, bayly (III), preide (II2).

For the list of words from the "Saxon Chronicle" and Las̃amon's "Brut" I am indebted to Mr. Joseph Payne. See his list of Norman-French words used by LaJamon, in Notes and Queries, No. 80, Fourth Series, Julv 10, 1869.

For Norman-French loans after 1300, see Marsh's "The Origin and History of the English Language," and Dr. Latham's "English Language."

I N D E X.

## I N D E X. ${ }^{\text { }}$

(The numerical references are double; the former number of each pair denoting the page, the latter denoting the section.)

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TIIE END.

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2 F


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ I do not include Dr. Latham's English Grammars among the works of the numerous grammar-mongers here alluded to.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is the plain duty of every Englishman who can in any way afford it, to support this Society, and the Chaucer Society.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Cp}_{\mathrm{i}}$ Hungarian var-at-andot-ta-tok (= wait-and-will-have-youj $=$ you will have been waited for.

[^3]:    I Dutck is merely another form of the same werd.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Grimm's Law, p. 13.

[^5]:    ${ }^{x}$ The Aryan people, as they called themselves in opposition to the barbarian, must have occupied a region of which Bactria may be regarded as the centre.

[^6]:    The primitive Aryan must have embraced nearly the whole of the region situated between the Hindu-Kush (Belurtagh), the Oxus, and the Caspian Sea : and perhaps extended a good way into Sogdiana, towards the sources of the Oxus and the Taxartes. (Pictet.)
    ${ }^{1}$ Rask first discovered, and Grimm afterwards worked out, the law which goveins the permutation of consonants; hence it is always known as Grimm's Law.

[^7]:    ${ }^{2}$ Gothuc is here taken as the best representative of the Low German and Scandinavian dialects, and Old High German of the other division of the Teutonic languages.

    * Not always regular.

[^8]:    x All letter-change must be based upon physiological grounds.
    2 The seat of euphony is in the vocal not in the acoustic organs.
    3 bar $=$ O.E. bere $=$ barley, cp. Lat. far; -ley $=$ O.E. -lic (as in garlick, hemlock) $=$ plant.

[^9]:    In other words the only combination of mutes are flat + flat and sikus + whart.

[^10]:    ${ }^{2}$ Mercia - march or frontier. In Southern and West Mercia the people were of Saxon origin; the others came of an Anglian stock.

[^11]:    I For an admirable account of the Danish invasions see Dr. Ereeman's OLL Englis! History for Childrert, pp. 9x-239.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ To the Normans we owe most of the terms pertaining to ( x ) feudalism and war, (2) the church, (3) the law, and (4) the chase.
    (I) Aid, arans, armous assault, banner, baron, battle, buckler, captain, chivalry, challenge, duke, fealty, fief, gallant, hauberk, homage, lance, mail, march, soldier, tallage, truncheon, tournament, vassal, \&c.
    (2) Altar, Bible, baptism, ceremony, devotion, friar, homily, idolatry, interdict, piety, penance, prayer, preach, relic, religion, sermon, scandal, sacrifice, saint, tonsure.
    (3) Assize, attorney, case, cause, chancellor, court, dower, damages, estate, fee, felony, fine, judge, jury, mulct, parliament, plainiff, plea, plead, statute, sue, tax, ward.
    (4) Bay, brace, chase, couple, copse, course, covert, falcon, forest, leasil, leveret, mews, quarry, reynard, rabbit, tierceet, venison.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ As vassal, varlet, \&c.
    ${ }^{2}$ Marshal, seneschal, guile, \&c.

[^14]:    ${ }^{3}$ In the Southern dialect words belonging to this declension had $x$ in the oblique cases of the singular, but this is dropped in the Northern dialect.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Northern dialect has $s$ occasionally in the first person.
    ${ }^{2}$ This softening serves to explain many of the double forms in modern English, as ditch and dike, pouch and poke, church and kirk, nook and notch, bake and batch, \&c.

[^16]:    I Soule fode $=$ soul's food ; senne nede $=$ sin's need.
    2 apostlene fet $=$ apostles' feet ; Gyzvene will $=$ Jews' will.
    3 Lovie (= lufian), to love; hatie (=hatiart) to hate; tellen, telle $=$ to tell.
    4 sirginde, N. singard $=$ singing.
    $5 y$-broke $=y$ broken $=$ broken $; i$-fare $=i$ faren $=$ gone.

[^17]:    1 "Our maker (poet) therefore at these dayes shall not follow Piers Plowman, nor Gower, nor Lydgate, nor yet Chaucer, for their language is now out of use with us: neither shall he take the termes of Northern-men, such as they use in dayly talke, whether they be noble men, or gentlemen, or of their best clarkes, all is a matter ; nor in effect any speach used beyond the river of 'Irent, though no man can deny but that theirs is the purer English Saxon at this day, yet it is not so courtly nor so current as our Southerme English is, no more is the far Westerne man's speach : ye shall therefore take the usual speach of the Court, and that of London and the shires lying about London within $1 x$ myles, and not much above. I say not this but that in every shyre of England there be gentlemen and others that speake but specially write as good Southerne as we of Middlesex or Surrey do, but not the common people of every shire, to whom the gentlemen and also their learned clarkes do for the most part condescend, but herein we are already ruled by th' English dictionaries and other bookes written by learned men."

[^18]:    ${ }^{1} n$ sometimes disappears.
    a Fxamples 3 and 4 were probably writlen in different darts of England before 1150

[^19]:    - Traces of se and si are found in the Kentisld dialect of the thirteenth century.

[^20]:    I A pure syllabic alphabet is one whose letters represent syllables instead of articulations; which makes an imperfect phonetic analysis of words, not into the simple sounds that compose them, but into their syllabic elements; which does not separate the vowel from jts atlendant consonant or consonants, but denotes both together by an indivisible sign. One of the most noted alphabets of this kind is the Japanese. (See Whitney, p. 465.)

[^21]:    $A, i, w$ are by philologists called the primitive vowels, and from them all the - $\rightarrow$ rious vowel sounds in the Aryan languages have been developed.
    here are two sleps in the early development of these sounds-( I ) the union of $a$ with $a$; (2) the union of $c$ with $i$ and $u$.

[^22]:    1 Whitney.
    2 We sometimes find in O.E. apricock $=$ apricot.

[^23]:    I The' syllables that were accented in O.E. words of Fr. origin are: race, -age, -ail (-aille), -ain, -ance, -ance, ant, -ent, -ee, -ey, el, eis, -el, -er, ere,
     -or, -ous, -te, -tude, -ure.

[^24]:    - Fr. nom, Lat. nonten, from guosco $=$ that by which anything is known.

    2 Cp. wheat, which originally signified white.

[^25]:    I In later writers hlafdige became lafdie, lavdi, lady.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cp. Icel. bondz, a husbandman, from bua, to cultivate, dwell ; Dan. borde, peasant, countryman.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ The suffix-rich is found in some of the German dialects: in taüber-rich, a male dove ; enterich, a drake; ganse-rich, a gander.

[^27]:    F.
    bæc-estre.
    fithel-stre. hearp-estre.
    sang-estre.
    seam-estre.
    tæpp-estre.
    webb-estre

[^28]:    1 This suffix is found in several of the Aryan languages: cp. Ger. sanger (singer) and sängerinn; fuchs (fox) and fuchs-inn; Gr. ipwivn, hero-ine (O.Fr. héro-inte), Latin regina.

    Margravine and Landgravine contain the Romance suffix -ine (as in heroine) and not the Teutonic-in.
    Lithuanian gandras, stork ; gandr-erue (f.).
    Sansk. Indra (name of a god); Indrani (the wife of Indra).
    The Sanskrit shows that $n$ is no mark of gender, but of possession; the $\{$ is the sign of gender, which appears in Lithuanian -enë, but is lost in the English -cu, Ger. -inn.

[^29]:    ${ }^{2}$ The Northern dialects of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries seldom employ this suffix, and it is often found, as in Robert of Brunne, in masculine nouns (marking the agent).

    In the "Ormulum" we find kuccesterr = huckster, which is probably masculine.
    In Wickliffe we find signs that this suffix was going out of use to mark gender in the double forms that he employs, as dwell-stere and dweller-esse, sleestere and sleeresse, deurstere and daunseresse.
    "Howell uses hucksteress and spinstress as feminines. Ben Jonson uses seamster and songster to express the feminine: while Shalespeare uses spirster sometimes as $=$ spinner.

[^30]:    I"The he hathe two pynnes . . . and the she hathe none."-Laurexces Andrewe, Babys Book, p. 23 I.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ There is an inconvenience attached to these plurals, i.e. they have more than one meaning: thus, blacks is used for black eyes (Trevisa), black draperies (Bacon), sooty particles, and black-a-moors, i.e. black Moors; there were also white Moors. Cp.faniliars = familiar friends and familiar spirits.

    While we can talk of our betters, our superiors, we cannot, like Heywood, speak of our olders and biggers, nor complain, with the author of "The Booke of Nurture," of not knowing our "breefes from loneres" = short and long vowels. Cp . "my urorthics and my valiants."-Drant.

[^32]:    Shoon, O.E. scon, and hosen, O.E. hosan, are more or less obsolete.
    Spenser frequently uses eyen $=$ O.E. eagan, Provincial English een; and foen $=$ O.E. fun, fon, foes.

[^33]:    ${ }^{3}$ Chersbims and seraphims occur in Elizabethan English.

[^34]:    "At Athens, the term case, or pèōsis, had a philosophical meaning : at Rome, casts was merely a literal translation : the original meaning of fall was lost, and the word dwindled down to a mere technical term. In the philosophical language of the Stoics, plosis, which the Romans translated by casus, really meant 'fall': that is to say, the inclination or relation of one idea to another, the falling or reating of one word on another. Long and angry discussions were carried on as to whether the name of plossis, or fall, was applicable to the nominative : and every true Stoic would have scouted the expression of casus rectus, because the subject. or the nominative, as they argued, did not fail or rest on anything else. out stood erect, the other words of a sentence leaning or depending on it. All this is lost to us when we speak of cases."-Max Meller.
    96. The oldest Finglish had six cases: Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Gemtive, Dative, lustrumental.
    In the Aryan languages the case-endings are altenuated words-of all of which the origin is very sbscure.

[^35]:    ${ }^{2}$ () was at first probably used to distinguish the genitive from the plural suffix. Its use may have been established from a false theory of the origin of the genitive case, which was thoroughly believed in from Ren Jonson's to Addison's time that $s$ was a contraction of his; bence suchexpressions as "the prince his house," far "the prince's house."

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ The writer of the Pilgrimage only uses the oon when the adjective is accusative.
    a Stow has heyres males $=$ male heirs.

[^37]:    ${ }^{2}$ This root is found in Sansk., mah ( $=$ magh), to grow, become great ; aiso in D.E. magen $=$ main.
    " "The nere to the Church the ferther frum God."-Heywood's Proverbs, C
    "The near in blood the nearer bloody."-Macbeth, ii. 3.
    3 "When bale is hekst boote is next."-Hzywood's Proverbs, E. iii. back-
    Hawes (Past. of Pl. p. 60) uses the old ferre:-
    " My mynde to her was so ententyfe
    That I folowed her into a temple ferre,
    Replete with joy, as bright as any sterre.*

[^38]:    I The adverb seems to be comparative.
    $=$ By some, further is explained as more to the fore, as if it contained the comparative suffix -ther.
    3 In the "Oimulum" we have late, latire, lattst = late, latter, last.

[^39]:    ? The origin of the numerals is involved in much obscurity.
    One seems to have been another form of the pronoun $a$, he, that.
    In Gr. eir $\left(=\psi_{i v-r)}\right.$ we have a form cognate with some, same; cp. Lat. sim-plex, sim-ilis, semel, singuli.

    Treo. In Lat. this assumes the form $b i, \mathrm{r}^{2}$ (prefixes), bis; Gr. dis (adverb).
    Three = that what gots beyond, from the root tri (tar), to go beyond.
    Foser. The original form is said to signify and three, i.e. I and theree. Sansk. shatur, Lat. guatuor; cha $=q u a=$ and: tur $=$ twor $=$ three.

    Others explain cha $=$ k $a=$ one.
    [Fire

[^40]:    ISome suppose that hund red = hurd-are (like cent-uria) with suffix $-d$. Is O.E. of the fourteenth century we find hunderand hundreth. In O.N. husdrath $=$ huadred: cp . stirathr, contaiaing 80 ; tfrethr, containing roo.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cp. O.N. 7 sioundi, 9 niundi, 10 tiundi, 13 threttandi, 15 fintandi, \&ic.
    ${ }^{2}$ For origin of $x$ see remarks on Seventh.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ That is, $s m n=$ he, that, this, \&c.
    ${ }^{2}$ I am inclined to look upon the origin of ye for $y o u$ in the rapid and careless pronunciation of the latter word, so that, after all, the $y e$ in the above extracts shou!d be written $y^{\prime}(=y o u)$; $y e$ or you may be changed into ee: cp. 200 kef : look ye.

[^43]:    I The demonstrative character of this pronoun is seen in such expressions as, "What is he at the gate?" (Shakespeare) : "He of the bottomless pit" (Milton, Areopagitica): "hii of Denemarch" (Robert of Gloucester): "thai of Lorne, thai of the Castel" (Barbour); "they in France" (Shakespeare); "them of Greece " (North's Plutarch). Those marked thus (*) are later forms.
    ${ }^{2}$ Him was also the dative of it, and we often find it applied to inanimate things in the later periods of the language.

[^44]:    ${ }^{3} 1140$ (Stephen). Dær efter sca ferde ofer sæ." In the thirteenth century, the ordinary form of she is sco, found in Northern writers; sche (sce) is a Midland modification of it.
    ${ }^{2}$ We find this $h$ disappearing as early as the twelfth century (as in $O \mathrm{rm}$.).
    3 The O. Norse forms bear a greater resemblance to they, their, and them than the O.E. ones.

    > O. Norse thei-r, theirra, theim. O.E. tha, thara, tham.

    The Midland and Southern dialects changed O.E. tha to tho, not to thei or thery.

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ Self, Goth. silba, Ger. selbe, probably contains the reflexive si (Lat. se), and $-l f=l b$, life, soul (as in Ger. leib, body). The Sansk. atman, soul, is used as a reflexive.
    $2 \ln$ O. E. the plural was marked by e or een: when this disappeared it left the pluras ourself, yourself, thenself; but as we and you were often used in the singular number, 2 new plural came into use, so we now say yourself (sing.), yourselves (pl.).

    Cp. "We have saved ourself that trouble."-Fielding.
    "You, my Prince, yourself a soldier, will reward him." -Lord Byrnn.

[^46]:     sava. The Gothic forms correspond to Sansk. mad-iya, tvad-iya, the $n$ in meina, theirra representing $d$ in mad-tya, \&c.

[^47]:    I Later forms which were in partial use during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries are distinguished thus (*).

[^48]:    1 The e is no sign of inflexion, but marks the length of the vowel a
    Koch supposes thase to be a lengthened form of the old pl. tho. He seems to have overlooked the Northumbrian use of thess (which in the Midland dialects would be represented by thos). Koch's statement is: "Es kann nicht die fortbildung von Ags thás sein." Cp. the following passage from Hampole's Pricke of Consc. p. $30:-$
    "Alle thas men that the world mast dauntes, Mast bisily the world here hauntes: And thas that the worid serves and loves, Serves the devil, as the bnok proves."

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ In O.E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries there are various forms of this compound, as swult, sulch, swalch, swich, swuch, soch.
    $=$ That ilk, O. E. that ylca, was originally' neuter. ILk = same roust be distinguished from O.E. ilk, ilkf, each, each one.

    3 Sam...sam = whether...or, is found in O.E.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ We have the same root perhaps in O.E. anent, anence; O. H. Ger. èruont: Mid. H. Ger. jen-unt = beyond. Geonre $=$ Ger. jener, occurs in King Alfred'u translation of St. Gregory's Pastoral.

    * 'Those marked thus (*) are later forms.

[^51]:    " What matters it whether I go for a flower or a weed, here? Whethersoever I must wither. (Uterlibet, arescam necesse est.)"

[^52]:    I See Comparatives, § 113 , for origin of -ther.
    2 Koch says: "Es wird im Nags. fast flexionslos."
    3 "Uf which of the two wilt thou be the associate? With which of the two wilt thou suffer?"

    4 "Now of which of the two was the heart full of care?" The writer is speaking of Launcelot and Qucen Guenever.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ Those marked thus (*) aye later forms.
    2. That is to say, used freely, like Latin qui. Cp. the following :-
    "Who of 3ou dredende the Lord, herende the vois of his servaunt. Who jide in dercnesses."-Wicklifite Version, Isainh 1. 10.
    3 This construction is common in Sbakespeare, where we should use zuluever:-
    " O now zuho will behold
    The royal captain of this ruin'd band?
    Let him cry, "Praise and glory on his head.'"
    Flenty V. iv. Prol.
    "Whom he did foreknow, he did predestinate."-Rom. viii. 29 .
    "Who seems most sure, him soonest whirls she (Fortune) down."

[^54]:    "The better part of valour is discretion, in the which better part I have saved my life." 1 Hen. IV. v. 4.

    > "The chain
    > Which God he knows I saw not, for the zwhich He did arrest me."-Comedy of Errors, v. I .
    "The civil power, which is the very fountain and head from the which both these estates (Church and Commonwealth) do flow, and by the which it is brought to pass that there is a Church in any place."-Br. Morron.
    "His food, for most, was wild fruits of the tree, Unless sometimes some crumbs fell to his share, Which in his wallet long, God wot, kept he, As on the which full daint'ly would he fare."

[^55]:    I That introduces always an adjective clause, while who and which are not always so used ; as-
    (1) I met a man who told me he had been called $=$ I met a man ard he told me, \&c.
    (2) It's no use asking John, who knows nothing of it = It's no use asking John, (since, seeing that, for \&c.) he knows nothing of it.
    In ( 1 ) the second clause is co-ordinate in sense with the preceding; in ( 2 ) it is adverbial.
    "That is the proper restrictive explicative, limiting or defining relative."Bain's English Gramniar, p. 23.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the Sax. Chron. A D. 1137, there is a similar displacement:-
    "Hi wenden that he sculde. ben alsuic alse the eom was" = they thought tbat he should be all such as the uncie was.

[^57]:    " What a prodigy was't
    That from some two yards high, a slender man
    Should break his neck."
    J. Webster, The White Devil.
    "Some half hour to seven."
    Ben Jonson, Every Man in his Humour.
    " A prosperous youth he was, aged some four and ten."-Green, p. 66.
    "Some dozen Romans of us."-Cymb. i. 7.
    "Some day or two."-Rich. III. iii, 1.
    "Tha wæron hi sume ten year on tham gewinn."-Boeth. xviii. з.
    (5) With the genitive pl., O.E. "eode eahtra sum" = he went one of eight. We find in modern Scotch a remnant of this idiom in the phrase "a truasum dance," a dance in which two persons are engaged.
    " Bot it (boat) sa litell wes, that it

    - My'chte our the watter bot thresum flyt" (carry).-Barbour's Brws, p. 63 .

[^58]:    2 Abbott's Shakespearian Grammar, p. 6.

[^59]:    : Refore somebody could get into use body must have been used for wight. person, as--
    "A doughty body in alle his lyf."-Gest. Rom.
    "The servaunts yede to her chaumber and founde nobody."-16. 35.

[^60]:    "One can only attribute the chameleon character in which one seems to figure to the want of penetration of one's neighbours."-Evening Standard, Sat. Oct. r, 1870, p. x, col. 3 .
    "Once more I am reminded that one ought to do a thing oneself if one wants it to be done properly."-Ib. p. 3, col. 3 .
    "It is a pretty saying of a wicked one."
    Tourneur's The Revenger's Tragedy.
    "Go, take it up, and carry it in. 'Tis a huge one; we never kill'd so large a swine: so fierce, 100 , I never met with yet."-Beaumont and Fletcher, The Prophetess.

[^61]:    1 Those marked thus (*) are later forms.

[^62]:    1 One $=$ ones $=$ the sleeve of one. Perhaps the $e$ marks here the gea. fem.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the oldest Eng. one could have a plural, as each one $=$ an ra gehruyla $=$ each of ones.

    3 Lithere thinges $=$ wicked ones. This phrase is applied to Quendride (Kenelm's sister), and Askebert (Kenelm's guardian).

[^63]:    ${ }^{3}$ The form men for the singular, from which me comes by falling away of $n$, is to be explained by the fact that in the twelfth century, a final-aut became -en; but men is often treated as a plural form in O. E.
    z This use of one after as deserves some notice, as it has never been thoroughly explained.

    This idiom answers to the Latin quip, ge gut, and, therefore, one is the substitute for a relative. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find a relatize instead of one; in later times he and man were substituted for it.
    "He com himself alast ase the thet was of alle men veirest."-Aucren Rizule, p. $3^{88}$.

    Ase the thet $=$ as he that $=$ as one that.
    "The sunne nis boten a schadewe ase theo thet loseth here liht."-O.E. Horr. First Stries, p. 185.

    Ase theo thet $=$ as she that $=$ as one that.

[^64]:    "I am oon the fayreste."-Chaucer's Troylus and Cryseide, c. v. x.
    "He was oor in soothe, without excepcioun,

    - oont the best on lyve."-16. Compl. of L. Lyfe, xxiii.
    "So fair a wight as she was oon."一Gower's Confess. Am. ü. 7a
    "An other such as he was one."-16. ii. 15.
    "Lawe is one the best." $-/ 6$. iii. I 89 .
    "Suche a lemman as thou hast oon."-Morte d"A rtitur, F. 25.
    "Such a dynte he gaffe hym ore. '-Ib. p. 117 .
    "For thys is ore the mostë synne."-Robt. of Brunne, p. 6.
    In Shakespeare we find one with superlatives-
    "He is one the truest manner'd."-Cymb. i. 6.
    "One the wisest prince."-IIer. VIII. ii. 4.
    In the fifteenth century we find the partitive form in use, as-
    "One of the strengest pyl."-Lovelich's Seynt Graal, vol. i. p. ıor.
    Cp. the old use of some. Sce p. 123, § 169.

    226. Use of one before proper names. ${ }^{1}$
    " You may say one Albert, riding by This way, only inquired their health." - R. TArmor's Lingwa.
    227. For use of owe $=$ own, self, alone, see p. 123, § 169.
    228. One $=$ the same.
    "That's all one to me."-Green, p. 86.
    "' $T$ is all one
    To be a witch as to be counted one."-Decker's Witch of Edmenton.
    229. None, no (O.E. nân, non,* noon, $n a^{*}=n e+a n=n o t$ one). ${ }^{2}$

    No is formed of none by the falling away of $n$, and stands in the same relation to none as my and thy to mine and thine, and $a$ to $a n$.

    None is used substantively and absolutely, and $n o$ adjectively-
    " But I can finde none that is good and meke."
    Hawes, P. of P. p. x 36.
    " For surely there's none lives but 3 painted comfort."
    Kyv's Spanish Tragedy.
    " Thou shalt get kings, though thou be none."-Macbeth, i. 3 .
    " For overlop (omission) moht I mac non.".

[^65]:    1 This construction occurs in Robert of Gloucester: "The castel hild oxe Wy Ilam Louel," $19352 . \quad{ }^{2}$ Those marked thus (*) are later forms.
    ${ }_{3}$ But $=$ that thas not painted, \&c.

[^66]:    * "Sche was vanyssht riht as hir liste, That no weyht bot hir-self it wiste."-Gowsr, in Sfec. of E. Eng. p. 37x.

[^67]:    ${ }^{1}$ As an adverb no whit is found as well as naught $=$ not.
    "I am no whit sorry."-Dods:ey's Old Plays, ii. 84 .
    " Ector ne liked no wight The wordis that he herd there."-Morte d'Arthur.
    ${ }^{2}$ Those marked thus (*) are later forms.
    3 Miton (A reopagit., p. 28, ed. Arber) writes anough, adv.

[^68]:    ${ }^{1}$ Another is used in the Omulum.
    2 In the oldest English we find a comparative elra.

[^69]:    ${ }^{1}$ This $s$ was originally a part of the root as, to be.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sonetimes called imperfect.

[^70]:    ${ }^{1}$ The passive participle in $-n$ is only an adjective like wooden. Cp. Lat. plenus original form $=(1) n a$, whence (2) $a n=(3) c n$.

[^71]:    :'T lent my steps, fled.
    ${ }^{2}$ The change of yowel in the perfect is duc to the coalestence of the vowel of the reduplicated syllable with the root vowel.

    3 For $a i=\varepsilon$, see §47, p. 58.

[^72]:    $\pm$ Forms marked * are obsolete, and weak forms have taken their places, as slept, herved. wept, lenpt. rozved. Some of these weak forms came in earlyslepte, dredde = dreaded, as in the Ormulum.
    ${ }^{2}$ Let in twelfth century has a weak form, let-te, latte.

[^73]:    This is seen by the Sansk, root bandh compared with perfect brbondhe.
    ${ }^{2}$ Forms marked thus (*) are obsolete.

[^74]:    "I waked : herewith to the house-top I clamb."-Surrev, Am.II.
    "Who willingly had yielden prisoner."-1b.
    "The yolden ghost his mercy doth require."-Surrev's Ecclesiastes.
    "Many founden it (greyn) and throsshen it." - Pilgrimage, p. 43-
    "Which hath durg me down to the infernal bottom of desolation."-Nish's Lenten Stuff.

[^75]:    1 Holp is a preterite in Shakespeare. See King Yohn, i. 1: Rich. IJ. v. s.
    ${ }^{2}$ Holpen: "He hath holper his people Israel "-Eng. Bible; "he halp his brother "-Cafgeave, p. 30 ; holp for holpen is found in Shakespeare, Tempest, i. 2.

    3 Sonne grammarians have ascribed these past tenses to the pret. pl.; but this is hardly probable, for we do not find these forms in use in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, i.e. swrm for $5 \pi 2 m$ in past sing.; what we do meet with is a change of $a$ into 0 , as sreorm, begon, song (soong). Ben Jonson has to fing, past. flans, Лong, p.p. Along, \&c.

[^76]:    ₹ The pret. pl. has a long vowel, as stâlon, cwämon, båron, \&c.
    ${ }^{2}$ Measure for Measure, v. x.
    3 Walter Scott, Kenilworth,
    4 Milton.

[^77]:    Ongite $=$ perceive, understand.
    2 Spenser has a strong p.p. womker (Shep. Cal.).
    3 Cp. O. E. beode, beid, boder, to bid, order.

[^78]:    : Shakespeare, King Fohn, i. 1.
    3 English Bible.
    6 Shakespeare, K. Kichard 11.11 .2.
    5 Miton, Par. Lost, ix. 839. ${ }^{6}$ Eng. Bible and Shakespeare, now archaic.
    7 Scotch has leught laughed (past). ${ }^{8}$ Spenser has woxe, past, woxcr, i. po
    9 Baken $=$ baked, p.p. in Leviticus ii. 4." My spirit is waxen weak and feelle."-Ps. lxxvii. Covbrdale.

[^79]:    I Orm. has strike, strac, as in modern English; in the oldest English strice $=$ I go.
    ${ }_{2}$ Chode occurs in the Bible (Gen. xxxi. 36 , Numbers $x x .3$ ). Chide, p.p. in Shakespeare.

[^80]:    - Cp. Scotch crap (Gentle Shepherd, v. i).

    2 "S"islton for love, Surrey for lord thou chase."-P. 92 (Bell's edition).

[^81]:    " "With gastly lookes as one in manner lorne."-Sackyille, Inductiont, st. 72.
    Forlore (CP. frore): "Thou hadst not spent thy travail thus, nor all thy pain furlore."-Surrey (ed. Bell), p. 80.
    ${ }^{2}$ Betid and spat are only apparently weak; in O. E. we find be-tid-de, spatic.

[^82]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Cp}$. Gr. pass: first aorist evó $\phi-\theta-\eta v_{\text {, }}$ where the tense suffix is the $\theta_{\eta}$ (=O. E. de) of $\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Represents a more original nasi-deda.
    3 This e or 0 is represented in Sanskrit by the suffix -aya, which appears in Gothic hab-ai-da=O.E. haf-de = ha-d.
    4 This termination is evidently an old demonstrative, like en ( $=\mu a$ ) of strong verbs; hence the passive participle denotes possession, having properties of, as shoulder'd, having shoulders.

[^83]:    I We meet with this change in the fourteenth century. In the earlier periods wo find bulte $=$ built, in which the $d$ has dropt or become assimilated to the root.

    2 These forms have different meanings, as "He was bent upon mischief," "'u bended knees."

[^84]:    I The change of vowels in these verbs is explained by the fact that they have all lost a suftix $i(=j a=a y a)$, which influenced the original sounds $a$ ard $o$ of the stems; and in the perfects and p. participles we have a return to the original $a$ or o sound : thus O.E. sellan, to sell, represents a primitive selian Goth. saljan: loss of $i$ causes the doubling of the consonant in scllan.
    2. Inte his arms a hic he raught."-SUREEV.
    $3 \mathrm{Cleth}^{-d^{-}}=$cledde $=$cladde $=$clad .

[^85]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Cp}$. German denken $=$ to think ; dinken $=$ to seem.

[^86]:    1 The O.E. $e=a+i$.
    z This -des may Le for died-t'; in the Teutonic langtages when a dental is added to another dental the first becomes $s$, as wit-te $=$ wist, mot-te $=$ moste $=$ must.

[^87]:    I It is omitted in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.
    2 "In former times, till about the reign of Henry the Eighth, they (the persons of the plural) were wont to be formed by adding -en, but now, whatsoever the cause, it hath quite grown out of use."-Ben Jonson.
    3 In am-ana-m the $m$ is merely a neuter suffix.

[^88]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cp. for to ; the for is, of course, pleonastic, but, no doubt, was used to distinguish it from the simple infin. with to before it.
    ${ }^{2}$ The $r$ is always doubled before the addition of thise in the oldest English. In later times enne, -anne became eene, then -en or - e.

    We have traces of -ene as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.
    3 So in the oldest English occasionally.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cp. "And the dragoun stood before the womman that was to beringe chiild. . . And she childede a sone male, that was to reulinge alle folkes."-Wiculifre.

[^89]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $-n d$ is the real participial suffix, and $e$ is the connecting vowel.
    In O.E. of the thirtenth and fourteenth centuries -inde is found only in the South, and -end in the Midland, and -and in the Northumbrian dialects (and in dialects infuenced by the Northumbrian). In the oldest periods of the language ende is W. Saxon, -and Northumbrian.

[^90]:    ${ }^{1}$ Those marked thus (") are later forms.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cp. Sansk. Present Indic. (1) as-mi, (2) a-si, (3) as- $1 i$, PL. ( 1 ) smas, (2) stha, (3) santi.

    Pres. Subj. s-yâ-m, syas, syat; syâ-mas, s-yata, s-yâ-nt.
    The root be exists in Lat. fu-i; Sansk, bhav-ami, I be, first person of root $b h z$.

[^91]:    x Ar-on is not found in the old English West-Saxon dialect.
    ${ }^{2}$ It occurs in Wickliffe (Mark xiv. 67 ).
    3 " Lirel thou were tempted, or litel thou were stired."-PiLgrimagr, p- 33.
    4 The O. Norse $=$ var- $\%$.

[^92]:    I Forms in parentheses are later ones.

[^93]:    "And Venus in her message Harmes sped To blody Mars to will him not to rise."-Sackville, Inducition.
    "For what wot I the after weal that fortune zuills to me." Surrey, faithful Loter
    " Which mass he zuilled to be reared high." -16 ., Eneid.

[^94]:    z Those marked thus (*) are later forms.

[^95]:    ${ }^{1}$ Quoted by Marsh.
    2 Ibid.

[^96]:    : The was originally instrumental $=$ O.E. thy.

[^97]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cp. "Innes $a$ Court men" (Earle's Cosmog. ed. Arber, p. 41).
    2 The $a=a r$ has the same meaning as on: but an was used before consonants, $a$ before vowels. Cp. anon, arende.

    It occurs as an independent word, as-
    "Thin holy blod thet thou ssedest ane the rod."-Ayenbite, p. 1.
    "The robe of scarlet erthan thet the kuen his do $a r_{0}$ " -16 . p. 167.
    3 In Earle's Cosmog. (ed. Arber) we find at the length, at bedsides (p. 24), in sum:me (p. 33).

[^98]:    ${ }^{2}$ Probably the old dative ending.
    *Sometimes in O.E. we find -en for $-u m$, as whilen, selden.
    s The genitive form is sometimes met with, "by littles and littles."
    4 The $t$ in such words as amidst, amongst, is merely euphonic; cp. O.E. zlougst ( $=$ along), orest ( $=$ once).
    5 In few also occurs in Elizabethan literature ; cp. in brief, \&c.

[^99]:    ${ }^{1}$ The -qua in trvi-zva, \&c, = war (O. N. -var, Sansk. vara), originally signified time: we have cognate suffix in Septem-ber, \&c.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{C}$. . O. E. for then ares or for than anes, where the $n$ originally belonged to the demonstrative ; cp the oldest English for tham anum.
    3 Later forms are buver, ouenan, bibufen.

[^100]:    It is of the same origin as the comparative suffix from tar, to go beyond.
    $\therefore 2 \mathrm{Cp}$. Latin tu-mn, tuw-r, ta-nn, tandens, ta-men, tantus, tot, \& c ., all containing the demonstrative stem $t a$, cognate with English the.

[^101]:    II (O.E. gif, yif) is by some philologists connected with Goth. iba, ibaiz perhaps, lest; which is probably the dative case of iba $=$ doubt: cp . Icel. of doubt, if.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cp. O. E. nutha, nowtle $=$ now then.

[^102]:    ${ }^{3}$ Max Müller says not a thread. In O.E. we find the word nifel $=$ trifie, nothing.
    "This is the origin of the slang expression "I don't care a carse."

[^103]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sith is an adjective $=$ O.E. sith, late ; siththan $=$ later than, afterwaris. The root is sinth; cp. Goth. sinth, a way.
    ${ }^{2}$ Many of these have arisen out of the old dative (absolute) constriction.

[^104]:    ${ }^{1}$ We occasionally find, as in Scotch, or and nor instead of than.
    20 . E. theâh, Goth. thau-h, from the demonstrative stem the.
    3 Or and nor are contractions of other, nother $=$ either, weither.

[^105]:    ${ }^{1}$ The O.E. sij-pan $=s t \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{pam}$, after that.
    ${ }^{2}$ Not only $\ldots$ but also $=$ O. E. na las thet ar $\ldots$ ac eac; rushless $=$ O. $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{o}}$ $u s t h \hat{y}$ las; lest $=\mathrm{O}$. E. les the for thy las the.

[^106]:    ${ }^{1}$ "Voces quæ cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclamationem inter-jiciuntur."-Priscian, Inst. Gram. 1. 15, c. 7.
    ${ }^{2}$ Selden uses prh as adj. : "It (child) all bedawbs it (coat) with its pak hands." -Table Talk.

    Shakespeare has it as an interj. : "Fie, fie, fie ! pah! pah! Give me an ounce of civel, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."-Lear, iv. 6.

[^107]:    In gad, egad, od, the name of the Deity is profanely used. In the Middle Ages people swore by parts of Christ's body, by His sides, face, feet, bones; hair (cp. sfacks, God's hair), blood, wounds (zounds, 'od's nouns = God's wounds), life : also by the Virgin Mary (by the mackins $=$ by the maiden), by the mass: also, by the pity and mercy of God, as "by Goddes ore; " "Odd"s pittikens;" by God's sanctities (God's sonties).
    ${ }^{2}$ Fingo, jinkers $=$ St. Gingoulph.
    3 Used to imitate the sound of a horse's neigh, as $\mathcal{F} 0$ x xxix. 25. Luther uses leus.

[^108]:    I In English a radical $n$ often disappears before $d$, th, as tooth, O.E. tath, i.e. tonth; cp. O.H. Ger. tand, Ger. zahn, Lat dens.

[^109]:    ${ }^{2} S=$ sign of nominative.
    ${ }^{2}$ Eng. bond or band corresponds to Gothic bandi. Cp. Lat. nouns in -ia, ns $i x$-ed-ia, hunger, from root ed, eat ; Gr. noun in $u$, as $\pi \in v \in i a$, poverty, from $\pi \in v i \omega$ : Sansk, vid-ya, knowledge.
    ${ }^{3}$ In many others it is lost, even in the oldest English, 60 th, tooth; Goth. turthus, \& c .

[^110]:    I This $g$ represents an Aryan $k a$, which is represented by - $h a$, ega, in Gothic, as steina-ha, stony; mahter-ga, mighty. In Latin and Greek it appears in
    
    ${ }^{2}$ Originally ka. It is of pronominal origin; with a connecting vowel it would sasume also the forms of aka, ika, uka, \&c.
    It must be recollected that $n g$ is the corresponding nasal to $k, g$, \&c. Hence, we find the original forms ika, uka, becoming ing , ung. Ka could be weakened to $k i$, and this with an additional $u$ would produce kin; with a preceding $l$ we get ling; ; with s, we have askia weakencd to isk or is/l.

[^111]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cp. Sansk.jan-aka, a father, producer; from jan, to produce. Sansk. putraka, a little son; from putra, a son.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the province of Mecklenburg we find -ing so used. Fehanning $=$ Johnny; kindting, laddy: But ie may be a softening of $-i c k=$ ock.
    ${ }^{3}$-Ing in O.E. (fourteenth century) represented ( I ) $-u n g$, (2) ende, -inde, (3) -enne; it now represents ( x )-ung, (2) -ende, inde.

    4 These two suffixes represent an Aryan ar $(a l)$. They are not, as is usually affirmed in English Grammars, diminutive suffixes, but denote the agent, instrument, \&c. Cp. Lat. sel-la ( $=$ sed-la), seat ; agilis, active. Gr. $\beta_{\eta-\lambda}-$-s, threshold. $\kappa \propto \mu \pi-\dot{v} \lambda o-s$, bent. Lat. ca-ru-s, dear. Gr. vek-pós, corpse.

[^112]:    ${ }^{1}$ Originally man. Cp. O.E. na-ma; Lat. no-men; Sansk. nd-man; Gr. ${ }^{2}$ vor$\mu$ ' (opinion).
    We find this suffix in the participles of the present, perfect, and future tenses
     Gr. $\delta \omega-\sigma \dot{\circ}-\mu \epsilon \mathrm{vos}$.
    ${ }_{2} m$ for $m a$ (or $m i$ ), as dim, O.H.Ger. tou-m, smoke, Lat. fu-mus, Sansk. dhut-ma; halm, Lat. cala-mu-s, Sansk. kala-ma-s.
    3 Originally na. We find this suffix in Sanskrit passive participles, as bhug-ra-s, bent; bhag-na-s, broken ; in Gr. nouns of participial origin, as тik:vo-y, child, $=$ brought forth ; in Lat. adj., as ple-nu-s, full (i.e. filled).
    It is no doubt of demonstrative origin $=t$ his, that, here; hence, like the ed of the passive participles of weak verbs, it denotes possession.

[^113]:    ${ }^{2}$ The original meaning is of or pertaining to the fox; the feminine suffix (e) is lost. See remarks on vixixen under Gender.
    ${ }^{2}$ Originally a participial suffix, cp. O.E. berende; Goth. baira-nd-s; Lat. ferens; Gr. 甲е́рои (фipoutos).

    3 From root as, to be quick.
    4 From fian, to hate.
    5 From freon, to love.
    6 We find yourgth in the sixtecenth-century writers, as if it were formed from young.

    7 From a root va, to blow.
    ${ }^{8}$ I. In the allied languages we find a suffix -as (us, is) in abstract substantives.
     O. E. eqe-sa, fear, awe; Goth. agis; 0.S. egiso, fright.
    II. This suffix in the Teutonic dialects is added ( $a$ ) to $a l$, el, whence-sal (sel), and by metathesis ells, as O. E. redels; Ger. räthsel; (b) to the suffix tu (or ta), whence ( 1 ) -assu (Gothic), and (2) by addition of $n$, nassu; O.E. miss, ness; O.H.Ger. nessi, nissi, niss, nass; (3) est, (4) by addition of $r$, ester (estre).

[^114]:    I Th is a pronominal stem, as in the, that. Under the form $t a(t u c)$ this suffix appears in Sanskrit and Latin p. participles, as sansk. jna-ta-s $=$ Lat. ro-tu-s. It occurs in Gr . adjectives that have a passive meaning, as $\pi 0-\frac{\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{c}}$, drink, $\varphi \cdot \lambda-\eta-$ Ti-s, beloved. In English p. participles it appears as $d$, in $\sigma_{0} v^{-d}$, or $t$, as in brought. In uncou-th we have the original form of the suffix.

[^115]:    ${ }^{2}$ In Sansk. Gr. and Lat. -tar, -ter, is the suffix employed to form nomina agentij: cp. Sansk. patar; ratip; Lat, pater; O. E. fader, father, \&c. from the root $\not p a, f a$, to feed.
    ${ }^{2} \operatorname{Eis}(=y-a s)$ in Gothic $(-a,-e$, in O.E.) denotes the agent. Haird-ei $=$ O.E. herde; Ger. hirte. Cp. O.E. hunta, hunt-er; webba, weaver.

[^116]:    I Dom (or doo-m) is formed from the verb do, just as téuis from titnmu.

[^117]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cp. faran, to gofare, and fer-ian, carry, forry.

[^118]:    ${ }^{1}$ This $s$ was used to form substantives from adjectives, as bliss irom blithe, and properly belongs to the nominal stem.
    ${ }^{2}$ This $l$ seems to have come into use through verbs from nouns in $-l$, as whistle, suddle, \&c.
    , This vowel belongs to the nominal stem, as Coth. kandu-s, hand, rurti $=$ raartis $=$ wort (herb).

[^119]:    ${ }^{1} a=0=o f$. We sometimes find man-a-war, two-a-clock, \&c.: cp. "He is exceedingly censur'd by the Innes-a-Court men."-Earle's Micro-Cosmographit, p. ${ }^{17}$.

    2 Just as the suffix een denotes possession in golder, \&r.., so does eed in such words as booted, shouldered, forms to which Spenser and ehher Elizabethan writers are very partial.

[^120]:    : $a b y=$ abuy $=$ pay for, atone for ; corrupted into abide by Milton.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is the usual view taken of the origin of alike, but it would be more correct to regard it as another form of O.E. os-lic, an-lich = alike.

[^121]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cp. Lat. per-jurare $=$ to swear out and out, and hence, to swear falsely; per-eo $=$ perish $=$ O. E. for-fare $=$ to go through to the death.

    - Cp. O. E. for-dry, very dry; for-zuel, very well.

[^122]:    " In O.E. mys = wrong :-
    "Als Innocentes that never dyd mys."
    It is sometimes used for less, as-
    Hampele, P. of C., L. 328 g.
    "Sixtene more ne mis."-Lonelich, San Graal, p. g2.

[^123]:    I In the Durham Gospels we find unbinda, undoa; La3amen has wnöinden vidon; Orm. has zunn sperren, unbar, open.

[^124]:    ${ }^{1}$ Through is connected with a root thar, cognate with Sansk. tar (tri), to go beyond : cp. Lat. tra-rs.

[^125]:    1 Cognate with Sansk. -tavya, the suffix of the future passive participle.
    = Osus is cognate with Sansk. vins, the suffix of the perfect participle active ; -us leris), -us (-oris), ur (-oris), -ur (-uris), or (-oris), are other forms of the same suffix.

[^126]:    ${ }^{1}$ Marsti is not of Fr. origin, being another form of O. E. mer-sc.
     from a more original form, Baci入ıj-ya.

[^127]:    1 It is connected with suffix $r$. See p. 214 .
    2 The suffix -acle sometimes marks instrument, place, as oracle, receptacle, \&c.; sometimes it seems dim., as corpuscule.

[^128]:    ${ }^{x}$ The suffix -umnus is cognate with the Sansk. participial suffix -mana; -monis is the same suffix in combination with $-i a$; with the suffix $-t u-m$ it become:a -mentzo-m.

[^129]:    ${ }^{2}$ Connected with Sanskrit participial -ta, English -ed. See p. 2 I7.

[^130]:    I "Emigraneus, vermis capitis, Angl. the mygryne, or the head-worm 'Ortus in Promp. Parv.). Pains in the head (and capricious fancies) were supposed to arise from the biting of a worm."-WEDGwood.

[^131]:    I The $d$ in $a d$ is assimilated to the initial letters of the words to which it is nrefixed, and becomes ac, af, ag, al, ap, ar, as, at.

[^132]:    I The O.E. bonchef is the opposite of mischief.

[^133]:    I These have no cognates in the other Teutonic dialects. 2 Used by Spenser.

[^134]:    1 Bishop Pilkington.

[^135]:    "The French or Frankish :anguage is now a Romanic dialect, and its grammar is but a blurred copy of the grammar of Cicero. But its dictionary is full of Teutonic words, more or less Romanized to suit the pronunciation of the Roman inhabitants of Gaul. "-Max Múller.
    d-ghast (O.E.agaste), Goth. us-gaisjan, to make aghast, O.Fr. agacer. ambassador, Goth. and-bahts, O.E. ambeht, O.H.Ger. ampaht, Lat. ambactus, a servant, O. Fr. ambassadeur.
    arquebuss, Ger. hakenbïchse, Dutch haak-bus, O.Fr. harquebuse, Fr. arquebuse.
    attack, O.N. taka, O.E. tacan, take, O. Fr. taicher, techer, Fr. tacher, attacher, attaquer.
    attire, - O.E. tir, O.H.Ger. ziari, Ger. zier, O. Fr. tire.
    baldric, O.H.Ger. balderich, girdle, belt, O.F. baldre, baldret, baudre.
    balcony, O.H.Ger. palcho, O.N. balkr, M.Lat. balco, Fr. balcon, Eng. balk.
    O.H.Ger. para, Sp. barras, Eng. bar.

    Mid.H.Ger. berc-vrit, ber-vrit, M. Lat. berfredus, belfredus, O. Fr. berfroit, belefroi, a watchtower.
    bivouac, bush (busk),
    O.H.Ger. bitwacha, O.Fr. bivouac, biouac.
    O.N. buskr, O.H.Ger. busc, O.Fr. bois.

    Fr. bouter, O.H.Ger. bozen.
    O.N. brandr, O.E. brand, sword, O.Fr. brant.
    O.E. brysan, O.Fr. brisier, bruisier.
    O.H.Ger. querca, O.N. kverk, neck, O.Fr. charchant, Fr. carcan.
    O.H.Ger. kamarling, O. Fr. chambrelenc, cham. brelain.
    O.H.Ger. campio, O.E. cempa, O.Fr. campion, champion.
    choice,
    cry, descry, O.H.Ger. scrian, Ger. schrien, O. Fr. escrier, crier.
    dance, Ger. tanz, O.N. dans, O.Fr. danse, dance.
    defile, O.E. fÿlan, O.Fr. defoler.

[^136]:    I Fr. words with initial gu, and Italian words commencing with gua, gue, gui; are almost invariably of Teutonic origin.

    2 Kelish is from the same source.

[^137]:    8 These are arranged according to their original stem-endings, in $\alpha_{3},-i_{0}-u$; dag (orig. stem, das $a$ ), gast (orig. stem, gasti), sunu, \& $\mathrm{c}_{\text {. }}$

[^138]:    ${ }^{2}$ This suffix is unknown in the Northern dialect.
    ${ }^{2}$ Oxis occurs in Wickliffe, Luc. xvii. 7.
    2 Peses occurs in Piers Plowman.
    4 Calues, egges, and lamḃes are also met with.

[^139]:    I Sce occurs in Saxon Chronicle (Stephen) ; sco, scho is a Northern form ; sch
    2. Midland variety of it ; and ho is West Midland.

    - Mostly used adjectively.
    3.Hie and he are East Midland forms; hue, Southern (used by Trevisal
    \& Rare.

[^140]:    I See Kentish Sermors, in O. E. Miscellany (ed. Morris). $\quad 2$ herte is fem.

[^141]:    I Northern forms.
    2 We find sommtimes thisue acc. sing. in snme Southern writers.
    3 Trevisa, ${ }^{3} 357$, has nom. masc. Jes, fem. peos (pues), pl. peos. 户ues.

[^142]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the U.N. pl. their (masc.), that (fem.), thau (neut.) ; $r=s$ (sign of plural).

[^143]:    ${ }^{2}$ In the Ayenbite, enne acc. of one, ane acc. masc. and fem. of ant, $a$; so onis $=$ anum, dat. sing. $=$ to one (used subst.) : see Ayenbite, p. 175.

[^144]:    "Lamech nam twa wif, ờer wer genemned Ada and ō̈er Sella." - Gerr. iv, rg.
    " Süblice ö̈er is se Fæder, ờer is se sunu." - Nit.fric, De Fíde Catholica.

[^145]:    ${ }^{1}$ This form is looked upon as a shortened form of mer.
    2 You is used as an indefinite promoun, cp. " as you may say."

[^146]:    "He rolleth under foot as doth a balle.
    He foyneth on his feet with a tronchoun, And he him hurtleth with his hors adoun, He thurgh the body is hurt, and siththen take, Maugre his heed, and brought unto the stake: Another lad is on that other side."

[^147]:    ${ }^{1}$ in Lajamon. 2 In Laßamon and Urmuitens. 3 In Ormutum.

[^148]:    ${ }^{1} n$ often dropped in Southern dialects. The Northern dialects prefer $u$ in the pl. and p.p.

[^149]:    x The $e$ is causca ly the lost counecting rowel $i(0+i=e)$.

[^150]:    I Or we may consider that the $d$ of $-l d,-n d, \& c$. is dropped.
    2 In verbs of this class La3amon often replaces $d$ by $t$, as, wenden, wente, iwert.

[^151]:    I Upon（prep．）$=u p($ adv．$)+$ on（prep．），not O．E．uppan，uppen，uspe．

[^152]:    ${ }^{3}$ The O.E. bute $=$ without, except.
    2 In the Second period with often signifies from, by, and has also the sense of our with. In the Third and Fourth periods it takes altogether the place of the older mid. In the First period wiot = with, opposite, against, from, beside, along, \&c.

[^153]:    ${ }^{3}$ See Adyerbs．

[^154]:    I Denotes mocking laughter.
    ${ }^{2}$ Seinte Marie! occurs as interjection in the Second period.

