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# SERIES D.

# MISCELLANEOUS.

A

# HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS

FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD,

INCLUDING AN

INVESTIGATION OF THE GENERAL LAWS OF SOUND CHANGE, AND FULL WORD LISTS.

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42134

(From the Transactions of the Philological Society for 1873-4.)

## LONDON:

PUBLISHED FOR THE ENGLISH DIALECT SOCIETY BY TRÜBNER & CO., 57 and 59, LUDGATE HILL.

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- II. Specimens of English Dialects.

Devonshire- An Exmoor Scolding and Courtship ed. by F. F. Elworthy.

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#### PREFACE.

ADDRESSED TO MEMBERS OF THE ENGLISH DIALECT SOCIETY.

The History of English Sounds, by Mr. Henry Sweet, was originally written for the London Philological Society, in further illustration of the great work on Early English Pronunciation by Mr. Alexander J. Ellis. Upon application to the Council of the Philological Society, and to the author, permission was at once obtained for making arrangements whereby additional copies of the work should be struck off for the use of members of the English Dialect Society. The importance of it to all who study English sounds, especially such sounds as are frequently well preserved in some of our provincial dialects, will soon become apparent to the careful reader. But as there may be some amongst our members who may not be aware of what has been lately achieved in the study of phonetics, a few words of introduction may not be out of place here.

I have more than once received letters from correspondents who boldly assert that, of some of our dialectal sounds, no representation is possible, and that it is useless to attempt it. Against such a sweeping denunciation of the study of phonetics it would be vain to argue. It may be sufficient merely to remark that precisely the same argument of "impossibility" was used, not so many years ago, against the introduction of the use of steam locomotives upon railways. The opinions of such as are unable to imagine how things which

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they cannot do themselves may, nevertheless, be achieved by others, will not be much regarded by such as desire progress and improvement.

It may, however, be conceded that no system of symbols existed which was of sufficient scientific accuracy until the publication of Mr. Melville Bell's singular and wonderful volume entitled—"Visible Speech: the Science of Universal Alphabetics: or Self-Interpreting Physiological Letters for the Printing and Writing of all Languages in one Alphabet; elucidated by Theoretical Explanations, Tables, Diagrams, and Examples." Now in this system none of the usual alphabetical characters appear at all, nor is the alphabet founded upon any one language. It is a wholly new collection of symbols, adapted for all or most of the sounds which the human voice is capable of producing, and is founded upon the most strictly scientific principles, each symbol being so chosen as to define the disposition of the organs used in producing the sound which the symbol is intended to represent. How this wonderful result has been achieved, the reader may easily discover for himself, either by consulting that work, or another by the same author which every one interested in the study of phonetics is earnestly recommended to procure, at the cost of only one shilling. The title of this latter work, consisting of only sixteen pages in quarto, is:-English Visible Speech for the Million, etc.; by Alex. Melville Bell. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.; London and New York: Trübner & Co. A fair and candid examination of this pamphlet will shew the reader, better than any detailed description can do, how the study of sounds has been rendered possible. Every work on phonetics will, no doubt, always be based upon, or have reference to, Mr. Bell's system, and therefore it is the more important that, at the very least, the existence of it should be widely known.

The work of Mr. Ellis is entitled:—On Early English Pronunciation, with especial reference to Shakspere and Chaucer, by Alexander J. Ellis, F.R.S. The first two parts were published in 1869 by three societies in combination, viz. the Philological Society, the Early English Text Society, and the Chaucer Society; and the third part, by the same societies, in 1870. The work is not yet completed, and the fourth part, not yet published, will contain a full account of our modern English provincial dialects, shewing their distribution and connections. Mr. Ellis employs a system of symbols called palæotype, but, as every one of these has its exact equivalent in Mr. Bell's system, it admits of the same degree of accuracy, and has the advantage of being wholly represented by ordinary printing-types.

The next system is that invented by Mr. Ellis for the special representation of English dialectal sounds, and denominated Glossic.¹ By the kindness of the author, a copy of the tract upon Glossic is in the hands of every member of our Society. The attention of readers is directed to page 11 of that tract, where the thirty-six vowels of Mr. Bell's Visible Speech have their equivalent values in Glossic properly tabulated.

In Mr. Sweet's volume, now in the reader's hands, the corresponding table of vowel-sounds is given at page 5, and one principal object of this short Preface is to show how Mr. Sweet's symbols and the 'Glossic' symbols agree together, and how, again, each table agrees with that of Mr. Bell.

I shall refer, then, to the three tables as given at p. 5 of Mr. Sweet's book, at p. 11 of the Glossic tract, and at p. 8 of Visible Speech for the Million. See also p. 14 of Mr. Ellis's Early English Pronunciation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The system called *Glossotype*, illustrated at p. 16 of Mr. Ellis's Early English Pronunciation, may be considered as now *cancelled*, and superseded by *Glossic*.

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21. [AU].

24. [au'].

Mr. Ellis and Mr. Sweet agree with Mr. Bell in their use of the terms High, Mid, and Low; in their use of the terms Back, Mixed, and Front; and in their use of the terms Wide and Wide-round. The only difference is that Mr. Sweet uses the term Narrow instead of Primary (see page 4, note 1), and also uses the more exact term Narrow-round in place of what Mr. Ellis calls Round simply. As Mr. Sweet has numbered his sounds, it is easy to tabulate the correspondence of the systems in the following manner. I denote here Mr. Sweet's sounds by the number only, and include the Glossic symbol within square brackets, in the usual manner.

```
1. [uu'].
             4. [ea].
                          7. [EE].
                                         10. [U'].
                                                       13. [I'].
                                                                    16. [1].
2. [UU].
             5. [U].
                          8. [AI].
                                          11. [AA].
                                                       14. [A'].
                                                                    17. [E].
3. [ua].
             6. [ua'].
                           9. [AE].
                                         12. [AH].
                                                       15. [E'].
                                                                    18. [A].
19. [00].
            22. [ui'].
                         25. [ui].
                                         28. [vo].
                                                       31. [uo'].
                                                                    34. [UE].
20. [OA].
            23. [oa'].
                         26, [EO].
                                         29. [AO].
                                                      32. [ao'].
                                                                    35. [OE].
```

30. [o].

33. [o'].

36. [oe'].

27. [eo'].

Now it should be clearly understood that these two systems are both perfectly exact, because both refer to the same positions of the organs of voice; but, as soon as these sounds come to be described by illustrative examples, a few slight apparent discrepancies arise, solely from a difference of individual pronunciation, even in the case of common 'keywords.' I believe I am correct in saying that even Mr. Bell's 'key-words' do not represent to everybody the exact sounds intended, but are better understood by a North-country man than by a resident in London. Mr. Ellis describes this difficulty in the following words: "At the latter end of his treatise Mr. Melville Bell has given in to the practice of keywords, and assigned them to his symbols. Let the reader be careful not to take the value of his symbol from his own pronunciation of the key-words, or from any other person's. Let him first determine the value of the symbol from the

exact description and diagram of the speech-organs,—or if possible also from the living voice of some one thoroughly acquainted with the system—and then determine Mr. Bell's own pronunciation of the key-word from the known value of the symbol. This pronunciation in many instances differs from that which I am accustomed to give it, especially in foreign words."

In order to steer clear of such minor difficulties, Mr. Sweet has adopted a very simple system of notation, which only aims at representing the broader distinctions between vowels, using, for example, the same symbol [a] for the mid-back-wide and the low-back-wide sounds (nos. 11 and 12), without further distinction, and defining it only as the sound a, as most commonly heard in the word father. Roughly speaking, then, the symbols which Mr. Sweet employs in his vowel-table may be thus represented in Glossic.

a, as the short vowel corresponding to the first vowel in father; compare Glossic [aa], as in [faa dhur].

æ, as a in man; Glossic [a], as in [man].

è, as e in tell; Glossic [e or ae], as in [tel]; provincial [tael].

é, as ai in bait; Glossic [ai], as in [bait].

ə, as u in but; Glossic [u], as in [but].

i, as in bit; Glossic [i], as in [bit].

ò, as in not; òò, as in naught; Glossic [o] in [not]; [au] in [naut].

ó, as oa in boat; Glossic [oa], as in [boat].

oe, as ö in Germ. schön; Glossic [oe], as in Germ. [shoen].

u, as oo in foot; uu as oo in cool; Glossic [uo, oo], as in [fuot, kool].

y, as  $\ddot{u}$  in Germ.  $\ddot{u}$ bel; Glossic [ue], as in Germ. [uebu'l]. ai, a diphthong of a and i, as y in my; Glossic [ei], as in [mei].

au, a diphthong of a and u, as ou in house; Glossic [ou], as in [hous].

éi, a diphthong of é and i, as a in tale; Glossic [aiy], as in [taiyl].

óu, as o in no, i.e. ó with an aftersound of u; Glossic [oaw], as in [noaw].

oi, as oy in boy; Glossic [oi], as in [boi].

It may be added, that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is used to represent the sound of th in thin, Glossic [thin]; and  $\mathfrak{I}$  to represent the th in this, Glossic [dhis].

According, then, to Mr. Sweet's notation, the word father is written faxSər; man, mæn; tell, tèl; bait, bét, or (more commonly) béit, in Southern English, béét in Scotch; but, bət; bit, bit; not, nòt; boat, bót, or (more commonly) bóut, in Southern English, bóót in Scotch; Germ. schön, shoen; foot, fut; Germ. übel, ybəl; my, mai; house, haus; tale, téil; no, nóu; boy, boì.

The long vowels are expressed by doubling the symbol employed for the shorter vowels. The following are examples, viz. father, faa8er (the short sound of which is found in the Anglo-Saxon man, in modern English changed to mæn); earn, worse, əən, wəəs; saw, faught, sòò, fòòt; whose, huuz; and the like. Examples of diphthongs are seen in eight, éit; lord, hoarse, lòəd, hòəs; smear, smiər; bear, béər; etc.

The easiest way of becoming familiar with this very simple notation is to observe the long list of words beginning at p. 84. By comparing the *third* column, which gives the modern English *spelling*, with the *fourth*, which gives the modern English *pronunciation* according to the above system, the sounds intended can be very easily ascertained, and the reader

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> More clearly heard when used as a negative, in response to a question, than when used as in the phrase 'no man.' Example: Do you like that? Answer—nou.

will be prepared to understand what is meant by the first and second columns, which exhibit the pronunciations of the Old and Middle period respectively. The thanks of students are especially due to Mr. Sweet for these word-lists, with the alphabetical register of them appended. They can only have been compiled at the cost of much labour and diligence, and shew an intimate acquaintance with the spellings and pronunciations of all periods of English.

W. W. S.

# ERRATA AND ADDITIONS.

Page 6, line 12, for wulf, read wolf.

,, 16 ,, 2 from bottom, dele important.

',, 52, "Diphthongs," see also p. 148.

,, 69, "Consonant Influence," see also p. 151.

,, 74, "Consonant Influence" (Latest Mod.). Note also the tendency to lower uu before r, as shown in the almost universal  $y \partial \delta(r)$  for yuur (possessive of yuu). In the vulgar pronunciation this is carried out in all words, so that the combination uur is entirely lost. Thus we have  $p \partial \partial \sigma$  for puur,  $sh \partial \sigma \sigma$  for shuur, etc.

Word Lists: dele bycce (No. 797).

for cleev, read clèèv (1327).

quean (1741) seems to come from ewéne with a short vowel = Gothic  $kwin\bar{o}$ .

# HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS.

By HENRY SWEET, Esq.

#### INTRODUCTION.

In studying the phonetic development of a language two methods are open to us, the historical and the comparative; that is to say, we may either trace the sounds of one and the same language through its successive stages, or else compare the divergent forms in a group of languages which have a common origin.

Each method has its advantages. In the historical method the sequence of the phenomena is self-evident; when we compare two forms of the same sound in several co-existing languages, it is often doubtful which is the older. The peculiar advantage of the comparative method is that it can be applied to living languages, where nothing but careful observation of facts is required, while in the case of dead languages the phonetic material is often defective, and is always preserved in an imperfect form by means of graphic symbols, whose correct interpretation is an indispensable preliminary to further investigation. In short, we may say that the comparative method is based, or may be based, on facts, the historical on theoretical deductions.

It need hardly be said that the first requisite for phonetic investigation of any kind is a knowledge of sounds. Yet nothing is more common in philology than to see men, who have not taken the slightest trouble to make themselves acquainted with the rudiments of vocal physiology, making the boldest and most dogmatic statements about the pronunciation of dead languages—asserting, for instance, that certain sounds are unnatural, or even impossible, merely because they do not happen to occur in their own language. Such prejudices can only be got rid of by a wide and impartial training.

The second requisite is a collection of carefully recorded facts. In this respect the present state of phonology is somewhat anomalous. As far as living languages are concerned, the amount of reliable material that exists is still very small, although it is rapidly increasing, while if we turn to the dead languages we find an enormous body of careful, full, often exhaustive, observations of the varied phenomena of letter-change in the Teutonic languages-a dead mass, which requires the warm breath of living phonology to thaw it into life. Before the word-lists in such a book as Grimm's Deutsche Grammatik can be intelligently utilized, the spoken sounds they represent must be determined. The first step is to determine generally the relations between sound and symbol. The ideal of a phonetic notation is, of course, a system in which every simple sound would have a simple sign, bearing some definite relation to the sound it represents. It need hardly be said that all the modifications of the Roman alphabet in which the Teutonic languages have been written down fall far short of this standard. The Roman alphabet was originally, like all naturally developed alphabets, a purely hieroglyphic system, representing not sounds but material objects: the connection of each symbol with its sound is therefore entirely arbitrary. When we consider that this inadequate system was forced on languages of the most diverse phonetic structure, we need not be surprised at the defects of the orthography of the old Teutonic languages, but rather admire the ingenuity with which such scanty resources were eked out.

The maximum of difficulty is reached when a language changes through several generations, while its written representation remains unchanged. In such a case as that of English during the last three centuries, we are compelled to disregard the written language altogether, and have recourse to other methods.

Foremost among these is the study of the contemporary evidence afforded by treatises on pronunciation with their descriptions of the various sounds and comparisons with foreign utterance. It is on this kind of evidence that the well-known investigations of Mr. Ellis are based. The great value of Mr. Ellis's work consists in the impartial and cautious spirit in which he has carried it out, advancing step by step, and never allowing theories to overrule facts. Ellis's method forms a striking contrast to that pursued by some Early English students, who, starting from the assumption that whatever pronunciation is most agreeable to their own ears must be the right one, take for granted that Alfred, Chaucer, and Shakespere spoke exactly like 19th-century gentlemen, and then, instead of shaping their theories by the existing evidence, pick out those facts which they think confirm their views, and ignore all the rest. Mr. Ellis's investigations is to establish with certainty, within certain limits, the pronunciation of English during the last three centuries; absolute accuracy is impossible in deductions drawn from the vague statements of men who had but an imperfect knowledge of the mechanism of the sounds they uttered.

I hope, however, to show that that minute accuracy which is unattainable by the method adopted by Mr. Ellis, can be reached through a combination of the comparative with the historical method, taking the latter in its widest sense to include both the external evidence employed by Mr. Ellis, and the internal evidence of the graphic forms. This gives us three independent kinds of evidence, which, as we shall see, corroborate each other in the strongest manner.

Before going any farther it will be necessary to say a few words on the phonetic notation I have adopted. The only analysis of vowel-sounds that is of any real use for general scientific purposes is that of Mr. Bell. His system differs from all others in two important particulars, 1) in being based not on the acoustic effects of the sounds, but on their organic formation, and 2) in being of universal applicability: while most other systems give us only a limited number of sounds arbitrarily selected from a few languages, Mr. Bell's Visible Speech is entirely independent of any one language—it not only tells us what sounds do

exist in a given language, but also what sounds may exist in any language whatever. It is therefore of priceless value in all theoretical investigations like the present.

The following remarks will help to elucidate Mr. Bell's table of vowels with key-words, which I have given on the opposite page.

Every vowel is, as regards position, either back (guttural), of which aa is the type, front (palatal), typified by ii, or mixed, that is, formed by the back and front of the tongue simultaneously, as in the English err. Each vowel, again, has one of three degrees of elevation—it is either high, mid or low. Each of these nine positions may be rounded (labialized). Each of the resulting eighteen vowels must, lastly, be either narrow or wide. In forming narrow vowels the pharynx or cavity behind the mouth is compressed, while in wide vowels it is relaxed. The distinction will be clearly felt by any one who pronounces not, naught, several times in succession, drawling them out as much as possible: it will be found that in sounding not the pharynx and back of the mouth is relaxed, while in naught there is evident tension. The vowel in both words is the low-backround, but in not it is wide, in naught narrow.

In treating of the formation of the sounds, I have always described them in Mr. Bell's terminology, which is admirably simple and clear. If I could have made use of his types, I could have avoided a great deal of circumlocution, which, as it is, has proved unavoidable.

For the convenience of those who are not able to appreciate minute phonetic distinctions, I have also adopted a rough practical system of notation, in which only the broadest distinctions are indicated. In this system a, e, i, o, u, y, are employed in their original Roman values, the distinction between open and close e and o being indicated by accents. To indicate that class of sounds of which the English vowels in but and err are types, I have adopted the turned e (o). The English vowel in man is written e, and e is used

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I have ventured to substitute "narrow" for Mr. Bell's "primary," as being both shorter and more expressive.

# GENERAL VOWEL SCALE.

	NARROW.			WIDE.	
1 high-back.	4 high-mixed. Sw. upp	7 high-front. Scotch and occ. Engl. feel	10 high-back. occ. Engl. but Engl. eye	13 high-mixed.	16 high-front.  Engl. bit
2 mid-back. occ. Eng. but	5 mid-mixed. German unacc. e	8 mid-front.  Dan. steen Scotch take	11 mid-back. Engl. father	14 mid-mixed. Engl. father	17 mid-front. occ. Engl. men Dan. læse
3 low-back.	6 low-mixed. Eng. err	9 low-front. Scotch and occ. Engl. men	12 low-back. Sw. fara Scotch man	15 low-mixed Engl. how occ. Scotch cur	18 low-front Engl. man

	NARROW-BOUND.			WIDE-ROUND.	
19 high-back. Scotch and occ. Engl. fool	22 high-mixed. Sw. hus	25 high-front. Germ. ribel Dan, lys	28 high-back. Eng. full	31 high-mixed.	34 high-front, Dan. synd
20 mid-back. Germ. sohn	23 mid-mixed.	26 mid-front, Dan. föle Germ. schön	29 mid-back.  Engl. boy occ. Scotch no	32 mid-mixed.	35 mid-front. Dan. en dör
21 low-back. Engl. fall	24 low-mixed.	27 low-front.  Dan. störst occ. Germ. götter	30 low-back. Engl. hot	33 low-mixed.	36 low-front.

to designate the German ö. Long vowels are doubled, and diphthongs indicated by combining their elements.<sup>1</sup>

```
as in father ...... Nos. 11, 12, (3) on Bell's Scale.
      man .....
                                    9, (17)
                                                ,,
      Scotch tale, French é .....
                                    2, (3), 5, 6, (10), 14, 15.
      but, bird, German gabe .....
i
     bit, beat .....
                                    21, (29), 30 on Bell's Scale.
ò
     not .....
     Scotch note, Germ. sohn.....
                                    (26), 27, 35, 36
œ
     Germ. schön.....
   ,,
                                 22
                                    19, 28.
11
     wulf .....
                                 ,,
   ,,
      Germ. übel .....
y
                                    25, (26), 34
      my, Germ. mein.
      house, Germ. haus.
éi
      tale.
óπ
      no.
      boy.
```

I have not made any use of Mr. Ellis's "palæotype," as, in spite of its typographical convenience, its extreme complexity and arbitrariness make it, as I can testify from personal experience, quite unfitted for popular exposition. The apparent easiness of palæotype as compared with the Visible Speech letters of Mr. Bell is purely delusive: it is certain that those who find Visible Speech too difficult will be quite unable really to master palæotype. It must also be borne in mind that no system of notation will enable the student to dispense with a thorough study of the sounds themselves: there is no royal road to phonetics.

# GENERAL LAWS OF SOUND CHANGE.

They may be investigated both deductively, that is, by examining known changes in languages, and à priori, by considering the relations of sounds among themselves. I propose to combine these methods as much as possible. Although in giving examples of the various changes I have been careful to select cases which may be considered as perfectly well established, I must in many cases ask the reader to suspend his judgment till they have been fully discussed, which, of course, cannot be done till we come to the details. The general laws I am about to state may, for the present,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Numbers within parentheses indicate the less distinctive vowels, which admit of being brought under different heads: 26, for instance, may be regarded either as a very open y or a close x.

be regarded simply as convenient heads for classing the various changes under.

All the changes may be brought under three grand divisions, 1) organic, 2) imitative, and 3) inorganic. Organic changes are those which are the direct result of certain tendencies of the organs of speech: all the changes commonly regarded as weakenings fall under this head. Imitative changes are the result of an unsuccessful attempt at imitation. Inorganic changes, lastly, are caused by purely external causes, and have nothing to do either with organic weakening or with unsuccessful imitation.

The great defect of most attempts to explain sound-changes is that they select some one of these causes, and attempt to explain everything by it, ignoring the two others. It would, for instance, be entirely misleading to explain the change of the O.E. bær (pret. of beran) into the N.E. bore as an organic sound-change, the truth being that the form bore is the result of confusion with the participle borne. Such a case as this is self-evident, but I hope to show hereafter that the very remarkable and apparently inexplicable changes which our language underwent during the transition from the Old to the Middle period, can be easily explained as inorganic developments.

We may now turn to the two first classes of changes, organic and imitative. From the fact that all sounds are originally acquired by imitation of the mother and nurse we are apt to assume that all sound-change is due to imitation, but a little consideration will show that this is not the case. How, for instance, can such a change as that of a stopped to an open consonant, or of ii, uu, into ai, au, be explained by imitation? The fact that the vast majority of those who speak even the most difficult languages do make the finest distinctions perfectly well, proves clearly that the correct imitation of sounds is no insurmountable difficulty even to people of very ordinary capacity. The real explanation of such changes as those cited above is that the sounds were acquired properly by imitation, and then modified by the speaker himself, either from carelessness or indolence.

Further confirmation is afforded by the fact, which any one may observe for himself, that most people have double pronunciations, one being that which they learned by imitation, the other an unconscious modification. If asked to pronounce the sound distinctly, they will give the former sound, and will probably disown the other as a vulgarism, although they employ it themselves invariably in rapid conversation. When the habits are fixed, the difficulty of correct imitation largely increases. To the infant one sound is generally not more difficult than another, but to the adult a strange sound is generally an impossibility, or, at any rate, a very serious difficulty. He therefore naturally identifies it with the nearest equivalent in his own language, or else analyses it, and gives the two elements successively instead of simultaneously. We may, therefore, expect a much wider range of the imitative principle in words derived from other languages. I propose, accordingly, to class all the doubtful changes under the head of organic, treating as imitative changes only those which do not allow of any other explanation, but admitting that some of the changes considered as inorganic may under special circumstances be explained as imitative.

Organic sound-changes fall naturally into two main divisions, simple and complex. Simple changes are those which affect a single sound without any reference to its surroundings, while complex changes imply two sounds in juxtaposition, which modify one another in various ways.

It is generally assumed by philologists that all organic sound-changes may be explained by the principle of economy of exertion, and there can be no doubt that many of the changes must be explained in this way and in no other, as, for instance, the numerous cases of assimilation, where, instead of passing completely from one sound to another, the speaker chooses an intermediate one. Other changes, however, not only do not require this hypothesis of muscular economy, but even run quite counter to it, as when an open consonant is converted into a stop, a by no means uncommon phenomenon in the Teutonic languages. It is of the greatest importance that these exceptions to the general rule should not be suppressed.

I shall, therefore, while giving precedence to those changes which seem to be in harmony with the general principle of economy of force, take care to state fully the exceptions. I begin with the simple changes, arranging them in classes, according to the different vocal organs concerned in their formation.

# A. Simple Changes.

#### I. WEAKENING.

- 1) Glottal: voice to whisper and breath. In the formation of voice the glottis is momentarily closed, in that of whisper its edges are only approximated, and in breath the glottis is quite open. It is evident, therefore, that voice per se demands the most and breath the least muscular exertion, and that the natural tendency would be to substitute whisper and breath for voice whenever possible. The great preservative of consonantal vocality is the principle of assimilation, to which we shall return presently. When a voice consonant is flanked by vowels, as in aba, aga, etc., it is much easier to let the voice run on uninterruptedly than to cut it off at the consonant and then resume it. But at the end of a word this assimilative influence is not felt, and accordingly we find that in nearly all the Teutonic languages except English, many of the final voice consonants become either voiceless or whispered.
- 2) Pharyngal: narrow to wide. In the formation of narrow vowels the pharynx is compressed, while in that of wide vowels it is relaxed. The natural tendency would therefore be from narrow to wide. It is, however, a curious fact that in the Teutonic languages short and long vowels follow diametrically opposed laws of change as regards these pharyngal modifications, long vowels tending to narrowing, short to widening. Full details will be given hereafter; I merely call attention to these Teutonic changes as a clear instance of inapplicability of the principle of economy of force.<sup>1</sup>
  - 3) Changes of position. The most general feature of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mr. H. Nicol, however, suggests that the narrowing of long vowels may be caused by the effort required to sustain a uniform sound—hence long vowels are either narrowed or diphthongized.

changes of position is the tendency to modify the back articulations, whether vowels or consonants, by shifting forwards to the front, point or lip positions. This is clearly a case of economy of exertion, as the back formations require a movement of the whole body of the tongue, the front and point of only a portion of it. Of the two last the front, on the same principle, evidently require more exertion than the point sounds. The lip consonants (the labial vowels must be reserved), lastly, involve the minimum of exertion.

I will now give a few examples of these various changes.

- a) back to front: Sanskrit ch (front-stop) from k, as in vach=vak; English man, fèèr, from the Old E. mann, faran.
- b) back to point: E. méit from O.E. gemaca.
- c) back to lip: seems doubtful, as the cases usually cited, such as Greek pénte=kankan, seem to be the result of the assimilative influence of the w-sound preserved in the Latin quinque.
- d) front to point: the development of tsh from k through an intermediate front position, as in the E. church from cyrice; the change of Sanskrit ç, as in gru, which was originally the voiceless consonant corresponding to the English consonant y, to the present sound of sh.
- e) front and point to lip?1
- f) back and front to mixed (applies only to vowels). All unaccented vowels in most of the Teutonic languages have been levelled under one sound—the mid-mixed-narrow, as in the German endo, geebon, from the older andi, giban.

Thus, of the two rs, the back and the point, the former seems to require less exertion than the latter, and hence is often substituted for it in the careless pronunciation of advanced communities, especially in large cities. Other cases, however, really seem to run counter to the principle of economy of force. Such are the change of th into

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The not unfrequent change of th into f is no doubt purely imitative (fruu for pruu).

kh (=German ch) in the Scotch (Lothian dialect) khrii for thrii.

The changes of height in the vowels cannot be brought under any general laws. In the Teutonic languages, at least, short and long vowels follow quite opposite courses, long vowels tending to high, short to low positions.

# 4) Relaxation:

- a) stopped consonants to unstopped: Latin lingua from dingua; German makhən = E. méik, wasər = wòòtər; Modern Greek dhédhoka from dédooka.
- b) unstopped to diphthongal vowel: Middle English dai, lau, from older dagh, laghu; English hiiə from hiir.
- c) untrilling: a common phenomenon in most of the Teutonic languages, especially English, in which the trilled r is quite lost.

There are some unmistakable exceptions to these tendencies. All the Teutonic languages except English seem to find the th and dh difficult, and convert them into the corresponding stopped t and d. In Swedish the gh of the oldest documents has, in like manner, become g. There seem to be cases of vowels developing into consonants, which will be treated of hereafter. Lastly, we may notice the not unfrequent development of trilled out of untrilled consonants, as in Dutch, where g first became opened into gh, which in many Dutch dialects has become a regular guttural r.

5) Rounding (vowel-labialization). We must distinguish between the rounded back and the rounded front vowels, for their tendencies are directly opposed to one another: back vowels tend to rounding, front to unrounding. In the case of back vowels, rounding may be regarded as an attempt to diminish the expenditure of muscular energy, by keeping the mouth half-closed, whence the change of aa into  $\partial\partial$ , which, as we shall see, is almost universal in the Teutonic languages. But with the more easily-formed front vowels this economy of exertion is superfluous: we find, accordingly, that front vowels are seldom rounded, but that rounded front vowels are often unrounded, y and a becoming i and e—a frequent change in the Teutonic languages.

#### II. Loss.

- 1) of vowels. The loss of unaccented final vowels is a frequent phenomenon in all languages. The dropping of final e is a characteristic feature of the Modern period of English.
- 2) of consonants. Here we may distinguish several classes of changes. A single consonant may fall off either before a vowel or a consonant, and it may be initial, medial, or final. The Teutonic languages are, as a general rule, remarkable for the extreme tenacity with which they retain their consonants, especially when final.

# B. Complex Changes.

#### III. INFLUENCE.

1) One-sided Influence. Influence of one sound on another may be either partial (modification) or complete (assimilation). We must further distinguish the influence of vowel on vowel, vowel on consonant, consonant on consonant, and consonant on vowel.

The modification of one vowel by another, commonly called *umlaut*, is a very important feature of Teutonic sound-change. The following are the most important Teutonic umlauts, which I have formulated as equations.

a...i=è: O.E. ènde=Gothic andi; O. Icelandic wèèri= waari.

a...u=ò: O. Icelandic monnum=mannum, soòr=saaru (pl. of saar).

i...a=é: O.E. stélan=Gothic stilan.

u...a=6: O.E. oft=Gothic ufta.

u...i=y: O.E. fyllan=fullian, myys=muusi.

ó...i=æ: O E. græene=gróóni.

There are also umlauts of diphthongs, such as  $\dot{e}y$  in the Old Icelandic  $l\dot{e}ysa=lausian$ .

The change of ai into  $\grave{e}i$  in Old Icelandic ( $v\grave{e}it=vait$ ), and the further change of  $\grave{e}i$  into  $\acute{e}i$  in Modern Icelandic, are examples of what might be called diphthongic umlaut.

It is clear that in all these umlauts the new vowel is exactly intermediate between the original vowel of the root and the modifying one of the termination: if the new vowel became identical with its modifier, the result would be not an umlaut but a complete assimilation. In the Old Icelandic  $sk\delta pu\delta u = skapa\delta u$  the first vowel is modified, the second assimilated by the final u.

Vowel influence on consonants is not very common, but the different forms of German ch, after back, front, and rounded vowels, as in ach, ich, auch, are instances of it.

Consonant influence on consonants is very strongly developed in some languages: what is called sandhi in Sanskrit and mutation in the Celtic languages falls partly under this head. The Teutonic languages, on the other hand, are remarkable for the independence of their consonants, and the freedom with which they are combined without modifying one another. Consonant influence on vowels, lastly, is perhaps the obscurest of all phonetic problems: the explanation of its varied phenomena seems to require a far greater knowledge of the synthesis of speech-sounds than is at present attained by phonologists. These influences are strongly developed both in Old and Modern English, and will be treated of in their place.

The converse of the processes just considered is dissimilation, by which two identical sounds are made unlike, or two similar sounds are made to diverge. The development of the Teutonic preterite wista out of witta is an example of consonantal, the diphthongization of ii into éi in Early Modern English of vowel dissimilation, while the further change of éi into si and ai is a case of divergence of similar sounds. The whole phenomena of dissimilation is anomalous, and it is doubtful whether many of the instances ought not to be ascribed to purely external causes, as, for instance, the desire of greater clearness.

2) Mutual Influence. Mutual influence, in which both the sounds are modified by one another, may be either partial or complete. I do not know of any sure instance of partial convergence.

The commonest type of complete convergence is such a change as that of au into  $\partial\partial$ , in which two distinct sounds are simplified into one sound different from and yet similar to both of them. This simplification of diphthongs is, as we shall see, a very frequent phenomenon in the history of English sounds. Of consonantal simplification we have an example in the English wh in what, which was first khwat, then h-wat, and lastly what, the initial h being incorporated into the w, which consequently lost its vocality.

The converse phenomenon of divergence is exemplified in the resolution of simple long vowels into diphthongs. We have seen that  $\partial \partial$  is often the result of the simplification of au, but in Icelandic the process has been reversed—the Old Icelandic  $\partial \partial$  (as in  $\partial \partial \partial \delta$  from  $\partial \partial \partial \delta$ ) has become  $\partial \partial \partial \partial \delta$  in the present English been resolved into  $\partial \partial \partial \partial \partial \delta \partial \delta$ . Whether short vowels are ever resolved is very doubtful.

#### IV. TRANSPOSITION.

Transposition may be of consonants, as in the familiar ax for ask, or else of vowels in different syllables, as in the Greek  $mein\bar{o}$  for  $meni\bar{o}$ . This latter case must be carefully distinguished from umlaut. There seem also to be cases of transposition in different words, or in whole classes of words, such as the confusion between 'air=hair and hair=air, which seems to be often made in the London dialect.

The results obtained may be conveniently summed up thus:

# A. Simple Changes.

#### I. WEAKENING.

1) Glottal: voice to whisper and breath.

2) Pharyngal: narrow to wide.

3) Position: a) back to front.

b) back to point.

c) back to lip?

d) front to point.

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e) front and point to lip?

f) back and front to mixed (vowels only).

g) vowel-height?

4) Relaxation: a) stop to unstopped; b) unstopped to vowel; c) untrilling.

5) Vowel-rounding: rounding of back; unrounding of front.

#### II. Loss.

1) Of vowels: unaccented final e.

2) Consonants: before vowel, before another consonant; initial, medial, final.

# B. Complex Changes.

#### III. INFLUENCE.

1) One-sided, a) convergent:

partial (modification), complete (assimilation); vowel on vowel (umlaut), vowel on consonant, consonant on consonant (sandhi), consonant on vowel.

b) divergent (dissimilation): of vowels, of consonants.

2) Mutual, a) convergent:

partial (diphthongic umlaut), complete (diphthongic simplification); consonantal.

b) divergent: resolution of long vowels, of short (?).

#### IV. TRANSPOSITION.

1) Of consonants.

2) Of vowels (in different syllables).

3) In different words.

## IMITATIVE SOUND-CHANGES.

The general principle on which imitative changes depend is simply this—that the same effect, or nearly the same, may be produced on the ear by very different means. Thus, starting from the mid-front-narrow vowel e, we can lower its natural pitch either by slightly raising the back of the tongue, and thus producing the corresponding mixed  $\vartheta$  instead of the front vowel, or else by rounding into the mid-front-round  $\alpha$ , the result being that  $\alpha$  and  $\vartheta$  are so alike in sound that they are constantly confused in many languages. This similarity of sound between the mixed and round vowels was first pointed out by Mr. Bell (Visible Speech, p. 87).

There is the same similarity between the low-narrow and the mid-wide vowels, and also between the high-wide and the mid-narrow. Thus the English e in men is indifferently pronounced, either as the mid-front-wide or the low-front-narrow, and the  $\theta$  in  $b\theta t$  as the high-back-wide or the mid-back-narrow.

Whenever, then, we find a sound changing directly into another which, although very similar in acoustic effect, is formed in quite a different manner, we may be sure that the change is an imitative, not an organic one. Thus, when we find  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$  constantly interchanging without any intermediate stages, it would be unreasonable to assume, as we should have to do on the assumption of organic change, three such stages as  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\delta$ , whereas the imitative hypothesis makes the direct change of  $\alpha$  into  $\delta$  perfectly intelligible.

## INORGANIC CHANGES.

Inorganic sound-changes, which result from purely external causes, are of a very varied character, and are consequently difficult to classify. One of the most prominent of these external influences is the striving after logical clearness, which comes more and more into play as the sounds of the language become less distinct. Clearness may again be attained in many ways—by discarding one of two words which have run together in form, though distinct in meaning, or by taking advantage of any tendency to change which may keep the two words distinct (scheideformen). The important phenomenon of levelling, by which advanced languages get rid of superfluous distinctions, is a very im-

portant inorganic change, and is strongly developed in Transition English. A familiar aspect of inorganic sound-change is the alteration of foreign words so as to give them a homely appearance, as in *sparrow-grass* for *asparagus*.

#### GENERAL LAW OF CHANGE.

The investigation of the various laws of sound-changeimportant as it is-must not be allowed to divert our attention from the general principle on which they all depend, namely that of incessant change—alternations of development and decay. To say that language changes looks very like a truism, but if so, it is a truism whose consequences are very generally ignored by theorizers on pronunciation. most important lesson that it teaches us is to regard all cases of stand-still, whether of phonetic or of general linguistic development, as abnormal and exceptional. These cases of arrested development are really much rarer than is commonly supposed, and many of them are quite delusive—the result of the retention of the written representation of an older language, from which the real living language has diverged widely. English and Icelandic are striking examples. The written English language is for all practical purpose an accurate representation of the spoken language of the sixteenth century, which, as far as the sounds themselves are concerned, is as different from the present English as Latin is from Italian. The apparent stability of our language during the last few centuries is purely delusive.

The case of English and Icelandic also shows how it is possible for a language to retain its grammatical structure unimpaired, and at the same time to undergo the most sweeping changes in its phonetic system. How much more then are we bound to expect a change of pronunciation where the whole grammatical structure of a language has been subverted!

It is not only in its unceasing alternations of development and decay that language shows its analogy with the other manifestations of organic life, but also in another very important feature, namely in that of increasing complexity of phonetic structure. The greater number of sounds in a late as opposed to an early language is at once evident on comparing two languages belonging to the same stock, but in different stages of development, such as English with German, French with Italian or Spanish. It can further be shown that even in German, in its sounds one of the most archaic of the living Teutonic languages, many of the simple vowels are of comparatively late origin.

The sounds of early languages, besides being few in number, are more sharply marked off, more distinct than those of their descendants. Compare the multitude of indistinct vowel sounds in such a language as English with the clear simplicity of the Gothic and Sanskrit triad a, i, u—the three most distinct sounds that could possibly be produced. From these three vowels the complex systems of the modern languages have been developed by the various changes already treated of.

There can be little doubt that the simplicity of earlier phonetic systems was partly due to want of acoustic discrimination, and that primitive Man contented himself with three vowels, simply because he would have been unable to distinguish between a larger number of sounds. The really marvellous fineness of ear displayed by those who speak such languages as English, Danish, or French, must be the result of the accumulated experience of innumerable generations.

From this we can easily deduce another law, namely that the changes in early languages are not gradual, but per saltum. A clear appreciation of this principle is of considerable importance, as many philologists have assumed that in such changes as that of a back into a front consonant (Sanskrit k into ch) the tongue was shifted forwards by imperceptible gradations. Such assumptions are quite unnecessary, besides being devoid of proof. To people accustomed previously only to the broad distinction between back and point consonant, the further distinction of front must at first have appeared almost indistinguishable from its two extremes.

Under such circumstances it is not easy to see how they could have distinguished intermediate modifications of the original sound.

# GENERAL ALPHABETICS.

Although it would be possible to carry on the present investigation on a purely comparative basis-confining our attention exclusively to the living languages—such a process would prove tedious and difficult, if pursued without any help from the historical method, many of whose deductions are perfectly well established: to ignore these would be perverse pedantry. But the historical method must be based on a study of the graphic forms in which the older languages are preserved, and especially of their relation to the sounds they represent. It is quite useless to attempt to draw deductions from the spelling of a language till we know on what principles that spelling was formed. We have only to look at living languages to see how greatly the value of the spelling of each language varies. In English and French the spelling is almost worthless as a guide to the actual language; in German and Spanish the correspondence between sound and symbol is infinitely closer, and in some languages, such as Finnish and Hungarian, it is almost perfect—as far as the radical defects of the Roman alphabet allow.

With these facts before us, it is clearly unreasonable to assume, as many philologists have done, that the same divergence between orthography and pronunciation which characterizes Modern English prevailed also in the earlier periods, and consequently that no reliable deductions can be drawn from the graphic forms. I feel confident that every one who has patience enough to follow me to the end of the present discussion will be convinced of the very opposite. Putting aside the actual evidence altogether, it is quite clear that the wretched attempts at writing the sounds of our dialects made by educated men of the present day cannot be taken as standards from which to infer a similar result a thousand years ago.

An educated man in the nineteenth century is one who

has been taught to associate groups of type-marks with certain ideas: his conception of language is visual, not oral. The same system is applied to other languages as well as English, so that we have the curious phenomenon of people studying French and German for twenty years, and yet being unable to understand a single sentence of the spoken languages; also of Latin verses made and measured by eye, like a piece of carpentry, by men who would be unable to comprehend the metre of a single line of their own compositions, if read out in the manner of the ancients. The study of Egyptian hieroglyphics affords almost as good a phonetic training as this.

Before the invention of printing the case was very different. The Roman alphabet was a purely phonetic instrument, the value of each symbol being learned by ear, and consequently the sounds of the scribe being also written by ear. The scarcity of books, the want of communication between literary men, and the number of literary dialects-all these causes made the adoption of a rigid, unchanging orthography a simple impossibility. It must not, of course, be imagined that there were no orthographical traditions, but it may be safely said that their influence was next to none at all. only result of greater literary cultivation in early times was to introduce a certain roughness and carelessness in distinguishing shades of sound: we shall see hereafter that sounds which were kept distinct in the thirteenth-century spelling were confused in the time of Chaucer, although it is quite certain that they were still distinguished in speech. But such defects, although inconvenient to the investigator, do not lead him utterly astray, like the retention of a letter long after the corresponding sound has changed or been lost, which is so often the case in orthographies fixed on a traditional basis.

Early scribes not only had the advantage of a rational phonetic tradition—not a tradition of a fixed spelling for each word, but of a small number of letters associated each with one sound;—but, what is equally important, the mere practical application of this alphabet *forced* them to observe

and analyse the sounds they wrote down: in short they were trained to habits of phonetic observation. Yet another advantage was possessed by the earliest scribes—that of a comparatively limited number of sounds to deal with. For the proofs of this position I must refer to the remarks I have made in the discussion of the Laws of Sound Change, and to the details of the investigation itself.

The Roman alphabet consisted of six simple vowel signs, a e i o u y: on these six letters the vowel notation of all the Teutonic languages was based. If, therefore, we can determine the sounds attached to these letters by the Romans during the first few centuries of Christianity, we can also determine, within certain limits, the sounds of the unlettered tribes who adopted the Roman alphabet to write their own languages. Nor need our determination be absolutely accurate. It is certain that minute shades of difference between a Latin and, for example, an Old English sound would not have deterred the first writers of English from adopting the letter answering to the Latin sound: all that was wanted was a distinctive symbol.

Now there can be no doubt as to the general values of the six Roman vowel-signs. The sounds of the first five are still preserved in nearly all the Modern Latin languages, and that of the y, although lost in Italian and the other cognate languages, can be determined with certainty from the descriptions of the Latin grammarians, and from its being the regular transcription of the Greek upsilon. The values of the Roman vowel-letters may, then, be represented approximately thus:

 a=Italian
 a;
 English
 father.

 e
 ,,
 e
 ,,
 bed, bear.

 i
 ,,
 i
 ,,
 bit, beat.

 o
 ,,
 o
 ,,
 odd, bore.

 u
 ,,
 u
 ,,
 full, fool.

 y=French
 u;
 Danish
 y.

We see that even in English the traditional values of the Roman letters have been very accurately preserved in many cases, and it need hardly be said that the majority of the living Teutonic languages have preserved them almost as faithfully as Italian and Spanish. We thus find that the Romance and Teutonic traditions are in complete harmony after a lapse of more than ten centuries. The greatest number of exceptions to the general agreement occur in the two most advanced languages of each group—English and French; but it can be shown that these divergences are of very late origin, and that in the sixteenth century the original tradition was still maintained.

We may now pass from the consideration of the single letters to that of their combinations or digraphs. The first use of digraphs, namely to express diphthongs, is self-evident, but they have a distinct and equally important function in symbolizing simple sounds which have no proper sign in the original Roman alphabet. The plan adopted was to take the symbols of two different sounds which both resembled the one in question, and write them one after the other, implying, however, that they were to be pronounced not successively but simultaneously—that an intermediate sound was to be formed. Thus, supposing there had been no y in the Roman alphabet, the sound might still have been easily represented by writing u and i (or e) together, implying an intermediate sound, which is no other than that of y. As we see, the framers of the Old English alphabet, living at a time when the Roman y still had its original sound, had no need of this expedient; but in Germany, where the sound of y did not develope till a comparatively late period—during the twelfth century—the only course open was to resort to a digraph, so that the sound which in Danish is still expressed by the Old Roman y, is in Modern German written ue.

This ue affords at the same time an excellent example of the way in which diacritical modifications are developed out of digraphs. The first step is to write one of the two letters above or under the other: accordingly we find the German ue in later times written  $\ddot{u}$ . Afterwards the e was further abbreviated into two dots, giving the familiar  $\ddot{u}$ . In some cases the diacritic becomes incorporated into the letter, and

there results what is practically an entirely new letter. Although most diacritics can be explained in this way, as corruptions of originally independent letters, there are still a few cases of arbitrary modification, of which the Old English  $\delta$  from d is an example. Cases of the arbitrary use of consonants as digraphic modifiers also occur. Thus h has come to be a perfectly unmeaning sign, implying any imaginable modification of the consonant it is associated with. Compare g and gh in Italian, l and lh in Portuguese, etc. The doubling of consonants to express new sounds is equally arbitrary, as in the Welsh ff as distinguished from f, and the Middle English ss=sh.

In all the cases hitherto considered the digraph is formed consciously and with design, but it often happens that a diphthong becomes simplified, and the original digraph is still retained for the sake of distinctness. Thus, if the diphthong iu passes into the simple sound of yy, it is clearly the simplest and most practical course to retain the iu, as being a perfectly legitimate representation of a sound which, although simple, lies between i and u.

All diacritical letters, whatever their origin, are distinguished in one very important respect from the older digraphs -they are perfectly unambiguous, while it is often difficult to determine whether a given digraph is meant to represent a diphthong or a simple sound. There is, however, one invariable criterion, although, unfortunately, it cannot always be applied, which is the reversibility of the elements of the digraph. Thus, the sound written oe in Old English, as in boec (later bec), might, on the evidence of this spelling alone, be taken equally well for a diphthongic combination of o and e, or for a sound intermediate to these two vowels; but when we find boec and beoc alternating, as they do, on the same page, we see that the e was a mere modifier, whose position before or after the vowel to be modified was quite immaterial: the sound must therefore have been simple-a conclusion which is fully confirmed by other evidence.

The Roman alphabet has been further enriched by the differentiation of various forms of the same letter, of which

the present distinctions between u and v, i and j, are instances. In these cases varieties of form which were originally purely ornamental and arbitrary have been ingeniously utilized to express distinctions in sounds.

# QUANTITY AND QUALITY IN THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

The distinguishing feature of the early Teutonic languages is the important part played in them by quantity. This subject has been very fully investigated by Grimm and his school in Germany, and it may be regarded as proved beyond a doubt that in the Teutonic languages quantity was originally quite independent of stress or quality, and that many words were distinguished solely by their quantity.

Even so late as the thirteenth century we find the German poetry regulated partly by quantitative laws. Not only are short and long vowels never rhymed together, but there is also a fine distinction made between dissyllables with short and long penultimates; words like bite (modern bitte) being treated as metrically equivalent to a monosyllable, while rite (now reite) is regarded as a true dissyllable. Many metres which employ monosyllabic rhyme-words indifferently with words like bite do not show a single instance of a dissyllable like rite at the end of the line.

Similar instances may be adduced from the Icelandic rimur of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

All this is fully confirmed by the direct evidence of many German MSS. of the eleventh century, which employ the circumflex regularly to denote a long vowel.

It is further generally admitted that in the living Teutonic languages these distinctions have mostly vanished, short vowels before single consonants having been generally lengthened, and that quantitative distinctions have been replaced by qualitative ones. The general laws, however, on which these changes depend, have not hitherto been investigated, and I propose hereafter to treat of them in some detail: at present we must content ourselves with an examination of the more general features of the change.

In the substitution of qualitative for quantitative distinctions we can easily observe three stages, 1) the purely quantitative, 2) the transitional, in which, while the distinctions of quantity are still preserved, short and long vowels begin to diverge qualitatively also, and 3) the qualitative, in which long and short vowels are confounded, so that the original quantitative distinctions are represented, if at all, by quality only.

That the oldest English still retained the original quantitative system is in itself highly probable from the analogy of the other cognate languages, and also admits of decisive proof. If we take two vowels, one originally long, the other originally short, which are both long and yet qualitatively distinct in the living language, and show that they were qualitatively identical at an earlier period, we are forced to assume a purely quantitative distinction, for the later divergence of quality could not have developed out of nothing. Let us take the words stoun and bein, written in Old English stan and bana. It is quite certain that the a of stan was originally long, for it is nothing but a simplification of an older ai, still preserved in the German shtain, while there is equally decisive proof of the shortness of the a of bana. Now, if there had been any difference in the quality of the two vowels, they would certainly not have been written with the same letter. The back vowel a can only be modified in two directions—in that of e or of o, that is, by fronting or rounding, and, as we shall see hereafter, such changes were regularly indicated by a change of spelling, even when the departure from the original sound was very minute. We are, therefore, led to the conclusion that the present purely qualitative distinction between stoun and bein was in the Old English period purely quantitative—staan and bana. Similar evidence is afforded by the other vowels.

As we have little direct evidence of the quantity of individual Old English words, recourse must be had to the comparison of the old cognates, for the details of which I must refer to the works of Grimm and his successors in Germany. Much may also be learned from the qualitative distinctions of the modern languages.

### OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

We may now proceed to a detailed examination of the vowel-sounds of our language in its oldest stage. The results of this investigation—which is an indispensable preliminary to the study of the later changes—cannot be properly appreciated till the evidence is fully set forth; at present I only wish to remind the reader that a rigorously mathematical method is quite impracticable in such an investigation, which can only be carried out by a process of cumulative reasoning, based on a number of independent probabilities. Nothing can be more irrational than to ignore an obvious deduction merely because it is a deduction, or to discard one that, although not absolutely certain, is extremely probable, in favour of another that is only barely possible.

The principle I have adopted in cases of uncertainty is to adopt the oldest sound that can be ascertained. It happens in many cases that although we can say with certainty that a sound underwent a certain change, we cannot point out the exact period in which the new sound arose. It must be borne in mind that the written language, even in the most illiterate and therefore untraditional times, is always somewhat behind the living speech, and further that a new pronunciation may exist side by side with the old for a long time. In such cases it is necessary to have some definite criterion of selection, and that of always taking the oldest sound seems the most reasonable.

# SHORT VOWELS.

# A (Æ, O).

The short a of the cognate languages is in Old English preserved only in certain cases: 1) before a single consonant followed by a, o, or u, which have, however, in the earliest extant period of the language been in some cases weakened into e: hara, hagol, caru, care; 2) before nasals: bana, lamb, lang. In other cases a is replaced by a: dag, appel, craftig. Alternations of a and a according to these rules often occur

in various inflexions of the same word: dag, dages, dagas, dagum. a before nasals is liable to interchange with o: bona, lomb, long. This o is so frequent in the earlier period as in many words almost to supersede the a, but afterwards the a gets the upper hand, the o being preserved in only a few very frequent words, such as bonne, on, of, which last is an exceptional case of o developing before f, also occurring in the proper name Offa (=original Aba).

So far goes the evidence of the graphic forms, as it may be found in any comparative grammar, and before bringing in the living languages it will be as well to consider what deductions may be drawn from them. In the first place it is clear that the development of the a is not due to any assimilation, but is a purely negative phenomenon, that is to say, that wherever a was not supported by a back vowel in the next syllable, it was weakened into a without any regard to the following consonant. The change cannot therefore, as German philologists have already remarked, be compared to the regular vowel-mutation or umlaut.

As to the pronunciation of this  $\alpha$ , the spelling clearly points to a sound intermediate between a and e, while the joining together of the two letters and the frequent degradation of the a into a mere diacritic, which is sometimes entirely omitted, show that it was a simple sound, not a diphthong: further than this we cannot advance till we have determined more accurately the sounds of a and e.

It is also clear that the o of long=lang must have been distinct from the regular o in gold, etc., for otherwise they would have run together and been confused. This conclusion is further confirmed by direct graphic evidence. In the riddles of that well-known collection of Old English poetry, the Exeter Book, the solution is sometimes given in Runic letters written backwards, and in one of them occurs the word cofoah which, read backwards, gives haofoc=hafoc (hawk). Here we have an a labialized before f, as in of=af, written ao, with the evident intention of indicating a sound intermediate between a and o, just as a points to a sound intermediate between a and e.

We may now turn our attention to the pronunciations of the modern languages. Disregarding minute shades of sound, we may distinguish three kinds of as in the living Teutonic languages:

- 1) the mid-back-wide: English father, ordinary German a.
- 2) the low-back-wide: Scotch short a in man.
- 3) the low-back-narrow: I hear this sound in the South German dialects for both long and short a, and in Dutch for the short a, especially before l.

As to the relative antiquity of these sounds, there can be little doubt that the first is a later modification of the second, and it is very probable that the second is a weakened form of the third. In fact, it may safely be said that this last requires more exertion in its utterance than any other vowel—a fact which easily accounts for its rarity, and also for its preservation in the South German dialects, which, as we shall see hereafter, have preserved their short vowels more purely than any of the other languages.

Are we then to assume that the Old English  $\alpha$  had this narrow sound? Analogy is certainly in favour of this assumption, but a little consideration will show that it is untenable. If  $\alpha$  had been narrow, its weakening  $\alpha$ , which is simply  $\alpha$  moved on towards e, would also have been narrow, giving no other sound than the low-front-narrow; but this, as we shall see, was the sound of the open short e, from which the  $\alpha$  is kept quite distinct: the  $\alpha$ , therefore, cannot have been narrow, nor, consequently, its parent  $\alpha$ . But if we suppose the  $\alpha$  to have had the sound of the Scotch man—that is the low-wide—the difficulty is cleared away, and we come to the very probable conclusion that the  $\alpha$  had the exact sound of the modern English man—the low-front-wide.

The a if labialized (or rounded) would naturally give the low-back-round-wide (English not), and as there is every reason to believe that the normal o was the mid-back-round-narrow, we see that the labialized a in monn, etc., was exactly half-way between a and o—a conclusion to which we have already been led by an examination of the graphic evidence.

I.

The only debatable point about the i is whether it had the wide sound of the English and Icelandic or the narrow of the German and Swedish short i. All we can say is that, although it is possible that the wide sound may have been the real one, every analogy is in favour of the narrow.

# E.

We must distinguish two kinds of es in the Teutonic languages, 1) the a-mutation of i, as in helpan = Gothic hilpan, and 2) the i-mutation of a, as in ende = Gothic and Old High German andi. The two sounds are now confounded in the Teutonic languages, but there is clear evidence that they were formerly distinct, for in the Middle High German poetry the two es are never rhymed together, and the Icelander p oroddr, in his treatise on orthography, carefully distinguishes the two, stating that the e from a had a sound which was a mixture of a and e, implying, of course, that the other e was nearer to the e from which it arose.

It has been generally assumed by comparative philologists that there was no distinction between the two es in Old English, but, as I have pointed out elsewhere, there is unmistakable graphic evidence to prove that there was a distinction, the e from a being often written æ, although this spelling was soon abandoned because of the confusion it caused with the regular æ of dæg, etc.

Putting all these facts together, remembering that the one e was nearer i, the other nearer a, and yet distinct from the a, we can hardly help assigning to the e from i the sound of the mid-front-narrow, and to the e from a that of the low-front-narrow. That the e from a was narrow need not make any difficulty, when we consider that the change took place at a much earlier period than that of the development of the a of a of a of a of a of a of a was probably narrow in all the Teutonic languages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care. Introd. p. xxiii.

The unaccented e in such words as gebiden, ende, requires to be considered separately. In all the living Teutonic languages which possess this sound—that is to say, all except Icelandic and English—it is the mid-mixed-narrow. But in many of the South German dialects the mid-front-narrow occurs, which is clearly a more ancient sound. That this was the sound of the Old Icelandic unaccented e (now written and pronounced e) is clear from péroddr's expressly adducing the second vowel of framer (=framir: nom. plur. masc. of framr) as an example of the close e arising from e.

It seems most reasonable to suppose that this pronunciation, which is also preserved to the present day in South Germany, was also the Old English one.

### U.

What has been said of i applies equally to u, namely that analogy is in favour of its having had the narrow German sound rather than the wide English one.

### О.

It is quite clear that the sound now given to the regular short o in all the Teutonic languages except German—the low-back-wide-round—cannot be the old one; for, as we have seen, this was the sound of the modified a before nasals (monn, etc.) which is kept quite distinct from the regular o in such a word as oft. This latter o is nothing else than an a-mutation of u (compare oft with Gothic ufta): it seems, therefore, reasonable to suppose that, as the a-mutation of i differed from the latter vowel simply in being lowered one degree towards the "low" position of the a, the o was simply the u lowered from its high to the mid position, resulting in the mid-back-narrow-round. Now this is the sound still preserved all over South Germany, and until further evidence is forthcoming it seems to me that we are justified in assuming that the same was the Old English sound.

# Y.

This letter, which was originally nothing else but a Greek T, was adopted into the Roman alphabet to denote the sound

of the Greek u, which did not exist in Latin. The pronunciation of this Greek u is generally agreed to have been that of the French u or the German  $\ddot{u}$ , and it is clear, from the descriptions of the Roman grammarians, that they attached the same value to their y, with which the Greek u is invariably transcribed. It is a remarkable fact that while the original sound of the Roman y has been quite lost in the Romance languages, it is still preserved in Danish and Swedish. As we know that the Scandinavian nations learned the use of the Roman alphabet from England, this Scandinavian tradition not only confirms the generally-received pronunciation of the Roman y, but also affords independent proof of the sound of the letter in Old English.

In its origin y is the i-mutation of u; its sound is therefore, as the Icelander p of oddr says, "blended together of i and u," and p of oddr actually considers y to be a combination of these two letters. The sound which fulfils these conditions is clearly that which is still preserved in South Germany, Sweden, and, in many words, in Danish—the high-front-narrow-round. This, then, we may safely assume to have been the Old English sound also.

# Long Vowels.

# AA.

Long a in Old English corresponds to an ai of the older cognates, Gothic and Old High German, of which it is a simplified form. As the aa has been rounded at a later period, and is represented in the present language by the diphthong ou, some theorists, who seem incapable of realizing the possibility of sounds changing during the lapse of ten centuries, have assumed that it was labial in the Old English period as well. The answer to this is, that if the sound had been at all labial, it would have been written, at least occasionally, o or oa, as was actually done at a later period, and as the Old English scribes themselves did in the case of short a before nasals: when we find the tenth century scribes writing invariably stan, and those of the twelfth century

writing as invariably stoon or ston, it seems simplest to infer that the former meant to indicate a and the latter some variety of o.

### ÆÆ.

There are two long as in Old English. The commonest is that which corresponds to original ai, as in  $s\bar{a}$ ,  $d\bar{a}l$ =Gothic saiw, dail. The relation of this  $\bar{a}$  to the  $\bar{a}$  treated of above is not quite clear. In some words, such as  $cl\bar{a}$ ne=Old German kleini, the a may be explained as an umlaut of  $\bar{a}$ , original claini first becoming  $cl\bar{a}$ ni and then  $cl\bar{a}$ ni. But such words as  $s\bar{a}$  and  $d\bar{a}$  do not admit this explanation. It seems therefore simplest to assume that  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{a}$  are both independent modifications of ai, the former being formed by convergence, the latter by loss of the i.

The second  $\bar{e}$  is that which corresponds to original  $\bar{a}$ , Gothic  $\bar{e}$ , as in  $d\bar{e}d$ =Gothic  $d\bar{e}d$ , Old German  $t\bar{a}t$ . It is, however, quite clear (as will be shown hereafter) from the Modern English forms that this  $\bar{e}$  did not exist in the dialect from which literary English has arisen, but was represented by  $\bar{e}$ , as in Gothic, which is the case even in the West-Saxon in some words, such as  $w\bar{e}n$ =Old German  $w\bar{a}n$ , Gothic  $w\bar{e}n$ , and the proper name  $\mathcal{E}lfr\bar{e}d$ =Old German  $Alpr\bar{a}t$ .

The only question about the sound of  $\bar{c}$  is whether it was narrow or wide. The analogy of short c would rather point to its being wide, that of the pronunciation of Modern German, in which the  $\hat{c}\hat{c}$ -umlaut of  $\bar{c}$  ( $k\hat{c}\hat{c}z = kaasi$ ) is always narrow, rather to narrowness. In fact the long sound of the c in c is quite unknown in the Modern Teutonie languages. It must also be borne in mind that c is probably a much older formation than the short c, and may very well have been developed at a time when all the vowels were still narrow. If so, long c must have been the low-front-narrow.

#### EE.

Long  $\bar{e}$  corresponds first to original  $\bar{a}$ , although, as already stated, this  $\bar{e}$  often becomes  $\bar{ce}$  in the West-Saxon dialect. In many words it is a simplification of the diphthongs  $e\bar{a}$  and  $e\bar{o}$ ,

as in  $n\bar{e}d$ ,  $\bar{e}c = ne\bar{u}d$ ,  $e\bar{u}c$  (both of which forms are also common),  $g\bar{e}ng = ge\bar{o}ng$ . The third and most common  $\bar{e}$  is the *i*-unlaut of  $\bar{o}$ , written oe in the oldest documents, as in  $gr\bar{e}ne$  (groene) = original  $gr\bar{o}ni$ . The pronunciation of all these  $\bar{e}s$  was probably the same, as they are not distinguished from one another in writing, and cannot well have been any other than the mid-front-narrow.

# II, UU,

Correspond to original ii and uu, which are still preserved in the Scandinavian languages, the Old English wīn and hūs being now pronounced in Icelandic and Danish viin, huus. There can be no doubt that the Old English sounds were the same as those still preserved in these languages—the high-front-narrow and the high-back-narrow-round.

# 00

Corresponds to original  $\bar{o}$ , as in  $g\bar{o}d$ ,  $m\bar{o}d\sigma r$ . The sound was no doubt the same as that still preserved in Danish and Swedish, namely the mid-back-narrow-round, but without the abnormal rounding of the  $\delta\delta$  of these languages.

### YY

Is the umlaut of  $\bar{u}$ , as in  $m\bar{g}s = m\bar{u}si$ , plural of  $m\bar{u}s$ . In some words, such as  $f\bar{g}r$  (Old German viuwar), it is a simplification of in by diphthongal convergence. Its pronunciation cannot well have been anything else than the high-front-narrow-round.

# Diphthongs.

#### EA.

Whenever original a comes before consonant-combinations beginning with l, r, or h, it is not changed into a, but becomes ea, as in eall, wearm, weax. There can be no doubt that this ea was a true diphthong: its elements are never reversed (p. 23), nor is it confounded with ae or a. The only question is whether the stress was

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See my paper on Danish Pronunciation (Trans. Phil. Soc. 1873-4, p. 101).

on the first or the second element. There is evidence which seems to point to the conclusion that the stress fell on the a. In Middle English ea is generally lost, but in the archaic fourteenth century Kentish of the Ayenbite, the old diphthong is still preserved in such words as eald, healden. But this ea is very often represented by ya, sometimes by yea, so that the Old English eald appears as eald, yald and yeald. Here we have the glide-vowel represented by the Middle English conscnant y, showing clearly that the stress was on the a. As to the origin of the ea, the theory first propounded by Rapp (Physiologic der Sprache, ii. 145) seems the most probable, namely that a first became a before a consonants (except nasals), so that a became a before a and that this a was then diphthongized into a or rather a.

# EO.

Similarly, when  $\ell$  comes before r, l and h-combinations, it is diphthongized into eo, as in eor e, meole, feoh. In the Kentish and Northumbrian documents this eo is generally represented by ea, eor'se being written ear'se. In the word eart (from ert) eo never occurs in any of the dialects—the normal eort being unknown even in West-Saxon. When we consider that é in Icelandic also is changed into ia (ea in the oldest MSS.), as in hiarta=Old E. heorte, there seems to be every probability that ea was the older sound, which in eart was preserved in all the dialects, on account of its excessive frequency. As eo is never (except in eart) confused with ea=ain the standard West-Saxon, we must suppose that the series of changes,  $\acute{e}$ , ea, eo, was already completed when ea = a began to develope itself. The rounding of ea into eo is a very curious phenomenon. The frequent rounding of vowels before l, of which the Modern English solt from salt is an instance, would lead us to suppose that the change first began before l, and then extended to the other words. The analogy of Modern Icelandic, in which the first element of the ia has developed into a consonant, and of the Middle Kentish y in yald, make it very probable that the stress was on the second element.

### EAA.

Besides the ea from a, there is another ca, which answers to original au, as in dream=Gothic draum. As this ea is distinct in origin and in subsequent development from the other ea, it must have been distinct in sound. The only conceivable distinctions are stress and quantity, that is, the ea = au may have been distinguished either by having the stress on the first element, or else by its accented vowel being long. The former supposition is made untenable by both the Middle Kentish ya, as in dyab, and the Norse spelling  $Iatvar \delta r (= J \acute{a}t$  $var\delta r$ ) for Eadweard: these examples show that ea=au had the stress on the same vowel as ea=a. We are driven, therefore, to the hypothesis that ea=au had its second element long dreaam. This view is confirmed by the Modern English form of the preterite ceās (Gothic kaus) which is chóós—an anomaly which is quite inexplicable, except on the assumption of an original long aa. The development of the word is clearly ce-aas, ce-òòs, chòòs, chóós. This seems to be what Rask meant by his accentuating eá, which Grimm also adopted, although Grimm does not seem to have attached any idea of lengthening to the accent.

The development of eaa out of au is one of the most difficult questions in Teutonic philology. All the explanations hitherto given are utterly unsatisfactory, and I will not waste time in criticising them, but rather state what I consider to be the only tenable theory, which, as far as I know, has never been made public, although I was glad to learn from Professor Kern, of Leiden, that it had suggested itself to him also. The explanation we propose is simply this. au first became aa, as in Frisian. This aa followed the short a and became eee. The eee was then resolved into eaa or æaa. We must suppose that these changes took place before ai became aa: otherwise there would have been a confusion between aa=au and aa=ai. There are, of course. certain difficulties still remaining. The development of a diphthong with one of its elements long is anomalous, and we would expect the diphthongization of the hypothetical ææ to take place, like that of short æ, only before certain consonants. It is, however, quite possible that the diphthongization of long ææ was much earlier than that of short æ, and that the two phenomena are therefore independent. If so, ææ may at first have developed into simple ea and the lengthening of the æ may have been a secondary process.

### EOO

Answers to original iu, as in deop=Gothic diup. There can be no doubt that this eo=iu was distinct from the eo=e, and every analogy would lead us to suppose that the difference was one of quantity. Positive confirmation is afforded by the English chuuz, which points as clearly to an Old English ceoósan as choóz does to a ceaas. The Icelandic ioó, as in kioósa (Modern kjousa), shows the same anomalous lengthening of the second element.

There is some uncertainty about the first elements of these diphthongs. Some clue is however afforded by the interchange of e with i in eo and eoo, which never happens with ea and eaa: we often find such forms as ior de for eor de, but never hiard for heard. The inference clearly is that in eo and eoo the initial vowel was closer and higher than in ea, eaa, probably through the assimilative influence of the second element. The diphthongs are then strictly eo, eo

For the sake of comparison, I append a table giving Mr. Ellis's results (Early English Pronunciation, p. 534) together

LETTERS.	ELLIS.	SWEET.	LETTERS.	ELLIS.	SWEET.
ò i è é u ó	æ	a & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &	ā	aa	aa EE ee ii oo uu II Eá (wa ?) tó Eáá

with my own, both in paleotype. It will be observed that Mr. Ellis (like all his predecessors) confounds the two short es and os, which I have carefully distinguished. He is also not clear as to the distinction between ea, eo, and  $e\bar{a}$ ,  $e\bar{o}$ . Otherwise our results approximate very closely.

# MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD.

# ORTHOGRAPHY.

Some important revolutions in orthography took place during the transition from the Old to the Middle period—most of them the result of French influence.

There are many instances of French influence on the consonant notation: in the vowels two cases require special notice, these are the use of u for the Old English y, and of ou for the Old English uu. The explanation of the former change must be sought in the fact that y in the Middle period lost its original value, and became confused with i, while in the beginning of words it assumed its present consonantal value. The result was that the old sound of y was left without a symbol, and the want was supplied, imperfectly enough, by adopting the French representation of the sound, which was u. But u was further employed, also in imitation of French usage, to represent the voiced sound of the Old E.  $f_{i}$ , so that  $u_{i}$ , which still retained its original pronunciation in many cases, stood for three distinct sounds. In course of time the short y-sound disappeared more and more, and at the same time a large number of long ys were introduced in words taken from the French, which were all written with u (nature, etc.). To remedy the consequent confusion between u=yy and u=uu (hus, etc.), the French ou was introduced as the representation of the latter sound, so that natyyre and huus were distinguished in writing as nature and hous. For the details of the change of u into ou I must refer to Mr. Ellis's Early English Pronunciation, where the subject is treated at great length.

These changes are important, as showing that the Middle

English scribes were not at all biassed by traditions of the earlier orthography, and therefore that their testimony can be unhesitatingly accepted, as far as it goes.

We may now turn to the actual sound-changes, beginning with the most important and characteristic of them all, which I will call

### Vowel-Levelling.

In the Transition period (Semi-Saxon) we are confronted by the curious and apparently inexplicable phenomenon of a language ignoring, as it were, the changes of an earlier period, and returning to the original sounds. Such is at least the case with the Old English modifications of a and  $\dot{e}$ : where Old English has a, a or a or a of Middle English has the unmodified a and a. Compare glad, heard, seofon, with the Middle English glad, hard, seven.

Such a change as that of glæd into glad is doubly anomalous, both as being a return to a pronunciation older than that of the oldest extant documents before the Conquest, and also as a change from a weak front to a strong back vowel. It is, in short, inexplicable, if considered as an ordinary organic sound-change. The explanation must be sought among the inorganic sound-changes, due to some purely external cause.

One of the most unmistakable of these inorganic sound-changes is one which may be called levelling. The whole history of English inflection is mainly one of levelling. Thus, in Old English we find the plural formed in a great variety of ways, sometimes in as, sometimes in an, sometimes with different vowels, and sometimes without any change at all. In Modern English we have only the first, which, originally restricted to a limited number of masculine substantives, is now extended to all substantives without distinction. It would evidently be absurd to attempt to explain these changes as organic, to adduce, for instance, the change of the Old English plural heortan into the Modern harts as a case of n becoming s. They are clearly due to external causes, and are simply the result of that tendency to get rid

of useless complexity which characterizes the more advanced stages of language: instead of indicating plurality by a variety of terminations, some of which were of a very vague and indistinct character, the later language selected that termination which seemed the most distinctive, and discarded the rest.

We can now understand how men who were engaged every day of their lives in this levelling process, whose language was being broken up and reconstructed with unexampled rapidity—we can understand how those who spoke the Transition English of the twelfth century came unconsciously to regard the alternation of a and a in such words as dag, dagas, as an unnecessary piece of discrimination, comparable to that involved in the use of a large number of plural terminations. And so the indistinct a—so liable to be confounded with a—was discarded, and the clear sounding a was made the sole representative of the older a and a.

When this process of levelling had once begun, it is easy to see how ea and eo also came to be regarded as superfluous modifications of a and e, and were therefore in like manner discarded. As we shall see hereafter, eaa and eoo (=original au and iu) were simplified into e and e and e respectively; it is, therefore, probable that ea and eo themselves were first simplified into e and e. It is further probable that the first sound of the e and e was identical with that of the Old English e heard would, therefore, become heard, whose e would naturally follow the other e and become e, giving the Middle English e hard. The three spellings heard, hard, and hard are to be found constantly interchanging in Lajamon and other writers of the period.

Whatever may be the explanation of the fact, there can be no doubt that the Old English e, ea, eo, were lost in the Middle period, and that the mysterious connection between the Old English e and the Modern sound in such a word as men (written man) imagined by some philologists, must be given up: the two es are quite independent developments, even when they occur in the same words, as in ee, e

century these words were pronounced  $\delta at$ , sat, sad, apl, even in the court dialect, and the sound a is unknown up to the present day in most of our dialects.

Before investigating the sound-changes of the Middle period in detail, it will be necessary to state the general laws which govern the remarkable qualitative divergence of long and short vowels in the later Teutonic languages. If it can once be shown that all the Teutonic languages follow the same general laws, it is but reasonable to suppose that the same laws will be found valid in the case of Middle English also. We shall have still less hesitation in applying these laws to the elucidation of the Middle English sound-changes, when we consider that the English of the thirteenth century was really as much in advance of its contemporaries as Modern English is of its, and that Middle English is practically on a level with Dutch and the other living Teutonic languages. German, indeed, is in many respects much more archaic than Middle English, and may be said to stand to it in almost the same relation as Old English does.

I propose, therefore, to give an impartial classification of the principal changes that have taken place in the living Teutonic languages, beginning with the long vowels.

# A. Long Vowels.

- 1) Back to round (p. 11). Long a, whatever its origin, has in all the Teutonic languages except German and Dutch been rounded. Even German and Dutch show the same change in many of their dialects, which give long a the sound of the low-back-narrow-round (English fall). This is also the Swedish and Danish sound, the only difference being that the Scandinavian vowel is pronounced with greater lip narrowing, so that its sound approximates to that of the regular close  $\acute{o}$  (the "mid" vowel).
- 2) Front-round to unrounded (page 11). Exemplified in the familiar German change of  $\alpha$  and y into  $\dot{e}$  and i, as in shéén and kiin for shææn and kyyn. In Modern Icelandic ææ became first unrounded, and the resulting ee ran

II.
TEUTONIC LONG VOWELS.<sup>1</sup>

	AA	П	0	0	$\mathbf{U}$	U	ΑI	$\mathrm{AU}$	IU
1 Gothic	1 ded	2 wein	3 god	4	5 hus	6	7 stain	8 draum	9 diup
2 Old High	$\frac{aea}{t\bar{a}t}$	wīn	guot	gruoni		hūsir	stain stein	traum troum	tiuf
German  3 Modern High German	taat	wain	guut	gryyn	haus	hayzer	shtain	traum	tiif
4 Old Saxon	dad	win	god	groni	hus		sten	drom	diop
5 Dutch	daat	wèin	ghut	ghrun	hœys zyyr		stéén	dróóm	dip
6 Old Icelandic	dā8	wīn	g ' 8	$gr\bar{e}n$	hūs	$k\bar{y}r$	stèin	draum	diūp siōn
7 Modern Icelandic	dan8	viin	góuð	grain	huus	kiir'	stéin	dræim	djuup sjóun
8 Swedish	dòòd	viin	góód	grœœn	huus <sup>2</sup>	lyytə	stéén	drœm	dj <i>uu</i> p syyn
9 Danish	dòòʻð	viin	góóg	græn	huus	lyydə	stéén	dræm	dyyb syyn
10 Old English	dæd	win	god	grene	hus	$e \overline{y}$	stan	dream (=eaa)	<i>dεορ</i> (=eóó)
11 Middle English	<i>deed</i> (=éé)	wiin	good (=66)	green (=éé)	hous(e) $(=uu)$	kye	ston(e) (=òò)	dream (=èè)	
12 Modern English	ddii	wain	gud	griin	haus	kai	stóun	driim	diip

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In this and the following table the actual spelling (not the theoretical pronunciation) of the dead languages is given in italics; the modern forms are written phonetically.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The italics indicate the peculiar Swedish u—intermediate to u and y.

together with the regular  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$ , and, like it, was diphthongized into ai, so that the Old Icelandic baakr is now disguised under the form of baikar. The same change took place in Old English, only it was not carried so far: the baak (written bae or beae, p. 23) of the oldest period appears in the later MSS. as bee ( $=b\acute{e}\acute{e}k$ ). In Middle English we have the unrounding of y into i, cyning becoming cing.

- 3) Low to mid. Modern English, as will be shown hereafter, affords two unmistakable instances of this change. It is also certain that the German óó from au was originally "low," for in the Oldest High German such words as lóós (=laus) are frequently written laos. Similar evidence can be adduced in the case of the corresponding Dutch óó. The ee from ai has in like manner passed through the low to the mid stage in German and Dutch.
- 4) Mid to high. Of this change, again, Modern English affords illustrations, whose consideration must be deferred. Original  $\delta\delta$  has in nearly all the Teutonic languages been raised from the mid position it still preserves in Swedish and Danish (although even here with a slight labial modification in the direction of u) to the high one of u.
- 5) High to diphthong. With the high position the extreme is reached, as far as position is concerned. We find, accordingly, that the two high vowels ii and uu either remain unchanged, which is the case in the Scandinavian languages, or else undergo various modifications in the direction of ai and au. As there can be no question that Middle English agreed with the Scandinavian languages in retaining long i and u unchanged, the consideration of their diphthongization may be deferred till we come to the Modern period, to which belongs also the development of the diphthong iu out of yy.
- 6) Besides these regular modifications of the two high vowels, there are isolated diphthongizations of other vowels.
  - a) óó to ou. In Icelandic gou's for the older góó's, and Modern English stóun for stóón.
  - b) éé to éi. In the Modern English téik for téék.
  - c) óó to uo. In the Old German guot for góót, still preserved in South German in the shape of guət.

- d) òò to au. In Icelandic, where original au passed through the stage of simple rounding (òò), and was then resolved into au, laata (let) becoming first lòòta and then lauta.
- e) èè to ai. The i-umlaut of aa has in the same way been resolved into ai in Modern Icelandic, so that vèèri (written væri) is now vairi.
- 7) Back to front. Exemplified in the Dutch zyyr for zuur.

### B. Short Vowels.

- 1) Round to unrounded. In Icelandic, English, and some German dialects y has been unrounded into i. The same is the case with short e in German. In Modern English we have, lastly, a very anomalous case of unrounding of the back vowel e, but becoming b ot.
- 2) Back to front. Short u has in Icelandic and Dutch been changed into a front vowel—the high-front-wide-round in Icelandic, the low-front-narrow-round (or its imitation, the mid-mixed-narrow) in Dutch. The open  $\delta$  in Icelandic (the u-umlaut of a) has changed into a (the mid-front-wide-round),  $m\delta nnum$  becoming  $m\alpha nnym$ . Short a has, lastly, been changed into the low-front-wide (a) in a few English dialects—including the literary English.
- 3) Mid to low. The two mid vowels  $\acute{e}$  and  $\acute{o}$  have in all the Teutonic languages been brought down to the low position, so that the old distinction between  $\grave{e}$  and  $\acute{e}$  has been lost everywhere, except, perhaps, in some German dialects: compare Old English  $\grave{e}nde$ ,  $h\acute{e}lpan$ , with the Modern levellings  $\grave{e}nd$ ,  $h\grave{e}lp$ .
- 2) High to mid. As a general rule the high vowels i and u have retained their positions, but in Dutch the short i is now represented by the mid-front-wide, and the short u by  $\delta$  (the mid-narrow), thus taking the place of original short o, which, as in the other languages, has been lowered to  $\delta$  (the low-wide): compare  $st\delta k$  with  $b\delta k$  (=buk). The peculiar Modern English u in but ( $b\delta t$ ) seems also to be a case of lowering from high to mid.

ij

TEUTONIC SHORT VOWELS.

	12	fulljan	fylla	fidla Sw. fylla	fyllan	fill	fil
	-	hul	hól	hòòl	hól	hole (=hòòl)	hóul
Ú	10	ufta	pđo	òft	íft	$(=\circ)$	òft
	6	n.ums	sumar.	syymar	sumor	$\begin{array}{c} summer \\ (= \text{sumer}) \\ \end{array} $	remes
	80	ошив	sunna	synna	sunne	uns	ues
		stilan	stėla	stèèla	stėla	$steal \\ (= \hat{e}\hat{e})$	stiil
	~	driykan hilpan	drékka	drèkka	helpan heofon	help heven (=è)	hèlp hèvən
	9	witan	vita	viita	witan	wit	wit
	9	winnan	vinna	v/mna1	сттан	win	winn
,	4	nati mati-	nèt	nèèt	mète	meat (=èè)	miit
	က	andi-	èndi	èndi	ènde	cnd (= è)	ènd
V	ଚୀ	namo wakan	vaka	vaaka	nama	name (=naam)	néim
	-	тани	танн то̀ннит	man mænnym	mann heard lòng	$ \begin{array}{c} man \\ hard \\ long \\ (=\dot{o}) \end{array} $	mænn haəd lòng
		1 Gothic	2 Old Icel.	3 Mod. Icel. man mæn:	4 Old Engl.	5 Mid. Engl.	6 Mod. Engl.

<sup>1</sup> Italics indicate wide vowels.

The only exception to this general lowering tendency is the frequent shifting of the a from the low to the mid position, which is very common in all the languages. The low sound is still preserved in South Scotch, Dutch, and many German dialects, and may be heard in some of the London dialects, where, however, it is probably quite a modern development.

We have, lastly, to consider the important distinction of narrow and wide. Here, also, short and long vowels pursue opposite courses, the general rule being that long vowels remain or become narrow, short vowels wide. These tendencies are at once apparent on comparing any pairs of long and short vowels in the more advanced Teutonic languages, in fact in all of them more or less, except German.

The principle has been carried out with such strictness in the case of the long vowels that, with the single exception of aa, all originally long vowels are now narrow in the Teutonic languages. The cause of this exceptional widening of aa has already been explained (page 28) as the result of the greater energy required in the formation of the narrow sound.

The short vowels are less consistent. In the first place, some of the languages show the tendency to widening either not at all, or else only partially. In South German all the short vowels are still narrow, including even the a (p. 28). In Danish and Swedish short i is sometimes narrow, sometimes wide, according to the nature of the following consonant.

The languages in which the principle is most strictly carried out are Icelandic and English. The only exceptions are the  $\grave{e}$ , which is narrow in both languages, and the English  $\flat$  in  $\flat$  in the tension of the narrow  $\grave{e}$  in all the Teutonic languages is a very curious phenomenon: it is not easy to see why it did not everywhere weaken into the wide a, which it actually has done in the Dutch kark for kark and several other words, and also in the South Scotch dialect of Teviotdale, where the English distinction of man, man, is represented by man, man.

The change of the low-narrow è into the mid-wide is, on the other hand, very common, and in many of the languages, as, for instance, English, the two sounds seem to be used almost indiscriminately. This change is, no doubt, a purely imitative one: the change from the low-narrow to the mid-wide must have been direct. To assume that the low-narrow was first widened, and then raised to the mid position, would be to ignore the fundamental laws of short vowel change.

We now see how complete the divergence is between long and short vowels. Long vowels contract both the pharyngal and the oral passage as much as possible, the former by "narrowing," the latter by raising the tongue and contracting the lips; short vowels pursue the very opposite course; high long vowels are never lowered, except partially by diphthongization; high short vowels are never diphthongized, but simply lowered.

# QUANTITY.

The general principles on which quantitative changes in the Teutonic languages depend are these:

- 1) unaccented vowels are shortened, accented vowels are lengthened or shortened under certain conditions, which are:
- 2) before a single consonant they are lengthened.
- 3) before double or combined consonants they are shortened.

The result of all these changes, if carried out strictly, would be to eliminate all short accented syllables altogether, and this is actually the case in Modern Icelandic, at least in polysyllables—either the vowel itself is long, or else, if it is short, the syllable is made long by a double consonant. In the other languages, however, the double consonants have been simplified, so that a large number of short accented syllables has been formed: compare Icelandic vinna with Danish vino (written vinde) and English winor, wining, German gowinon. This simplification of double consonants has

taken place in Icelandic also in the case of monosyllables such as man (written mann).

An important result of the simplification is the use of double consonants as a purely graphic expedient to denote the shortness of the preceding vowel. The double m, for instance, in *summer*, is simply a way of showing that the original shortness of the u has been preserved.

In Icelandic the lengthening of short vowels has been carried out with perfect consistency, but in the other languages there are many exceptions. Thus in Dutch all monosyllables preserve their shortness: compare vat, lòt, with the plurals vaaton, lóóton. The retention of original short quantity before single consonants is also very frequent in Modern, and consequently also in Middle English.

The chief cases in which Modern English preserves the Old English short quantity are these.

In the first place the high vowels i(y), u are not lengthened: compare wit from witan with iit from etan, son from sunu and com from cuman with n'em from nama. Exceptions, such as aivi from ifig, do occur, but they are very few.

English, like Dutch, shows a strong tendency to preserve short quantity in monosyllables, although there are many cases of lengthening. Nevertheless, it may safely be said that the great majority of Old English monosyllables preserve their short quantity in Modern English. Examples are: swon (from swan), bæch (bæc), bæc (bæc), sæd (sæd), lot (hlot), god (god), woz (wæs). Examples of lengthening are géiv (geaf), céim (cam), éit (æt), géit (geat), youc (geoc). The lengthened vowels in the adjectives téim and léit may perhaps have arisen from the definite forms tama, lata.

Dissyllables ending in a vowel, or the infinitival an, are almost always lengthened: nama, scamu, flotian, brecan, become n'eam, sh'eam, fl'out, br'eam. But there are exceptions: dropa becomes drop, and hafan (=habban) becomes  $h\~eam$ , contrasting with the regular beh'eam (from behabban).

But besides these isolated irregularities, there is a whole class of dissyllables which resists the lengthening tendency, namely those which end in a liquid or nasal. Examples are

hæmər (from hamor), betər (bèter), sædl (sadol), əvən (ofen), botəm (botom). There are, however, several exceptions. In the first place, all the past participles in o (except trodn) lengthen their vowel: frouzən, chóuzən, clóuvən, etc. There are also others, such as iivən (efen), óuvər (ofer), eicər (æcer), etc.

In applying these deductions to Middle English we are confronted by a formidable difficulty. The Midland writer Orm, as is well known, indicates short vowel quantity by doubling the following consonant. If, then, we find Orm in the thirteenth century writing always witenn, sune, not wittenn, sunne, how can we escape the conclusion that he said wiiten, sunne? If we accept the long vowels for the thirteenth century, we are forced to assume that the original short vowels were first lengthened and then shortened again before the diphthongization of ii and uu into ei and ou; for, otherwise, we should have had wait and saun in Modern English. Rather than accept this very improbable hypothesis, it seems safer to reserve any decided conclusion till the difficult question of quantity in the Ormulum has been more fully investigated.

The Modern forms of many words point clearly to their originally long vowels having been shortened in the Middle period. Besides the frequent shortening before two consonants, which will be considered hereafter, there are some cases before single consonants. Long ii is, as might be expected, often shortened, as in stif, dieh, and in other words where it stands for various other O.E. long vowels, such as sili=0.E.  $ges\bar{ce}lig$  and  $chil=c\bar{c}le$ . Examples of other vowels are ten=0.E. ten,  $wet=w\bar{ce}t$ ,  $let=l\bar{ce}tan$ ,  $l\bar{e}t$ . In  $ever=\bar{ce}rer=cefre$ , the shortening may be ascribed to the liquid in the following syllable.

# CLOSE AND OPEN EE AND OO IN MIDDLE ENGLISH.

We can now enter on the important question of the distinction between close and open ee and oo in Middle English.

Mr. Ellis, relying on the fact that Chaucer rhymes all the ees and oos together without distinction, comes to the conclu-

sion that there was only one sound, but he does not explain how the modern distinctions arose, or how it is that they correspond to distinctions in Old English. If too and taa are distinct in Old English, and are separated in the form of tuu and too in Modern English also, it is not easy to see how they could have been confounded in the Middle period. This view was vaguely indicated many years ago by Rapp, and has been recently revived by Dr. Weymouth, who is, however, clearly wrong in assuming that the Middle English sounds were identical with the Modern ones.

As the whole question offers considerable difficulties of detail, I propose to examine it as impartially as possible, utilizing all the evidence that is afforded by the graphic forms, by the general laws of change just stated, by the pronunciation of the sixteenth century, as investigated by Mr. Ellis, and by the pronunciation of the present day. I begin with the oos, as offering less difficulty than the ees.

Beginning, then, with the oos, we find that Middle English oo corresponds to three distinct sounds in Old English,

- 1) to  $\delta\delta$ : too, O.E. tó $\delta$  (too),
- 2) to aa: too, O.E. taa (toe),
- 3) to  $\delta$  short: hool, O.E. hól (hole).

Of these three oos the two first are kept quite distinct in the present Modern English, original óó being now pronounced uu, while oo from aa is now óó or óu. The natural inference that the two sounds were also kept distinct in the Middle period is fully confirmed by the graphic evidence, for in the earlier writings the oo from aa is often spelt oa, as in  $oa \forall e = 0.E$ .  $aa \forall e$  (Laṣamon), noan = naan (Procl. of H. III.), moare = maare (Procl. and A. Riwle), boa = baa (A. Riwle). The clear inference is that the oo from aa was pronounced with a sound intermediate to oo and aa, and consequently that original oo still retained its Old English sound.

The oo of hool, arising from original short ó, is in the present pronunciation represented by the same vowel as the oo from aa: it is therefore highly probable that it had in Middle English the same sound as the oo from aa, namely the more open one.

We may now examine the question from the comparative point of view, and see whether the results harmonize.

The first two oos need not detain us long. We have seen that original óó is, as a general rule, either retained without change, or else moved up into the u-position. It is quite certain that this change had not taken place in the Middle period: óó must, therefore, have been kept unchanged. Again, whenever aa has changed, it has been by rounding. It has been already proved that the Old English aa cannot well have been any other sound than the low-wide, and this, when rounded, naturally gives the low-back-wide-round.

The o of hol was almost certainly the mid-narrow sound (p. 30). The tendencies of short vowels are, as we have seen, towards lowering and widening. These modifications, applied to our vowel, give the low-back-wide-round. This vowel was then lengthened, and became identical with the  $\partial \hat{o}$  of  $t \partial \hat{o}$  from t a a, which, as we have seen, was no other than the low-back-wide-round.

But all long vowels are liable to be narrowed (p. 30), and we find, as a matter of fact, that the  $\partial \hat{o}$  from aa is narrow in all the living Teutonic languages which possess it. It is, therefore, not only possible, but extremely probable that the  $\partial \hat{o}$  soon became narrow in Middle English also:  $t\partial \hat{o}$  and  $h\partial \partial l$  would therefore have the sound of the Modern English words which are written taw and haul.

We may now turn to the ees. In the present English all the ees are levelled under ii, but Mr. Ellis's researches have proved that in the sixteenth century a distinction parallel to that of the two oos was still kept up, some of the Middle English ees being pronounced ee, some ii, those words which are now written with ea (such as sea) having the ee-sound, while ee (as in see) had the ii-sound. The analogy of the oos leads us to suppose that the sixteenth century ees correspond to Middle English èès, and the iis to éés. I will now give an example of the different ees, with the original Old English forms, together with those of the sixteenth century and the Middle English forms indicated by them, adding the present English spelling, which is, of course, nothing but a dead

tradition of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries pronunciation.

TENTH (	CENT.	FOURTEENTH CENT.	SIXTEENTH CENT.	NINETEENTH CENT.
sæ dæd dreām grēne deōp mète		drèèm gréén déép	séédiid dréém griin diip	sii (sea) diid (deed) driim (dream) griin (green) diip (deep)
stélan		{mète } {mèèt } {stèlan }	méétstéél	miit (meat) stiil (steal)

Reserving for the present the apparently anomalous  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  of  $\acute{d}\acute{e}\acute{e}d$ , the other changes, after what has been said on the oos, call for only a few remarks.

Old English  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{e}$  remain unchanged in the Middle period. Of the two diphthongs  $e\bar{a}$ , when simplified, naturally takes the low position of its principal element (the  $\bar{a}$ ), and  $e\bar{o}$ , as naturally, takes the mid position of its  $\bar{o}$ .  $\ell$ , following the usual tendencies of short vowels, is lowered, and the two short es are consequently levelled under the common form  $\hat{e}$ , which is afterwards lengthened. All the vowels either remain or become narrow.

An important class of apparent exceptions is exemplified in  $d\bar{\alpha}d$ , whose  $\bar{\alpha}$  is represented in Middle English not by èè, as would be expected, but by éé. An examination of these anomalous  $\bar{a}$ s soon reveals the fact that they correspond not to Gothic and general Teutonic ai, but to Gothic ē, general Teutonic  $\bar{a}$  (Gothic  $d\bar{e}ds$ , Old High German  $t\bar{a}t$ ). This is clearly one of the many cases in which the explanation of later English forms must be sought not in the literary West-Saxon, but rather in the Mercian dialect, in which the distinction between  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$ =original aa and  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$ =ai was still kept up. In short, the Middle English  $d\acute{e}\acute{e}d$  is descended not from  $d\bar{e}d$ , but from dēd. Traces of this older éé have been preserved in West-Saxon also, not only in such words as wen and cwen, but also in the  $r\bar{e}d$  of the name Ælfred, which is never written rad—the regular form of the substantive  $r\bar{a}d$ , when it stands alone.

# UNACCENTED E.

Middle English, like the majority of the living Teutonic languages, levels all the Old English unaccented vowels under e: compare Old E. caru, nama, gifan, with the Middle forms care, name, given. The sound of this e in Modern German, Swedish, Danish, and Dutch, is the midmixed-narrow, although, as we have seen (p. 30), there are traces of an older front sound, which we have theoretically assigned to the Old English final e. When we consider that the Middle English e in the fourteenth century was on the verge of extinction, we cannot well claim for it so archaic a sound as in Old English, and the analogy of the modern languages points clearly to some mixed vowel. graphic evidence wanting. The confusion and uncertainty of usage in the Middle English orthography shows clearly that the scribes were not satisfied with the letter e as a representative of the sound of unaccented e. In Wiclif's Bible, for instance, we find, besides the regular ende, synnes, such spellings as mannis, mannys, fadir, opyn, writun, locustus, constantly occurring. It is not improbable that the u is intended for the French u = y, and that this spelling is an attempt to represent the obscure sound of the mid-mixed, which, like all the mixed vowels, has a distinctly labial effect on the ear (p. 16).

# DIPHTHONGS.

Middle English, while simplifying, as we have seen, the Old English diphthongs, developed some new ones of its own. All the Middle English diphthongs, with the exception of those in words taken from Norse and French, arose from weakening of the consonants g and w, by which g passed through gh (as in German sagen) into i or u, and w into u. The most important of these diphthongs are ai, au, eu, and ou.

ai arises from O.E. ag (ag),  $\dot{e}g$ ,  $\dot{e}g$ ,  $\bar{e}g$ ,  $\bar{e}g$ : dai (from dag), wai  $(w\dot{e}g)$ , sai  $(s\dot{e}egan)$ , hai  $(h\bar{e}g)$ , clai  $(cl\bar{a}g)$ .

au arises from O.E. aw, ag: clau (clawu), drau (dragan).

eu arises from O.E. iw,  $\bar{i}w$ ,  $\bar{e}w$ ,  $e\bar{a}w$ ,  $e\bar{o}w$ : neu (niwe), speu ( $sp\bar{i}wan$ ), leud ( $l\bar{e}wed$ ), heu ( $he\bar{a}wan$ ), cneu ( $cne\bar{o}w$ ).

ou (òòu, óóu) arises from O.E. āw, ōw: sòòu (sāwan), blóóu

(blowan).

The development of ai from  $\hat{e}i$  ( $sai=s\hat{e}i=s\hat{e}cgan$ ) is paralleled by the Danish pronunciation of ei (as in vei=veg) as ai, and is probably the result of an attempt to bring out the diphthongic character of the combination more clearly. There are, however, traces of original ei even in the Modern period, in such words as eiht, ei & er = eahta, ag & er.

It will be observed that ag sometimes becomes ai, sometimes au. The general rule is that ag final or before a consonant becomes ai, while, if followed by the back vowels a or u, the diphthong au is developed. Thus, dag (dæg), tagl (tægl), magn (mægen), become dai, tail, main, while dragan, sagu, become drau, sau. We have, however, sau from sage.

The change of i into eu in the combination iu, and the levelling of the quantities of iw,  $\bar{\imath}w$ , etc., must be noticed, although the cause is not apparent.

That the oou-diphthongs preserved the long quantity of their first elements is clear from the accounts of the sixteenth century phoneticians; the separation of dou and dou is theoretical.

In the combinations ig and ug the consonant is naturally absorbed by the vowel, the result being simply a long vowel: lii (licgan), uul (ugle).

# Consonant Influence.

Quantity. Short vowels are lengthened before liquids and nasals followed by a voice stop—before ld, nd, mb (often also before rd and a few other r-combinations). Thus Old English wilde, findan, climban, become willd, find, climb, the length of whose vowels is shown by the modern forms waild, faind, claim. Exceptions can be explained on the same principle as the other cases of the abnormal retention of original short quantity, namely, by the presence of a liquid in the second syllable; hence hinder, wunder, timber, not hiinder, etc.

Quality. a before ld is rounded into  $\hat{o}$ , and then, in accordance with the rule just stated, lengthened, so that the Old English sealde passes through salde into  $s\hat{o}lde$ , and finally becomes  $s\hat{o}\hat{o}lde$ , whence the Modern  $s\hat{o}\hat{o}ld$ .

The rounding of short a before nasals, which almost disappeared towards the end of the Old English period, at least in West-Saxon, crops up again in Middle English. An examination of the present forms gives the following rules for the occurrence of  $\delta = a$  before nasals. Most of the cases of rounding are before ng, the general rule being that while verb preterites keep a, all other words have  $\delta$ . Thus we have the substantive song, but the preterite sang. Exceptions are hang and fang, which should regularly be hong, fong. Rounding before n and m is exceptional: the only examples are on, bond, from, woomh, coomh.

We may now sum up briefly the changes of the Middle period. a is preserved, except before *ld*, where it is rounded, and a and *ea* are levelled under it.

è and é, together with eo, are levelled under è.

y is confounded with i, which remains unchanged, except that it was probably widened.

 $\hat{o}$  becomes  $\hat{o}$ , and  $\hat{o}$  is kept unchanged.

u remains, although probably widened.

a,  $\dot{e}$ , and  $\dot{o}$  are often lengthened, giving aa,  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$  and  $\dot{o}\dot{o}$ . It will be observed that the Old English  $\dot{e}$  and  $\dot{o}$  are not lengthened into  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$  and  $\dot{o}\dot{o}$ , but pass through  $\dot{e}$  and  $\dot{o}$  into  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$  and  $\dot{o}\dot{o}$ .

Of the long vowels  $\bar{\alpha}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ ,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ ,  $\bar{u}$  remain unchanged.

 $\bar{y}$  becomes ii.

 $\bar{a}$  becomes  $\partial \hat{o}$ .

Of the diphthongs  $e\bar{a}$  becomes  $\dot{e}\dot{e}$ ,  $e\bar{o}$  becomes  $\dot{e}\acute{e}$ .

New diphthongs are developed by the weakening of g and w.

Unaccented vowels are levelled under  $\vartheta$ .

Short vowels are often lengthened before liquids followed by voice stops.

#### MODERN PERIOD.

## Loss of final E.

The loss of final e in English is one of the many instances of how the whole grammatical structure of a language may be subverted by purely phonetic changes, for it may safely be said that the loss of final e in Modern English is almost equivalent to loss of inflexion altogether. Middle English, although much reduced, was still distinctly an inflexional. language, as much so at least as Modern Danish or Swedish: its verbs had infinitive and plural endings, and its adjectives still retained some of their old inflexions, including the peculiarly Teutonic distinction of definite and indefinite. In Modern English all this is lost: not only is the distinction of definite and indefinite lost, but our adjectives have become absolutely indeclinable, and the whole spirit of English is now so different from that of the other Teutonic languages, that their most familiar distinctions are quite strange to us, and can only be acquired with considerable difficulty.

The loss of final e marks off English sharply and distinctly from the cognate languages, in all of which it is strictly preserved. Those who have such difficulty in admitting, even after the clearest evidence, that Chaucer may possibly have pronounced the final e, should try to realize to themselves the fact that the loss of final e is really quite an exceptional and anomalous phenomenon: instead of being surprised at Chaucer still retaining it, they should rather be surprised at its loss at so early a period as the fifteenth century, while preserved to the present day in all the cognate languages.

An important result of the loss of final e was to prevent change in other directions: we shall find that the Middle English sounds were preserved almost unchanged long after its disappearance. Mr. Ellis's researches have shown that the most characteristic features of Middle English, as, for instance, ii and uu, were preserved some way into the sixteenth century; others, such as the old ai and au, still later.

But the tendency to change soon begins to manifest itself, and by the beginning of the seventeenth century we find many important changes either completed, or else in partial operation. During the latter half of the seventeenth century the whole phonetic structure of the language may be said to have been revolutionized. Some slight further changes took place during the first half of the eighteenth century, and by the middle of the century the language finally settled down into nearly its present state. We may, therefore, distinguish roughly five periods of Modern English.

1) the Earliest (1450-1500 or rather later), which preserves the sounds of the Middle period unchanged, except that it throws off the final e. I propose, therefore, for the sake of convenience, to cite the Middle English forms in this Earliest Modern English, which is really equivalent to Latest Middle English.

2) the Early (1550–1650), in which the Middle sounds were distinctly modified, ii and uu being diphthongized, and  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  and  $\acute{o}\acute{o}$  moved up to the high positions of ii and uu,  $\grave{e}\grave{e}$  and  $\acute{o}\acute{o}$  being moved into the vacant mid positions.

3) the *Transition* period (1650–1700), characterized by very important and sweeping changes, such as the simplification of the Middle diphthongs ai and au, the fronting of a and aa into a, a, a, and the development of the peculiarly English a from a.

4) the *Late* period (1700 onwards), in which the long vowels of the Transition period undergo a process of lingual narrowing, *eæ* passing through èè into éé, while éé itself becomes ii.

5) the Latest period, remarkable for its excessive tendency

to diphthongization, especially in the case of  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  and  $\acute{o}\acute{o}$ , which are in the present generation almost always  $\acute{e}i$  and  $\acute{o}u$ .

It is probable that many of the distinctive features of this period existed already in the previous period, either as individual peculiarities or as vulgarisms. It is certain that in the present generation many new pronunciations, which are really very widely distributed, are entirely ignored, or else denounced as vulgarisms, even by the people who employ them habitually. These unrecognized pronunciations are of two kinds, 1) those which, though ignored by every one, are in universal use, and 2) those which appear only sporadically in educated speech, although many of them are firmly established in the language of the populace. As these pronunciations are of great philological importance, as showing us the changes of sound in active operation, and as they have been hitherto quite ignored by phoneticians, I propose to treat of them hereafter as fully as my imperfect observations will allow.

### EARLY MODERN PERIOD.

- a, aa. Mr. Ellis's authorities seem to describe a very thin sound of the a, although the a of the following period does not seem to have been recognized. I think it very probable that the real sound was that of the present Danish a in mand, mane, which is the mid-back-wide-forward, the tongue being advanced considerably, while the tip is kept down. When the tongue is in this position, a very slight raising of the middle of it towards the palate converts this forward a into a, which it closely resembles in sound.
- e, i, o. As these vowels are retained unchanged in the present English, any discussion of their pronunciation in the Early Modern period is superfluous.
- u. That u still retained its original sound is clear from the statements of the phonetic authorities. Salesbury writes it with his Welsh w, as in bwck=buck.
- y. It is interesting to observe that there are distinct traces of the old short y in the Early Modern period. Clear evidence is afforded by a passage of Salesbury, which I think

Mr. Ellis has misunderstood. Salesbury says (E. E. P. pp. 111, 164) that "Welsh u soundeth as the vulgar English people sound it in these words of English, trust, bury, busy, Huberden." Mr. Ellis thinks that Salesbury means nothing but the wide as opposed to the narrow i. It seems improbable that so minute a distinction should have been noticed by Salesbury-still more that, even if he had noticed it, he should have gone out of his way to describe it. Nor do I agree with Mr. Ellis in considering the distinction between the Welsh u and the wide i as being very slight. My own observations of the Welsh u, as pronounced in North Wales, fully confirm Mr. Bell's identification of it with the high-mixed-wide vowel (although it seems to be narrow when long), which Mr. Ellis also adopts, but the sound seems to me to be as distinct from i as the unaccented German e (the mid-mixed-narrow) is from  $\acute{e}$  (the mid-front), and to be much more like y than i (p. 16). I think Mr. Ellis has been led astray by Mr. Bell's identification of the unaccented e in fishes, etc., with this high-mixed vowel, which I believe to be erroneous. Mr. Bell acutely observed that the e in fishes was not identical with the preceding i, and being unable to find a place for it among his front vowels, fell back on the mixed. I find, however, that the real distinction is that the unaccented vowel is the highfront-wide lowered half-way to the mid position, a sound which Dr. Murray recognizes in Scotch, and writes (é).1

That the Welsh u sounded to Salesbury himself very like y is clear from his express statement that the French u, the German  $\ddot{u}$ , and the Scotch u, closely resembled his own u (E. E. P. p. 761). If, now, we examine the four English words given by Salesbury, we shall find that the history of all of them points decisively to the y-sound. Bury and busy are in Old English bebyrgan and bysig, trust is the Norse treysta, a diphthong which could not well contract into any vowel but y, and the first half of Huberden is probably the French Hubert, which, of course, had the y-sound. What

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland, p. 106.

Salesbury's statement amounts to is, therefore, that these three words (for we may pass over the last) were in the sixteenth century pronounced by the vulgar tryst, byri, byzi.

Although Salesbury characterizes these pronunciations as vulgar, it is quite clear, from the retention of the French spelling u=y in all of them up to the present day, that the old pronunciation must have been kept up some way into the Modern period. Whenever we find a word written with y in Old English, and with u in the present spelling, we may suppose it preserved the y-sound in the beginning, at least, of the Modern period. Such words are:

There are besides two interesting words in which the y-sound is expressed by the digraph ui, which are:

build (bild).....O.E. byldan .......M.E. build, buld, bild, beld guilt (gilt) .....gylt ......gult, gilt, gelt

These words evidently caused considerable embarrassment to the phonetic writers of the Early Modern period, for they had no proper sign for short y, and were compelled to identify it with the long French yy in myyz (written muse), or else, if they wished to preserve its quantity, to confound it with short i. I will now give the sixteenth century pro-

nunciations of these words, as deduced by Mr. Ellis. I have not made any alteration in his spelling, except in the case of Salesbury's u, which I have written y, as there seems to me to be no doubt that this was the sound intended by him. I have not thought it necessary to add the authorities, except in the case of Salesbury.

burden: u.
bury: y (Sa.).
busy: y (Sa.).
church: y (Sa.), yy, i, u.
much: i, u? y?
shut: i.
build: yy, ii, i, ei (=Middle E. ii).
guilt: i.

The long yy in chyyrch is probably a mere inaccuracy of Smith's, for Salesbury writes distinctly tsurts, not tsuurts, as he would have done had the vowel been long. The yy of byyld may, on the other hand, be correct, for y may very well have been lengthened before ld, as i is (viild=O.E. ville).

The us in these words (except perhaps in much) I am inclined to regard as mere pedantry—the attempt to conform the pronunciation to the spelling, of which we have numerous instances in that very pedantic age. Of this artificial u for y the foreign word just is a striking example. This word was certainly never pronounced with u in the Middle period, and even at the present day the legitimate descendant of the old just is still to be heard from all uneducated and many educated speakers in the form of jist. Yet we find the artificial u-pronunciation already insisted on in the sixteenth century.

ii, uu. Although long ii and uu were still preserved at the beginning of the Early Modern period, they soon began to be diphthongized. Salesbury writes ei and ow, as in wein (=wiin), ddow (=8uu), probably meaning ei, ou. There seem also to be indications of a broader pronunciation, oi, ou, which, as we shall see, became general in the following period. It is, then, clear that ii and uu were first modified by partial lowering, i-i, u-u, becoming e-i, o-u, and that the

resulting diphthongs were then exaggerated by divergence—a not unfrequent phenomenon.

èè, éé, òó, óó. The history of these vowels in Modern English affords a striking example of the Teutonic tendency to narrow long vowels, each of them being raised a step, so that éé and óó become ii and uu, as in diid=Middle E. dééd and suun=soón, while èè and òò become éé, óó, as in dréém=Middle E. drèèm and bóón=bòòn (O.E. bān).

In one word, the Middle E.  $\partial \hat{\sigma}$  has been preserved up to the present day, and, we may therefore assume, in the Early Modern period also, namely, in the adj.  $br\hat{\sigma}\hat{\sigma}d=0$ .E.  $br\tilde{\sigma}d$ .

ai, au, eu, òòu, óóu. The Middle English diphthongs are generally preserved, although there are traces of the simplification of ai and au, which was fully carried out in the following period. eu was also simplified into yy in some words, such as tryy, nyy, while in others, such as heu, sheu, it was preserved. óóu did not, as might be expected, become uu, but its first element was kept unchanged, so that błóóu (=O.E. blōwan) has remained unchanged up to the present day. òòu seems to have changed regularly into óóu, enòòu (=O.E. enāwan) becoming enóóu: the two oous were therefore levelled.

## QUANTITY.

Middle English èè seems to have been shortened very early in the Modern period in some words which still preserve in writing the ea=Middle E. èè. Such words are dèf, instèd, hèd, rèd (partic.), lèd (subst.), dèd, brèd, and several others. Nearly all the cases, it will be observed, occur before d. We shall find the same tendency to shorten before a stopped consonant in the Late Modern period as well.

## CONSONANT INFLUENCE.

The most important case is the development of u before l in the combinations al and  $\delta\delta l$  (=Middle E.  $\delta\delta$ ), al, talk,  $\delta\delta ld$ , becoming aul, taulk,  $\delta\delta uld$ . The form aul is the origin of our present  $\delta\delta l$ ,  $t\delta\delta k$ .

The only traces of r-influence, so marked in the present period, are shown in the occasional conversion of e into a, as in hart, smart, for the older hert, smert.

#### TRANSITION PERIOD.

We now come to the most important and difficult period of Modern English, in which the vowels of the language may be said to have broken away entirely from the Middle English traditions, and entered on a new life of their own. It is therefore fortunate that the phonetic authorities of this period are of a far higher stamp than those of the preceding one: many of their observations are extremely acute, and are evidently the result of careful study of the actions of the vocal organs.

#### SHORT VOWELS.

e, i, o, remain unchanged, as in the previous period. It is interesting to observe that we now, for the first time, find the qualitative distinction between short and long i and u recognized by one of Mr. Ellis's authorities. The following is Cooper's list of exact pairs of long and short vowel-sounds (E. E. P. p. 83).

can ken will folly full up meet foot cast cane weal fall foale — need fool which Mr. Ellis interprets thus (denoting the wide vowel by italies):

fòli kèn wil fulcæn qє  $_{
m mit}$ fóól niid cææst kèèn wéél fòòl It is clear that, as Mr. Ellis remarks, Cooper was dissatisfied with the usual pairing of i, ii, and u, uu (fil, fiil), and therefore tried to find the true short-narrow i and u in miit and fuut, where the ii and uu were probably shortened before the voiceless t, as is still the case. Again, he lengthened the short wide i and u, and finding that the resulting long vowel was nearly identical with the mid-narrow éé and óó, naturally identified them as the true longs and shorts.

must be observed that the *u* of *fuut* has not only been shortened to *fut* in the present English, but has also had time to follow the usual tendencies of short vowels, and become wide. The shortening is, therefore, in all probability, of some antiquity. If, then, we suppose that the long *uu* of *fuut* had been shortened to *u* in Cooper's time, and had not yet been widened, we see that the pairing of *fut* and *fuul* may very well have been perfectly accurate, both as regards quality and quantity.

In the pairs folly, fall, Mr. Ellis makes the short o of folly to correspond exactly with the long  $\partial \hat{o}$ , and assumes it to be narrow. This, I think, is unnecessary. It is clear that Cooper's analysis is not absolutely accurate; it is only a considerable step in advance. He may very well have considered the distinction between  $\partial \hat{o}$  and  $\partial \hat{o}$  quite minute enough, and may therefore have disregarded the further refinement of

distinguishing narrow and wide ò.

a. The present a-sound is clearly recognized by the seventeenth-century phoneticians. Wallis describes a (both long and short) as a palatal, as opposed to a guttural vowel—as being formed by compressing the air between the middle of the tongue and the palate with a wide opening. And the Frenchman Miege identifies the English short a with the French e ouvert, which would certainly be the nearest equivalent.

u. The change of the old u into  $\vartheta$  was fully established in the Transition period, and it is clear from the descriptions given of the sound that it closely resembled the present one: Wallis calls it an obscure sound, and compares it with the French eu in serviteur, while Miege compares it with the French o—a common error of foreigners at the present day, and both Wallis and Wilkins identify it with one of the pronunciations of Welsh y, which is generally identified with our  $\vartheta$ .

Before going any further, it will be necessary to consider the present pronunciation, or rather pronunciations, of the  $\vartheta$ more closely. There are two distinct sounds of the  $\vartheta$ —the high-back-wide and the mid-back-narrow, which, although formed so differently, are so similar in sound that even a practised ear finds it often difficult to distinguish them. Besides these two, a third sound may be heard in many English and Scotch dialects, which is the low-back-narrow.

Different as these three vowels are, they all agree in being unrounded back vowels, and it is clear from the seventeenth century statements that the main distinction between u and  $\vartheta$ was then, as it is now, that u was rounded, a not. Now it is quite certain that u itself was, in the seventeenth century, the high-back-wide-round (which it still is in those words, such as wulf, in which the u has been exceptionally retained); unrounded, this vowel would naturally become the highback-wide—the very sound still in common use. The probability that this was also the seventeenth-century sound is raised almost to a certainty by the statement of Wallis, that the sound is formed with the greatest of the three degrees of closeness of the lingual passage (between tongue and palate) recognized by him. Wilkins's statement that the sound is "framed by a free emission of the breath from the throat," and, again, that it is formed "without any particular motion of the tongue or lips," may be considered as evidence that some such sound as the present mid-back-narrow was also given to the 2, but it is quite as probable that the whole description is inaccurate.

The general conclusion I arrive at is, that u was first unrounded, and that the resulting high-back-wide was in some pronunciations imitated by the mid-back-narrow, which in some dialects was, in accordance with the tendencies of short vowels, brought down to the low position.

## Long Vowels.

éé, óó. The close éé and óó=Middle English èè and òó, are distinctly recognized. Wallis states that "e profertur sono acuto claroque ut Gallorum é masculinum," and Cooper, as we have seen (p. 522), pairs full and foal as long and short, which he could not have done if the oa of foal still had the broad òò-sound.

 $\dot{ei}$ ,  $\dot{ou}$ . The diphthongization of Middle English ii and uu is carried a step further than in the previous period; all the authorities agree in either identifying, or, at least, comparing the first element of the two diphthongs with the v of  $\dot{v}$   $\dot{v}$ 

ai, au. An important change of this period, although partially developed, as Mr. Ellis has shown, much earlier, is the simplification of the old diphthongs ai and au into eeand oo-vowels. Those writers of the Early period who acknowledge the simple sounds do not give any clue to their precise nature, but the seventeenth century accounts point clearly to  $\grave{e}$  and  $\grave{o}$ , which latter is the sound still preserved in such words as  $\grave{l}\grave{o}$ ,  $\grave{h}\grave{o}\grave{o}k=lau$ , hauk, although  $\grave{e}\grave{e}$ , as in  $\grave{d}\grave{e}\grave{e}=dai$ , has been moved up to  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$ , probably because the Early Modern  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  has become ii in the present English.

The above changes were either already in operation in the Early Modern period, or were at least prepared by previous changes: the next two are peculiar to the Middle period.

aa. Long, like short, aa was changed to the front vowel  $\alpha$ , naam becoming naam. The  $\alpha\alpha$ , being a long vowel, was soon narrowed into  $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\epsilon}$ , as is shown by Cooper's pairing ken  $(=k\dot{\epsilon}n)$  and cane  $(=k\dot{\epsilon}n)$  as long and short.

yy. Long yy, both in English words such as nyy, and French such as tyyn, was diphthongized into iu, nyy and tyyn becoming niu and tiun. The older yy was, however, still preserved by some speakers, and we have the curious spectacle of the two contemporaries Wallis and Wilkins ignoring each other's pronunciations, Wilkins asserting that the sound of yy is "of laborious and difficult pronunciation," especially "to the English," while Wallis considered this very yy-sound to be the only English pronunciation of long u.

It was probably the influence of this new *iu* that changed the older *eu* into *iu*, *heu*, etc., becoming *hiu*, whence by consonantization of the first element of the diphthong the present *hyuu*.

IV.
HISTORICAL VIEW OF ENGLISH SOUND-CHANGES.

OLD ENGLISH.	MIDDLE ENGLISH.	Modern English.
1 mann set (=sat) heard (=hard) nama 5 ènde (=andi) hélpan (=hilpan)	man sat hard nam ènd hèlp	mæn sæt hæed néim ènd hèlp
seofon   mète (=mati)   stélan (=stilan)     10 sē (=saiw)   dēd (=dād)   dreām (=draum)	seven mèèt stèèl	seven miit stiil sii diid driim
grēne seo	gréén séé wit hil wiiu	griin sii wit hil wain
fyr 6ft (= ufta)	fiir ôft òn hòòl	fair òft òn hóul tóó tuu
sunu	sun huus dai sei, sai lau	sən haus déi séi lòò

### LATE MODERN PERIOD.

The further changes of the eighteenth century are comparatively slight. The short vowels remain unchanged.

The only long vowels which undergo any modification are the ees. In the first place the éés of the preceding period are raised to ii,  $dr\acute{e}\acute{e}m$  becoming driim, the result being that the Middle English  $\grave{e}\grave{e}$  and  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  are both confused under ii. The word  $gr\acute{e}\acute{e}t=M.E.$   $gr\grave{e}\grave{e}t$  (O.E.  $gre\~{a}t$ ) is an example of exceptional retention of the older  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$ .

èè from aa and ai is raised to the mid-position of éé, left

vacant by the change of éé into ii, nèèm from naam and sèè from sai becoming néém and séé.

òò and óó are, on the other hand, retained unaltered. We see, therefore, that the fully-established pronunciation of the eighteenth century differed but slightly from that now in use.

### QUANTITY.

The Early Modern uu from  $\delta\delta$  is often shortened before stops, almost always before k, frequently before other stops, and occasionally before other consonants. Examples are: luk (=Middle E.  $l\delta\delta k$ ), tuk ( $t\delta\delta k$ ), buk ( $b\delta\delta k$ ), stud ( $st\delta\delta d$ ), gud ( $g\delta\delta d$ ), fut ( $f\delta\delta t$ ), huf ( $h\delta\delta f$ ),  $buz\partial m$  ( $b\delta\delta zom$ ).

Other cases of shortening are doubtful, as they probably took place in the Early period: even the changes just considered may have been, at least partially, developed in the Transition period.

The lengthening of vowels before certain consonants will be considered in the next section.

## CONSONANT INFLUENCE.

Some important modifications are produced in this period by consonant influence, which has, in some cases, also had a conservative effect in preserving older sounds, which would otherwise have undergone various modifications.

The most marked influence is that exercised by the r. So strong is it, indeed, that in the present English hardly any vowel has the same sound before r as before other consonants. One important result of this is that the r itself becomes a superfluous addition, which is not required for distinguishing one word from another, and is therefore weakened into a mere vocal murmur, or else dropped altogether, although always retained before a vowel.

The following table will give a general view of these modifications. The first column gives the Middle English vowels, the second gives what would be their regular representatives in Late Modern English, the third gives the forms

they actually assume, and the last column gives examples with the Middle E. forms in parentheses:

ar	ær	aar	haaəd (hard)
ir	ir	əər	þəəd (þird)
èr	èr	əər	swəəv (swerv)
ur	ər	əər	təəf (turf)
òr	òr	òòr	nòòab (norb)
aar	éér	èèr	fèèr (faar)
air	éér	èèr	fèèr (fair)
éér	iir	iiər (èèr)	diiər, veer (déér, veer)
èèr	iir	iiər (èèr)	iiər, bèèr (èèr, bèèr)
óór	uur	uuər, òòr	muuər, flòòr (móór, flóór)
òòr	óór	òòr	mòòr (mòòr)
iir	air	aiər	faiər (fiir)
uur	aur	auər	sauer (suur)

The sympathy between r and the broad (low or back) vowels, which is also shown in the older change of ster, etc., into star, is evident enough here also. In such words as  $f \partial r$  the seventeenth-century sound of long aa has been preserved almost unchanged, while in  $f(\partial r)$  the r has not only prevented the regular change into uu, but has even lowered the vowel from the  $\delta dr$ -position.

In many cases it is doubtful whether the influence of the r has been simply conservative, or whether the change—say of hard into hard—actually took place, and that the influence of the r afterwards changed the a into a. The change of a into a certainly seems to have been fully carried out in the Transition period before r as well as the other consonants, if we may trust the phonetic authorities; but it is quite possible that the older as may have remained throughout as vulgarisms, and soon have regained their lost ground.

The levelling of ir, er, and ur, which are kept quite distinct by the phoneticians of the Transition period, is a very curious phenomenon, as it has resulted in an entirely new vowel, which only occurs in these combinations. This vowel is the low-mixed-narrow. It is evidently closely allied to the regular short  $\vartheta$  in  $b\vartheta t$ , and it seems most probable that the first change was to level ir, er, and  $\vartheta r$  under  $\vartheta r$  (midback-narrow), which would then, by the further influence of the r, pass into the low-back-narrow, whence to the low-

mixed-narrow is but a short step. Then the vowel was lengthened, and the r absorbed.

The influence of l is, like that of r, in the direction of broadening. In the combinations alf and alm original short a is preserved, the l is dropped and the vowel lengthened, so that half and salm (written psalm) become haaf and saam. In the Early period some of these words developed the usual au, but the present forms cannot have arisen from au, except, perhaps, haam from halm, which is often pronounced  $h\partial \partial m$ , pointing clearly to an older haulm.

Besides, r and l, there are other consonants which tend to preserve the quality of short a, namely,  $\delta$ ,  $\beta$ , s and f, although the a is generally lengthened: faa $\delta r$ , paa $\beta$ , graas, aask, laaf, craaft. The refined Transition pronunciation pa $\beta$ , wsk, is, however, still to be heard.

Before leaving this subject of consonant influence, it is necessary to observe that the rules just stated do not always apply to dissyllables, but only to monosyllables. Thus we find seelou, fælou, not sòlou, fòlou, nærou not narou, and gæðər contrasting with faæðər and raæðər.

The influence of initial w is also very characteristic of Late Modern English. It not only preserves the old u, as in wul, wulf, but also regularly rounds short a into  $\dot{o}$ , what, swan, becoming  $wh\dot{o}t$ ,  $sw\dot{o}n$ ; also in dissyllables, such as  $sw\dot{o}l\dot{o}u$ ,  $w\dot{o}l\dot{o}u$ . The Transition forms wal, walf, what, were probably artificial refinements, which were never accepted by the mass of the people.

## LATEST MODERN PERIOD.

We are now, at last, able to study the sounds of our language, not through the hazy medium of vague descriptions and comparisons, but by direct observation; we can throw away theory, and trust to facts. If our analysis of speech-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mr. H. Nicol has just called my attention to the fact (which I had overlooked) that the change does not take place when the a is followed by a back consonant: wæg, wæx, etc.

sounds were perfectly accurate and exhaustive, and if our ears were trained to recognize with certainty every appreciable shade of pronunciation, the task would be easy enough. As it is, its difficulties are very great, and the observations I am about to make cannot therefore make any pretensions either to complete fullness or perfect accuracy. They are mere first attempts, and will require much revision.

#### DIPHTHONGIZATION.

The most prominent feature of our present English is its tendency to diphthongization.

The diphthongic character of our éé and óó has been distinctly recognized by our leading phoneticians, especially Smart and Bell.

Mr. Bell analyses the two diphthongs as  $\acute{ei}$ ,  $\acute{eu}$ , but I find, as regards my own pronunciation, that the second elements are not fully developed i and u. In pronouncing  $\acute{ou}$  the tongue remains throughout in the mid-position, and the second element only differs from the first in being formed with greater closure of the lips, so that it is an intermediate sound between oo and uu. In  $\acute{ei}$  the tongue seems to be raised to a position half way between  $\acute{e}$  and i in forming the second element, not to the full high position of i.

This indistinctness of the second elements of our  $\acute{e}i$  and  $\acute{o}u$  explains the difficulty many have in recognizing their diphthongic character. Mr. Ellis, in particular, insists strongly on the monophthongic character of his own ees and oos. I hear his ee and oo as distinct diphthongs, not only in his English pronunciation, but also in his pronunciation of French, German, and Latin.

The observation of existing pronunciations has further revealed a very curious and hitherto unsuspected fact, namely that our ii and uu are no longer pure monophthongs in the mouths of the vast majority of speakers, whether educated or uneducated. They are consonantal diphthongs, ii terminating in the consonant y, uu in w=iy, uw. The distinction

between bit and biit (written beat) depends not on the short vowel being wide and the long narrow, but on the former being a monophthong, the latter a diphthong. The narrowness of ii (or rather iy) is therefore unessential, and we find, accordingly, that the first element of both iy and uw is generally made wide. These curious developments are probably the result of sympathetic imitation of éi and óu; and the tongue being already in the highest vowel position the only means of further contraction of the lingual passage left was the formation of consonants.

The only long vowels left are aa and  $b\hat{o}$ . Are these genuine monophthongs? I believe not, although their diphthongic character is certainly not nearly so strongly marked as in the case of the vowels already considered. Nevertheless, these two vowels always seem to end in a slight vocal murmur, which might be expressed thus—aab,  $b\hat{o}$ . I find that aa and  $b\hat{o}$ , if prolonged ever so much, still have an abrupt unfinished character if this vocal murmur is omitted. The difference between  $b\hat{o}$  (written ba) and  $b\hat{o}$  (ba) is that in the former word the final ba is strictly diphthongic and half evanescent, while the ba of the second word is so clearly pronounced as almost to amount to a separate syllable. The distinction between the words written ba and ba farther is purely imaginary.

In popular speech these diphthongs undergo many modifications. The first elements of  $\acute{e}i$  and  $\acute{o}u$  often follow the general tendencies of short vowels, and are lowered to the low-front-narrow and low-back-wide-round positions respectively, giving  $\grave{e}i$  and  $\grave{o}u$ . This peculiar exaggeration of the two diphthongs, which is not uncommon even among the educated, is popularly supposed to be a substitution of ai for  $\acute{e}i$ , and those who employ it are reproached with saying "high" instead of "hay." I find, however, that those who say  $\grave{h}\grave{e}i$  for  $\grave{h}\acute{e}i$  never confuse it with  $\grave{h}ai$ , which many of them pronounce very broadly, giving the a the low-back sound of the Scotch man.

The  $\delta$  of  $\delta u$  is often, especially in affected pronunciation, moved forward to the mid-mixed-round position, and from

there, by lowering and further shifting forwards, to the low-front-narrow-round position, so that  $n\delta u$  becomes  $n\alpha u$ .

In like manner, the u of uw=uu is often weakened into the high-mixed-round (wide), which is nearly the German  $\ddot{u}$ . So that tuu becomes almost tyw or  $t\ddot{u}w$ .

The two diphthongs corresponding to Middle E. ii and uu show strongly divergent tendencies in the present pronunciation. The first element of our ai is, I believe, the high-back-wide (which is also the commonest sound of the  $\partial$  in  $b\partial t$ ), that of au the low-mixed-wide. In vulgar speech the distinction is still more marked, the a of ai being gradually lowered to the full low position, whilst the a of au is moved forward to the low-front-wide position, giving the familiar aus for haus. These exaggerations may be partly attributable to the desire to prevent confusion with the ei and ou arising from ee and ou

The investigation of these peculiarities is not only of high scientific interest, but is also of great practical importance. We see that the imagined uniformity of "correct" pronunciation is entirely delusive—an error which only requires a little cultivation of the observing faculties to be completely dissipated.

It is also certain that the wretched way in which English people speak foreign languages-often in such a style as to be quite unintelligible to the natives—is mainly due to their persistently ignoring the phonetic peculiarities of their own When we once know that our supposed long language. vowels are all diphthongs, we are forced to acknowledge that the genuine iis and uus of foreign languages are really strange sounds, which require to be learnt with an effort, in the same way as we acquire French u or German ch. case once came under my notice, in which the French word written été was confidently given forth as èitèi, on the strength of the grammar's assertion that the French e aigu had the sound of the English ay in hay. The result was, of course, to produce a word utterly unintelligible to a Frenchman.

#### SHORT VOWELS.

The short vowels do not seem to have changed much in the last few generations. The most noticeable fact is the loss of æ among the vulgar. It is modified by raising the tongue into the mid-front-wide, resulting in the familiar ceb for cæb. This anomalous raising of a short vowel is gradually spreading among the upper classes, and is already quite fixed in many colloquial phrases, such as nóu thene yuw, in which thæne is hardly ever pronounced with æ, as it should be theoretically. To keep the old original e distinct from this new sound, the original e generally has the broad sound of the low-front-narrow—a pronunciation which is very marked among the lower orders in London. In the pronunciation of those who retain æ, original e often has the thinner mid-front-wide sound.

#### QUANTITY.

The laws of quantity in the Latest Modern English, which are of a very peculiar and interesting character, were, as far as I know, never stated till I gave a brief account of them in the paper on Danish Pronunciation, already mentioned.

The distinction between long and short vowel is preserved strictly only in dissyllables. In monosyllables short vowels before single consonants are very generally lengthened, especially among the uneducated. If the vowel is kept short, the consonant must be lengthened. The result is, that short accented monosyllables do not exist in English. Either the vowel or the consonant must be long. If the vowel is naturally long, the consonant is shortened; if the vowel is originally short, the consonant is lengthened; or else the vowel is lengthened, and the consonant shortened. We thus obtain the forms téil, tèll, or tèèl, of which the last two are entirely optional. Although these quantitative distinctions are most clearly observable in the liquids, they apply quite as fully to the stops, as may be seen by any one who com-

pares the English hædd and hætt with the Danish hat, in which the t is really short, giving a peculiarly abrupt effect to English ears.

Among the educated the form  $t \grave{e} l l$  is more frequent, but among the vulgar the lengthened  $t \grave{e} \grave{e} l$  is very common. These popular pronunciations are very interesting, as affording the only true undiphthongic long vowels which English now possesses: fiil and fill in popular speech are really fiyl and fiil with the same wide vowel, the only difference being that in the latter word it is perfectly hemogeneous, while in the former it is consonantally diphthongized.

It also deserves notice that there are really three degrees of vowel quantity in English—short, medial, and long, the rule being that long vowels occur only before voice consonants or finally, while before breath consonants they become medial. Compare luuz with luus, paa&z with paab. This fact has been noticed by Dr. Murray, in his work on the Scotch Dialects (p. 98, note).

A similar distinction is observable in the quantity of some of the consonants themselves. Liquids and nasals are long before voice, short before breath consonants. Compare billd with bilt, sinnz with sins. This distinction of quantity has led Mr. Bell to assume that the l in bilt is voiceless, although he admits (Visible Speech, p. 67) that "there is a trace of vocality." That the l in the English bilt is not voiceless becomes at once evident on comparing it with the Icelandic lt, which is really lht, with a distinct hiss.

## CONSONANT INFLUENCE.

Apart from the laws of quantity already discussed, there is little to say on this subject. There are, however, words whose present forms afford instructive examples of the influence of l. These words are *childrən* and *milk*, in both of which the i has been gutturalized and labialized into u by the l, which in the second word has further developed into the diphthong yu, giving *chuldrən* and *myulc*. The diphthong in *myulc* is somewhat puzzling. It is not im-

possible that the older forms were *chyyldrən* and *myylc*, which were then diphthongized into *yu*, which in the former word lost its *y*-consonant; or *chyldrən* may have developed direct into *chuldrən*.

## Notes on the Consonants.1

#### H.

That initial h in Old English had the same sound as it has now, and not that of the German ch (kh), which it is generally agreed to have had when medial and final, is clear from its frequent omission, even in the older documents of the language; for if initial h had been really kh, there would be no more reason for its omission than for that of s or any other initial consonant.

During the Middle period the use of h to designate the sound of kh was abandoned in favour of gh, whence the present spellings night, laugh, for the O.E. niht, hleahhan. The spelling ch, as in German, also occurs, and it is, at first sight, difficult to see why it was not universally adopted instead of gh, which ought to express, not the breath sound kh, but rather the corresponding voice (as in German sagen). The simplest explanation seems to be that the ch was discarded in order to prevent confusion with the ch from c in child, much, etc.

## HR, HL, HW, HN.

There can be no doubt that in the oldest pronunciation of these combinations the h was pronounced separately, and that at a still earlier period the h was a real ch. In Modern Icelandic, however, which is the only Teutonic language that still preserves all these sounds, the combinations have been simplified into rh, lh, wh, nh, which are nothing else but the breath sounds corresponding to r, l, w, n, respectively. Modern English also preserves one of them in the simplified form of wh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These do not lay elaim to any fullness of detail: they are merely intended to serve as a stop-gap till it is possible to treat the subject more at length.

The fact that hr, hl, and hn drop their h very early in the Transition period, seems to show that the change from the compound h-r, etc., to the simplified rh, must have already begun in the Old English period. That they did pass through the stage of simplification is clear from the spellings rh, etc., as in rhof (Ormulum), lhord (Ayenbite), and the wh still preserved.

The change from hl to l is not, therefore, to be explained as the result of apocope of the initial h, but rather as a levelling of the voiceless lh under the voiced l—a change which is at the present moment being carried out with the only remaining sound of this group, the wh.

## þ, F.

The main difficulty here is to determine the laws which govern the distribution of the breath  $\flat$  and f, and the voice  $\aleph$  and v. The following table gives a general view of the relations of the living languages.

English bing	Væt broder óuþ
Icelandic bing	þaað brouðir éið
Swedish ting	det bróódər ééd
Danish ting	dé bróó%ər éé%
Dutch ding	dat brudər ééd
German ding	das bruudəraid (for ait)

The German *ait*, which is still written *eid*, really stands for *aid*, as final stops are always voiceless or whispered in German. The same is the case in Dutch, but original voiced stops preserve their vocality, if followed by a word beginning with a yowel.

The inferences suggested by this table are clear enough.

The English final  $\flat$  for  $\delta$  is evidently an exceptional change, which does not appear in any of the other languages. So also is the Icelandic  $\flat$  in  $paa\delta$ . The majority, then, of the living Teutonic languages agree in showing  $\delta$  medially and finally and  $\flat$  initially, except in a small group

of words in very common use, such as the, then, thus, than, thou.

The question now arises, what is the relation of the Dutch and German d in ding to the Scandinavian and English ting, ping? If the initial breath forms are the original ones, the voiced &at, etc., must be later modifications; if the & of &at is the older, the t and & of ting and & ping must be the later developments—in short, there must have been a period in which & did not exist at all.

If we go back to the Oldest English, we find no trace of any distinction between b and 8. Many of the oldest MSS. write the & in all cases—&ing, &at, brown, a&, while others write b with equal exclusiveness. When we consider that & is simply the usual d modified by a diacritic, and that the b itself is, in all probability (as, I believe, was first suggested by Mr. Vigfússon), a D with the stem lengthened both ways, we are led to the unavoidable conclusion that the voice sound was the only one that existed in the Early Old English period. The fact that some of the very oldest remains of our language use the digraph th cannot outweigh the overwhelming evidence the other way. It was very natural to adopt the digraph th, which already existed in Latin as the representative of the sound th, as an approximate symbol of the voiced dh, but it is clear that it was considered an inaccurate representation of a voiced consonant, and was therefore abandoned in favour of b or &, which were at first employed indiscriminately.

Afterwards, when the breath sound developed itself, the two letters were utilized to express the difference, and  $\flat$ , whose origin was of course forgotten, came to be regarded as the exclusive representative of the breath sound. Accordingly the later MSS. of the tenth and eleventh centuries always use both  $\flat$  and  $\aleph$  together, often rather loosely, but always with the evident intention of writing  $\flat$  initially,  $\aleph$  medially and finally. None of them seem to make any distinction between  $\flat$ ing and  $\aleph$ at, etc. It is, however, clear that these words must have had the same voice pronunciation as they have now.

We may therefore assume three stages in the history of the English th-sounds:

Early Old English	 8ing	ზæt	brō\sor	āð
$oldsymbol{L}$ ate Old $English$	 þing	%æt	brō\or	āъ
Modern English				

The mystery of the pronunciation of the, thou, is now solved: these words are archaisms, preserved unchanged by the frequency of their occurrence.

These results apply equally to the f. There can be no doubt that the f in Early Old English was vocal like the Welsh f, as is shown by the Old German spelling uolc, etc. (still preserved, though the sound has been devocalized, in Modern German), and the Dutch pronunciation.

In the Transition period the voiced f was represented by the French u, as in Old German, and it is clear from such spellings as vox for fox, uader for fader, that the initial vocality of the Old English f (and consequently of the  $\Im$  also) was still preserved, as it still is, in many of the Southern dialects.

Even in the present literary English we find initial vocality still preserved in the words  $v\acute{e}in$  (from fana), væt and vixen. As, however, these words are not of very frequent occurrence, it is not improbable that they were taken directly from one of the dialects.

There are a few cases of the retention of final vocality also, both of f and  $\delta$ , in the present English. The words are ov, twelv, and  $wi\delta$ , all three evidently preserved, like  $\delta wt$ , etc., by their excessive frequency. The pronunciations of and  $wi\delta$ , given by some of the Early Modern authorities, are made doubtful by their recognition of ov and  $wi\delta$  as popular or vulgar pronunciations: they may therefore be purely artificial.

The vocal pronunciation of initial s, which is common in our dialects, and is shown for the fourteenth century by the Kentish zay, zal, etc., cannot be original. The sound of z is unknown in Scandinavia, and even in Germany the "soft" s is clearly the result of Low German influence, and it is unknown in the South German dialects.

It seems, therefore, that the vocalization of initial (and also medial) s in English is merely a case of levelling, caused by the analogy of the vocal  $\aleph$  and v.

G.

The use of g for the g-consonant g of the other languages is one of the knotty points of Old English phonetics. It is commonly assumed that the g of  $g\bar{e}r$  (=Gothic  $j\bar{e}r$ ), g (=jus), and the ge of geoc (=juk), ge $\bar{a}$  (= $j\bar{a}$ ), are merely orthographical expedients for indicating this g-consonant. But there seems no reason why the i of the other national orthographies should not have been adopted in England also. As a matter of fact, it is used in foreign names, as in Iupytte (in the Chronicle), Iuliana, etc. And not only do such words as geoc alliterate with undoubted hard gs in the poetry, but we even find such pairs as g0, showing clearly that even in foreign words g0, showing clearly that even in foreign words g0, words with the g0 of g0, was at least very like it.

The ge of geoc makes it very probable that the g=y-consonant was a palatal sound—in short, a palatal stop formed in the place of y (=Sanskrit  $\overline{\exists}$ ). The conversion of an open into a stopped consonant is, of course, anomalous, but precisely the same change has taken place in the Romance languages.

The spelling cg for gg, as in licgan, ecg, is curious. We can hardly suppose that the combination is to be understood literally as c followed by g. Such a change would, at least, be entirely without precedent, and it seems most probable that the combination was meant to indicate a whispered instead of a voiced gg. The peculiarity, whatever it was, does not seem to have been carried into the Middle period, whose scribes always write gg.

Final g after long vowels or consonants often becomes h in Old English, which, to judge from the spelling  $bogh = b\bar{o}h = b\bar{o}g$ , was originally vocal (=gh), although it was soon devocalized. In the Transition period all medial and final gs became open (gh), as in German, Danish, and Icelandic. This gh after-

wards became palatalized after front, and labialized after back vowels (ghw), and in many cases the palatal and labial gh became still further weakened into i and u, forming the second elements of diphthongs. After a consonant the labial gh was confused with w (from which it differs only in being slightly more guttural), folgian becoming folwen. When the w came at the end of a word, it was weakened into u, folw becoming folu, and malw (O.E. mealwe) becoming malu. The present ou in folou, for which there is sixteenth century authority, as well as for folu, is anomalous. It is possible that the ou pronunciation may be artificial—the result of the spelling follow.

Even initial g is often weakened before front vowels, so often, indeed, that the Old English form of the g (g) came to be used exclusively to represent this weak sound, while the French form (nearly our present g) was reserved for the original stopped g. The first change was, no doubt into gh, gifan becoming ghiven, as in the Dutch  $gh\acute{e}\acute{e}van$ , which soon became palatalized, till at last it became simple g-consonant, as is clearly proved by such spellings as iag = 0.E. geaf (Peterborough Chronicle), gelt = gylt (Ayenbite), etc.

The g or ge, which represents original y-consonant in Old English, always undergoes this weakening, geoe,  $g\bar{e}$ , becoming  $y\partial \partial e$ ,  $y\dot{e}\dot{e}$ . Even when initial ge is merely the result of the diphthongization of a into ea, it is often weakened into ya, as in yard=geard=gard.

The result of all these changes was, that by the beginning of the sixteenth century gh was entirely lost, being either weakened into a vowel (i or u), or converted into the corresponding breath sound kh, but only finally, as in  $d\acute{o}\acute{o}uh$  (O.E.  $d\bar{a}g$ ), enuuh ( $gen\bar{o}g$ ). In most cases final gh (when not vowelized) was dropped entirely, as in  $f\acute{o}\acute{o}u$  ( $f\ddot{a}g$ ),  $f\acute{o}\acute{o}u$  ( $f\ddot{a}g$ ), fii (feoh).

In the present English kh—whether answering to O.E. g or h—has been entirely lost. It appears from Mr. Ellis's investigations that the full kh first became weakened to a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The u in  $d\delta \delta uh$ ,  $f\delta \delta u(h)$ , etc., was probably a mere secondary formation, generated by the ghw, the stages being oogh, ooghw, ooughw, and then oouh or simply oou.

mere aspiration, which was soon dropped. In such words as niht the i was lengthened, niht becoming niit, whence our present nait. Final kh preceded by a rounded vowel as in lauh, enuuh, was itself naturally rounded into khw, like the kh in the German auch; hence the present laaf, enof—laukh, lakhw, lawh, laf. For fuller details the reader must be referred to Mr. Ellis's great work.

## CH, J.

The change of c into ch before and after front vowels, as in child, tèèch, from cild, tæcan, offers considerable difficulties, on account of the many intermediate stages there must have been between the back stop c and the present tsh-sound. There can be no doubt that the first change was to move c to the front-stop position, but, although the further change to the point formation is simple enough, it is not easy to explain the intrusion of the sh: we would expect citld to change simply into tiild, just as gemaca becomes maat. I believe that the change from the intermediate front-stop to tsh is a purely imitative one. If the front-stop is pronounced forcibly—even with a degree of force stopping far short of actual aspiration—the escape of breath after the contact is removed naturally generates a slight hiss of yh (as in hue), which is very like sh in sound—hence the substitution of the easier tsh.

The same remarks apply also to the dzh-sound in wej, ej, rij, etc., from weeg, eeg, hryeg.

It is instructive to observe the analogous changes in the Scandinavian languages. In Icelandic k and g before front vowels are shifted forward a little, without, however, losing their back character, almost as in the old-fashioned London pronunciation of kaind, skai, etc. In Swedish k before front vowels has a sound which is generally identified with the English ch. If, however, my limited observations are correct, the real sound is the front stop followed by the corresponding open breath (yh). The sound is certainly not the English ch, which the Swedes consider an unfamiliar sound. In

Norwegian the stopped element is dropped entirely, and nothing remains but a forward yh, so that kenna is pronounced yhenna. Both in Norwegian and Swedish g before front vowels has the simple sound of the consonant y.

#### SH.

The change of Old English sc into sh is not exactly parallel with that of c into ch, as it takes place after back as well as front vowels—not only in such words as ship (=scip), but also in shun ( $\bar{a}scunian$ ), etc. It is therefore possible that sc may have passed through the stage of skh, as in Dutch, a change which seems to be the result of the influence of the s, the kh instead of k being, like s, a sibilant unstopped consonant. The Old English spellings sceacan, sceoc, etc., for scacan,  $sc\bar{o}c$ , however, seem to point rather to a palatalization of the c at an early period. Whatever the development may have been, it is certain that the sound soon became simple, for we find it often written ss in the Early Middle period.

In Swedish the sound of sh is fully developed, but only before front vowels. In Norwegian sk before front vowels changes its k into yh (voiceless y-consonant), which, as we have already seen, is the regular change, giving the combination s-yh, which is generally confounded with simple sh by foreigners. These facts tend strongly to confirm the view that the change of sk into sh in English also is due to palatalization of the k, although we cannot determine with certainty what the intermediate stages were.

## WORD LISTS.

The following lists are intended to include the majority of the words of Teutonic—that is to say English or Scandinavian—origin still in common use, with the corresponding Old and Middle forms. The first column gives the Old English forms; the second the Middle English (but without the final e, p. 56) as deduced from the Old English forms and the present traditional spelling, which is given in the third column; the

fourth, lastly, gives the present sounds. I have, of course, carefully compared the valuable pronouncing vocabulary of Early Modern English given by Mr. Ellis in his Third Part, especially in all cases of irregular change or anomalous spelling. These exceptions will be considered hereafter.

The words are arranged primarily according to their vowels in the following order:—a (æ, ea, ei), ā, i, ī, y, ȳ, é (eo), è, c, ==éé, ==èè, ea, eo, u, ū, o, o. Then according to the consonant that follows the vowel in this order: h, r, l, &, s, w, f, ng, n, m, g, e, d, t, b, p; and lastly according to the initial consonant in the same order. The principle I have followed is to begin with the vowels, as being the most independent elements of speech, and to put the stops at the extreme end as being most opposed to the vowels. semivowels or open consonants naturally come after the vowels, and the nasals next to the stops. As regards position, back consonants come first, then front, then point, and then lip. Voice consonants, of course, come before breath. It will easily be seen that the same general principles have been followed in the arrangement of the vowels. The order of position is back, mixed, front; high comes before mid, and mid before low, and round last of all.

To facilitate reference, I have often given the same word under as many different heads as possible, especially in cases of irregular development.

Old English forms which do not actually occur, but are postulated by later ones, are marked with an asterisk.

The Middle English forms in parentheses are those which, although not deducible from the spelling, are supported by other evidence.

Norse words are denoted by N., and the conventional Icelandic spellings are occasionally added in parentheses.

Many of the inorganic preterites (such as bore=bær) have been included in the present lists: they are all marked with a dagger.

a, æ, ea, ò.

		,		
old.	MIDDLE.		MOI	DERN.
hleahhan	lauh		laugh	laaf
geseah	sau		saw	sòò
eahta	eiht (ai)		eight	éit
hleahtor	lauhter	4	laughter	laaftər
sleaht	slauhter		slaughter	slòòtər
feaht	fauht		fought	fòòt
twhte	tauht		taught	tòòt
aron	ar	8	are	aar
hara	haar		hare	$\mathbf{h}\mathbf{\grave{e}}\mathbf{\mathbf{ar}}$
scearu	shaar		share	${f sh\`e}$ ə ${f r}$
starian	staar		stare	stèər
sparian	spaar	12	spare	spèər
wær	waar		ware (wary)	${f w}{f e}{f e}{f r}$
faran	faar		fare	fèər
nearu (nearw-)	naru		narrow	næróu
caru	caar	16	care	cèər
dear	daar		dare	dèər
tær	† tòòr		tore	tòər
bær (adj.)	baar		bare	bèər
bær (pret.) {	baar	20	bare	bèər
(prov.)	†bòòr		bore	bòər
ears	ars		arse	aəs
ar(e)we	aru		arrow	æróu
spearwa	sparu	24	sparrow	${f speróu}$
gearwa	gèèr		gear	giər
hærfest	harvest		harvest	haəvest
(ge)earnian	èèrn		earn	əən
wearnian	warn	28	warn	wòən
fearn	$\mathbf{fern}$		fern	fəən
gearn	yarn		yarn	yaən
earm	arm		arm	aəm
hearm	harm	32	harm	haəm
wearm	warm		warm	wòəm
swearm	swarm		swarm	swòəm
earc	arc		ark	aəc
ærce-	arch-	36	arch(bishop)	aəch-
			` - '	

a(m ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ā, eā, eō, u, o.

## a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		2	MODERN.
lāwerce	lare		lark	laəc
stearc	stare		stark	staec
spearca	spare		spark	spaec
mearc	mare	40	mark	maəc
bare, N. (börkr)	barc		bark	baəc
pearruc	parc		park	раэс
heard	hard		hard	haəd
weard	ward	44	ward	$\mathbf{w} \grave{\diamond} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{d}$
geard	yard		yard	yaəd
beard	bèèrd		beard	biəd
(るむ) eart	art		art	aət
sweart	swart	48	_	swòəþi
eræt	eart		cart	caət
teart	tart		tart	taət
hearpe	harp		harp	haəp
scearp	sharp	52		$\operatorname{sha\"{e}p}$
alor (under ld) ealu eall heall salu (sealw-) smæl	aal al hal salu smal	56	small	éil òòl hòòl sælou smòòl
sceal	shal		shall	shæl
scealu	scaal, shaal		scale, shale	scéil, shéil
steall	stal	60		stòòl
weall	wal		wall	wòòl
hwæl	whaal falu		whale fallow	whéil fælóu
falu (fealw-) feallan	fal	64	fall	fòòl
nihtegale	nihtingaal	O1	nightingale	naitinggéil
gealle	gal		gall	gòòl
calu (cealw-)	calu		callow	cælóu
ceallian (N.?)	cal	68		còòl
dæl	daal		dale	déil
talu	taal		tale	téil
bealu	baal		bale	béil
swealwe	swalu	72		swolóu
wealwian ,	walu		wallow	wolóu
mealwe	malu		mallow	$\mathbf{m}$ el $\acute{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{u}$

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.			MODERN.	
ælf	elf		elf	elf	
healf	half	76	half	haaf	
sealfian	salv		salve	sælv	
cealf	calf		calf	caaf	
1	,		7		
ælmesse	alms	0.0	alms	aamz	
healm	halm	80		${f h}{f \delta}{f \delta}{f m}$	
sealm	salm		psalm	saam	
hālgian	halu		hallow	hælóu	
gealga	galuz		gallows	gælóuz	
tælg	talu	84		tælóu	
stealcian	stalc		stalk	stòòc	
wealcan	walc		walk	wòòc	
bealca	balc		balk	bòòc	
bealcettan	belch	88		belch	
bearcettan	percu	00	oeich	beidi	
alor	$\operatorname{alder}$		alder	$\delta\delta$ ldə ${f r}$	
$\mathbf{e}$ ald	6166		old	-óuld	
ealdormann	alderman		alderman	òòldəmən	
healdan	m hoold	92	hold	hóuld	
$\mathbf{sealde}$	sòòld		sold	$s\'{o}uld$	
$\mathbf{fealdan}$	fòòld		fold	$\mathbf{f}$ ould	
$\operatorname{ceald}$	còòld		cold	cóuld	
${f tealde}$	tòòld	96	told	tóuld	
beald	bòòld		bold	bóuld	
healt	halt		halt	holt	
sealt	salt		salt	$\operatorname{solt}$	
$\mathbf{mealt}$	$\mathbf{malt}$	100	malt	molt	
hæ(f)ŏ	haþ		hath	hæþ	_
hra	ra*Ser		rather	raa 8ər	
hwæðer	whe'ser		whether	wheðər	
bæ8	bab	104		baab	
bagian	baa*S		bathe	béi&	
pæð	paþ		path	paab	
•			-	• •	
fæ8m	faðom		fathom	fæ∛əm	
ea(l)swā	az	108	as	æz	
assa	as		ass	aas	
*hæ(f)s	haz		has	hæz	

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.			MODER	N.
læssa	les		less		les
ŏy læs δe	lest	112	lest		lest
wæs	waz		was		woz
næs	nes		ness		nes
græs	gras		grass		graas
glæs	glas	116	ylass		glaas
bræs	bras		brass		braas
æsc	ash		ash		æsh
āscian	asc		ask		aasc
ascan	ashez	120	ashes		æshez
rase N.	$\operatorname{rash}$		rash		ræsh
wascan	wash		wash		$\operatorname{wosh}$
flasce	flase		flask		flaase
baŏa sic N.	base	124	bask		baase
la(to)st	last		last		laast
læst (superl.)	lèèst		least		liist
læstan	last		last		laast
fæst	fast	128	fast		faast
mæst	mast		mast		maast
gæst	gest		guest		gest
casta N.	cast		cast		caast
castel	castl	132	castle		caasl
blæst	blast		blast		blaast
æsp	aspen		aspen		æspen
awel	aul		awl		òòl
elawu	clau	136	claw		elòò
hafa (imper.)	hav	_	have		hæv
behafa –	behaav		behave		behéiv
hæfen	haaven		haven		héivən
hafoc	hauc	140	hawk		$h$ ò $\dot{o}$ c
stæf	staf		$\mathit{staff}$		staaf
stafas .	staavz		staves		stéivz
scafan	shaav		shave		shéiv
nafu	naav	144	nave		néiv
geaf	gaav		gave		géiv
græf )	graav		grave		gréiv
grafan ∫ ceaf	chaf				chaaf
cear ceafo <b>r</b>	chaafer	1/19	chaff	2 10	chéifər
ceator	chaater	148	(cock)chafe	<i>71</i>	enensi

h; r, hr, l, hl; %, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

# a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.			MODERN.
crafian clæfer	craav clòòver		crave clover	créiv clóuvər
hæf				
hræfn	raaven		raven	réivən
hæfde hlæfdige } (und	er d)			
æfter	after	152	after	aaftər
sceaft	shaft		shaft	${ m shaaft}$
cræft	craft		craft	craaft
angel (hook)	angl		to angle	ængl
hangan	hang	156	hang	$\mathbf{h}\mathbf{æ}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{g}$
hrang	rang		rang	ræng
lang	long		long	$\log$
þrang	þrong		throng	prong
bwang	þong	160	thong	þong
sang (pret.)	sang		sang	$\operatorname{sæng}$
sang(subst.)	song		song	$\operatorname{song}$
strang	strong		strong	strong
sprang	sprang	164		$\mathbf{spreng}$
wrang (pret.)	wrang		wrang	ræng
wrang $(adj.)$	$\mathbf{w}$ rong		wrong	rong
fang	fang	167	fang	feng
mangere	? monger (1	1)	monger	$\mathbf{m}$ əngə $\mathbf{r}$
òn gemang	? among (u	)	among	$\mathbf{emeng}$
gang	gang		gang	gæng
tange	tongs		tongs	tongz
banga N.	bang	172	bang	bæng
ancleow	ancl		ankle	æncl
ranc	ranc		rank	$\operatorname{renc}$
hlanc	lanc		lank	lænc
þancian	þane	176	than <b>k</b>	þænc
sanc	sanc		sank	sæne
scranc	shranc		shrank	shræne
stanc	stanc		stank	stænc
drane	dranc	180	drank	dræne
ænig	aani (a)		any	eni
hanep	hemp		hemp	hemp
-	. 1		1	*

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

# a, æ, ea, o (continued).

rann ran ran ran ran ran ransaca N. ransac 184 ransack ransace lane laan laan lane léin $bane$ $ban$	OLD.	MIDDLE.	MODER	N.
lane   laan   lane   léin	rann	ran	ran r	æn
Sanne { San than then Sen swan swan swan swan swan swan swan swa	rannsaca N.	ransac 184	ł ransack r	ænsæc
swan swan 188 swan swon gespann span span span span span wann (pret.) †wun won won wann (adj.) wan wan 192 wane wéin hwanne when when when when fana vaan vane véin mann man man man man man man man man m	lane	laan	lane 1	$ m \acute{e}in$
swan swan 188 swan swon span span span span span span span spa	Xanna	∀an		
gespann span span wann (pret.) † wun wan wan wan wan wan wan wan wan wan wa	oanne {	8en.	then ?	Sen
wann (pret.) † wun wan wan wan wan (adj.) wan	swan	swan 188	B swan s	won
wann (adj.) wan wan 192 wane wéin hwanne when when when when when fana vaan vaan vane véin mann man man man man man mane manig maani (a) many meni begann began began began ganot ganet ganet ganet cann can 200 can cæn crana crana craan craan baan baan ban ban ban ban panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aanser anfilt anvil anvil ænvil and hand land land sand sand sand sand sand stand stand stand strand strand strand 212 strand wond wand (pret.) † wuund wound wand wand wand pand bond bond bond bond bond bond bond bo		$\operatorname{span}$	span s	pæn
wann (adj.) wan wan 192 wane wéin hwanne when when when when when fana vaan vaan vane véin mann man man man man man mane manig maani (a) many meni begann began began began ganot ganet ganet ganet cann can 200 can cæn crana crana craan craan baan baan ban ban ban ban panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aanser anfilt anvil anvil ænvil and hand land land sand sand sand sand sand stand stand stand strand strand strand 212 strand wond wand (pret.) † wuund wound wand wand wand pand bond bond bond bond bond bond bond bo	wann $(pret.)$	† wun	won	vən
hwanne when when when fana vaan vane véin mann man man man man men mann man man men manig maani (a) many meni begann began began began began ganot ganet ganet gænet cann can 200 can cæn crana craan erane créin bana baan bane béin gebann ban ban ban ban ban panne pan 204 pan pæn anfilt anvil anvil ænvil  and and and and ænd hænd land land land land sand sand sand sand standan stand standan stand strand strand vand (pret.) twuund wander wander cand band brand brand band (subst.) { band brand want, want	wann $(adj.)$	wan	** ****	
fana vaan wane véin mann man man man man man man man man m		waan 195		
mann man man man man men men mane manig mani (a) many meni begann began began began began ganet gænet cann can 200 can cæn crana crana crana crana bana bana bana bana ban bæn panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær anfilt anvil anvil ænvil and hand hand hand land sand sand sand standan stand strand strand strand strand strand strand wand (pret.) † wuund wander candel candl band bond bond bond brand want, want	hwanne	$\mathbf{when}$		
mane man 196 mane méin manig mani (a) many meni began began began began began ganet gænet cann can 200 can cæn crana craan craan crane créin bana baan ban bæn beën panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær anfilt anvil ænvil ænvil and hand hand hand land sand sænd sænd sænd sænd standan stand strand strand strand strand wand (pret.) † wuund wander candel candl brand want want want	fana	vaan	vane	réin
manig mani (a) many meni began began began began ganot ganet ganet gænet cann can 200 can cæn crana craan craan crane créin bana baan bane béin gebann ban bæn panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær aansær anfilt anvil anvil ænvil and hand hand and and ænd hænd land land land sand sand sand sand standan stand strand strand strand strand strand strand strand wand (pret.) †wuund wound wand (pret.) †buund bound band band brand	mann			
begann began began ganet gænet gænet cann can 200 can cæn cæn crana craan craan crane créin bana ban ban bæn bæn panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær anfilt anvil and hand hand land land land land sand sænd sænd sænd standan stand strand strand strand strand wand (pret.) † wuund wander candel candl band band band band band (subst.) { band band band brænd wanta, N. want want want				
ganot ganet ganet genet cann can 200 can cæn crana craan craan craan crane créin bana baan bane béin gebann ban ban bæn pæn can(d)swarian answer answer aansær aansær anfilt anvil anvil ænvil ænvil and hand hand 208 hand hænd land land land sand sænd sænd sænd standan stand strand strand strand strand strand strand strand wand (pret.) †wuund wound wand (pret.) †buund bound band (pret.) †buund bound band (pret.) †buund bound band (pret.) †buund bond bond brand 220 brand want want want want want want want want		maani (a)		
cann crana cran crane crane crein bana baan bane bein gebann ban ban ban ban ban ban ban ban ban				
crana baan bane béin bein gebann ban ban ban ban ban ban ban ban ban	ganot		v	,
bana baan bane bein gebann panne pan 204 pan pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær aansær anfilt anvil ænvil ænvil and hand hand 208 hand hænd lænd sand sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sæ	cann	can 200		
gebann panne ban ban ban panne panne pan 204 pan pæn pæn an(d)swarian answer answer aansær aansær anfilt anvil ænvil ænvil and and and ænd hand hand band land lænd lænd sand sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sæ	crana	_	-	
panne pan 204 pan pæn  an(d)swarian answer answer aanser  anfilt anvil anvil ænvil  and and and ænd hand hand 208 hand hænd land land lænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd standan stand stand stænd stænd strand strand 212 strand strænd wand N. (vöndr) wand wand wand wand (pret.) † wuund wound waund wandrian wander wander wonder candel candl 216 candle cændl band (pret.) † buund bound baund band (subst.) { band bond bond brand brand 220 brand went		_	-	
an(d)swarian answer answer aanser  anfilt anvil anvil ænvil  and and and ænd hand hand 208 hand hænd land land lænd sand sænd sænd sænd standan stand stand stænd strand strand 212 strand strænd wand N. (vöndr) wand wand wond wand (pret.) † wuund wound waund wandrian wander wander wonder candel candl 216 candle cændl band (pret.) † buund bound band band (subst.) { band band bond bond brand 220 brand want want, N. want want want	gebann			
anfilt anvil anvil ænvil  and and and ænd hand hand land hand land land lænd sand sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sænd sæ	panne	pan 20	1 pan	pæ <b>n</b>
and and and bend hand hand hand hand hand hand hand ha	an(d)swarian	answer	answer 2	ansər
hand hand 208 hand hænd land land lænd sand sand sænd sænd sænd standan stand strænd strænd strænd wand N. (vöndr) wand wand wand wand wand wand candel candl 216 candle cændl band (pret.) † buund bound band (pret.) † buund bound bænd bænd bænd bænd bænd bænd bænd bæ	anfilt	anvil	anvil	envil
land land land land land sand seend standan stand stand stand stand stand strand strand strand strand wand N. (vöndr) wand wand wand wand (pret.) † wuund wander wander wander candel candl 216 candle cændl band (pret.) † buund bound baund band (subst.) { band bond bond bond brand 220 brand brænd wanten	and	and	and	end
sand sand sand stend stend standan stand stand stand stend strand strand strand strand strand wand N. (vöndr) wand wand wand wand wand (pret.) † wuund wander wander wander andel candl 216 candle cændl band (pret.) † buund bound baund band (subst.) { band bond bond bond brand brand 220 brand want want want want want	hand	hand 20	3 hand 1	nend
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	land	land	land 1	ænd
strandstrand212 $strand$ strændwand N. (vöndr)wand $wand$ wondwand ( $pret$ .)† wuund $wound$ waundwandrianwander $wander$ wondercandelcandl216 $candle$ cændlband ( $pret$ .)† buundboundbaundband ( $subst$ .){ bandbandbeendbondbondbondbondbrand220 $brand$ brændwanta, N.want $want$ wont	sand	$\operatorname{sand}$	sand s	$\operatorname{ænd}$
wand N. (vöndr)wand $wand$ wondwand ( $pret$ .)† wuund $wound$ waundwandrianwander $wander$ wondercandelcandl $216$ candlecændlband ( $pret$ .)† buundboundbaundband ( $subst$ .){ band $band$ bændbrandbrand $220$ brandbrændwanta, N.want $want$ wont	standan	stand	stand s	stend
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\operatorname{strand}$	strand 21:	2 strand s	$\operatorname{tr}$ end
wandrianwanderwanderwondercandelcandl $216$ candlecændlband (pret.) $\dagger$ buundboundbaundband (subst.) $\begin{cases} band & band & bend \\ bond & bond & bond \\ brand & brand & 220 brand & brænd \end{cases}$ wanta, N.wantwantwant	wand N. (vöndr)	wand	** *****	_
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	wand (pret.)	† wuund		_
$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			** ********	
$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		candl 21	6 candle c	eændl
$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	band $(pret.)$	† buund		
brand brand 220 brand brænd wanta, N. want want wont				
wanta, N. want want wont	(	$\operatorname{bond}$		
Transfer tra	brand	brand 22	o brand	orænd
	wanta, N.	want	want	wont
		plant	plant	plaant

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

# a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MOI	DERN.
ic eam	am		am	æm
æmette	emet	224	emmet, ant	emet, aant
hamor	$_{ m hamer}$		hammer	hæmər
ramm	ram		ram	ræm
lama (adj.)	laam		lame	léim
same	$\mathbf{saam}$	228	same	$s\acute{e}im$
swamm	swam		swam	swæm
scamu	shaam		shame	shéim
fram	from		from	from
nama	naam	232	name	néim
gamen.	$_{ m gaam}$		game	géim
crammian	cram		cram	eræm
cwam	caam	222	came	céim
damm	dam	236	dam	dæm 👡
tama (adj.)	taam		tame	téim
lamb	lamb		lamb	læm
wamb	wóómb		womb	wuum
eamb	còòmb	240	comb	cóum
damp (subst.) N.	damp		damp (adj.)	dæmp
haga	hau		haw	hòò
læg	$_{ m lai}$		lay	léi
lagu	lau	244	law	1òò
sage )	sau		saw	óóa
slagan	slai		slay	sléi
wagian	wag		wag	wæg
fleagan	flai	248	flay	fléi
mæg	${f mai}$		may	méi
maga	$\mathbf{mau}$		maw	mòò
gnagan	gnau		gnaw	nòò
dæg	dai	252	day	déi
*dagenian	daun		dawn	dòòn
dragan {	drag		drag	dræg
(	drau		draw	dròò
fæg(e)r	fair	256	fair	fèər
hæg(e)l	hail		hail	héil
$\mathrm{snæg}(\mathrm{\acute{e}})\mathrm{l}$	$\operatorname{snail}$		snail	snéil
næg(e)Í	nail		nail	néil
tæg(e)l	tail	260	tail	téil

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

### a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

OLD.		MIDDLE.			мо	DERN.
ægðer		eiŏer		either	{	ii&ər ai&ər
slæg(e)n fæg(e)n mæg(e)n		slain fain main	264	slain fain main	,	sléin féin méin
ongæg(e)n		again		again	}	əgéin əgèn
$\mathrm{bræg}(\mathrm{e})\mathrm{n}$		brain		brain	(	bréin
$egin{array}{c}  ext{sægde} \  ext{mægd} \end{array}$		said maid	268	said maid		sed méid
æcer		aaer		acre		éicər
æcern race		aacorn raac		acorn rake		éicòən réic
þæc		þach	272			bæch
rannsaca N.		ransac		ransack		rænsæc
sacu		saac		sake		séic
snaca		snaac		snake		$\operatorname{sn\'eic}$
scacan		shaac	276	shake		shéic
stacu		staac		stake		stéic
anno	(	spaac		spake		spéic
spræc	l	†spòòc		spoke		spóuc
wacan		waac	280			wéic
wræc		wrec		wreck		rec
nacod		$\mathbf{n}$ aaced		naked		néiced
macian		maac		make		méic
caca N.		caac	284	_		céic
cwacian		cwaac		cwake		cwéic
taca N.		taac		take		téic
bæc		bac	288	back bake		bæc béic
bacan	,	baac	200	brake		bréic
brec	}	braac †bròòc		broke		bróuc
blæc	(	blac		black		blæc
axian j	ler sc)	ax	292	axe		æx
weax weaxan	{	wax		wax		wæx
fleax	,	flax		flax		flæx

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

		•			
OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.		
ædese	adis	addice	. adze	adz	
hæ(f)de		96 had	,	hæd	
. ,	laad	lade		léid	
hladan }	lòòd	load		lóud	
hlæder	lader	ladder		lædər	
hlæ(f)dige		00 lady		léidi	
sæd	sad	sad		sæd	
sadol	sadl	saddle		sædl	
sceadu	shadu		v, shade	shædóu, shéid	
wadan		)4 wade	e, onauc	wéid	
fæder	faðer	father		faa\fa	
gema(e)od	maad	made		méid	
gegadorian	gaðer	gather		gæðər	
togædere		)8 togeth		tuge8ər	
glæd	glad	glad	er	glæd	
cradol	eraadl	cradle		créidl	
*geclæðed	elad	clad		clæd	
træd		12 trod		ttrod	
nædre	ader	adder		ædər	
blæd	blaad	blade		bléid	
blædre	blader	bladde	120	blædər	
			<i>'</i>	Diædəi	
æt (prep.)	at 3	6 at		æt	
æt (pret.)	aat	ate		éit, et	
hatian	$\mathbf{haat}$	hate		${f h\'eit}$	
hætt	hat	hat		hæt	
læt (lata)		20 $late$		léit	
þæt	<b>Sat</b>	that		8æt	
sæt	sat	sat		sæt	
sæterdæg	saturdai	saturd	'ay	sætədi	
wæter		24 water		wòòtər	
hwæt	what	what		whot	
spætte (pret.)	spat	spat		spæt	
fæt	vat	vat		væt	
fætt (adj.)	fat 3	28 fat		fæt	
flat N.	flat	flat		$\mathbf{fl}$ æ $\mathbf{t}$	
geat (subst.)	gaat	gate		géit	
begeat (pret.)	got	got		got	
gnætt		32 gnat		næt	
catt	eat	cat		eæt	
crabba	crab	crab		cræb	

### a, æ, ea, ò (continued).

old.	MIDDLE.		1	ODERN.			
apa happ N. scapan æppel sæp hnæppian geapian cnapa papol(stān)	aap hapi shaap apl sap nap gaap enaav pebl	<b>336 340</b>	ape happy shape apple sap nap gape knave pebble	éip hæpi shéip æpl sæp næp géip néiv			
ei (ey). (All Norse.)							
ei þei(r) N. nei	ai Sai (ei) nai	344	aye they nay	ai, éi Séi néi			
þeirra N.	ĕeir		their	8èer			
heil	hail	348	hail!	héil			
reisa	raiz		raise	réiz			
hrein N. swein	rain(déér) swain		rein(deer) swain	réin(diər) swéin			
steic weic	stèèc wèèc	352	steak $weak$	stéic wiic			
beita	bait		bait	béit			
deyja	dii		die	dai			
ä.							
rā lā slā swā wā hwā	ròò lòò slòò sòò wòò hwóó	356 360	lo! sloe so	róu lóu, lòò slóu sóu wóu huu			

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

a (continued).

OLD.		MIDDLI	Ε.	MO	DDERN.
frā N.		fròò		(to and) fro	fróu
$n\bar{a}$		nòò		no	nóu
(ic) gā		gòò	364	go	góu
dā		ďòò		doe	dóu
tā		tòò		toe	tóu
twā		twóó		tivo	tuu
āhte		òòuht	368	ought	òòt
(-)-14	(	(n)auht		(n)aught	(n)òòt
(n)āht	{	not		not	not
hāl	(	∫hòòl	)	whole	hóul
1141	{	{hwòòl	<b>S</b>		
	_ (	haal	372	hale	heil
hālgian ( <i>und</i>	ler a			_	
mãl		mòòl		mole	móul
gedāl		dòòl		dole	dóul
ār		òòr		oar	òər
hār		${ m h\`o\'or}$	376	hoar	${ m h\acute{o}er}$
rārian		$\mathbf{r}$ ò $\mathbf{\dot{o}}$ r		roar	${f r}{f o}{f ə}{f r}$
lār		lòòr		lore	${ m l\'o}{ m er}$
sār		${ m s\`o\'or}$		sore	${ m s\acute{o}er}$
māre		$\mathbf{m}$ òò $\mathbf{r}$	380	more	${f m}$ òə ${f r}$
gāre		gòòr		gore	$\mathbf{g}$ òə $\mathbf{r}$
geāra		yòòr		yore	yòər
bār		bòòr		boar	bòər
hla(f)ord		lord	384	lord	lòəd
āð		δὸβ		oath	óuþ
wrāð	<b>S</b>	wraþ		wrath	raaþ
	{	wròòþ		wroth	$r\delta(\delta)b$
lāðian		1992	388	loathe	lóu⊗
nā(n)þing		$\mathbf{n}$ o $\beta$ in $\mathbf{g}$		nothing	nəþing
clāð		clob		cloth	$\operatorname{cl}\grave{\diamond}(\grave{\diamond})\flat$
clāvian		elòòŏ		clothe	clóuð
bāðir, N.		bòòþ	392	both .	bóuþ
hās		hòòrs		hoarse	hòòəs
ārās		aròòz		arose	əróuz
þās		გებე გ		those	δύuz
∜hwās		$\mathbf{w}$ hòò $\mathbf{z}$	396	whose	huuz

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

#### ā (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.			MODERN.
āscian (under a)				
*māst	mòòst		most	móust
gāst	gòòst		ghost	góust
lāwerce (under a)				
þāwan	þau	400	thaw	þòò
þrāwan	þròòu		throw	þróu
sāwan	sòòu		8010	sóu
snāw	$\operatorname{sn\`o\`ou}$		snow	snóu
māwan	mòòu	404	mow	móu
crāwan	cròòu		crow	cróu
enāwan	cnòòu		know	nón
blāwan	blòòu		blow	${f bl\acute{o}u}$
$s\bar{a}wl$	sòòul	408	soul	sóul
āw&er(=āhwæ&	er) or		or	òər
gesāw(e)n	sòòun		sown	sóun
geþrāw(e)n	þròòun		thrown	þróun
gecnāw(e)n	cnòòun	412	known	nóun
hläf hläford (under r)	lòòf		loaf	lóuf
drāf	drò $dr$		drove	dróuv
ān	òòn, an, a		one, an, a	wən, ən, ə
ānlice	òònli	416	only	óunli
lān N.	lòòn		loan	lóun
nān	nòòn		none	nə $n$
scān	${ m sh\`o\`on}$		shone	shon
stān	stòòn	420	stone	stóun
? mānian	mòòn		moan	móun
gegān (part.)	gòòn		gone	gon
grānian	$\operatorname{gr\`o}\operatorname{\acute{o}n}$		groan	gróun
bān	bòòn	424	bone	bóun
hām	hòòm		home	hóum
lām	1òòm		loam	lóum
hwām	whóóm		whom	huum
fām	fòòm	428	foam	fóum
elām	${f clami}$		clammy	${f clemi}$

### ā (continued).

		`	,	
OLD.	MIDDLE.		M	ODERN.
āgan	òòu		owe	óu
lāg	lòòu		low	lóu
fāg	fòò	432		fóu
dāg	dòòuh		dough	dóu
uag	doodh		avagn	uou
āg(e)n	òòun		own	óun
āc	òòc		oak	óuc
(wed)lāc	(wed)loc	436	(wed)lock	(wed)loc
strācian	stròòc		stroke	stróuc
spāca	spòòc		spoke	spóuc
tācen	tòòcen		token	tóucen
				toucon
-hād	-hóód	440	(man)hood	-hud
$r\bar{a}d$	${f r}$ ò ${f o}$ d		rode, road	róud
lād	lòòd $(st$ òòn $)$		load(stone)	lóud(stóun)
wād	wòòà		woad	wóud
$\mathbf{g}$ ā $\mathbf{d}$	gòòd	444	goad	góud
tāde	tòòd		toad	tóud
ābād	abòòd		abode	əbóud
brād	bròòd		broad	bròòd
? ādl				
āte	òòts	448	oats	óuts
hāt	hot	440	_	
swāt (under $\bar{\mathbf{w}} =$			hot	$\mathbf{hot}$
wāt	wot		wot	wot
wrāt	$\mathbf{wr\grave{o}\grave{o}t}$		wrote	róut
gāt	gòòt	452		góut
bāt	bòòt	402	boat	bóut
rãp	$r$ ò $\delta$ p		rope	róup
sape	sòòp		soap	sóup
swapan (under a			1	•
grāpian	gròʻòp	456	grope	gróup
pāpa	pòòp		pope	póup
1 1	r r			
		i		
riht	riht		right	rait
gelīhtan	liht		(a)light	lait
Portugui	1.110		(a) iigito	ACCA U

 $a(\text{@ ea ei}), \, i, \, \acute{e}(\text{eo}), \, \grave{e}, \, \breve{e}, \, \breve{e}, \, e\breve{a}, \, e\breve{o}, \, u, \, o.$ 

#### BY HENRY SWEET, ESQ.

#### i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MO	DERN.
gesih% wiht finit miht eniht briht pliht	siht wiht whit niht miht eniht briht pliht	460 464	wight whit night	sait wait whit nait mait nait pait brait plait
hire scire stīgrāp cirice (under y)	hir (e) shiir stirup	468	her shire stirrup	həər shiiər, shaiər stirəp
mirh8	mirþ		mirth	тәәþ
wirsa (under y)				
hirde *pirda(=pridda) *bird(=bridd)	herd þird bird	472	(shep)herd third bird	(shep <b>)</b> əd þəəd bəəd
ill N. scilling scil N. stille spillan	il shiling scil stil spil	476	ill shilling skill still spill	il shiling scil stil spil
willa wilig	wil wilu yel	480	will willow yell	wil wilóu yel
til N. (prep.)	til		till	til
bill	bil	484	bill	bil
film(en)	$_{ m film}$		film	$_{ m film}$
seoloc swilc (under c) hwilc (under c)	silc		silk	sile
meolc	mile		milk	mile
scild wilde milde	shiild wiild miild	488	shield wild mild	shiild waild maild

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

## i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	`	,	MODERN.
gild	$\operatorname{gild}$		guild	$\operatorname{gild}$
gildan	$\mathbf{yiild}$	492	yield	yiild
cild	$\operatorname{chiild}$		child	chaild
cildru	children		children	children
hilt	hilt		hilt	hilt
smi'8	smiþ	496	smith	smiþ
wi8	wið		with	wið
fi∀ele	$\operatorname{fidl}$		fiddle	$\operatorname{fidl}$ .
ni 8er	neger		nether	neðər
piða	piþ	500		piþ
proa			Pich	Pry
is	iz		is	iz
his	hiz		his	hiz
þis	8is		this	8is
*bise	ĕèèz	504	*****	8iiz
mis-	$_{ m mis}$ -		mis(take)	mis-
missan	mis		miss	$_{ m mis}$
gise	yis (e)		yes	yes
bliss	blis	508	bliss	blis
fisc	fish		fish	fish
disc	dish		dish	$\operatorname{dish}$
biscop	bishop		bishop	bishəp
wīsdōm	wizdom	512	wisdom	wizdəm
list	list		list	list
þistel	þistl		thistle	þisl
mist	mist		mist	mist
gist	vèèst	516		yiist
misteltā	mistltòò	010	mistletoe	misltóu
Crist	Criist		Christ	Craist
	cristen		christen	crisn
eristenian		500		
gist	yèèst	520		yiist
gistrandæg	yisterdai (	e)	yesterday	yestədi
hwistliau	whistl		whistle	whisl
wlisp (adj.)	$_{ m lisp}$		to lisp	$_{ m lisp}$
hwispriau	whisper	524	whisper	whispə <b>r</b>
siwian	seu		sew	sóu
$_{ m niwe}$	neu		new	nyuu

a(œ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE		MODERN.		
cliwe tiwes dæg	cleu teuzdai	528	clew Tuesday	cluu tyuuzdi	
ifig lifian	iivi liv		ivy live	aivi liv	
lifer	liver		liver	livər	
sife	siv	532	sieve	siv	
stīf	stif		stiff	stif	
wifel	wiivil		weevil	wiivəl	
$\operatorname{gif}_{i}$	if		if	if	
gifan	giv	536	0	giv	
elif	clif		cliff	elif	
drifen	driven		driven	driven	
siftan	sift		sift	sift	
swift	swift	540	swift	swift	
scrift	shrift		shrift	shrift	
fiftig	fifti		fifty	fifti	
gift	gift		gift	gift	
hring	ring	544		ring	
-ling	-ling		(dar)ling	-ling	
þing	ping		thing	þing	
singan	sing		sing	sing	
swingan	swing	548	swing	swing	
stingan	$\operatorname{sting}$		sting	sting	
springan	$_{ m spring}$		spring	spring	
wæng N. (vængr)			wing	$_{ m wing}$	
finger	finger	552	finger	${f finger}$	
eringan	crinj		cringe	erinj	
elingan	$_{ m cling}$		cling	cling	
bringan	bring		bring	bring	
sincan	sine	556	sink	sine	
slinean	sline		slink	sline	
scrincan	shrinc		shrink	shrine	
stinean	stine		stink	stine	
wincian	wine	560	wink	wine	
drinean	drine		drink	drine	
twinelian	twinel		twinkle	twincl	
in(n)	in		in(n)	in	
rinnan	run	564		rən	
līn	linen		linen	linen	

h; r, hr, l, hl; %, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	`	,	MODERN.
sein(bān)	$\sin$		shin	$\sinh$
seinn N.	sein		skin	scin
spinnan	spin	568	4 .	$\operatorname{spin}$
gewinnan	win		win	win,
windwian	winu		winnow	winóu
finn	fin .		fin.	fin
beginnan	$_{ m begin}$	572		begin
cinne	chin		chin	ehin
tinn	tin.		tin	tin
getwinnan	twinz		twins	twinz
$_{ m binn}$	bin	576	bin	$_{ m bin}$
hinde	hiind		hind	haind
hindema	hindermòòs	$_{ m st}$	hindermost	${f hinderm\'oust}$
$\operatorname{rind}$	riind		rind	raind
lind	$\mathbf{linden}$	580	linden	$\mathbf{linden}$
sinder	$\operatorname{sinder}$		cinder	$\operatorname{sinder}$
spindel	$\operatorname{spindl}$		spindle	$\operatorname{spindl}$
wind	wind		wind	$\overline{\mathbf{wind}}$
windan	wiind	584	wind	waind
windauga N.	windu		window	windóu
windwian (under	n)			
findan	$\mathbf{fiind}$		find	$\mathbf{faind}$
$\operatorname{grindan}$	$\operatorname{griind}$		grind	$\operatorname{graind}$
bindan	biind	588	bind	$\operatorname{baind}$
blind	bliind		blind	blaind
stintan	stint		stint	stint
winter	winter		winter	wintər
flint	flint	592	flint	$\mathbf{flint}$
minte	mint		mint	mint
him	him		him	him
rima	rim		rim	$_{ m rim}$
lim	limb	596	limb	lim
swimman	swim		swim	swim
wīfman	wuman		woman	wumən
wifmen	wumen (i)		women	wimen
grimm	grim	600		grim
dimm	$\dim$		dim	$\dim$
elimban	cliimb		climb	claim
timber	timber		timber	timbər
ommoer	rimner		othioei	PIHIDAL

i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE		•	MODERN.
icgland higian liegan	iiland hii lii	604	island hie lie	ailənd hai lai
frigedæg	friidai	COD	Friday	fraidi
$egin{array}{c}  ext{nigon} \  ext{tigel} \end{array}$	niin tiil	608	nine tile	nain tail
twig	twig		twig	twig
ie	ich, ii		I	ai
-līc	-li	612	(like)ly	-li
liccian	lic		lick	lic
þicce	þic		thick	þic
stician	stic		stick	stic
gestricen	stricen	616		stricen
swi(l)c	such		such	səch
wicu	wiic		week	wiie
wicce	wich		witch	wich
hwi(1)e	which	620	which	which
ficol	fiel		fickle	fiel
flicce	flich		flitch	flich
micel	much		much	məch
gicel	(iis)icl	624	` /	(ais)icl
cwic	cwic		quick	ewie
bicce	bich		bitch	bich
pic	$\operatorname{pich}$		pitch	pich
prician	$\operatorname{pric}$	628	prick	$\mathbf{pric}$
six	six		six	six
betwix	betwixt		betwixt	betwixt
hider	hi∛er	222	hither	hiðər
riden	riden	632	ridden	ridn
hlid	' lid		lid	lid
bider	%i%er		thither	%i%ər
þridda (under r)	• 1		• 7	36.
widuwe	widu	636	widow whither	widóu whi&ər
hwider	whi8er	000		wn109r bidn
biden bridd ( <i>under</i> r)	$\operatorname{biden}$		bidden	blun
*wīd8`	widb		width	width
tōmiddes	midst		midst	midst
hit	it	640	it	it
hitta N.	hit		hit	$_{ m hit}$

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

## i (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE	3.		MODERN.
sittan	sit		$\epsilon it$	sit
sliten slītan	slit		slit	slit
$\mathbf{smiten}$	smiten	644	smitten	smitn
gewitt } witan	wit		wit	wit
writen	writen		written	ritn
git begitan	yit (e) get	648	$yet \ get$	$egin{array}{c} \mathtt{yet} \\ \mathtt{get} \end{array}$
edwītan	twit	040	twit	twit
bite	bit		bit	bit
biter	biter		bitter	bitər
ribb	rib	652		rib
$\operatorname{sibb}$	(go)sip		(gos)sip	(go)sip
eribb	crib		crib	crib
lippa	$_{ m lip}$		lip	$_{ m lip}$
slīpan	$_{ m slip}$	656		$_{ m slip}$
scip	$_{\rm ship}$		ship	$_{ m ship}$
-scipe	-ship		(wor)ship	-ship
gripe clippa N.	grip clip	660	grip clip	grip elip
спрра и.	спр	000	cup.	СПР
		Ĭ	•	
bī	bii		by	bai
gelihtan (under i	i)			
īrland	iirland		Ireland	aiələnd
īren	iiron		iron	aiən
scīr	(shiir)	664		${f shier}$
Wir	wiir		wire	waiər
smīla N. wīle	smiil wiil		smile wile	smail wail
wiie hwīl	whiil	668		wan whail
fīl	fiil	000	file	fail
mīl	miil		mile	mail
lī∛e	liið		lithe	laið
strī∛	striif	672	strife	straif

u(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

1 (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MOD	ERN.		
wrī∀an	wriið		writhe	rai&		
blī⊗e	blii∛		blithe	blai∛		
	••			•		
īs	iis	070	ice.	ais.		
arīsan	ariiz	676	arise	əraiz		
wīs	wiiz		wise	waiz		
wīsdōm	wizdom		wisdom	wizdəm		
stiweard	steuard		steward	styuuəd		
spīwan	speu	680	spew	spyuu		
līf	liif		life	laif		
þrīfan	þriiv		thrive	þraiv		
scrīfan	shriiv		shrive	shraiv		
stīf	stif	684	stiff	stif		
wīf	wiif		wife	waif		
$f\bar{i}f$	fiiv		five	faiv		
enīf	eniif		knife	naif		
drīfan	driiv	688		draiv		
wīfman (under im)						
fīftig	fifti		fifty	fifti		
līn (under i)						
þīn`	%iin		thine	8ain		
świn	swiin		swine	swain		
scīnan	shiin	692	shine	shain		
scrīn	${f shriin}$		shrine	shrain		
wīn	wiin		wine	wain		
mīn	mii(n)		mine, my	mai(n)		
twīn	twiin	696	twine	twain		
pīnan	piin		pine	pain		
rīm	riim		rhyme	raim		
hrīm	$_{ m riim}$		rime	raim		
līm	liim	700	lime	laim		
slīm	sliim		slime	slaim		
wī(f)man (under	im)					
tīma	tiim		time	taim		
stīge	stii		stye	stai		
stīgel	stiil	704		stail		
stīgrap	stirup		stirrup	stirəp		
5 1	•		-	-		

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

1 (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE		·	MODE	ERN.	
mīgan	mii		mie		mii	
rīce	rich		rich		rich	
gelīc	liic	708	like		laic	
-līc (under i)	•••		. 7			
sīcan	siih snèèk		sigh		sai sniic	
snīcan	sneek		sneak strike		snuc straic	
strīcan	diic	712			daic	
dīc {	dich	112	ditch		dich	
īdel	iidl		idle		aidl	
rīdan	$\operatorname{riid}$		ride		raid	
$s\bar{i}de$	$\operatorname{siid}$	716	side		said	
slīdan	$\operatorname{sliid}$		slide		slaid	
wīd	wiid		wide		waid	
glīdan	gliid		glide		glaid	
cīdan	chiid	720			chaid	
tīd	tiid		tide		taid	
bīdan	biid		bide		baid	
brīdels	briidl		bridle		braidl	
slītan (under i)						
smītan edwītan (under i)	smiit	724	smite		smait	
wrītan	wriit		write		rait	
hwīt	whiit		white		whait	
bītan	biit		bite		bait	
rīpe	$_{ m riip}$	728	L		raip	
rīpan	rèèp		reap		riip	
slīpan	$\operatorname{slip}$		slip		slip	
grīpan	griip		gripe		graip	
		V	•			
flyht	fliht	732	flight		flait	
byht	bih <b>t</b>		bight		bait	
styrian	stir		stir		stəər	
cyrice	church (i, y	7)	church		chəəch	

a(w ea ei), i, é(co), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

## y (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	•	мор	ERN.
byrig	-byri	736	(Canter)bury	-bəri
wyrhta	wriht		wright	rait
þyrlian (under 1)				
byr∛en -	burden		burden	bəədn
wyrsa fyrs	wurs furz	740	worse furze	wəəs fəəz
þyrstan fyrsta	þirst first		thirst first	þəəst fəəst
wyrm	wurm		worm	wəəm
bebyrgan	byri	744	bury	beri
wyrean myre	wure mirci		work mirky	wəəc məəci
$egin{array}{l} \mathbf{wyrd} \; (\mathit{subs.}) \ \mathbf{gebyrd} \end{array}$	wiird birþ	748	wierd (adj.) birth	wiəd bəəþ
scyrta N. { wyrt	skirt shirt wurt		skirt shirt wort	skəət shəət wəət
? yfel (see ill) hyll þyrlian syll mylen	il hil þril sil mil	752 756	hill thrill sill	il hil þril sil mil
fyllan bylgja N.	fil bilu		$fill\ billow$	fil bilóu
fÿl8	filþ		filth	filþ
gyldan byldan	gild byld (i)	760	gild build	gild bild
gylt	gilt		guilt	gilt
eÿ88	ciþ		kith (and kin)	ciþ

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

## y (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.		
cyssan bysig	cis byzi	764	kiss busy	cis bizi	
wysean	wish		wish	wish	
lystan fÿst clyster treysta N.	list fist cluster tryst(u)	768	list(less) fist cluster trust	list fist clostor trost	
yfel	? èèvel		evil	iivl	
lyftan	lift	772	lift	lift	
cyng	cing		king	cing	
ynce þyncan	inch þinc		inch think	inch þinc	
þynne synn cynn cyning(under ng) dyne	þin sin ein din	776	thin sin kin din	þin sin cin din	
mynster	minster	780	minster	minstər	
gemynd gecynde tynder byndel	miind ciind tinder bundl	784	mind kind tinder bundle	maind caind tindər bəndl	
mynet dynt	mint dint		mint dint	mint dint	
trymman	trim		trim	trim	
cymlic	cumli	788	comely	cəmli	
hryeg lyge flycge (adj.) myeg	rij lii flejd mij	792	ridgø lie fledged mij	rij lai flejd mij	

 $a(\text{$\varpi$ ea ei}), \, i, \, \acute{e}(\text{eo}), \, \grave{e}, \, \bar{e}, \, \bar{\varpi}, \, e\bar{a}, \, e\bar{o}, \, u, \, o.$ 

y (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.
dryge bycgan brycg	drii byy brij	dry buy bridge	drai bai brij
?lycci N. pycce mycel cycen cycene	pic much (i) chicen	96 luck thick much chicken 00 kitchen	ləc þic məch chicen cichen
cryce	cruch	crutch	erəch
fyxen	vixen	vixen	vixən
$rac{ ext{geh}ar{ ext{y}} ext{ded}}{ ext{dyde}}$	hid did 80	$hid\ 04  did$	hid did
lytel scytel scyttan spyttan flytja N cnyttan pytt	litl shutl shut (i) spit flit cnit pit	little shuttle shut on shut the shut the shit flit knit pit	litl shotl shot spit flit nit pit
elyppan dyppan	elip 8 dip	$egin{array}{c} 2 & clip \ dip \end{array}$	elip dip
		<b>y</b> .	
scÿ N. hwÿ cÿ	skii whii cii 8	sky why 16 kye	skai whai cai
ahÿrian fÿr	hiir fiir	hire fire	haiər faiər
gef <del>y</del> lan	fiil	(de)file	fail
fӯlŏ (under y)			
hýð	hiið 8	20 hithe	haið

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### v (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	,	,	MODERN.
cýdd (under y)				
lỹs mỹs	liis miis		lice mice	lais mais
fyst (under y)				
wyscan (under y)	)			
hỹd hỹdan brỹd	hii <b>d</b> hiid briid	824	hide hide bride	haid haid braid
pryte	priid		pride	praid
		é, e	eo.	
pe(=se) $Poh(=blue)$	ъ́е		the	%e, %ə ⁴
leōht feohtan	liht fiht	828	light fight	lait fait
smerian sceran steorra spere feorr merg (adj.) teran teru beran bera	smèèr shèèr star spèèr far meri tèèr tar	832 836	smear shear star spear far merry	smior shior star spior far meri tèor tar bèor
beorht (see briht	<i>(</i> )			
merh& eor&e heor& weor& feor&ling *der&	mirþ èèrþ hèèrþ wurþ far⊗ing dèèrþ	840 844	mirth earth hearth worth farthing dearth	məəþ əəþ haəþ wəəþ faə&ing dəəþ

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

### é, eo (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	•	MODI	ERN.
eorl ceorl	èèrl churl		earl churl	əəl chəəl
cerse (under s) perscan ferse (under se)	þrash		thrash	þræslı
berstan	burst	848	burst	bəəst
ceorfan sweorfan steorfan	carv swerv starv		carve swerve starve	caəv swəəv staəv
eornan eornost leornian speornan gernan beornan	run èèrnest lèèrn spurn yèèrn burn	852 856	run carnest learn spurn yearn burn	rən əənest ləən spəən yəən bəən
beorma	barm		barm	baəm
dweorg beorg {	dwarf ? (iis)berg baru	860	dwarf (ice)berg barrow	dwòəf (ais)bəəg bæróu
weorc deorc beorce beorcan hērenian {	wure dare birch bare hare hèèrcen	864	work dark birch bark hark hearken	wəəc daəc bəəch baəc haəc haəcen
$\mathbf{sweord}$	swurd	868	sword	$\mathbf{b}$ 666 $\mathbf{a}$
heort heorte	hart hèèrt		hart heart	hart hart
swellan smella N. stelan spellian wel	swel smel stèèl spel wel	872	steal spell well	swel smel stiil spel wel
$egin{array}{c} \mathbf{wela} \ \mathbf{fell} \end{array}$	wèèl fel	8 <b>7</b> 6	weal fell	wiil fel

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

é, eo (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.		
fēlagi N.	felu	880	fellow	felóu	
melu	mèèl		meal	miil	
geolo	yelu		yellow	yelóu	
ewelan	ewail		quail	ewéil	
belle	bel		bell	bel	
seolh	sèèl		seal	siil	
self	self	884	self	self	
seolfor	silver		silver	silvər	
delfan	delv		delve	delv	
twelf	twelv		twelve	twelv	
elm helm	elm helm	888	elm helm	$_{ m helm}$	
swelgan	swalu		swallow	swolóu	
belgan	belu		bellow	belóu	
seoloc	sile	892	silk	sile	
weoloc	whele		whelk	whele	
meole	mile		milk	mile	
geolea	yole		yolk	yóue	
heōld (pret.)	held	896	held	held	
seldon	seldom		seldom	seldə <b>m</b>	
feld	fiild		field	fiild	
smeltan gefēled meltan	$egin{array}{c}  ext{smelt} \  ext{felt} \  ext{melt} \end{array}$	900	smelt felt melt	$egin{array}{c}  ext{smelt} \  ext{melt} \end{array}$	
helpan gelpan	$_{ m yelp}^{ m help}$		$help\ yelp$	$_{\mathbf{yelp}}^{\mathbf{help}}$	
leðer	lèè8er	904	leather	leðər	
weðer	we8er		wether	weðer	
beneoðan	benèèþ		beneath	beniiþ	
brēðer	bre8ren		brethren	breðren	
eerse	cres	908	eress	eres	
blētsian	bles		bless	bles	
wesle	wèèzəl		weasel	wiizl	
besma	bezom		besom	bezəm	

a(œ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

é, eo (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE			MODERN.
þrescan	þresh	912	thresh	þræsh
fersc	fresh		fresh	${ m fresh}$
sweostor	sister		sister	sistər
nest	nest		nest	$\operatorname{nest}$
cest	$\frac{11}{11}$		chest	$_{ m chest}$
cest		310	0/1080	- CHOSO
efen	èèven		even	iivn
$\mathbf{heofon}$	${ m h}$ è ${ m e}$ ve ${ m n}$		heaven	$\mathbf{hevn}$
seofan	seven		seven	sevn
wefan	wèèv	920	weave	wiiv
fefer	fèèver		fever	${ m fiiv}$ ə ${f r}$
þēfる	þeft		theft	þeft
hēng	hung		hung	hung
tēn	ten	924	ten	an
begeondan	${\bf beyond}$		веуопа	beyond
eom (see eam) brēmel	brambl		bramble	bræmbl
Woo	wai		way	wéi
weg be(de)gian	beg	928	beg	beg
	plai	320	play	pléi
plega	piai		pug	pier
leg(e)r	lair		lair	lèèər
seg(e)l	sail		sail	séil
reg(e)n	rain	932	rain	réin
geleg(e)n	lain		lain	léin
þeg(e)n	þaan		thane	þéin
tweg(e)n	twain		twain	twéin
breg(e)n	brain	936		bréin
? blegen	blain		(chill)blain	
bregdan	braid		braid	bréid
sprecan	spèèc		speak	spiic
wrecan	wrèèc	940		rec
brecan	brèèc		break	bréic
2200411	21000			

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### é, eo (continued).

OLD.	MIDDL	E.		MODERN.	
$n\bar{e}xt$	next		next	next	
bēcnian	$\mathbf{becon}$		beekon	becən	
weder	wèèĕer	944	weather	weðər	
${f far{e}ded}$	$\operatorname{fed}$		fed	$\operatorname{fed}$	
medu	$\mathbf{m}$ è $\mathrm{e}$ d		mead	$\mathbf{miid}$	
enedan	$\mathbf{cn}$ è $\mathrm{d}$		knead	$\mathbf{niid}$	
${f tredan}$	trèèd	948	tread	$\operatorname{tred}$	
$_{ m gebed}$	$\mathbf{b}$ è $\mathbf{d}$		bead	$\operatorname{biid}$	
${ m brar{e}ded}$	$\operatorname{bred}$		bred	$\operatorname{bred}$	
blēded	bled		bled	bled	
etan	èèt	952	eat	iit	
lēt (pret.)	let		let	let	
fetor	feter		fetter	fetər	
setlian	setl		settle	setl	
nebb	nib	956	nib	nib	
scæphirde	shepherd		shepherd	shepəd	
*dēp∀	$\operatorname{dep}_{b}$		depth	$\operatorname{dep}_{p}$	
pepor	peper		pepper	peper	
${\rm sl}\bar{\varpi}{\rm pte}$	slept	960	slept	slept	
		è			
èrian	èèr		ear	iər	

èrian	èèr		ear	$i  ext{ m e}  ext{r}$
swèrian	swèèr		swear	swèər
wèrian	$\mathbf{w}$ è $\dot{\mathbf{e}}$ r		wear	$\mathbf{w}$ èər
mère $(sm.)$	$\mathbf{m}$ è $\mathbf{e}$ r	964	mere	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{r}$
mere(sf.)	$\mathbf{m}$ aar		mare	${f m}$ èə ${f r}$
mèrran	$_{ m mar}$		mar	$\mathbf{mar}$
bère	bar-		bar-ley	baəli
bèrige	$\mathbf{beri}$	968	berry	beri
$\bar{æ}r(e)st$	erst		erst	əəst
mèrse	${f marsh}$		marsh	maesh

a(w ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, w, eā, eō, u, o.

è (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.			MODERN.
hèrwe	haru		harrow	hærou
bèrn(=bère-ærn)	barn	972	barn	baən
smèrcian	smire		smirk	sməəc
gèrd gèrdels	yard girdl		yard girdle	yaəd gəədl
begèrded	girt	976	girt	gəət
è(nd)lufon hèll sèllan gesælig scèll wèll fèllan cwèllan dwèlja N. tèllan	eleven hel sel sili shel wel fel cwel cil dwel tel	980 984	kill dwell tell	eleven hel sel sili shel wel fel cwel cil dwel tel
wèlsc scèlfe	welsh shelf	•	Welsh shelf	welsh shelf
èln	el		ell	el
tèlg bėlg {	talu beluz beli	992	tallow bellows belly	tælou belóuz beli
èldest gewèldan gèlda N.	eldest wiild geld	996	eldest wield geld	eldes <b>t</b> wiild geld
bèlt	belt		belt	belt
hwèlp	whelp		whelp	$\mathbf{whelp}$
flæsc	flesh	1000	flesh	flesh

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### è (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE		М	ODERN.	
behæs	behest		behest	behest	
wræstan	wrest		wrest	rest	
gèst	gest		guest	gest	
$\ddot{\mathrm{b}}\dot{\mathrm{e}}(\mathrm{t})\mathrm{st}$	best	1004		f best	
wèsp	wasp		wasp	wosp	
- C .					
ēfre }€aaa	ever		ever	$egin{array}{c} \mathbf{e} \mathbf{v} rak{o} \mathbf{r} \ \mathbf{i} \mathbf{i} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{z} \end{array}$	
èfese	èèv <b>z</b> hèè <del>v</del>	1008	eaves	hiiv	
(ic) hèfe	hèèvi	1008	heave	hevi	
hèfig	пееч		heavy	пет	
èft	${ m eft}$		eft(soons)	$\operatorname{eft}$	
bereāfod	$\mathbf{bereft}$		bereft	$\mathbf{bereft}$	
gelæfed	left	1012	left	left	
%ēm	%em		them	~em	
stèmn	stem		stem	stem	
èngland	england		England	ingland	
ènglisc	english	1016	English	inglish	
sèngan	sinj		singe	sinj	
3 3	J			3	
*lèng&	lengþ		length	lengþ	
strèng⊗o	strengb		strength	streng	
hlènce	line	1020	link	line	
þèncan (see þynca					
stènc	stench		stench	stench	
wèncle	wench		wench	wench	
frèncisc	french	1001	French	french	
cwèncan	cwench	1024	quench	cwench	
drèncan	drench		drench	drench	
bènc	bench		bench	bench	
hènne	hen		hen	hen	
lænan	$\operatorname{lend}$	1028	lend	$\operatorname{lend}$	
wènian	wèèn		wean	wiin	
wènn	wen		wen	wen	
fènn	fen		fen	$\mathbf{fen}$	
mènn	men	1032	men	men	
cènnan	$\mathbf{cen}$		ken	cen	
dènn	$\operatorname{den}$		den	den	

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

# è (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE	š.	MODERN.		
pèning clænsian	peni ?clènz	1036	penny cleansc	peni clenz	
ènde gehènde hrèndan	end handi rend		end †handy rend	end hændi rend	
sèndan spèndan	$rac{ ext{send}}{ ext{spend}}$	1040	$send \\ spend$	$rac{ ext{send}}{ ext{spend}}$	
wèndan bèndan blèndan	wend bend blend	1044	wend bend blend	wend bend blend	
hrènded lèn(c)ten	rent lent		rent lent	$rac{ ext{rent}}{ ext{lent}}$	
sended spènded	sent spent	1048	$sent \\ spent$	sent spent	
wènded bènded	went bent		$\begin{array}{c} went \\ bent \end{array}$	went bent	
æmyrie tèmese	$rac{ ext{emberz}}{ ext{temz}}$	1052	embers Thames	$rac{\mathrm{em} \mathrm{b}  ullet \mathbf{z}}{\mathrm{tem} \mathbf{z}}$	
èmtig	empti		empty	em(p)ti	
ège ècg	au ej		arve edge	òò ej	
ègg N. hège	eg hej	1056	egg hedge	eg hej	
lècgan lègg N. sècgan	lai leg sai	1060	lay leg	léi leg séi	
sècg wècg	sej wej	1000	say sedge wedge	sej wej	
èglan	ail		ail	éil	
èce rècenian	aach	1064	ache reckon	éic	
hlèce (adj.)	recon lèèc		leak	recen liic	
strèccan wrècca	strech wrech	1068	stretch wretch	$egin{array}{c}  ext{strech} \  ext{rech} \  ext{f} = 1 \  ext{f} \  ext{strech} \end{array}$	
fèccan hnècca	fech nec		fetch neck	fech nec	

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### è (continued).

orn.		MID	DLE.		MODERN.
ahrèddan gelāded stède wèdd bèdd		rid led stèèd wed bed	1072	rid led stead to wed bed	rid led sted wed bed
lèttan lætan	}	let	1076	let	let
sèttan gesèted	}	$\operatorname{set}$		set	$\mathbf{set}$
wæt (adj.)	,	wet		wet	wet
hwèttan		whet		whet	whet
nètt		$\mathbf{net}$	1080	net	net
$\mathbf{n}$ ètele		$\mathbf{netl}$		nettle	$\operatorname{netl}$
$\mathbf{m}$ ète		$\mathbf{m}$ è $\mathbf{t}$		meat	$\operatorname{miit}$
cètel		cetl		kettle	$\operatorname{eetl}$
bètera		beter	1084	better	$\mathbf{beter}$
èbbian		eb		ebb	eb
wèbb		web		web	web
nèbb		nib		nib	$\mathbf{nib}$
stèppan		step	1088	step	step

ē.

hē	hếé	he	hii
þē	Việc	thee	Vii
wē	wếc	we	wii
mē	mếc 1092	me	mii
gē	yếc	ye	yii
hēh	hiih	high	hai
nēh	niih	nigh	nai
hēr	héér 1096	here	hiər
gehēran	? hèèr (éé)	hear	hiər
wērig	? wèèri (éé)	weary	wiəri
hērenian	hèèrcen	hearken	haəe <b>ən</b>

a(eea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

e (continued).

orp.	MIDDL	E.	,	MODERN.
gehērde	hèèrd	1100	heard	həəd
hēl stēl fēlan cēle ? cnēla N.	héél stéél féél chil cnéél	1104	heel steel feel chill kneel	hiil stiil fiil chil niil
smē'de (under ō) tē'd brē'der (under é)	tééþ		teeth	tiiþ
gelēfan slēfe dēfan	beléév sléév diiv	1108	believe sleeve dive	beliiv sliiv dai <b>v</b>
þēfð (under é) hēng (pret.) (und	ler é)			
scēne wēnan grēne cēne cwēn tēn þreōtēne	shéén wéén gréén céén cwéén ten þirtéén	1112 1116	sheen ween green keen queen ten thirteen	shiin wiin griin ciin cwiin ten þəətiin
bēn (under ō) gesēman dēman tēman brēmel (under é)	séém déém téém	1120	scem deem teem	siim diim tiim
$ar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{ge}\;(=\mathrm{e}ar{\mathrm{a}})$ $ar{\mathrm{h}}ar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{g}$ $\mathrm{sl}ar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{g}\;\mathbf{N}.$ $\mathrm{t}ar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{g}\mathrm{a}\mathrm{n}$	ei, ii hai slii tii	1124	eye hay sly tie	ai héi slai tai
ēcan rēc (=eā) hrēc (=eā) rēcan lēc (=eā)	ééc rééc ric rec lééc	1128	eke reek riok reck leek	iic riic ric rec liic

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

### ē (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE	ž.		MODERN.	
sēean	sééc		seek	siie	
$\vec{cec}$ (= $\vec{ea}$ )	chééc bééch	1132	cheek beech	chiie biich	
bēce brēc	brééch	1132	breech	briich	
brec	oreecn		oreecn	brien	
nēxt (under é)	e				
bēcnian (under é)					
hēdan	hééd		heed	hiid	
$r\bar{e}dan$	rèèd (éé)		read	$\mathbf{riid}$	
stēda	stééd	1136	steed	stiid	
$\operatorname{sp\bar{e}d}$	${f sp\acute{e}\acute{e}d}$		speed -	$\mathbf{spiid}$	
fēdan	fééd		feed	fiid	
fēded (under é)			_		
nēd	nééd		need	niid	
mēd	mééd	1140	meed	miid	
$\mathbf{gl}\mathbf{\bar{e}d}$	glééd		gleed	$\operatorname{gliid}$	
erēda	crééd		creed	criid	
brēdan blēdan	brééd	1144	breed	briid	
Diedan	blééd ————	1144	bleed	bliid	
lēt (under é)					
swēte	swéét		sweet	swiit	
$\operatorname{sc\bar{e}t} (= e\bar{a})$	shéét		sheet	shiit	
fēt	féét		feet	fiit	
gemētan	méét	1148	meet	miit	
grētan	gréét		greet	griit	
bētel	béétl		beetle	biitl	
blētsian (under é)					
stēp (=eā)	stéép		steep	stiip	
stepel	stéépl	1152	steeple	$\operatorname{stiipl}$	
wēpan	wéép		weep	wiip	
cēpan	céép		keep	ciip	
crēpel	cripl		eripple	cripl	
dēpan(see dyppan)	dip	1156	dip	dip	
*1- V / 7 /\					

<sup>\*</sup>dēp8 (under é)

**∂ẽ == (**éé).

OLD.	MIDDLE	Σ.		MODERN.
hær þær wæron hwær fær bær	? hair Vêer weer wheer feer ? beer	1160	hair there were where fear bier	hèər %èər wèər whèər fiər biər
āl ? gesālig māl	éél sili mèèl	1164	eel silly meal	iil sili miil
br&8 *br&8an	brèèþ brèè%		breath breathe	breþ briið
cæse	ehééz	1168	cheese	ehiiz
æfen	èèven		even	iivn
æmette (under a)				
wæg wægan hwæg hnægan græg cæge	waav weih whei neih grai, grei cei	1172	ware weigh whey neigh gray, grey key	wéiv wéi whéi néi gréi cii
*wægð	weiht	1176	weight	wéit
læce spræc	lééch spééch		leech speech	liieh spiich
þræd wæd sæd grædig dæd ondrædan	þrèèd wéédz sééd gréédi dééd drèèd	1180 1184	thread weeds seed greedy deed dread	þred wiidz siid griidi diid dred
nædl	néédl		needle	$\mathbf{niidl}$
lætan (under è) stræt wæt (under è)	stréét		street	striit

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

OLD.

<b>æ</b> (=éé)	(continued).
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MODERN.

MIDDLE.

blætan	blèèt	1188	bleat	bliit
slæp	sléép		sleep	sliip
swæpan	swéép		sweep	swiip
scæp	shéép		sheep	shiip
wæpen	wèèpon	1192		wepən
w <i>æ</i> реп	weepon	1132	weapon.	мероп
slæpte (under é)				
		<b>æ</b> (=	=èè).	^
sæ	sèè		sea	sii
tæhte (under a)				
ær	èèr		ere	èèər
ræran	rèèr		rear	riər
ærest (under è)				
hælan	hèèl	1196	heal	hiil
þræl N.	þral		thrall	þròòl
dæl	dèèl		deal	diil
hæl8	?hèèlþ		<i>health</i>	$\mathbf{hel} \flat$
ælc (under c)				
hæ∀en	hèèŏen	1200	heathen	hiiŏən
scæð	shèèþ		sheath	shiiþ
wræð	wrèéþ		wreath	riiþ
? bræঁষ	brèèþ		breath	$\operatorname{bre} \flat$
? bræðan	brèèð	1204	breathe	brii∜
behæs (under è)				, ••
tæsan	tèèz		tease	${f tiiz}$
flæsc (under 4)				

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

 $\overline{\mathbf{ae}}(=\grave{e}\grave{e})$  (continued).

OLD.

MIDDLE.

MODERN.

læstan (under a) wræstan(under è)

æwed	leud		lewd	lyuud
ēfan læfdige (under efre (under è)	lèè⊽ a)		leave	liiv
${ m l}ar{ m a}{ m fed}(under{ m e})$				
nig (under a)				
enan ( <i>under</i> è) Tæne	lèèn	1208	lean	liin
ēne	clèèn	1200	clean	cliin
enan	mèèn		mean	miin
mæne	mèèn		mean	miin
myrie ( <i>under</i> è) ēm ( <i>under</i> è)				
g	elai	1212	clay	cléi
l)c	èèch		each	iich
can	${f r}$ è ${f e}$ ch		reach	riich
ean	${f t}$ è ${f e}$ ch		teach	tiich
$\bar{e}c(=\bar{a})$	blèèc	1216	bleak	bliic
ecan	blèèch		bleach	bliich
dan	rèèd		read	riid
dan	lèèd		lead	liid
æded (under è)				
rædð	brèèdþ	1220	breadth	bredþ
eto	hèèt		heat	hiit
ti N.	sèèt		seat	siit
ēt	swèèt		sweat	swet
ette (under a)	1 1 1 1	1001	7 .	,
ræte Et (under è) Et (under a)	whèèt	1224	wheat	whiit

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

eā.

OLD.	MIDDLE		MO	DDERN.
fleā	flèè		flea	flii
geā	vèè		yea	véi
ceā	? chuuh		chough	chəf
þeāh	буулг	1228	though	%óu
eāre	èèr		ear	iər
forseārian	${f s}$ è ${f e}$ r		sear	siər
$ne\bar{a}r$	${f n}$ è ${f e}$ r		near	${f nier}$
geār	${f y}$ èèr	1232	year	yiər
teār	tèèr		tear	tiər
deāð	dèèþ		death	deþ
ceās	chòòz		chose	chóuz
eāst	èèst	1236	east	iist
eāstre	èèster		easter	iistər
heāwan	heu		hew	hyuu
hreāwa <u>n</u> hreāw	rau		raw	ròò
beāw	beu	1240		þyuu
sleāw	slòòu	1210	slow	slóu
sceāwian	shòòu (eu	)	show (shew)	shóu
screāwa	shreu	,	shrew	shruu
streāw	strau	1244		stròò
streāwian	streu		strew	struu
feāwa	feu		few	fyuu
deāw	deu		dew	dyuu
breāw (see brū)	aca .			<b>-</b> J
heāfod (under d)				
bereāfian	berèèv	1248	bereave	berii <b>v</b>
leāf	lèèf	1210	leaf	liif
sceāf	shèèf		sheaf	shiif
deāf	dèèf		deaf	$\operatorname{def}$
beān	bèèn	1252	bean	biin
seām	sèèm		seam	siim
steām	stèèm		steam	stiim
streām	$\operatorname{\mathbf{str}} olimits$ è $\operatorname{\mathbf{m}}$		stream	striim
gleām	glèèm	1256	gleam	$_{ m gliim}$
dreām	$\mathbf{dr}\mathbf{\hat{e}}\mathbf{\hat{e}m}$		dream	driim

a(æ ea ei), i, é(co), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

#### ea (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.
teām	tèèm	team	tiim
beām	bèèm	beam	biim
eāge (under ē) fleāg	fleu 126	60 flew	fluu
hreāc (under ē) leāc (under ē) ceāc (under ē)			
beacen	bèècon	be a con	biicən
heā(fo)d	hèèd	head	hed
reād	$\mathbf{r}$ è $\mathbf{d}$	red	$\operatorname{red}$
leād	lèèd 126	4 lead	$\operatorname{led}$
seeādan	$\operatorname{shed}$	shed	$\operatorname{shed}$
screādian neād (under ē)	shred	shred	$\operatorname{shred}$
deād	dèèd	dead	ded
$\mathbf{bread}$	brèèd 126	8 bread	bred
sceāt (under ē)			
sceāt (pret.)	†shot	shot	$\mathbf{shot}$
$ne\bar{a}t$	$\mathbf{n}$ è $\mathbf{\dot{e}}$ t	neat	$_{ m niit}$
greāt	grèèt	great	gréit
beātan	bèèt 127	2 beat	biit
heāp	hèèp	heap	hiip
hleāpan steāp ( <i>under</i> ē)	$\mathbf{h}$ lè $\dot{\mathbf{e}}$ p	leap	liip
ceāp (subs.)	chèèp (adj.)	cheap	chiip
ceāpman	chapman 127		$\mathbf{chepmen}$
ereāp (pret.)	†erept	crept	crept

#### eō.

þreō	þréé	three	þrii
seon $(vb.)$	séé	see	sii
seō	shéé	1280 she	shii
feō(h)	féé	fee	fii

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

eo (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE			MODERN.
freō	fréé		free	frii
fleō	fléé		flee	flii
gleō	gléé	1284	glee	glii
beo $(vb.)$	béé		be	bii
beō (subs.)	béé		bee	bii
þeōh	þiih		thigh	þai
hreöh	ruuh	1288	rough	rəf
leōht (under é)				
hleōr	léér		leer	liər
$ m dear{o}r$	$ m d\acute{e}\acute{e}r$		deer	$\operatorname{die}\mathbf{r}$
deōre	dèèr (éé)		dear	diər
deōrling	darling	1292	darling	daeling
dreōrig	drèèri		dreary	driəri
beōr	béér		beer	$\mathbf{bier}$
feōr\da	fourþ		fourth	fòəþ
hweōl	whéél	1296	wheel	whiil
? geōl	?		yule	yuul
ceol	céél		keel	ciil
heöld (under é)				
seōðan	séé*ő		seethe	siiŏ
geō(g)uð	yuuþ	1300	youth	yuuþ
forleōsan	(lóóz)		lose	luuz
freōsau	frééz		freeze	${ m frii} {f z}$
fleōse	fléés		fleece	fliis
ceōsan	chóóz	1304	choose	chuuz
breōst	brèèst		breast	brest
eow (pron.)	yuu		you	yuu
eōw	yeu		yew	yuu
eōwe	eu	1308		yuu
hreōwan	reu		$rue\left(rew ight)$	ruu
seōwian	seu		sew	sóu
${ m hlear{o}w}$	léé		lee	lii
feōwer	four	1312	four	fòər

a(œ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

### eō (continued).

OLD.	MIDDL	Е.		MODERN.
feōwertig	forti		forty	fòəti
greow (pret.)	greu		grew	gruu
ceōwan	cheu		chew	chuu
creow (pret.)	creu	1316	crew	eruu
cneow (pret.)	cneu		knew	nyuu
cneōw (subs.)	cnéé		knee	nii
treōw	tréé		tree	trii
treōwe	treu	1320	true (trew)	truu
breōwan	breu		brew	bruu
bleōw (pret.)	bleu		blew	bluu
hreōw8	ryyþ		ruth	ruuþ
treōwð	tryyþ	1324	truth	truuþ
leōf	(lééf)		lief	liif
þeōf	(þééf)		thief	þiif
cleōfan	cleev		cleave	cliiv
deōfol	devil	1328	devil	devl
geong	yung		young	yəng
betweonan	betwéén		between	betwiin
*gebeon(partic.)	béén		been	biin
$fe\bar{o}nd$	(féénd)	1332	fiend	$\operatorname{flind}$
freond	(fréénd)		friend	frend
miūc N.	mééc		meek	miie
leōgan	lii		lie	lai
fleoga	flii	1336	fly	flai
geōguð	yuuþ		youth	yuuþ
hreōd	rééd		reed	riid
$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{\bar{o}}\mathbf{d}$	wééd		weed	wiid
$ne\bar{o}d$	$\mathbf{n}$ é $\mathbf{d}$	1340	need	niid
beōdan	bid		bid	bid
sceōtan	shóót		shoot	shuut
${f fleot}$	fléét		fleet	fliit
beot (part.)	beet	1344	beat	biit
heop (rose)	hip		hip	hip

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, e, d, t, b, p.

### eō (continued).

OLD.	MIDD	LE.		MODERN.	
hleōp (pret.) sweōp (pret.) weōp (pret.) creōpan deōp	†lept †swept †wept créép déép	1348	lept swept wept creep deep	lept swept wept criip diip	

u.

duru	(duur)		door	dòòr
þurh { furh	þruuh þoruh furu	1352	through thorough furrow	þruu þərə fəróu
crulla N.	curl		curl	cəəl
wurð furðor	wurþ fur∀er	1356	worth further	wəəþ fəə\ər
þunresdæg curs	þursdai curs		Thursday curse	þəəzdi cəəs
turf	turf	1360	turf	təəf
murnian	muurn		mourn	mòə $n$
wurm	wurm		worm	$\mathbf{w}$ əə $\mathbf{m}$
burg	?boru		borough	bərə
wurean	wure	1364	work	wəəc
swurd	swurd		sword	beós
wull full	? wuul (u) full		wool full	wul ful
crulla (under r) bulluca	buloc	1368	bullock	bulec

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

u (eontinued).

OLD.	MIDDL	Е.	·	MODERN.
wulf	wulf		wolf	wulf
sculdor	shuulder		shoulder	shóuldər
ūs	us	1372	us	əs
hūsbonda	huzband		husband	həzbənd
tuse	tusc		tusk	təsc
būa sie N.	busc		busk	bəsc
rust	rust	1376	rust	rəst
lust	lust		lust	ləst
gust N.	gust		gust	gəst
dust	dust		dust	dəst
lufu	luv	1380	love	ləv
èndlufon	eleven		eleven	elevən
seŭfan	shuv		shove	shəv
dūfe	duv		dove	dəv
ònbūfan	abuv		above	əbəv
hungor sungen wrungen clungen	hunger sung wrung clung	1384	sung wrung clung	həngər səng rəng cləng
tunge	tung	1388	tongue	təng
munue	munc		monk	mənc
druncen	drunc		drunk	drənc
hunig .	huni	1392	honey	həni
þunor	þunder		thunder	Jəndər
sunu	sun		son	sən
sunne	sun	1396	sun	sən
seūnian	shun		shun	shən
spunnen	spun		spun	spən
gewunuen	wun		won	wən
nunne	nun		nun	nən
munuc (under nc) cunnan dunn tunne under	cuning dun tun under	1400	cunning dun tun under	cəning dən tən əndər

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

## u (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE			MODERN.
hund hundred	huund hundred	1404	hound hundred	haund həndred
sund (subs.) gesund (adj.)	$\operatorname{suund}$		sound	saund
sundor wund gewunden wundor funden grund grunden bunden pund	sunder wuund wuund wunder fuund gruund gruund buund puund	1408 1412	sunder wound wound wonder found ground ground bound pound	səndər wuund waund wəndər faund graund graund baund paund
huntian stunt (adj.) ? munt	hunt stunt muunt	1416	hunt to stunt mount	hent stent maunt
þūma sum sumor swummen slumerian guma cuman crume	jumb sum sumer swum slumber gruum cum	1420 1424	thumb some summer swum slumber groom come crumb	þəm səm səmər swəm sləmbər gru(u)m cəm
dumb	$\operatorname{dumb}$		dumb	dəm
ugglig N. sugu fugol	ugli suu fuul	1428	ugly sow fowl	əgli sau faul
enucian enucel bucea pluccian	enoe enuel bue plue	1432	knock knuckle buck pluck	noc nocl boc ploc
wudu	? wuud (ı	1)	wood	wud
hnutu gutt	nut gut	1436	$nut \ gut$	nət gət

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

u (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE	· ••		MODERN.
būton butere ? putta <b>N.</b>	but buter put		but butter put	bət bətər put
upp hup sūpan cuppa	up hip sup cup	1440	up hip sup cup	әр hiр sәр сәр
		ū	i.	
hū ซนิ nū cū brū	huu Suu nuu cuu bruu	1444 1448	thou now cow	hau Sau nau cau brau
ūre sūr scūr būr gebūr (neāh)gebūr	uur suur shuuer buuer (buur) (neih)buu	1452 r	our sour shower bower boor (neigh)bour	auər sauər shauər bauər buər (néi)bər
ūle fūl	uul fuul	1456	owl foul	aul faul
sūd mūd uncūd cūde būd N.	suuþ muuþ uncuuþ cuu(Í)d (buuþ)	1460	south mouth uncouth could booth	sauþ mauþ əncuuþ cud buuþ
ūs (under u) hūs lūs þūsend mūs	huus luus þuuzend muus	1464	house louse thousand mouse	haus laus þauzənd maus

scūfan (under u) dūfe (under u)

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

#### ū (continued).

0	T	T	

MIDDLE.

MODERN.

onbulan (unuer u)	<u> </u>			
scūnian(under u) dūn tūn brūn	duun tuun bruun	1468	down town brown	daun taun braun
þūma (under u) rūm	(ruum)		r00m	ruum
rūg būgan	ruuh buu		rough bow	rəf bau
sūcan (under u) brūcan	(bruue)	1472	brook	bruc
ūder (under u) hlūd scrūd crūd clūd	luud shruud cruud cluud	1476	loud shroud crowd cloud	laud shraud craud claud
ūt	uut		out	aut
ŭterlice (under u) lūtan clūt būtan (under u)	luut cluut		lout (subst.) clout	laut claut
prūt	pruud	1480	proud	praud

sūpan (under 11)

Ú.

cohh(ett)an	còuh		cough	$\cos \mathbf{f}$
sõhte	sòuht	1484	sought	sòòt
wrohte	wròuht		wrought	ròòt
dohtor	dauhter		daughter	dòòtər
bohte	bòuht		bought	bòòt
brohte	bròuht		brought	bròòt

# 

OLD.	MIDDL	Ε.	;	MODERN.
for beforan borian	for befòòr bòòr	1488	for before bore	fòòr befòòr bòòr
woruld	wurld		world	wəəld
for8 nor8 mor8or	forþ norþ murðer	1492	forth north murder (th)	fòəþ nòəþ məədər
hors	hors		horse	hòəs
forst (under st) dorste borsten	durst burst	1496	$durst \\ burst$	dəəst bəəst
horn forlor(e)n	horn forlorn born		horn forlorn thorn	hòən foəlòən þòən
porn swor(e)n scor(e)n	born sworn shorn	1500	sworn shorn	swòən shòən mòəning
mor(ge)ning corn tor(e)n	morning corn torn	1504	morning corn torn	còən tòən
bor(e)n	born		born(e)	bòən stòəm
storm forma	storm former		storm former	fòəmər
sorg morgen borgian	soru moru boru	1508	sorrow morrow borrow	soróu moróu boróu
store	store		stork	stòə <b>c</b>
hord word ford bord	hòòrd word ford bòòrd	1512	hoard word ford board	hòəd wəəd fòəd bòəd
scort port	short port	1516	$short \\ port$	shòət pòət
hol holh	hòòl holu		hole hollow	hóul holou

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

# • (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE	ē.		MODERN.	
holegu þol swollen scolu	holi þòòl swolen shòòl	1520	holly thole(pin) swollen shoal	holi þóul swóuln shóul	
stolen fola col cnoll	stòòlen fòòl còòl enol	1524	stolen foal coal knoll	stóuln fóul cóul nóul	
dol toll bolla	dul tol bóul	1528	$egin{array}{l} dull \ toll \ bowl \end{array}$	dəl tóul bóul	
bolster	bolster		bolster	bóulstər	
folgian	folu	1532	follow	folou	
wolcen fole	welcin folc		welkin folk	welci <b>n</b> fóuc	
scolde molde wolde gold	? shuuld mould ? wuuld gold	1536	should mould would gold	shud móuld wud góuld	
bolt	bolt		bolt	bóult	
froða N. moððe broð	froþ moþ broþ	1540	froth moth broth	frò(ò)þ mò(ò)þ bròòþ	
hose *gefrosen nosu *gecosen	hòòz fròòzen nòòz chòòzen	1544	hose frozen nose chosen	hóuz fróuzn nóuz chóuzn	
cross N. blōsma	cross blosom	1548	cross $blossom$	eros blosəm	
gōsling	gosling		gosling	gozling	
frost	frost		frost	${f frost}$	
òf ofen	ov of ? òòven	1552	of off oven	ov of əvn	

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, æ, eā, eō, u, o.

## • (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.
offrian	ofer	offer	ofər
ofer	òòver	over	óuvər
scofel	?shòòvel 1556	shovel	${f shevl}$
clofen	$cl\`o\'oven$	cloven	clóuvn
		_	
oft	oft	oft	oft
loft N.	loft	loft .	loft
$s\bar{o}fte$	soft 1560	soft	soft
lòng	long	long	long
þròng	þrong	throng	þrong
þwòng	bong	thong	bong
song (subs.)	song 1564		song
strong	strong	strong	strong
wrong	wrong	wrong	rong
mòngere	monger (u)	monger	məngər
òngemòng	among (u) 1568		$\operatorname{əm}\operatorname{əng}$
tònge	tongz	tongs	tongz
òn	on ·	on	on
bònd	bond	bond	bond
fròm	from 1575	2 from	from
wòmb	(wóómb)	womb	wuum
comb	còòmb	comb	cóum
0			£
frocga	frog	frog	frog tròf
trog		6 trough	bóu
boga	bou	bow	bou
flog(e)n	floun	flown	flóun
locc	loc	lock	loc
SOCC	soc 158	0 $sock$	soc
smocc	smoc	smock	smoc
	$sm\grave{o}\grave{o}c$	smoke	$\mathbf{sm\acute{o}uc}$
smoca	smooe	01110100	
smoca stoce	stoc	stock	stoc
		stock	stoc spóucən
stocc	stoc spòòcen 158 floc	stock 4 spoken flock	spóucən floc
stocc *gesprocen	stoc spòòcen 158	stock 4 spoken	spóucən

h; r, hr, l, hl; %, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

## • (continued).

old.	MIDDLI	Ξ.		MODERN.
cocc coccel crocc cnocian brocen	coc cocl croc cnoc bròòcen	1588	cock cockle crock(ery) knock broken	coc cocl croc(əri) noc bróucən
oxa fox	ox fox	1592	ox fox	ox fox
röd soden gescöd födor god codd troden bodian bodig	rod soden shod foder god cod troden bòòd bodi	1596 1600	rod sodden shod fodder god cod trodden bode	rod sodn shod fodər god cod trodn bóud bodi
rotian hlot protu (ge)scot scotland flotian mot cot cnotta botm	rot lot pròòt shot scotland flòòt mòòt cot cnot botom	1604 1608	throat shot Scotland	rot lot prout shot scotland flout mout cot not botam
loppestre	lobster		lobster	lobstər
open hoppian hopa sop stoppian (āttor)coppa cropp dropa topp	òòpen hop hòòp sop stop cob(web) crop drop top	1616 1620	open hop hope sop cob(web) erop drop top	óupən hop hóup sop stop cob(web) crop drop top

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē,  $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ , eā, eō, u, o.

Ō.

MIDDLE			MODERN.
(shóó)		chae	shuu
	1624		duu
	1021		tuu
			təf
ro)		toagn	
(w)hòòr		whore	hòòr
		swore	swòòr
		floor	flòòr
móór		moor	muər
stóól		stool	stuul
	1632		cuul
tóól	_	tool	tuul
(óóðer)		other	əĕər
sóóþ			suuþ
	1636		smuu≀ŏ
			dəþ.
tóóþ.			tսսի
(bróó8er)		brother	brəðər
góós	1640	goose	guus
(bóózəm)		bosom	$\mathtt{buzem}$
róóst		roost	ruust
			məst
	1644		róu
			lóu
			flóu
grou	1040		gróu
biou —	1648	otow	blóu
$(h\acute{o}\acute{o}v)$		hove	hóuv
hóóf ´		hoof	huuf
11001			
(behóóv)		behove	behuuv (óu)
	1652		behuuv (óu) gruuv
	(shóó) (dóó) tóó  tuuh ro) (w)hòòr swòòr flóór móór stóól cóól tóól (óóðer) sóóþ smóóð dóóþ tóóþ (bróóðer) góós  (bóózəm)  róóst must róu lóu flóu gróu blóu	(dóó)         1624           tóó         tuuh           r o)         (w)hòòr           swòòr         1628           flóór         móór           stóól         1632           tóól         (óóðer)           sóóþ         smóóð         1636           dóóþ         tóóþ           (bróóðer)         góós         1640           (bóózəm)         róust         1644           lóu         flóu         gróu           blóu         1648	(shóó)         (dóó)         shoe           (dóó)         1624         do           tóó         too, to           tuuh         tough           ro)         whore           (w)hòòr         whore           swòr         floor           móór         floor           móór         other           scól         cool           cóól         tóól           (óóver)         other           sóóþ         sooth           smooth         doth           dóóþ         tooth           (bróóver)         brother           góós         1640         goose    (bóózəm)  bosom  róóst  roost  must  róu  1644  row  lóu  flóu  gróu  blóu  flóu  gróu  blóu  1648  blow

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

## ō (continued).

OLD. MIDDLE.			MODERN.	
ofte (under 0)				
sõna	sóón		soon	suun
spōn N.?	$\operatorname{sp\acute{o}\acute{o}n}$		spoon	spuun
nōn	nóón	1656	noon	nuun
mōna	$\mathbf{m}$ óó $\mathbf{n}$		moon	muun
mōna8	(móóne)		moneth, month	$\mathbf{man}_{b}$
mõnandæg	(móóndai)		Monday	$\mathbf{m}$ ə $\mathbf{n}$ di
$\operatorname{ged}$ on	(dóón)	1660	done	dən
bōn N.	bóón ´		boon	buun
gōma	gum		gum	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{m}$
${f glar{o}m}$	${f gl\acute{o}\acute{o}m}$		gloom	$_{ m gluum}$
lōm	$d\acute{o}\acute{o}\mathbf{m}$	1664	doom	duum
br <b>ōm</b>	$\mathbf{br\acute{o}\acute{o}m}$		broom	bruum
blōma	blóóm		bloom	bluum
$sl\bar{o}g$	sleu		slew	sluu
wogian	wóó	1668	woo	wuu
genőg	enuuh		enough	enəf
drōg	dreu		drew	druu
oōg	buuh		bough	$\mathbf{bau}$
olog N.	pluuh	1672	plough	plau
រេីc	hóóc		hook	huc
hrõe	róóc		rook	ruc
ōcian	lóóc		look	luc
seõe	${ m sh\acute{o}\acute{o}e}$	1676	shook	shuc
wōe	(awóóc)		awoke	əwóuc
eōe	èóóc ´		cook	cuc
erõe N.	eróóe		erook	cruc
о́с	tóóc	1680	took	tue
oōe	bóóc,		book	buc
orōe	bróóe		brook	bruc
nōd	hóód		hood	hud
$_{ m r\bar{o}d}$ $\{$	$\mathbf{r}$ óód	1684	rood	$\mathbf{ruud}$
	$\operatorname{rod}$		rod	$\operatorname{rod}$
gescōd ( <i>under</i> o) stōd	stóód		stood	$\operatorname{stud}$
fōda	fóód		food	fuud
födor (under o)	1004		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
flod (unuer o)	flóód	1688	flood	$\mathbf{fled}$
mõd	móód	1000	mood	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{d}$
1100	шооц		niou	шиии

a(æ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, ē, eā, eō, u, o.

#### ō (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.	MODERN.		
mõdor gõd blöd brõd	(móó४er) góód blóód 1692 bróód	mother good blood brood	mə%ər gud bləd bruud	
$w\bar{o}dnesdæg$	$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{s}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{i}$	Wednesday	we(d)nzdi	
rōt N. fōt bōt	róót fóót 1696 bóót	root foot boot	ruut fut buut	
hwōpan	whóóp	whoop	huup	

#### ADDENDA.

mearg cealc hæsel sceanc	,	maru chalc haazel shanc	1700	marrow chalk hazel shank	mæróu chòòc héizl shænc wægən
wæg(e)n dragen ? gagn sæcc	{	wagon wain draun gain sac	1704	waggon wain drawn gain sack	wéin dròòn géin sæc
sleac wæcce gemaca eaxl		slac wach maat axl	1708	slack watch mate axle	slæc woch méit æxl
lator gabb N. tapor		later gab taaper	1712	latter gab taper	lætər gæb téipər
ār (metal) hālig dæg rāw *enāwlēcan òn ān		òòr ? hòòlidaj ròòu cnòòulej anon	1716	ore holiday row knowledge(sbst.) anon	òòr holidi róu nolej ənon

h; r, hr, l, hl; 8, s, w, hw, f; ng, n, m; g, c, d, t, b, p.

### Addenda (continued).

OLD.	MIDDLE.		MODERN.		
wrist hiw skipta N. wringan slipor	wrist heu shift wring sliperi	1720 1724	wrist hue (hew) shift wring slippery	rist hyuu shift ring sliperi	
hwīnan	whiin		whine	whain	
cyrnel	cernel		kernel	cəənəl	
sỹpan	sip		sip	sip	
féðer becwéðan wést weocce rædels gemēted	fèèðer becwèèð west wic ridl met	1728 1732	feather bequeathe west wick riddle met	feðər becwiið west wic ridl met	
stèrne	stern	1736	stern	stəən	
rest	rest		rest	rəst	
wrèncan	wrench		wrench	rench	
wrænna	wren		wren	ren	
twèntig	twenti		twenti	twenti	
hēhŏo	heiht	1740	height	hait	
stēran	stéér		steer	stiər	
ewēn	cwèèn		quean	ewiin	
? leās þreātian	lóós þrèèt		$\it loose threat$	luus þret	
preōst	(préést)	1744	priest	priist	
seōc	sic		sick	sic	
þohte	þòuht	1748	thought	þòòt	
colt	colt		colt	cóult	
föstor	foster		foster	fostər	
hrōf	róóf		roof	ruuf	
þus	ðus	1752	thus	ზəs	
húsþing N.	hustingz		hustings	həstingz	
suncen	sunc		sunk	sənc	
skūm	scum		skum	scəm	

 $a(\boldsymbol{\varpi}\ ea\ ei),\ i,\ \acute{e}(eo),\ \grave{e},\ \bar{e},\ \bar{\varpi},\ e\bar{a},\ e\bar{o},\ u,\ o.$ 

#### ALPHABETICAL INDEX TO THE LISTS.1

(be)reave 1248 bond 219 Back 287 A (artic.) 415 bait 354 (a)bode 446 (be)reft IOII bone 424 book 1681 bake 288 berry 968 (a)bove 1383 boon 1661 bale 71 besom 911 ache 1064 boor 1453 balk 87 acorn 270 best 1004 ban 203 acre 269 better 1084 boot 1697 booth 1461 adder 313 band 218 (be)tween 1330 bore (*pret*.) 21 addice 295 bane 202 (be)twixt 630 bore 1489 adze 295 bang 172 (be)yond 925 after 152 bare (*adj*.) 19 bid 1341 born(e) 1505 (a)gain 265 bare (pret.) 20 bidden 937 borough 1363 ail 1063 bark (subs.) 41 bide 722 borrow 1510 bark (vb.) 865 bier 1162 bosom 1641 alder 89 both 392 bight 733 alderman 91 barley 967 barm 858 bill 484 bottom 1612 ale 53 bough 1671 (a)light 459 billow 758 barn 972 all 54 barrow 861 bin 576 bought 1485 bind **5**88 bound (*pret*.) 217 bask 124 alms 79 birch 864 bound (partic.) 1413 am 223 bath 104 bathe 105 bird **474** bow (vb.) 1471 (a)mong 169 bow (subs.) 1577 an (*artic*.) 415 be 1285 birth 748 and 207 bower 1452 beacon 1261 bishop 511 bowl 1530 bit 650 angle (vb.) 155 bead 949 ankle 173 bitch 626 braid 938 beam 1259 brain 266, 936 bean 1252 anon (1719) bite **727** brake 289 bear 838 answer 205 bitter 651 beard 46 black 291 bramble 926 ant 224 anvil 206 bladder 315 brand 220 beat (*inf*.) 1272 any 181 beat (pret.) 1344 blade 314 brass 117 (chill)blain 937 bread 1268 ape 335 beckon 943 blast 133 breadth 1220 apple 338 bed 1075 arch- 36 bleach 1217 break 941 bee 1286 bleak 1216 are 8 beech 1132 breast 1305 bleat 1188 breath 1166 (a)rise 676 been 1331 bled 951 breathe 1167 ark 35 beer 1294 bred (partic.) 950 bleed 1144 arm 31 beetle 1150 (a)rose 394 breech 1133 (be)fore 1488 blend 1044 bless 909 breed 1143 arrow 23 beg 928 blew 1322 brethren 907 arse 22 (be)gan 198 brew 1321 (be)gin 572 (be)have 138 blind 589 art (vb.) 47 bride 825 as 108 bliss **50**8 ash (tree) 118 (be)hest 1001 blithe 674 bridge 795 bridle 723 ashes 120 (be)hove 1651 blood 1692 ask 119 belch 88 bloom 1666 bright 466 aspen 134 (be)lieve 1107 blossom 1548 bring 555 bell 882 blow (*wind*) 407 broad 447 ass 109 at 316 bellow (vb.) 891 blow (*flower*) 1648 broke 290 boar 383 broken 1591 ate 317 bellows 993 brood 1693 aught 369 board 1515 belly 994 brook (vb.) 1472 awe 1054 belt 998 boat 453 awl 135 brook (subs.) 1682 bench 1026 bode 1601 body 1602 broom 1665 (a)woke 1677 bend 1043 broth 1542 axe 292 bold 97 (be)neath 906 bolster 1531 brother 1639 axle (1711) bent 1050 brought 1486 aye 344 (be)queathe (1729) bolt 1539

<sup>1</sup> Numbers in parentheses refer to words in the Addenda.

brow 1448 brown 1468 buck 1432 build 761 bullock 1368 bundle 784 burden 738 burn 857 burst (infin.) 848 burst (partic.) 1496 clip (embrace) 812 daughter 1484 bury **7**44 -bury 736 busk 1374 busy 765 but 1437 butter 1438 buy 794 by 661

Cake 284

calf 78 call 68 callow 67 came 235 can 200 candle 216 care 16 cart 49 carve 849 cast 131 castle 132 cat 333 chafer 148 chaff 147 chalk (1700) chapman 1276 cheap 1275 cheek 1131 cheese 1168 chest 916 chew 1315 chicken 799 chide 720 child 493 children 494 chill 1104 (chill)blain 937 chin 573 choose 1304 chose 1235 chosen 1546 chough 1227 Christ 518 christen 519 church 735 churl 846 cinder 581 clad 311 clammy 4**29** claw 136

clay 1212 clean 1209 cleanse 1036 cleave 1327 clew 527 cliff 537 climb 602 cling 554 clip (cut) 660 cloth 390 clothe 391 cloud 1476 clout 1479 cloven 1557 clover 150 clung 1387 cluster 769 coal 1526 cob(web) 1619 cock 1587 (cock)chafer 148 cockle 1588 cod 1599 cold 95 colt (1747) comb 240 come 1424 comely 788 cook 1678 cool 1632 corn 1503 cot 1610 cough 1481 could 1460 cow 1447 crab 334 cradle 310 craft 154 cram 234 crane 201 crave 149 creed 1142 creep 1349 crept 1277 cress 908 crew 1316 crib 654 cringe 553 cripple 1155 crock(ery) 1589 crook 1679 crop 1620 cross 1547 crow 405 crowd 1475 crumb 1425 crutch 801

cunning 1399

cup 1443

curl 1355 curse 1359 Dale 60 dam 236 damp 241 dare 17 dark 863 darling 1292 dawn 253 day 252 dead 1267 deaf 1251 deal 1198 dear 1291 dearth 844 death 1234 deed 1183 deem 1119 deep 1350 deer 1290 (de)file 819 delve 886 den 1034 depth 958 devil 1328 dew 1247 did 804 die 355 dim 601 din 779 dint 786 dip 813, 1156 dish 510 ditch 713 dive 1109 do 1624 doe 365 dole 374 done 1660 doom 1664 door 1351 doth 1637 dough 433 dove 1382 down 1466 drag 254 drank 180 draw 255 drawn (1705) dread 1184 dream 1257 dreary 1293 drench 1025 drew 1670 drink 561 drive 688 driven 538

drop 1621

drought drove 414 drunk 1390 dry 793 dull 1528 dumb 1426 dun 1400 durst 1495 dust 1378 dwarf 859 dwell 986 dyke 712

Each 1213 ear (vb.) 961 ear (subs.) 1229 earl 845 earn 27 earnest 853 earth 840 east 1236 Easter 1237 eat 952 eaves 1007 ebb 1085 edge 1055 eel 1163 eft(soons) 1010 egg 1056 eight 3 either 261 eke 1125 eldest 995 eleven 977, 1380 elf 75 ell 991 elm 888 else 988 embers 1051 emmet 224 empty 1053 end 1037 England 1015 English 1016 enough 1669 ere 1194 erst 969 even (adj.) 917 even(ing) 1169 ever 1006 evil 771 ewe 1308 eye 1121

Fain 263 fair 256 fall 64 fallow 63 fang 167 far 834 fare 14 farthing 843 fast 128 fat 328 father 305 fathom 107 fear 1161 feather (1728) fed 945 fee 1281 feed 1138 feel 1103 feet 1147 fell (vb.) 983 fell (=skin) 877 fellow 878 felt (partic.) 900 fen 1031 fern 29 fetch 1069 fetter 954 fever 921 few 1246 fickle 621 fiddle 498 field 898 fiend 1332 fifty 542 fight 829 file 669 fill 757 film 485 filth 759 fin 571 find 586 finger 552 fire 818 first 742 fish 509 fist 768 five 686 flask 123 flat 329 flax 294 flay 248 flea 1225 fledged 791 flee 1283 fleece 1303 fleet 1343 flesh 1000 flew 1260 flight 732 flint 592 flit 809 flitch 622 float 1608 flock 1585 flood 1688

floor 1629 flow 1646 flown 1578 fly 1336 foal 1525 foam 428 fodder 1597 foe 432 fold 94 folk 1534 follow 1532 food 1687 foot 1696 for 1487 ford 1514 (for)lorn 1498 former 1507 forth 1491 forty 1313 foster (1748) foul 1456 found 1410 fought 6 four 1312 fourth 1295 fowl 1429 fox 1593 free 1282 freeze 1302 French 1023 fresh 913 Friday 607 friend 1333 fro 362 frog 1575 from 231 frost 1550 froth 1540 frozen 1544 full 1367 furrow 1354 further 1357 furze 740 Gab (1713)

game 233 gang 170 gannet 199 gape 341 gate 330 gather 307 gave 145 gear 25 geld 997 get 648 ghost 398 gift 543

gain (1706)

gallows 83

gall 66

gild **7**60 girdle 975 girt 976 give 536 glad 309 glass 116 gleam 1256 glee 1284 gleed 1141 glide 719 gloom 1663 glove 1653 gnat 332 gnaw 251 go 364 goad 444 goat 452 god 1598 gold 1538 gone **422** good 1691 goose 1640 gore 381 gosling 1549 (gos)sip 653 got 331 grass 115 grave 146 gray 1274 great 1271 greedy 1182 green 1113 greet 1149 grew 1314 grey 1174 grim 600 grind 587 grip 659 gripe 731 groan 423 groom 1423 groove 1652 grope 456 ground (subs.) 1411 heel 1101

gut 1436 Had 296 hail (subs.) 257 hail (interj.) 348 hair 1157 hale 372 half 76 hall 55

grow 1647

guild 491

guilt 762

gum 1662

gust 1377

guest 130, 1003

hallow 82 halm 80 halt 98 hammer 225 hand 208 handy 1038 hang 156 happy 336 hard 43 hare 9 hark 862 harm 32 harp 51 harrow 971 hart 869 harvest 26 has 110 hat 319 hate 318 hath 101 have 137 haven 139 haw 242 hawk 140 hay 1122 hazel (1701) he 1089 head 1262 heal 1196 health 1199 heap 1273 hear 1097 heard 1100 hearken 867, 1099 heart 870 hearth 841 heat 1221 heathen 1200 heave 1008 heaven 918 heavy 1009 hedge 1057 heed 1134 ground (parti.) 1412 height (1739) held 896 hell 978 helm 889 help 902

hemp 182 hen 1027 her 468 (shep)herd 957 here 1096 hew 1238 hid 803 hide (subs.) 823 hide (vb) 824 hie 605 high 1094

leather 904

leave 1207

led 1072

lee 1311

hill 753 hilt 495 him 594 hind 577 hindermost 578 hip (rose) 1345 hip (coxa) 1441 hire 817 his 502 hit 641 hithe 820 hither 631 hoar 376 hoard 1512 hoarse 393 hold 92 hole 1518 holiday (1716) hollow 1519 holly 1520 home 425 honey 1391 -hood 440 hood 1683 hoof 1650 hook 1673 hop 1615 hope 1616 horn 1497 horse 1494 hose 1543 hot 449 hound 1403 house 1462 hove 1649 how 1444 hue (1721) hundred 1404 hung 923 hunger 1384 hunt 1415 husband 1372 hustings (1751)

I 611 ice 675 (ice)berg 860 icicle 624 idle 714 if 535 ill 475, 752 in 563 inch 774 inn 563 Ireland 662 iron 663 is 501 island 604 it 640 ivy 529

Keel 1298 keen III4 keep 1154 ken 1033 kernel (1726) kettle 1083 key 1175 kill 985 kin 778 kind 782 king 773 kiss 764 kitchen 800 kith 763 knave 342 knead 947 knee 1318 kneel 1105 knew 1317 knife 687 knight 465 knit 810 knock 1430, 1590 knoll 1527 knot 1611 know 406 knowledge (1718) known 412 knuckle 1433 kye 816

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look 1675

lore 378

lord 384

lose 1301

lot 1604

loose (1742)

loud 1473 louse 1463 lout 1478 love 1379 low (adj.) 431 low (vb.) 1645 luck 796 lust 1376 -ly 612

Made 306 maid 268 main 264 make 283 mallow 74 malt 100 man 195 mane 196 many 197 mar 966 mare 965 mark 40 marrow (1699) marsh 970 mast 129 mate (1710) maw 250 may 249 me 1092 mead 946 meal (corn) 879 meal (food) 1165 mean (vb.) 1210 mean (adj.) 1211 meat 1082 meed 1140 meek 1334 meet 1148 melt 901 men (pl.) 1032 mere 964 merry 835 met (1733) mice (pl.) 822 midge 792 midst 639 mie 706 might 464 mild 490 mile 670 milk 487, 894 mill 756 mind 781 mine 695 minster 780 mint (plant) 593 mint (moneta) 785 mirky 746 mirth 471, 839

mis- 505 miss 506 mist 515 mistletoe 517 moan 421 mole 373 Monday 1659 monger 168 monk 1389 month 1658 mood 1689 moon 1657 moor 1630 more 380 morning 1502 morrow 1509 most 397 mote 1609 moth 1541 mother 1690 mould 1536 mount 1417 mourn 1361 mouse 1465 mouth 1458 mow 404 much 623, 798 murder 1493 must 1643 my 695

Nail 259 naked 282 name 232 nap 340 narrow 15 naught 369 nave 144 nay 346 near 1231 neat 1270 neck 1070 need 1139, 1340 needle 1185 neigh 1173 (neigh)bour 1454 ness II4 nest 915 net 1080 nether 499 nettle 1081 new 526 next 942 nib 956, 1087 nigh 1095 night 463 nightingale 65 nine 608

no 363

none 418 noon 1656 north 1492 nose 1545 not 370 nothing 389 now 1446 nun 1398 nut 1435

Oak 435

oar 375

oats 448

oath 385

of 1551

off 1552

offer 1554

oft 1558 old 90 on 1570 one 415 only 416 open 1614 or 409 ore (1715) other 1634 ought 368 our 1449 out 1477 oven 1553 over 1555 owe 430

owl 1455

own 434

ox 1592

Pan 204 park 42 path 106 pebble 343 penny 1035 pepper 959 pine 697 pit 811 pitch 627 pith 500 plant 222 play 929 plight 467 plough 1672 pluck 1433 pope 457 port 1517 pound 1414 prick 628 pride 826 priest (1744) proud 1480 psalm 81

put 1439

Quail 881 quake 285 quean (1741) queen 1115 quell 984 quench 1024 quick 625

Rain 932 raise 349 rake 271 ram 226 ran 183 rang 157 rank 174 ransack 184, 273 rash 121 rather 102 raven 151 raw 1239 reach 1214 read 1135, 1218 reap 729 rear 1195 reck 1128 reckon 1065 red 1263 reed 1338 reek 1126 rein(deer) 350 rend 1039 rent 1045 rest (1735) rhyme 698 rib 652 rich 707 rick 1127 rid 1071 ridden 632 riddle (1732) ride 715 ridge 789 right 458 rim 595 rime 699 rind 579 ring 544 ripe 728 rise 676 road 441 roar 377 rod 1594 rode 441

roe 356

rood 1684

roof (1749)

rook 1674

room 1469 roost 1642 rope 454 rot 1603 rough 1288, 1470 row (subs.) (1717) rue 1309 run 564, 852 rust 1375 ruth 1323

Sack (1707) sad 301 saddle 302 said 267 sail 931 sake 274 sallow 56 salt 99 salve 77 same 228 sand 210 sang 161 sank 177 sap 339 · sat 322 Saturday 323 saw (pret.) 2 saw (subs.) 245 say 1060 scale 59 Scotland 1607 sea 1193 seal 883 seam 1253 sear 1230 seat 1222 sedge 1061 see 1279 seed 1181 seek 1130 seem 1118 seethe 1299 seldom 897 self 884 sell 979 send 1040 sent 1047 set 1077 settle 955 seven 919 sew 525, 1310 shade 303 shadow, 303 shaft 153 shake 276 shale 59 shall 58

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song 162

soon 1654 sooth 1635 sop 1617 sore 379 sorrow 1508 sought 1482 soul 408 sound (*adj*.) 1405 sour 1450 south 1457 sow (vb.) 402 sow (subs.) 1428 sown 410 spake 278 span 189 spare 12 spark 39 sparrow 24 spat 326 speak 939 spear 833 speech 1178 speed 1137 spell 874 spend 1041 spent 1048 spew 680 spill 479 spin 568 spindle 582 spit 808 spoke (*pret.*) 279 spoke (subs.) 438 spoken 1584 spoon 1655 sprang 164 spring 550 spun 1396 spurn 855 staff 141 stake 277 stalk 85 stall 60 stand 211 stank 179 star 832 stare II stark 38 starve 851 staves 142 stead 1073 steak 352 steal 873 steam 1254 steed 1136 steel 1102 steep 1151 steeple 1152 steer (1740) stem IOI4

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swine 691 swing 548 swollen 1522 sword 868, 1365 swore 1628 sworn 1500 swum 1421

Tail 260 take 286 tale 70 tallow \$4, 992 tame 237 taper (1714) tar 837 tart 50 taught 7 teach 1215 team 1258 tear (subs.) 1233 tear (vb.) 836 tease 1205 teem 1120 -teen III7 teeth 1106 tell 987 ten 924, 1116 Thames 1052 than 186 thane 934 thank 176 that 321 thatch 272 thaw 400 the 827 thee 1090 theft 922 their 347 them 1013 then 187 there 1158 these 504 thew 1240 they 345 thick 614 thief 1326 thigh 1287 thin 776 thine 690 thing 546 think 775 third 473 thirst 741 this 503 thistle 514 thither 634 thole(pin) 1521 thong 160 thorn 1499 thorough 1353

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true 1320

trust 770

tun 1401

turf 1360

tusk 1373

truth 1324

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twain 935 twelve 887 twenty (1738) twig 610 twine 696 twinkle 562 twins 575 twit 649 two 367 Udder 1473 ugly 1427 (un)couth 1459 under 1402 up 1440 us 1371 utter(ly) 1478 Vane 194 vat 327 vixen 802 Wade 304 wag 247

waggon (1703) wain (1704) wake 280 walk 86 wall 61 wallow 73 wan 191 wand 213 wander 215 wane 192 want 22I ward 44 ware 13 warm 33 warn 28 was 113 wash 122 wasp 1005 watch (1709) water 324 wave 1170 wax 293 way 927 we 1091 weak 353 weal 876 wean 1029 weapon 1192 wear 963 weary 1098 weasel 910 weather 944 weave 920 web 1086 wed 1074 wedge 1062

(wed)lock 436 Wednesday 1694 weed 1339 weeds 1180 week 618 ween III2 weep 1153 weevil 534 weigh 1171 weight 1176 welkin 1533 well (adv.) 875 well (subs.) 982 Welsh 989 wen 1030 wench 1022 wend 1042 went 1049 wept 1348 were 1159 west (1730) wet 1078 wether 905 whale 62 what 325 wheat 1224 wheel 1296 whelk 893 whelp 999 when 193 where 1160 whet 1079 whether 103 whey 1172 which 620 while 668 whine (1725) whisper 524 whistle 522 whit 462 white 726 whither 636 who 361 whole 371 whom 427 whoop 1698 whore 1627 whose 396 why 815 wick (1731) wide 718 widow 635 width 638 wield 996 wierd 747 wife 685 wight 461 wild 489 wile 667 will 480

willow 481 win 569 wind (subs.) 583 wind (vb.) 584 window 585 wine 694 wing 551 wink 560 winnow 570 winter 591 wire 665 wisdom 512 wise 677 wish 766 wit 645 witch 619 with 497 woad 443 woe 360 wonf 1369 woman 598 womb 239	women 599 won (pret.) 190 won (partic.) 1397 wonder 1409 woo 1668 wood 1434 wool 1366 word 1513 work 745, 862, 1364 world 1490 worm 743, 1362 worse 739 wort 751 worth 842, 1356 wot 450 would 1537 wound (pret.) 214 wound(partic.) 1407 wrang 165 wrath 386	wren (1737) wrench (1736) wrest 1002 wretch 1068 wright 737 wring (1723) wrist (1720) write 725 writhe 673 written 646 wrong 166 wrote 451 wroth 387 wrought 1483 8 wrung 1386	yarn 30 ye 1093 yea 1226 year 1232 yearn 856 yeast 516 yell 482 yellow 880 yelp 903 yes 507 yester(day) 521 yet 647 yew 1307 yield 492 yoke 1586 yolk 895 yore 382 you 1306 young 1329 youth 1300, 1337 yule 1297
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## SUPPLEMENTARY LISTS OF IRREGULARITIES.

#### MIDDLE PERIOD.

In the following words æ and ea have become e instead of the regular a: gèèr (gear), èèrn (earn), fern, bèèrd (beard); elf, belch; wheőer, togeőer; les, nes, lest, lèèst (least), gest (guest); ően, when; emet, hemp; wrec, pebl.

It is clear from these exceptional forms that the Old English e was quite lost after the Transition period; as we see, it was either changed into e, or else mispronounced as e,

just as it would be in the mouth of a foreigner.

The lengthening before r in gèèr,  $e\`ern$  and  $b\`e\`erd$  has many parallels, and in the case of  $b\`e\`erd$  is confirmed by the Modern bii'ed. The present form  $o\ni n$ , however, points rather to ern, with a short vowel. The lengthening in  $l\`e\'est$ , although anomalous, is supported by  $y\`e\`est$  from yest=gist, by the retention of  $o\`est$  in m'ed'est, etc., and perhaps by er'e (see note on 518, below).

a for  $\delta$  in non-preterites (p. 54): angl, hang, fang, gang, bang.  $\delta$  for a: on, bond, from, womb, comb.

ei preserved: ei (eye), Sei (they), whei, grei, cei (key); weih (weigh), neih, neih(buur), eiht (eight), heiht; Seir; eiser; rein(déér).

The Modern forms point mostly to ai. ai (eye) however comes not from ai=ei, but from ii. cii (key) is altogether anomalous; so also are the two pronunciations  $ii \aleph er$  and  $ai \aleph er$  (either), while the obsolete  $\acute{e}i \aleph er$  is regular.

i (y) has become e, 1) regularly after y-consonant: yel; yes, yèèst, yesterdai; yet. 2) in other words: her, herd (shep-(herd); ne\( \text{Ner} \); \( \text{Sèèz} \) (these); \( \text{èèvil} \); flejd (fledged).

In  $sn\grave{e}\grave{e}c$  and  $r\grave{e}\grave{e}p$  (sneak, reap) a highly anomalous change of ii into  $\grave{e}\grave{e}$  seems to have taken place.

é, eo become i: liht, fiht; mir (but meri), birch; chil, silver, silc, milc, fiild; sister; ric, wic; cripl, hip (=berry), dip (?).

è becomes i: smire, gird(l); sili, cil, wiild; line; rid; nib.

é becomes a, 1) before r: star, far, tar, darling (from deōrling), farðing, carv, starv, barm, dwarf, baru, darc, harc, hart. 2) in: swalu, brambl.

è becomes a, 1) before r: mar, maar, barlei, marsh, haru, barn, yard. 2) in: talu (?); wasp; handi (?), aach.

é, eo become u: churl, burst, run, spurn, burn; hung.

ē, eō become ii: ii (from eāge), lii (from leōgan), slii, flii, tii; hiih, þiih, niih; diiv (?).

 $\bar{e}$  becomes è $\hat{e}$  before r:  $h\hat{e}\hat{e}r$ ,  $w\hat{e}\hat{e}ri$ ,  $h\hat{e}\hat{e}rcn$ ,  $h\hat{e}\hat{e}rd$ .

In the case of the first two words there is sixteenth century authority for the  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$ -sound also.

 $\bar{\alpha} = \acute{e}\acute{e}$  becomes  $\grave{e}\grave{e}$ , 1) before r in all words except the doubtful  $b\acute{e}\acute{e}r$ . 2) in:  $m\grave{e}\grave{e}l$ ;  $br\grave{e}\grave{e}\aleph$ ;  $\grave{e}\grave{e}ven$  (evening);  $\rlap{p}r\grave{e}\grave{e}d$ ,  $dr\grave{e}\grave{e}d$ ;  $bl\grave{e}\grave{e}t$ ;  $w\grave{e}pon$ .

Three of these, however, are made doubtful by the Modern bred, dred, wepon, which point rather to a shortening of the long vowel at an early period.

eō becomes èè: dèèr, drèèri; brèèst, clèèv (cleave).

There is Early Modern authority for déér as well as dèèr. brèèst, again, is uncertain on account of the Modern brest.

 $e\bar{o}$  becomes  $\acute{o}\acute{o}$ :  $l\acute{o}\acute{o}z$ ,  $ch\acute{o}\acute{o}z$ ;  $sh\acute{o}\acute{o}t$ .

Compare  $ch\dot{o}\dot{o}z$  from  $ce\bar{a}s$  (p. 35), and  $\delta\dot{o}\dot{o}uh$  from  $\beta e\bar{a}h$  (note to 1228, below).

 $e\bar{o}$  becomes u(u): yuu; ruuh; yuub;  $yung.^1$ 

o becomes u: murder, durst, burst (partic.); dul; amung, munger.

 $\bar{o}$  becomes u(u): yuu (you); tuuh (tough); yuup; yung.

The following remarks on the diphthongs are intended to supplement those on pp. 52, 53, above.

Diphthongs are formed not only by g(gh), but also by medial and final h(=kh), but only with back vowels, the new element being always u (never i), which I have already explained (note p. 80) as a mere secondary formation, due to the labialization of the following h=kh: the h is consequently not absorbed, as is the case with g.

The following are examples of genuine h-diphthongs, in which h is original, not a later modification of g (p. 79):

- 1) from ah: lauh, lauhter, slauhter, fauht, tauht. And perhaps sau from seah, although the omission of the h makes it more probable that it arises from some confusion with the plural sāwon.
- from āh: òòuht (ought).
   not points to nòòuht=nāht; nauht, however, to a shortened naht.
- 3) from oh: souht, bouht, bouht. For dauhter see note to 1484.

In the following words g has been anomalously preserved, instead of being diphthongized: wag, wagon (but also wain), drag (but also drau), twig.

A few general remarks on Middle (or rather Early Modern) English orthography remain to be made.

It is, as we have seen, mainly traditional, but with certain purely phonetic modifications. The first divergence of sound and symbol was the retention of *ee* and *oo* to denote the new sounds *ii* and *uu*, while original *ii* and *uu* themselves changed in the direction of *ai* and *au*. The introduction of *ea* and *oa* to denote the true *ee* and *oo* sound was, on the other hand, a strictly phonetic innovation.

ee and oo were partly phonetic, partly historical signs-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I have repeated most of these words again under ō.

they denoted the sounds ii and uu, and implied at the same time an earlier éé and óó. But in a few cases it is interesting to observe that they were employed purely phonetically, against tradition. An example is afforded by the word written room, the Old English rum. In the fourteenth century this word was spelt with the French ou=uu; but in the Early Modern period the regular rown, corresponding with down, etc., was abandoned, probably because it would, like down, have suggested the regular diphthong óu or ou, into which the other old uus changed, and the word was written phonetically room, without at all implying a Middle English róóm. Other examples are door and groom, in which oo may perhaps represent short u, which it almost certainly does in wool and The use of single o to denote short u is a wellknown feature of Middle English. It occurs chiefly in combination with w, u(=v), n, and m, and has been explained (first, I believe, by Dr. J. A. H. Murray) as a purely graphic substitute for u in combination with letters of similar formation, to avoid confusion. But such a spelling as wod would have suggested an  $\partial$ -sound, as in god. To avoid all possibility of this pronunciation, the o was therefore doubled. spelling is only inaccurate as regards the quantity; it is, therefore, difficult to see why it was not adopted in the words written love, come, etc., which ought by their spelling to indicate the pronunciations lóóv, cóóm, corresponding to Middle English lòòv, còòm!

Similar fluctuation between the phonetic and historical principle is shown in many words written with the digraph ie. ie is in itself nothing but a substitute for ii, which from purely graphic reasons was never doubled, as being liable to confusion with u. The sound of ii was, of course, in most cases expressed by ee. There were, however, a few words which preserved their Middle English ii-sound throughout the Early Modern period (and up to the present day) as well. Such a word as filld, for instance, if written in the fourteenth century spelling fild, would have been read, on the analogy of wild, child, etc., as féild, or fold, while to have written feeld would have been a violation of the etymological prin-

ciple. Both history and sound were saved by the adoption of ie. The following list of ie-words will show that, although ie was sometimes used finally to denote the diphthongized sound, it invariably denoted the simple ii medially: hie, lie, die, tie; wierd; yield, shield, wield, field; priest; believe, sieve; lief, thief; fiend, friend.

In sieve we have an instance of ie used to denote a short vowel (compare wool, etc.); possibly the ie was employed simply to prevent the combination sine, which would have been graphically ambiguous.

#### Modern Period.

The general rule which governs the retention and modification of a before sibilants seems to be that it is retained before breath consonants, but changed to a before voice consonants. Thus we find az, haz, hav contrasting with a(a)s, gras, ase, last, staf, after. The change to a takes place, however, before sh, although voiceless: ash, rash. Also in aspen. In the same way a followed by n and a voice consonant becomes a, as in and, hand, anvil; but if the consonant which comes after the n is voiceless, there is no change, as in ansor, plant, ant. These laws do not apply to a when followed by the other nasals, in which cases it is always changed: sanc, drane; damp.

ii has been preserved in the following words: mii: shiiər, wiiəd; shiild, wiild, fiild, yiild; wiivəl, wiic.

Of these words the first only has  $\bar{\imath}$  in O.E.; all the others are Middle E. lengthenings of i, corresponding sometimes to original i, sometimes to  $\hat{e}$  or  $\hat{e}$ . It is worthy of note that all of them are written with ie, except shii r, wiv r l, and wiik, which are written shire, weevil, week. The last two spellings with e, which go back as far as the fourteenth century, seem to indicate some confusion with  $\acute{e}\acute{e}$ , although we would rather expect the broad  $\grave{e}\acute{e}$ , as in  $sn\grave{e}\acute{e}c$  for sniic. It is, however,

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Note, however, that aspen is a dissyllable, with a liquid in the second syllable: but we have after, not after.

possible that these ees may be simply Early Modern phonetic spellings, like room=ruum.

èè has become éi (instead of ii): yéi (yea); bréic; gréit.1

u has been preserved, 1) after w: wuman, wul, wulf, wuund, wud (not in  $w \ni n d \ni r$ ). 2) in other cases: ful,  $bul(\ni c)$ ; grum.

uu has been preserved (sometimes with shortening): buur (boor); oncuuþ; cud (could); ruum (room); bruc (brook).

óó has been preserved: hóuv; θướuc.

For and shavl see notes to 1553 and 1556.

The series of changes is clearly  $\delta\delta$ , uu, u,  $\vartheta$ ; the second and third belonging to the Early Modern, the last to the Transition period. The anomalous spelling other, etc., instead of oother, was probably meant to indicate the shortness of the  $u=\delta\delta$ . To infer from it a Middle E.  $\delta\delta\delta er$  would be as unreasonable as in the case of love, come, etc., where the u was certainly never lengthened or lowered to  $\delta\delta$ .

Under the head of consonant influence the loss of the initial element of the diphthong iuu or yuu ought to have been noticed in its place. It takes place after r and l, but not after stops, nasals, and sibilants: ruu, gruu, cruu; fluu, cluu; also in chuu (lyuud is an exception), yuu; hyuu; þyuu; fyuu; nyuu; dyuu; styuu; spyuu.

The development of the diphthong ou out of ol in the combination olc ought also to have been noticed; it occurs in two words: youc (yolk), fouc (folk).

Also the change of a into ò before lt, in holt, solt, molt.

#### NOTES TO THE WORD LISTS.

No. 3. eiht. A solitary exception to the general change of aht into auht. There is Early Mod. evidence for aiht as well as eiht.

<sup>1</sup> For the preservation of èè before r in bèèr, etc., see p. 68.

- 6. fauht. Salesbury writes fauht, and the spelling fought seems merely due to confusion with the partic. fouhten from O.E. gefohten.
- 15. năru, etc. These words are not derived direct from the nom. nearu, but from the oblique cases, nearwe becoming nearw, whence naru, by weakening of the final w. caru, on the other hand, which has care in the oblique cases, naturally lengthens its vowel—caar.
- 25. gèèr from gearwa is only an apparent exception to the rule just stated, the long vowel being probably due to the r. The loss of the w is, however, anomalous.
- 58. shæl, for shòòl. An isolated exception to the development of au before l.
- 68. ceallian. This word occurs in the poem of Byrhtnoð; it may therefore possibly be English, although Norse influence in so late a work is quite possible.
- 71. baal. Exceptionally taken from the nom. bealu, not from the oblique bealw- (see note to 15, above).
- 81. psalm. The p is, of course, purely pedantic; the word may, however, be French.
- 84. telg. The vowel is doubtful, and I have given the word again under  $\grave{e}$  (992).
- 89, 91. alder, alderman. The exceptional retention of the a may be due to the liquid in the second syllable: compare the short i in wunder, etc., as contrasted with wuund (p. 47).
- 132. castel. This word, although of French origin, was in familiar use in English many years before the Conquest.
- 140. hauc, from have through have, haw(e)c. The converse change has taken place in waav (1170); the series was probably  $w\bar{e}g$ , waaw, waav.
  - 150. clòòrer. The only parallel is lòòd from hladan (298).
- 168, 169. monger, among. The u-sound, for which there is Early Middle authority, as well as for o, is anomalous.
- 181. eni. The Early form (or one of them) was ani with short a (as Gill expressly states); the present form eni may therefore be explained as an irregular variation of the normal ani.
  - 182. hemp seems to point to an O.E. hænep (cp. 187).

187, 193. then, when. These clearly arise from the Late O.E. Sænne and whænne with abnormal modification of a before nasals (p. 26).

229. swem for swom. m seems to bar the retention of a for a in the same way in the word demp (p. 150).

246, 248. slai, flai, instead of slau, flau. The subs. slège may have helped the former irregularity.

253. daun. dag(e)nian ought to give dain, but the analogy of the regular Middle E. dawes from dagas helped.

270. acorn. The o is probably inorganic, the result of association with corn.

298. lòòd. ep. clòòver (150).

303. shaad for sceadw-. ep. baal, 71.

324. water. The Modern wòòter, with its long vowel, is anomalous.

331. got, inorganic, from the analogy of the partic. \*begoten.

343. pebl, from pæpol or pæbol (?).

344. ai. The modern form is a solitary case of retention of the diphthong.

350. rein. The older spelling raindeer should have been given.

352. The Middle stèèc and its change into the Modern stèic are both anomalous.

353. weak may possibly come from the O.E. wāc, through  $w\bar{a}c$ .

355. dii, from dey(ja); ep. ii for ei from  $e\bar{a}ge$  (1121).

357.  $l\bar{a}$ . If the Modern  $l\partial\dot{o}$  (written law) really corresponds to the O.E.  $l\bar{a}$ , we have a second instance (besides  $br\dot{o}\dot{o}d$ ) of the retention of  $\dot{o}\dot{o}$ . treysta (770) should have been referred to here.

372. haal. A solitary and dubious instance of the retention of O.E. ā.

389. nothing. The Modern  $\vartheta$  is probably due to the analogy of  $w \vartheta n$  (415) and  $n \vartheta n$ .

396.  $wh\grave{o}\grave{o}z$ , read  $wh\acute{o}\acute{o}z$ . The Modern uu is better evidence than the spelling whose.

400. þau, points seemingly to an O.E. þäwan.

415. won. The most probable explanation is that wo is

simply the Early Modern 66 with its labial and guttural elements pronounced successively instead of simultaneously (p. 14).

418.  $n \ni n$ . Not a case of  $\partial \partial$  becoming  $\partial$  through uu and u,

but simply due to the analogy of won.

429. clami. The O.E. ā in this word must have been shortened at a very early period, else we should have had clomi.

440. - $h\dot{\phi}\dot{\phi}d$ . A solitary instance of  $\dot{\phi}\dot{\phi}$  becoming  $\dot{\phi}\dot{\phi}$  in Middle English (except after w).

447. bròòd. Retention of Middle English òò from ā.

491. gild. Exceptional retention of short i. cp. gild (from gyldan) and byld (760, 761).

518. criist. The ch is, of course, no evidence; but the word may be French. Compare, however, lèèst (126) and yèèst (520), with the same lengthening before st.

528. teuzdai. The spelling ue indicates the later simplifi-

cation yy.

534. wiivil. It is uncertain whether the spelling ee indicates a Middle English wéévil or is purely phonetic.

604. island. The s is purely etymological and erroneous.

707. rich. May be French.

760, 761. gild, byld. Exceptional retention of the short vowels. There is, however, Early Middle authority for byyld as well.

796. luck. The word lukka in Icelandic is said to be of late introduction, otherwise it would fit in very well. I have formed lycci from the Danish lykke.

847. præsh may be a modification of presh, as eni seems to be of eni (181).

860. iceberg. Probably foreign (Dutch?).

868. swurd; or from u (1365).

870. hèèrt and hart are both independent modifications of hèrt.

881. cwail. Compare hair (1157) from  $h\bar{\alpha}r$ . The history of these two spellings requires investigation: it is possible that the ai is merely a comparatively late representation of the sound  $\hat{e}\hat{e}$ , introduced after the simplification of the diphthong ai (p. 65).

934. þaan for þain. Here, again, the spelling may be late. The Modern þéin would correspond to either þaan or þain.

956. nebb. The vowel is more probably è (1087).

1005. wasp points rather to wasp than wesp; both forms may, however, have existed.

1017. wāng (551) should come in here.

1036. clenz. The spelling ea certainly points to clèènz, but the Modern form is against it, and it is possible that the ea may be a purely etymological reminiscence.

1038. handi may be merely a late derivative of hand.

1052. temz. The spelling is evidently a pedantic adaptation of the Latin T(h)amesis.

1054. au. This form (instead of ai) is very anomalous. The most probable explanation is that  $\grave{e}ge$  was made into age by the same confusion between the two vowels as in aesp (1005), and that age then became age, which was irregularly diphthongized into au(e).

1057. hej points rather to hècg than hège, which would give hai.

1058, 1060. lai, sai. These forms (instead of lej, sej) point rather to some such inflection as the imperative lège, sège.

1064. aach. Another case of confusion between  $\hat{e}$  and  $\alpha$ —  $\hat{e}cc$ , ace, ace, aach.

1105. cnēla. The Icelandic expression is knéfalla, but knæle is found in Danish.

1135. read. I have given the word again under  $\hat{e}\hat{e}$  (1218), as it is quite uncertain whether it had  $\bar{e}$  or  $\bar{a}$  in O.E.: the assumed derivation from  $r\bar{o}djan$  favours the former, the MSS. usage the latter.

1157. hair. cp. cwail (881).

1171. weih, etc. Anomalous retention of gh in the form of h.

1228. Sòòuh. The stages were probably Seaah, Saah, Sòòh, Sòòuh.

1239. rau. Apparently from an intermediate hreaw; cp. pau (400).

1241, 1242. slòòu, shòòu. The same dropping of the first element of O.E. eaa, as in the previous word. All these forms are important, as showing that the second element of the diphthong had the accent and was long.

1244. strau. ep. 1239.

1276. chapman. Points to a shortened ea, which naturally passed into a.

1292. darling. From shortened eo - deor-, deor-, der-,

dar-ling.

1295. four. Probably formed directly from the Middle English four itself.

1306. yuu. Here the first element of the diphthong is consonantized, and the final w thrown off, as in  $tr\acute{e}\acute{e}$ ,  $en\acute{e}\acute{e}$ , etc.

1333. friend. The Modern frend points to a very early shortened form, which probably co-existed with the older fréénd.

1353, 1363. thorough, borough. The Modern  $\theta$  points to  $\theta$  puruh and buruh, and it is possible that the  $\theta$  is a mere

graphic substitute for u.

1370. shóulder for shaulder. The most probable explanation is that shuulder became shóulder in the Early Modern period, and the óu became óóu before ld, and so was confounded with the óóu in flóóu, etc.

1380. eleven. Agrees rather with the other form endleofon.

1460. cuuld. The l is, of course, due to the analogy of wuuld and shuuld.

1470. ruuh may possibly come from hreōh (1288).

1484. dauhter. The anomalous au may be due to Norse influence, as Danish has datter (Icelandie dóttir): I do not know, however, that the Danish form is of any antiquity.

1519. holu. The final h of holh seems to have been first vocalized (and labialized), and then merged into w, which, as

in naru, etc., was weakened into u.

1521. sw'ouln, etc. The development of ou in the combinations ol, old, is Early Modern, and should have been mentioned (p. 61). The phoneticians make the o long, writing tooul (=toll), etc. Its preservation in the present English is, therefore, quite regular, as in fl'ou from Middle E. fl'o'ou, etc.

1530. boul. Here, again, the sixteenth century authorities write booul. The spelling bowl is, of course, phonetic and unhistorical.

1533. welcin. cp. wednesdai (1694).

1540. fro, etc. The quantity of o before  $\flat$ , s, and f is very uncertain in the present English, but the longs seem to be getting the upper hand.

1553. oven. The Modern ovn points rather to óóven than

the regular òòven.

1556. shovel. The Modern shovl, again, points to an earlier shuvl, which may be a shortening of shuuvel=shóóvel, as was suggested in the case of oven. Or the form shuvel may be due to the analogy of the verb shuv=scūfan.

1667, 1670. sleu, dreu. The most probable explanation is that slóóg first became slóóu, and then this was confused with the numerous preterites in cóów (greōw, cneōw, etc.), and followed the same change into eu.

1694. wednesday. cp. welcin (1533).

#### ON THE PERIODS OF ENGLISH.

One of the most troublesome questions of English philology is that of the designation of its various stages. I have throughout this paper adopted the threefold division of Old, Middle, and Modern: it will, therefore, be necessary to say a few words in its justification.

The first question is, shall we retain the name "Anglo-Saxon" for the earliest period of our language, or discard it entirely? The great majority of English scholars are decidedly hostile to the word. They argue that it is a barbarous half-Latin compound, which, although justifiable as applied to a political confederation of Angles and Saxons, is entirely misleading when applied to the language spoken by these tribes, implying, as it does, that the English language before the Conquest was an actual mixture of the Anglian and Saxon dialects. The reverse was of course the case, and we consequently have to distinguish between the Anglian dialect

of Anglo-Saxon and the Saxon dialect of Anglo-Saxon.1 The most serious objection, however, to the word Anglo-Saxon is that it conceals the unbroken development of our language, and thrusts the oldest period of our language outside the pale of our sympathies. Hence, to a great extent, the slowness with which the study of our language makes its way among the great mass of educated people in Englandif people can be called educated who are ignorant of the history of their own language.

These arguments have lately been vigorously attacked by a leading English philologist-Professor March. In his able essay<sup>2</sup> he brings out the distinctive features of the two extreme periods very forcibly, and has so far done good service. At the same time, he has greatly exaggerated the difference between the two periods. Thus, in phonology, he says that Anglo-Saxon had sounds now lost in English, such as French u, German ch, and initial wl, wr, and that  $\bar{\imath}$  and  $\bar{u}$  have become diphthongs. Now any one who has read this paper with any attention will see that this part of the argument is worth very little, for all these sounds were preserved unchanged in the sixteenth century, which belongs unmistakably to the Modern period.

The well-known statement that Johnson's Dictionary contains 29,000 Romance words out of 43,500 is a great exaggeration. A large proportion of these 29,000 are words which are never used in ordinary speech or writing, very many of them are quite unknown to the majority of educated people, and not a few of them never existed in the language at all. When we speak of the proportion of Romance elements in English, we mean the English of every-day life, not of dictionaries and technical works,3 and of the two ex-

<sup>1</sup> If any period of our language is to be called "Anglo-Saxon," let it be the present one—as far, at least, as the literary language is concerned, which is really a mixture of Saxon and Auglian forms.

2 Is there an Anglo-Saxon Language? Transactions of the American Philo-

logical Association, 1872.

<sup>3</sup> On such one-sided grounds as these it would be easy to prove that Modern German is quite as mixed as English is. Observe the proportion of foreign and native words in the following passages, taken at random from a work published this year:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Wieniawski, der Paganinispieler par excellence, zeigt sich da, wo er mit

tremes, the estimate of Turner is certainly fairer than that of Thommerel.

The real distinction between the two stages lies, of course, in the comparatively uninflectional character of the present language and its analytical reconstruction. But the old inflections are not all lost; we still have our genitive, our plurals in s and en, and in our verbs the Teutonic strong preterite is still common. And it must be borne in mind that even the Oldest English inflections are beginning to break up. There is no s or r in the nominative singular, consequently no distinction between nominative and accusative in many words, no distinction whatever of gender in the plural of adjectives, or of person in the plural of verbs. The imperfect case terminations are already eked out by prepositions— $h\bar{e}$  ewe8  $t\bar{o}$   $m\bar{e}$  is much more like English than Latin or even German.

And if we take the intermediate stages into consideration, we find it simply impossible to draw a definite line. Professor March acknowledges this, but takes refuge in a distinction between colloquial and literary speech, which last, he says, has much more definite periods. Professor March surely forgets that for scientific purposes artificial literary speech is worth nothing compared with that of every-day life, with its unconscious, unsophisticated development. It is, besides, very questionable whether there ever was an artificial literary prose language in England in early times.

While differing from Professor March on these points, I fully agree with him in protesting against the loose way in which "Old English" is made to designate any period from Alfred to Chaucer. It is quite clear that the inflectional stage of our language must have a distinctive name, and therefore that Old English must be reserved for it alone.

Schwierigkeiten und Effecten à la Paganini spielt, in seinem eigentlichen Elemente; seine Compositionen sind daher für exclusive Virtuosen nicht ohne Interesse. Dieselben wollen mit voilkommeuster technischer Freiheit, übermüthiger Laune und Feuer gespielt sein, vor allen die Variationen Opus 11—echte musikalische Mixpickles."

<sup>&</sup>quot;Ein effectvolles Virtuosenstück in Paganini'scher Manier."
"Das kurze Thema ist mit poetischer Simplicität zu spielen."

Compare these specimens with the Lord's Prayer, or a page of Swift or Defoe.

The difficulty is with the later stages. The period I call Middle English is now often called "Early English," while those who retain "Anglo-Saxon" call the intermediate periods "Semi-Saxon" or "Old English," while others make various arbitrary distinctions between "Early," "Old," and "Middle" English. It does not seem to be generally acknowledged that each of these terms really implies a definite correlative, that if we call one period "Early," we are bound to have a "Late" one, and that "Middle" implies a beginning and an end—to talk therefore of one period as "Early," as opposed to a "Middle" one, is entirely arbitrary.

Such divisions err also in being too minute. When we consider how one period merges into another, and how the language changed with much greater rapidity in the North than in the South, we see that it is necessary to start with a few broad divisions, not with impracticably minute ones.

I propose, therefore, to start with the three main divisions of Old, Middle, and Modern, based mainly on the inflectional characteristics of each stage. Old English is the period of full inflections (nama, gifan, caru), Middle English of levelled inflections (naame, given, caare), and Modern English of lost inflections (naam, giv, caar). We have besides two periods of transition, one in which nama and name exist side by side, and another in which final e is beginning to drop. The latter is of very little importance, the former, commonly called Semi-Saxon (a legitimate abbreviation of Semi-Anglo-Saxon), is characterized by many far-reaching changes. I propose, therefore to call the first the Transition period par excellence, distinguishing the two, when necessary, as first and second Transition, the more important one being generally called simply Transition or Transition-English.

Whenever minute divisions are wanted, Early and Late can be used—Early Old, Late Middle, Early Modern, etc. Still minuter distinctions can be made by employing Earlier, Earliest, etc., till we fall back on the century or decade.

These divisions could also be applied to the different dialectnames. Thus Old Anglian would be equivalent to "Anglian dialect of Old English," Modern Saxon would designate the Dorsetshire dialect, etc.

As regards the Northern dialects of the Middle period, they ought strictly to be classed as Modern, as they soon lost the final e entirely. But as they have all the other characteristics of the Middle period, it seems most convenient to take the dominant speech of Chaucer and Gower as our criterion.

#### CONCLUDING REMARKS.

First of all I have a few words to say on the relation of the present essay to Mr. Ellis's great work.

As regards my obligations to Mr. Ellis, I can only say, once for all, that without his investigations this essay would never have been written. It is essentially based on his results, of which, in some places, it is little more than a summary; while I have throughout drawn largely on the enormous mass of material stored up in the "Early English Pronunciation."

In going over the same ground as Mr. Ellis, it is but natural that I should occasionally arrive at conclusions different from his, as, for instance, in the important question of the two ees and oos in Middle English, and in that of the preservation of short y in the Early Modern period.

But I have not been satisfied with merely summarizing and criticizing Mr. Ellis's views, but have also endeavoured to carry his method a step further, by combining his results with the deductions of the historical school inaugurated by Rask, and perfected by Grimm and his followers in Germany. Mr. Ellis's great achievement was to determine generally the phonetic values of the Roman alphabet in England at the different periods, and to establish the all-important principle that the Middle Age scribes wrote not by eye, but by ear, and consequently that their varying orthographic usage is a genuine criterion of their pronunciation. It has, therefore, been possible for me in the present essay to turn my attention more exclusively to the sounds themselves, and the wider

generalizations obtainable from an examination of the various changes, which generalizations can again be applied to the elucidation and confirmation of the individual changes themselves. Many of the general principles stated at the beginning of the essay are, I believe, new and original; such, for instance, as the threefold divisions of sound-changes into organic, inorganic, and imitative, the sketch of the relations between sound and symbol (general alphabetics), the determination of the laws which govern the changes of short and long vowels in the Teutonic languages, etc.

I have also added to our stock of phonetic material, both by the observations on the pronunciation of Modern English and the living Teutonic languages, and also by the full lists of Old English words with their Middle and Modern equivalents, which afford a sound basis both for testing the views I have developed, and for carrying out further investigation.

It need hardly be said that the present essay is but a meagre sketch of what would be a really adequate history of English sounds. An investigation of every dialect and period, even if only on the meagre and imperfect scale here attempted, would fill many volumes. And yet till this is done, we cannot say that the foundations of a scientific English phonology are even laid. And it is only on such investigations that a satisfactory investigation of inflection and syntax can be based.

It was, therefore, absolutely necessary for me to limit my programme as much as possible. Hence the omission of any reference to our dialects, and the comparative neglect of the Middle period. Most of my results are obtained from a direct comparison with Old and Modern English: they are, therefore, to a certain extent, only tentative. In one point they are specially defective, namely as regards the deductions drawn from our present traditional orthography. Although this orthography is, on the whole, a very faithful representation of the pronunciation of the time when it settled into its present fixity, yet there are many of its details which urgently require a more minute examination. In short, we want a thorough investigation of the orthography of the sixteenth

and seventeenth centuries, based on an examination not only of printed works, but also of manuscripts of all kinds. Such an investigation would not fail to yield valuable results.

Of the very considerable labour entailed in the present work, a large portion was expended on the lists. at first intended merely to consist of a certain number of examples of each change, but it proved so difficult to draw any definite line of exclusion that I determined to make them as full as possible, excluding only obsolete and doubtful There are a large number of words which, although of undoubted Teutonic origin, cannot be assigned to any Old English parent. Again, many Old English words given in the dictionaries without any reference, merely on the authority of Lye and Somner, are of very dubious existence. Many of them I believes to be gueses, formed by analogy from purely Modern words, while others are clearly taken from Transition texts. These I have often omitted, especially when they did not seem to offer any new points of interest. I am fully conscious of the inconsistencies and errors I have fallen into in preparing these lists, but I believe they are inevitable in a first attempt of this kind. It would have been easy to give my work a false appearance of fullness and finish, by suppressing the lists altogether; but I preferred to give them out, imperfect as they are, and rely on the indulgence of those who are alone competent to judge my workthose, namely, who have been engaged in similar initiatory investigations.



# SPECIMENS OF ENGLISH DIALECTS.

I. DEVONSHIRE.
AN EXMOOR SCOLDING AND COURTSHIP.

II. WESTMORELAND.

A BRAN NEW WARK.



# SPECIMENS

oF

# ENGLISH DIALECTS.

### I. DEVONSHIRE.

AN

# EXMOOR SCOLDING AND COURTSHIP,

EDITED BY

F. T. ELWORTHY, ESQ.

# II. WESTMORELAND. A BRAN NEW WARK.

EDITED BY

THE REV. PROFESSOR SKEAT.

#### LONDON:

PUBLISHED FOR THE ENGLISH DIALECT SOCIETY, BY TRÜBNER & CO., 57 & 59, LUDGATE HILL. 1879. Bungny:

CLAY AND TAYLOR, PRINTERS.

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## INTRODUCTION TO PART I.

#### BY PROFESSOR SKEAT.

It has always been the intention of the English Dialect Society to reprint certain Selected Specimens of various dialects, in order to exhibit them, as it were, in their living state. But there were several other undertakings of more immediate importance, such as the Bibliographical List in particular, which required more immediate attention.

After the completion of the Bibliographical List, the reprinting of twenty-two Glossaries, and the issuing of various other publications which are, we hope, of sufficient interest and importance to be placed before the members of the Society, it was to be expected that a wish should be expressed for the reprinting of specimens of the living speech. In order to meet this want in some degree, the present Part has been undertaken. The two pieces which have first received attention are sufficiently well-known and have a certain admitted value of their own, such as to render them worthy of being issued to members at some time or other, and they are accordingly issued now.

It is quite true that the 'Exmoor Scolding and Courtship' have been reprinted over and over again, and may, in fact, be bought in a cheap form at a railway book-stall, but the present reprint is very different from those that have preceded it. The editor has not only given us a glossic version, but has added numerous notes, all of much value and interest. We are now told whether the writer is at any moment using the true dialect of the peasantry or whether he is indulging in literary English, and even inventing, here and there, forms such as do not accord with the living speech at all. Thus the first of our Specimens is issued under very favourable circumstances, and cannot but prove extremely useful as an authoritative book of reference. The Scolding and Courtship were evidently written, in the first instance, merely to amuse; but, after the lapse of more than a century, during which time they have been reprinted at least a score of times, they now serve a more useful purpose as specimens

which, notwithstanding certain faults, possess a permanent philological interest; particularly in the number of words and grammatical forms which, though common in English of a much earlier date, are now obsolete in literary English, but are preserved in these dialogues, and are still living in the spoken dialect.

Of 'The Bran New Wark' it is not necessary to say much. It is not exactly in the spoken dialect, but rather a piece of literary English abounding in the use of provincial words, written by one who was familiar with the living speech. Instead of being an accessible book, like the preceding, it is very scarce, which was an additional reason for reprinting it. I have pointed out that there were really two editions of it, which differ but slightly. various readings are given at p. 209. The construction of the Glossarial Index was rather tedious than difficult. I have shewn that most of the words used by the author are such as are explained in the very first glossary reprinted by the Society, and that there are grounds for believing that we thus possess what are, in fact, the author's own explanations. As to one or two words, such as prickings and flushcocks, I had a little difficulty; but on submitting the proof-sheets to Mr. W. Jackson, of Fleatham House, Carnforth, these words were promptly and definitely solved, and I beg leave to express my thanks for this timely assistance. To make quite sure, Mr. Jackson took the trouble to send me a 'flushcock' and a 'sieve' by post; and, on submitting these to the inspection of Mr. Britten, he at once pronounced them to be Juncus lamprocarpus and Juncus effusus: a result which is highly satisfactory.

It is hardly possible to say when the present series of reprints will be continued. It is easy, on the one hand, to say that 'more ought to be done;' but experience shews, on the other hand, that it is by no means easy to find editors who will give us their time and take sufficient pains; whilst it is at the same time undesirable that the supervision of the reprints should be lightly taken in hand and perfunctorily performed. If some of our members who are anxious to see more of these reprints, and who have the necessary knowledge, will offer their services as editors whilst indicating specimens which are worth reprinting, they will do the Society a great service. Otherwise suggestions as to what is wanted rather tend to embarrassment than afford hearty and genuine help.

#### Ι.

# DEVONSHIRE.

# THE EXMOOR SCOLDING

AND

### COURTSHIP

(TWO DIALOGUES OF THE BEGINNING OF THE XVIII. CENTURY);

ALSO

### THE SOMERSETSHIRE MAN'S COMPLAINT

(A POEM OF A FULL CENTURY EARLIER).

THE ORIGINAL TEXTS EDITED, COLLATED, AND ARRANGED, WITH A COMPLETE
TRANSCRIPT IN GLOSSIC, THE VOCABULARY ENLARGED, AND THE
WHOLE ILLUSTRATED WITH COPIOUS NOTES, BY

### FREDERIC THOMAS ELWORTHY,

MEMBER OF COUNCIL OF THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY.



### EDITOR'S PREFACE.

THE great value to students of any true specimens of South-Western English Dialects consists in the fact that they are the living descendants of what was once the literary and courtly language of From the time of Alfred or earlier, until after the Norman Conquest, for a period of some two hundred and fifty years before 1100—the West-Saxon English of Alfred, or, as it is called, the Anglo-Saxon, was the only written or literary form of speech of the country, and it is in the main to the writings of that period that we must look for the ground-work upon which our modern English has been built up. Then came the Norman Conquest with its vast revolution; after which, until far on in the fourteenth century, English as a national and recognized language did not exist. French and Latin were the written languages of the Court and of the Church-of all officials, and of all Ecclesiastics. All this while, however, English was still the vernacular, and consequently throughout the period are to be found various examples of this spoken tongue, written down with more or less accuracy of spelling in the different dialects spoken by the respective authors. These writings, however, were but dialects, and however valuable they may now be to us, as samples of the talk of our forefathers, they were, at the time they were written, to the dominant governing classes, much the same as similar writings would be now, if written in Welsh or Gaelic. One consequence of the utter disuse of English as the official tongue was, that the native writer of each district began to write according to the varieties of his native speech, and hence are found wide divergences from the original tongue in form and pronunciation. These have been classified according to the districts in which they prevailed, as Early Southern English, Early Midland English, and Early Northern English.

Until about A.D. 1300, we have specimens only of the two former, but from that date to about 1400 the three forms of English existed together, and in them can be traced the various changes, the constant and inevitable assimilation of foreign words, and the consequent developments of the language down to the time of Wycliffe and Chaucer. It may be said that during this period of nearly three hundred years, English, as a literary language, was in a larviform stage, seemingly inactive and despised, but yet going on with its life-now easting a slough of inflexion, now changing its construction, until at last it reasserts its claim to be the language of the people, through the two great writers of it-Wycliffe and Chaucer, and the father of English typography, William Caxton. These all spoke the Midland dialect and wrote in it, and henceforth the Midland became the literary form, which has developed into what is now the recognized standard of modern English. But for this accidental and fortuitous exaltation of the Midland dialects, our modern speech might have been based on the Southern form, and in that case it would now have been polite to say 'the vield was a zowed with zeed—you can zee how vast it do growy,' &e.1

That this is so, a mere cursory glance through some of the Southern writers of the thirteenth century will abundantly show. In the 'Ancren Riwle,' about A.D. 1220, we find for spelt vor; fly, rlize; fourth, veor's; flyth, vifte, &c. 'Robert of Gloucester,' about 1300, we find spelt first, verst; fast, vaste and uaste; fair, vair, &c. Later and last, 'John of Trevisa,' about 1387, has for spelt vor; forth, vor's; few, veaw; fight, vyzte, &c.

Besides these peculiarities, there are many others which though common enough in the Western Dialects, are not polite English—yet we find them written by these old writers precisely as they are spoken to-day. For instance, 'Robert of Gloneester' says, as pehende he dude verst. The same word dude for did or acted, would be so spoken now. Again, po is used by him for then—so it is commonly now—liche, the common adverbial affix then, is like now,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> All this is very ably and fully treated by Dr. Murray in the article, 'English Language,' in the 'Encyclopedia Britannica,' New Ed. 1879.

instead of the modern and polite ly. See W. S. Gram., p. 81. The inflexion of the infinitive, in intransitive verbs, the peculiar characteristic of modern South-Western dialects, exists in precisely the same form as in the modern dialects in 'Robert of Gloucester.' For instance, where \( \mu \) due Willom anon norbed alle his, \( \mu \) at non nere so wod to robby: ne no maner harm do \( \mu \) ere. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.)

A common form at present in South-Western dialects of the past participle of to be is u-bee, instead of been, the polite. 'Robert of Gloucester' spells this ibe, and in the 'Exmoor Scolding' it is a be'.

The latest writer of note in the English of South-Western England was John of Trevisa, and in his writings are many of the peculiarities still found in the South-Western dialects—as eorne for runneth; a for he, &c. After his time, which was contemporary with Chaucer, we look in vain for specimens of the South-Western English-indeed, thenceforward it existed only as a dialect, and was used, much as it now is in 'Punch,' as an example of an uncouth, barbarous form of the language, fit only to be the type of clowndom. It has, however, been handed down in its spoken form with fewer departures from its parent stock than its sister dialect, the Midland-now become the English of literature; so that in a living form are now to be heard in the South-West, words and pronunciation which have remained unaltered at least since the time of Simon de Montfort. To trace back these forms from the present to those times is a study of great interest, and it is moreover the best means of understanding the true history of the language. For this purpose it is desirable to discover, and to preserve every scrap of writing in which any South-Western dialectal expressions occur. From the xiv. century to Shakspere, a period of over two hundred years, excepting the 'Chronicon Vilodunense,' a poem of Old Wiltshire dialect of about 1420, there is a blank. newly invented printing-press, during all this time, seems to have had no type for any but Midland and Northern writers; until at last we have, in our great dramatist, a mere fragment in 'King Lear' (Act IV. sc. vi.). This, however, is of great value as the first instance of the Ich (I, ego) of earlier writers having become ch before a vowel and ise before a consonant. No doubt these few words put into the mouth of Edgar, were mere stage dialect, but the v's and z's, then as now, served to mark a Southern speech, and were even then assumed as befitting a clown's disguise. Ben Jonson, in his 'Tale of a Tub,' makes several of his characters pronounce their f's and s's as v and z. Also in the first two scenes he makes Hilts use Ich and ch for I, but this form is not continued throughout the play. Jonson makes his characters use some very unmistakable West Country phrases—as 'Valentine's Eve was thirty year,' i.e. '30 years ago on Valentine's Eve' (Act I. sc. i.). 'Thik same;' 'un,' 'hun' for him. This too, is but stage dialect, like his friend Shakspere's; for he makes Topan say, 'O you mun look,' &c., in the same sentence with zin and zure—thus mixing Northern with Western.

Two or three fragments of Somersetshire are all that exist of the seventeenth century—of these the most important is 'The Somersetshire Man's Complaint,' said to have been written by one Thomas Davies, between 1614 and 1648. It is preserved in the Lansdowne MS. 674, in the British Museum. I am indebted to Mr. Herrtage's industry for a copy of this from the original MS., and it is here printed for the second time only. It first appeared in Brayley's 'Graphic and Historical Illustrator,' 1834. Mr. Herrtage was unaware of this fact, stated in the Bibliographical List, Series A, Part II., published by this Society, and is quite entitled to all the credit of a discovery.

The 'Complaint' was evidently written about the time of the great rebellion, but except as a link in the long chain of years from 'Trevisa' down to the 'Exmoor Scolding,' it is of little value. It is a literary production, and its Somersetshireisms are just those to be found in Shakspere's fragment. They prove the prevalence in the seventeenth century of the ch for I, which, as seen in the 'Exmoor Scolding,' was very common for more than a hundred years later, but which is now no longer a feature of Somerset dialect, and except in a very circumscribed district is quite obsolete.

As a specimen of the dialect the 'Complaint' is very inferior to the 'Scolding and Courtship,' and yet it must have been written by a West country man, for no other would have used the word agreed in the sense it implies in v. 5.

#### THE SOMERSETSHIRE MAN'S COMPLAINT.

Gods Boddikins 'c hill worke no more dost thinke 'c hill labor to be poore no no ich haue a doe. 

If this be nowe the world & trade that I must breake & Rogues be made Ich will a plundring too.

'Chill sell my cart & eake my Plow
and get a zwird if I know how
for I meane to be right
'Chill learne to drinke to sweare to roare
to be a Gallant, drab, & whore
no matter tho nere fight.

But first a warrant that is vitt from Mr.<sup>2</sup> Captaine I doe gett twill make a sore a doo For then 'c haue power by my place to steale a horse without disgrace and beate the owner too.

God blesse vs what a world is heere can<sup>3</sup> neuer last another yeare
voke cannot be able to zow.
dost think I euer 'c had ' the art
to plow my ground up with my Cart
My beast<sup>5</sup> are all I goe<sup>6</sup>

¹ This is still the p. part. of do, pronounced u-dèo, and rhyming still with too (teo'), precisely as it is found in the writers of the xiii. and xiv. century.

<sup>Still a usual custom to put Mr. before a title, as Mr. Parson, Mr. Turney,
Mr. Fish-jowder, Mr. Gin-Imun, especially when a sneer or slight is implied.
A good example of the omission of the nom. case. (See W. S. G., p. 34.)</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This must be an error; the author in his desire to put in the *ch* as often as possible has here inserted it out of place. It should probably read *Dost think* that ever 'chad the art.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Beast, used collectively, is still a plural noun. (See W. S. Gram., p. 9.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The p. part. of go. The prefix is spelt α in the first verse—a capital I is quite a novelty. This form is still that of the dialect, while agone signifies ago.

Ize had zixe oxen tother day
and them the Roundheads stole away
a Mischief be their speed
I had six horses left me whole
and them the Cavileers have stole
Gods zores they are both agreed.<sup>1</sup>

Here I doe labor toile & zweat and dure the cold, hot, dry & wett But what dost think I gett. Fase <sup>2</sup> iust my Labor for my paines thes Garrizons haue all the gaines And thither all is vett.<sup>3</sup>

There goes my corne my beanes & pease I doe not dare them to displease they doe zoe zweare & vapor.

Then to the Governor I come

And pray him to discharge the some but nought can get so<sup>4</sup> paper.

Gods bones dost think a Paper will
Keep warme my back & belly fill
No, no, goe burne the note
If that another yeare my veeld
no better profitt doe me yeeld
I may goe cut my throate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This word is still used in precisely the sense here implied, viz. a conspiring together, and not simply an agreement. *Twas a 'greed thing*, is a most common expression, meaning that the matter was the result of a plot or conspiracy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This form is obsolete—though it may survive in fags!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> p. part. of to fetch—it is now sounded rather broader—vaat or vaut. There is an old proverb very commonly used—Vuur u-vaut, Dee'ŭr u-bau't, i. e. 'Farfetched, dear bought.' Gower, the contemporary of Chaucer, has (Tale of the Coffers)—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;And then he let the coffers fet Upon the board, and did them set.'

<sup>4</sup> The use of so for save or except is now quite obsolete.

If any money 'c haue in store
then straight a warrant come therfore
or I must plundred be
And when 'c haue shuffled vp one pay
then comes a new without delay
was euer the like a zee.2

And as<sup>3</sup> this were not greife enow they have a Thing called Quarter<sup>4</sup> too Oh! that's a vengeance<sup>5</sup> waster A pox vpon't they call it vree 'C ham sure that made vs slaues to be And euery Roage our Master.

Verum.

(Collated by the Editor with the original MS.)

Of the history of the 'Exmoor Scolding and Courtship' nothing really authentic seems to be known. The 'Courtship' in its present form first appeared in the 'Gentleman's Magazine' for June 1746, prefaced by a letter signed 'H. Oxon.' [Exon ?], in which it is stated to have been 'first written by a clergyman of Devonshire, near the forest of Exmoor, but, I believe, has received some additions.' 'The writer marks several words with an asterisk, which he requests to know the meaning of.' This was followed by the 'Scolding' in July, 1746,6 in the same magazine.

"In the next month appears an article dated 'Exon. 12 Aug. 1746,' and signed 'Devoniensis,' in which the writer states, that he

<sup>1</sup> This word would be still pronounced pluun dred or pluun dreed—so also mas akreed for massacred.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The p. part. of to see is now u-zeed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The use of as for if in this sense is quite obsolete.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The allusion here is to the custom of quartering soldiers upon the farmers and householders.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> vengeance waster would now be rendered Devil of a waster. The word is used in the 'Exmoor Scolding' in the same way.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The quotations here, and on p. 10, are from a note in MS. by Sir F. Madden, dated 1834, attached to the copy of the 7th edition, now belonging to the E. D. S., but which previously belonged to him.

has lived a good while within the Forest of Exmoor, and subjoins a vocabulary of all the words in the two Devonshire Dialogues, with the addition of some others, which formed the basis of the Glossary in the Edition of 1771. This correspondent, whoever he was, is not the author of the Dialogues, as appears from his remarks.

"In the same vol., p. 57 (Gent. Mag.), is a vocabulary of the Lancashire Dialect, taken from the first Edition of 'Tim Bobbin' (which appears at length in the 'British Mag.' of that year, 1746), and a specimen of the Dialect at the end, which is copied into the preface of the 7th Ed. of the 'Exmoor Scolding,' 1771.

"In the same vol., p. 567, is an interpretation of Angle-bowing, &c., by 'Devoniensis'; and p. 644 is another communication from 'Devoniensis,' dated 'Exon. 8 Dec. 1746,' correcting his interpretation of Bone-shave, and sending a charm for its cure.

"Now this interpretation and charm is entered in the MS. folio at p. 31, and is there ascribed to Mr. Wm. Chapple, which identifies the latter with 'Devoniensis,' and probably also proves him to be the Editor of the Edition of 1771 and previous ones." See note 6, p. 9.

In 'Blackwood's Magazine' for February, 1819, appeared a reprint of a portion of the 'Exmoor Courtship,' accompanied by what the author is pleased to call a translation,¹ and in a preface thereto he says, but without giving his authority, that it is probably as old as the time of Henry VII. This may be so in substance, but it is quite evident that the text of both the 'Courtship' and of the 'Scolding,' as we now have them, were written by the same hand—believed to be 'the Reverend William Hole, B.D., who was appointed Archdeacon of Barnstable in 1744,' and who died 1791. He is the 'neighbouring clergyman' referred to in the preface, which was first published with the 7th edition in 1771.

On the other hand, Sir John Bowring says ('Transactions of the Devonshire Association,' 1866, Part v. p. 28)—"The authors of the 'Exmoor Scolding' and 'Exmoor Courting' were Andrew Brice and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> At the end of the portion published in 'Blackwood' is 'the conclusion in our next.' The conclusion however never appeared.

Benjamin Bowring. The former was a learned and laborious bookseller in Exeter, whose folio dictionary was a valuable contribution to the geographical knowledge of the day. The latter (my paternal great-grandfather) was the grandson of a John Bowring of Chumleigh, who was largely engaged in the woollen trade, and coined money for the payment of those he employed."

No authority is given by Sir John Bowring for the above statement, and he entirely omits to notice the remark as to the 'neighbouring clergyman,' which certainly was published in 1771, and during the lifetime of the said clergyman. The balance of evidence is very greatly on the side of Sir F. Madden, who gives 'Mr. Merrivale' as his authority, in asserting Archdeacon Hole to have been the author.

The two dialogues from their first appearance seem to have commanded a good deal of attention, for no less than seven editions were issued between 1746 and 1771, while a tenth edition was put out in January 1788. Since then a reprint of the edition of 1771 was published in 1827. All these editions were published at Exeter, and besides them is the issue of the 'Exmoor Courtship' with its classical paraphrase before referred to, in 'Blackwood's Magazine' for February, 1819, and 'a new edition' published by John Russell Smith, London, in 1839.

These various issues, though called editions, have been nothing more than reprints,—inasmuch as no variation in the text beyond a letter here and there, is discoverable in any one of them from the earliest to the latest.¹ Hence the mistakes of the original author, with the numerous misprints of the first edition, have all been servilely copied and handed down to us, as though the very commas were inspired. This is somewhat remarkable, inasmuch as the editor of the edition of 1771, whoever he may have been, evidently knew of these errors, for, in several cases he has corrected them in the Glossary, while he has left them without remark in the text. Cf. vramp-shaken, l. 120. vrampshapen, in Glossary. strait, l. 78. strat, Glossary. avore, l. 123. avroar, Glossary. pochee, l. 188. poochee, Glossary. This unwilling-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sir F. Madden says, 'In the text of this Edition (1771) there is not the slightest variation from the Editions of 1746 and 1788.' This will be found to be rather too general a statement.

ness to touch the original, seems to prove that the compiler of the Glossary and of the notes (1771) was not the original author.

It is evident from the fact of a Glossary being required, so early as 1771, to render the dialogues intelligible even to Devonian readers, that a great many of the words used were at that time either obsolete or very rarely heard, while now, except for its help, almost the whole of both would be quite obscure to ordinary readers. The compiler of it deserves our hearty recognition of the value of his services, while at the same time we may not quite agree with all his etymologies or his interpretations, as for instance, where he defines zart! as soft. Surely this is an interjection of the quasi oath kind, still very common, meaning 'ds-heart,' like the well-known zounds. Only the words which were then thought difficult were explained, and we may take it that the others were then considered too common and well-known to need remark. A study of these omissions which are now inserted in *italics* in the Glossary, will be instructive as helping to gauge the change made in the vocabulary of the language, even in so conservative and out of the way district, as that of West Somerset or Exmoor, during the last century.

A great many of the words which only a hundred years ago were thought too common to be noticed, are now not only obsolete, but so entirely forgotten that I can find no certain explanation of them, and can only guess at their meaning.

Not so with the construction of the sentences or with the pronunciation. These may be said to have scarcely changed at all, and the entire dialogues are in that respect a striking confirmation of what I ventured to maintain in the paper on the dialect of West Somerset, published by this Society in 1875, viz., that dialectal changes, as respects pronunciation and idiom, are slow, even though whole classes of local words may change and become forgotten.

As compositions these dialogues are in many points very faithful and admirable examples of the peculiar language of the district, which is practically the same as that of West Somerset, and about which I have already pretty fully treated; but the author, perfect as he was in his knowledge of the dialect, has not escaped the pit-falls which seem to entrap all those who write either poem or prose in

the vernacular. Well as they may be practically acquainted with it, yet the same culture which prompts them to compose at all, binds them in chains of literaryism—unconsciously colours their work and blinds them to little errors in construction they would never make in speaking, but which they cannot avoid, or do not notice in writing.

The 'neighbouring clergyman' most probably composed these dialogues as a vehicle for the very large number of quaint words in the vocabulary of Peter Lock the fiddler, and in doing so was compelled to exaggerate even the redundancy of epithet, which, as the preface truly says, is used by 'noted scolds.' It is, however, quite absurd to maintain that such long strings of synonymous words as are here put into the mouths of different persons could ever have been heard in real life. The exceeding coarseness of these dialogues, was perhaps to some extent a necessity of the material to be worked up, to which a clergyman even in those days did not like to put his name; and it is probably to that quality they owe their great popularity, for it is most unlikely that so many editions would have been called for to supply the then students of Dialects, or even 'Lawyers' on circuit.

And here I must strongly protest against the libel contained in the title-page of the 'Scolding.' To imply that the subject-matter so much dwelt upon in this dialogue is a fair sample of the propriety or decency of the young women of the district in the last century, is simply scandalous. Coarse-mouthed scolds there may have been amongst them, but the utter foulness of much of this dialogue, is far more probably a reflex of the propriety of an author's own mind, who was evidently ashamed to own his work, though not ashamed to reap the profits of at least nine editions, by pandering to the taste of the class which delights to feed on garbage.

By no possibility could this objectionable matter be expunged, inasmuch as it pervades every page, and it is with much reluctance that I assume any part in the perpetuation of it. Nothing but the confidence that its form is not such as to attract the ordinary reader, and that students alone will take the trouble to wade through it, would have induced me to touch such pitch.

It is probable that the author had no thought at all of writing for students, or he would have taken pains to have been more consistent in his spelling, and not to have given the same word in different shapes; for instance, in some places what is spelt as in ordinary English, while in others, e.g. in 1. 342, it is whot, and in ll. 149, 247, 254, it is hot. This last is the correct and invariable pronunciation, while what in the text is mere literaryism. So head is sometimes yead, and sometimes aead, while zing and sing are found on the same page. Gambowling in one place is gambowling in another. velst, l. 134; valst, l. 169. zet, l. 340; set, l. 425. is throughout a great confusion of s and z, which goes to show only that the writer was not accustomed to carefully analyse the true sound of what he meant to write. The same must be said of v and f, which are sometimes misplaced. He spells this, theez and thes on the same page, Il. 594, 601. So quiet is quite, I. 375, the correct N. Dev. form, and quiet, 1. 604, with many more. He also spells the West Country inflection of the intransitive verb, sometimes y and sometimes ee.

All this is to be expected. Many of the clergy even now, when dialects and provincialisms are supposed to be dying out; men too of real culture and large knowledge, are unable to throw off their native brogue, and quite unconsciously make their s's into z's, and their f's into v's. One I know well who always reads, 'A zower went vorth to zow,' &c., &c. Yet of course he would not write thus, and would perhaps contend that his pronunciation was correct.

A great many literaryisms are pointed out in the notes, and generally consist of very small matters, but they are important to the student; e.g. as soon as instead of the invariable so soon as. wc, l. 353, instead of us, as a nominative. To have noted every one would have unduly enlarged the book.

On the whole the two dialogues are most valuable as preserving very clearly the general spirit of the dialect as well as many very interesting peculiarities, which remain unaltered to this day; for instance, the habit of using the when speaking of a person, with an adjective preceding his name, as 'tha young Zaunder Vursdon,'

1. 192, &c. This habit was quite congenial to the author, for he never once omits it. Another habit is that of prefixing a title of relationship or trade to names, as 'Cozen Andra,' 'Zester Taamzen,' even when much abuse occurs in the same address.

The great peculiarity of the whole is the use throughout of ch for I (ego) in connection with the verbs to be and have. I cannot but think that this use is rather strained in the text, especially as in more than one place it is manifestly wrong, as in l. 335, vor es chant hire. Here the es is the nominative, and chant is clearly sha'nt in this case; chant without the es might be if the context allowed, I have not, or as it now is, I ha'nt [aay aa'nt]. This form of I is now completely obsolete, and has been so, longer than the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The other form of I spelt es, and in one place ees, is, I maintain, not the singular I, but the plural us used for the singular. This is still done, but judging from these dialogues it was more common formerly; us is still the nominative most common in North Devon, and it is pronounced ess; Nathan Hogg always spells it es. In the text the same word es has to represent both us and is in 1. 362, and he is, 1. 462. The pronoun I only occurs twice in the two dialogues.

This present edition of the 'Exmoor Scolding and Courtship' is a reprint of the *ninth* published at Exeter, 1778, and it has been thought well to make no alteration in the text, which is identical in all the reprints hitherto put out, but to point out in notes the principal discrepancies, together with such observations as seemed desirable.

The Glossary has been completed by adding thereto such words as are not now considered to be received English, with definitions of all those known at present.

The whole dialogues have moreover been carefully written in Mr. Ellis's Glossic so as to show the exact pronunciation as still heard in the district, with which I am quite familiar. The printing has been so arranged as to read line by line with the original text. To those critics who even now abuse any method of spelling but the old conventional A B C, I would say, that to render any dialect valuable as a study, there must be some means by which its pronunciation

can be compared with others, and by which we may be able to appreciate the quality of its sounds. Who but an Englishman would at first sight pronounce correctly bone, done, gone?—yet written boarn, duun, gaun, the difference in their sounds is at once made plain.

Mr. Ellis's system of phonetic writing needs no defence from me—it is that adopted by this Society, and is the most easily acquired. A complete key drawn up by Mr. Ellis himself will be found in my paper on West Somerset Dialect, E. D. S., 1875, which should be well studied before any attempt is made to read the 'Exmoor Scolding' in the vernacular. An abridged key will be found in the paper on the Grammar of West Somerset, E. D. S., 1877, with some remarks upon the natural vowel by Dr. J. A. H. This natural vowel represented by *ii* very frequently appears in these dialogues, and should be well mastered by any one who desires to imitate the sounds of the dialect—a little trouble so bestowed will not be thrown away. From the spelling of the text it would be impossible for any one not familiar with it to have any notion of the pronunciation,—e, a, and o, are each in turn used to represent the same sound, viz, short u, i. e. the sound of e in the book, spoken quickly. This short the is always written dhu—and I have noticed this word is generally a stumbling-block to those who are ignorant of the glossic system.

In the following pages are many notes referring to my former papers published by this Society (before I had seen a copy of these dialogues), in which the passages noted will be found either to be more fully explained, or to be vernacular illustrations of idiom or grammar remarked upon in the treatises. These references will be found abbreviated thus:—W. S. Dial., Dialect of West Somerset, Eng. Dialect Society, Series D., 1875. W. S. Gram., Grammar of West Somerset, E. D. S., Series D., 1877.

F. T. E.

Foxdown, January, 1879.

#### A N

# Exmoor SCOLDING,

IN THE

# PROPRIETY and DECENCY

OF

# Exmoor LANGUAGE,

BETWEEN

# T W O S I S T E R S:

Wilmot Moreman and Thomasin Moreman;

As they were SPINNING.

ALSO, AN

# Exmoor COURTSHIP.

### 

### The NINTH EDITION:

Wherein are now added,

Such NOTES therein, and a VOCABULARY at the End, as feem necessary for explaining uncouth Expressions, and interpreting barbarous Words and Phrases.

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#### EXETER:

Printed and fold by W. GRIGG, Bookfeller and Stationer, in the Fore-freet, nearly opposite to Broad-gate, 1778.

( Price SIX-PENCE. )



### PREFACE.

[TO THE EDITION OF 1778.]

THE former Editions of these Dialogues, tho' well receiv'd. and esteem'd by those who had some Acquaintance with the Provincial Dialects in the Western Parts of England, yet for Want of such a Glossary as is now added, were in a great Measure unintelligible to most others, except perhaps a few Etymologists and Collectors of old and uncommon Words: The Editor<sup>2</sup> has therefore endeavoured to supply that Defect; and that this 9th Edition might be rendered as correct as possible, the Whole has been carefully revised, some explanatory Notes inserted, and the Spelling of the provincial Words better accommodated to their usual Pronunciation among the Peasants in the County of Devon: This, as well as their Explanations in the Vocabulary or Glossary, 'tis presumed may be of some Use; to such Lawyers as go the Western Circuit, by whom the Evidence of a Country-man is sometimes mistaken, for want of a proper Interpretation of his Language. In this Glossary we have not only shewn in what Sense the most uncommon Words are generally understood in this Country, but also the Etymologies of most of them, whether deriv'd from the old Anglo-Saxon, or from the British, French, Dutch, &c. Some few, whereof the true Signification was somewhat doubtful, are distinguished by a Q: The Meaning of these we should be glad to see better ascertained; and if any Person of Judgment shall observe any other Words to be ill explained in this Glossary, he is desired to signify it to the Editor, to be corrected in a future Edition.

It may be proper to advertise such of our Readers as may be Strangers to the Devonshire Dialects, that the following is a genuine Specimen thereof as spoken in those Parts of the County where the Scene is laid; (the Phraseology being also agreeable thereto, and the Similes, &c. properly adapted to the Characters of the Speakers;)

2-2 The 7th Edition has, 'Editors have.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This preface appears for the first time with the 7th Edition—Exeter, A. Brice and B. Thorn, 1771, price nine pence.

and not an arbitrary Collection of ill-connected clownish Words, like those introduced into the Journals of some late Sentimental Travellers as well as the Productions of some Dramatic Writers, whose Clowns no more speak in their own proper Dialects, than a dull School-boy makes elegant and classical Latin; their suppos'd Language being such as would be no less unintelligible to the Rusticks themselves. than to those polite Pretenders to Criticism who thereby mean to make them ridiculous. It must be confess'd that the following Dialogues have not been exempt from somewhat of the like Censure; it having been alledg'd, that in the Exmoor Scolding particularly, the Substantives have frequently too many Adjectives annex'd to them, nearly synonymous; and that the objurgatory Wenches in that Part of the Country have not such a Conia Verborum as is here represented: But we may appeal for the Truth of the Contrary to all who have heard the most noted Scolds among them, when engaged and well-match'd with foul-mouth'd and nimble-tongued Antagonists; and how apt they are to string up together a Variety of abusive Words and devout Names, (as they term them) tho' many of them, like Sancho's Proverbs, have nearly the same Meaning; not sparing others which may be sometimes impertinent to, and beside their Purpose, provided they are sufficiently abusive.—The following Collection was originally made about the Beginning of the present Century, by a blind itinerant Fidler, (one Peter Lock, of North-Moulton, or its Neighbourhood) who was a Man of some Humour; and tho' his Skill and Dexterity as a Musician is said to have recommended him to the Notice of the Great, his more common Converse with the lower Class of People, gave him frequent Opportunities of hearing and observing their Phrases and Diction; and, as Persons deprived of Sight have generally a good Memory, he was thereby the better enabled to retain and repeat them. This attracted the Notice of a neighbouring Clergyman, who by the Fidler's Assistance put the Exmoor Scolding into the Form in which we now have it, and, before his Death, (which happened soon after the Year 1725) communicated it to the Public,<sup>2</sup> and afterwards gave Rise to the Exmoor Courtship, a Performance thought deserving to be added thereunto; but Copies of the Scolding were, for some Time before and after this, handed about in Manuscript<sup>3</sup> above 40 Years since, and was then taken to be the original Composition of the Clergyman aforesaid: few being then apprehensive of its having

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the copy of the 7th Edition belonging to this Society is a pencil note in the handwriting of Sir F. Madden, to whom the copy belonged—'Rev. Will. Hole, Archdeacon of Barnstaple.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> 7th Edition has, 'communicated it to the Editor of the first and subsequent Editions, who perfected the *Courtship*; but copies,' &c. Sir F. Madden has underlined *Editor*, and in another pencil note says, 'Mr. Wm. Chapple?'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> 7th Edition has, 'Manuscript, of which the Writer hereof has seen One near 40 Years since, which was then taken to be,' &c.

any other Author, or how far the Person who furnish'd its Materials might claim Title thereto, tho' his Fame as a Fidler was not yet extinct.

It may be also requisite to observe here, that the Forest of Exmoor(so call'd as being the Moor wherein the River Exe rises) is, for the most Part, in the County of Somerset; and the Parracombe and Challacombe in its Neighbourhood, which is the scene of our Drama, be in Devonshire, it must not be thence inferr'd that the same Dialect in all Particulars extends thro' the whole County; it being chiefly confin'd to the Northern Parts thereof: For many Words and Phrases therein, would not be well understood by People in the South-Hams, (by which is meant all the Southern Parts of Devonshire, and not any particular Town, as some Topographical Authors have supposed;) where the Dialect varies as much from this, as this from that of Dorset and Wiltshire: And even near Exmoor, none but the very lowest Class of People generally speak the Language here exemplified; but were it more commonly spoken by their Betters, perhaps it might not be so much to their Discredit, as some may imagine; most of the antiquated Words being so expressive as not to be despised, though now grown obsolete, and no longer used by the politer Devonians, who in general speak as good modern English as those of any other County. known, that after the Expulsion of the antient Britons from those Parts of the Kingdom which our Saxon Ancestors had conquered, the English Saxon Language (a Dialect of the old Teutonic, or High Dutch) 1 took Place of the British every-where, but in Wales and Cornwall; and so continued until the Norman Conquest, when the Conqueror, endeavouring to introduce the French Tongue, and causing all Ediets and judicial Proceedings to be in that Language, the Saxon soon became intermixt with much of the old Norman French: But notwithstanding this, and some Tincture of British and Danish, besides the Words borrowed from the learned Languages by the Professors of Arts and Sciences, &c. the antient Anglo-Saxon Tongue, with some Variation of its Sound and Orthography, chiefly prevails in the vulgar Part of our present Language; and it will appear in the Glossary subjoin'd to the following Dialogues, that most of the remarkable Words therein inserted, are of Saxon Derivation, and if they are not all retained in other Counties, such Counties have many others derived from the same Fountain; not to mention the Variations of the Pronunciation in

¹ It must be remembered that 'High Dutch' is a very different thing from hoch Deutsch as now understood. Until the division of the 'Low Countries,' the term 'High Dutch' was applied to the language spoken by the people of the Northern part corresponding to Holland and Friesland, to distinguish it from the 'Low Dutch' of Flanders and Brabant. Even now it is common among the better class of people to speak of Dutch as 'High Dutch'—a very frequent expression in reference to anything unintelligible is, 'that is High Dutch to me.'

different Places. Hence every County has its peculiar Dialect, at least in respect to the vulgar Language of their Rusticks, insomuch that those of different Counties cannot¹ easily understand each other. Among Persons engaged in Commerce indeed, or who have had a liberal Education, we may better distinguish their several Countries by their Accent, than by any Impropriety in their Language: But we are here speaking only of the lower Class of People in each County; and that these have in several Parts of England a more uncouth and barbarous Jargon than the worst among the Devonians, might be easily shewn: Let it suffice to give an Instance in the following Specimen of the Lancashire Dialect, transcribed from a Dialogue therein, which was published in 1746.

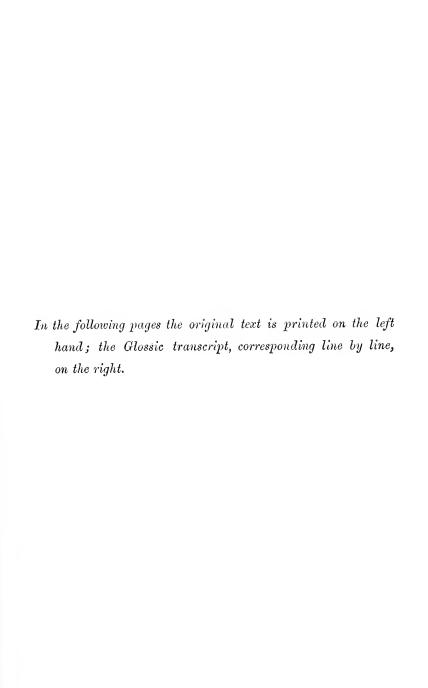
M. "Odds Fish! boh that wur breve---I wou'd I'd bin eh yore "Kele."

T. "Whau whau, boh theawst hear——It wur dree wey tooto; "heawe'er I geet there be fuse o'clock, on before eh opp'nt dur, I "covert Nip with the cleawt, ot eh droy meh nese weh, t' let him see "heaw I stoart her:——Then I opp'nt dur; on whot te dule dust "think, boh three little Bandyhewits coom weaughing os if th' little "ewals wou'd o worrit me, on after that swallut me whick: Boh "presently there coom o fine wunmon; on I took her for a hoo "justice, hoor so meety fine: For I heard Ruchott o' Jack's tell meh "Measter, that hoo justices awlus did th' mooast o' th' wark: Heawe'er, "I axt hur if Mr. Justice wur o whoam; hoo cou'd naw opp'n hur "meawth t' sey eigh, or now; boh simpurt on sed iss, (the Dickons "iss hur on him too)—Sed I, I wudyid'n tell him I'd fene speyk to "him:———"

The Reader must be left to judge, on a Comparison of this with any Part of the Ecmoor Language, which of the two has the most Barbarisms. Perhaps he will want an Interpreter to inform him, that "Kele" means "Place" or "Circumstance;"—that "Dree way" denotes a "long and tedious Way;"—that "Stoart" means "valued;"—that "Bandyhewits" are "little Dogs;" that "Hoo" stands for "She;"—and "Wudyid'n" is "wish you would;"—and unless thus explained, may be apt to think it little more intelligible than the Buckinghamshire Farmer's Speech. "I ken a Steg gobblin at our Leer Deer;" which few besides his Countrymen would guess to mean. "I see a Gander feeding at our Barn-door."—But to trouble our Readers with no further Observations on this Subject here, we must refer them for further Particulars to the Vocabulary and Notes, submitting the Whole to their candid Censure.

Exeter, January 1778.

<sup>1 &#</sup>x27;Can't,' in 7th Edition.



# AN EXMOOR SCOLDING.

Thomasin. OCK! Wilmot, vor why vor ded'st roily¹ zo upon ma up to Challacomb Rowl? — Ees² dedent thenk tha had'st a be'3 zich a Labb o' tha Tongue.——What a Vengance! wart<sup>4</sup> betwatled, or wart the baggaged; 5——or had'st tha 5 took<sup>5</sup> a Shord, or a paddled ?6

Wilmot. I roily upon tha, ya<sup>7</sup> gurt, thonging, banging, muxy Drawbreech?—Noa, 'twas thee roil'st upon me up to8 Daraty Vogwill's Upzitting, whan9 tha vung'st to (and be 9 hang'd to tha!) to Rabbin.— 'Shou'd zem10 tha wart zeck arter11 Me-at and

<sup>2</sup> Spelt es elsewhere in the text, e. q. line 10. See note 3, p. 26. Also spelt is, line 22.

<sup>4</sup> The form wart is becoming rare—now it would be wus(t.

5-5 These are elisions of one of two similar and consecutive vowels; if written or pronounced in full these would be dhu u-bag eejd, dhu u-tèokt. The same thing occurs when two similar consonants come together-they are not pronounced separately, but are slurred into one. (See W. S. G., pp. 27, 28.)

<sup>6</sup> At present this final d would generally disappear, and we should hear u-bûtwaat'l, u-pad'l, u-bag'eej—if for emphasis the d were sounded, it would have nearly a syllable to itself, u-bag·eej-dŭ, u-pad·l-dŭ, u-bút·waat·l-dŭ. Compare pách tă, l. 32.

<sup>7</sup> This form of *you* is used in the dialect only as a prefix to some epithet, and is distinctly a vocative form, which is so extremely common that I quite overlooked it in my W. S. Gram., p. 33. It is pronounced a little broader than

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The regular form of the infinitive for intransitive verbs. (See W. S. G.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Still the usual form of the past part. of 'to be' throughout North Devon and the Hill Country of Somerset. Compare Robert of Gloucester's 'William the Conqueror' (Morris and Skeat): line 1, 'Moche ab be sorwe ibe;' line 3, 'Of moni bataile bat ab ibe?'

# U AK'SMOAR SKOA'LDEEN.

Thomasin. AU·K! Wúlˈmut, vur wuy vauˈr deds rauy·lee¹ zoa upaun mu aup tu Chaal·ikum Raewl?—Es (ees?)² ded-n dhengk dh-ads u-bee³ zich u Laab u dhu tung.—Waut u vai‐njuns! wurt⁴ u-bútwaat·ld, ur wurt dhu-bag·eejd;⁵——ur ads dhu-tèokt⁵ u shoa·ŭrd, ur u-pad·ld?⁶ 5

Wilmot. Aa yrauy leĕ paun dhu, yu <sup>7</sup> guurt, dhaung een, ban geen, muuk sĕe Draa buurch !—Noa u, twuz dhee rauy lus pun mee aup tu <sup>8</sup> Daar utĕe Vaug wee ŭlz aup-zút een, haun <sup>9</sup> dhu vungs tùe (un bee ang tu dhu!) tu Rab een.—Sh'd zúm <sup>10</sup> dhu wurt zek aar tur <sup>11</sup> Mai t-n 9

tha (the of the text), but the sound is very similar to the Cockney you, generally spelt yer in Punch. It will be noticed throughout these dialogues that the form is never once used except as above—never as an objective.

<sup>8</sup> The use of to for at is very common, indeed it is the rule. (See W. S. G., p. 89.) Compare Robert of Gloucester's 'William the Conqueror' (ed. Morris and Skeat), line 399:—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;pre sipe he ber croune azer; to Midewinter at Gloucestre To Witesonetid at Westminstre to Ester at Wincestre.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Nothing approximating the *whan* of the text could now be heard—the *w* is quite lost, particularly in this district, and although *wai* in is heard for the emphatic *when* in the vales of W. Somerset, yet throughout N. Devon and the Exmoor country it is *haun* or *hau* in—as *Hau* in wauz ut? Haun dhu Paa'snz mae'ŭr voa'lud. 'When was it? when the Parson's mare foaled.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This phrase would not now be used— $z \hat{u} m$ -z a w f. '(It) seems as though,' would now be said.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This form of after is the usual one still; while in the Vale it is more commonly  $aa \cdot dr$ .

- 10 Me-al.¹—And zo tha merst,² by ort es³ know, wey guttering; as gutter tha wutt⁴ whan tha com'st to good Tackling.—But zome zed "Shoor and shoor tha ded'st bet make wise, to zee nif tha⁵ young Josy Heaff-field wou'd come to zlack thy Boddize, and whare a wou'd be O vore or no."——Bet 'twas thy old Disyease, Chun.
- 15 Thomasin. Hey go! What Disyease dest me-an, ya gurt dugged-teal'd, swapping, rousling Blowze? Ya gurt Roile, tell ma. Tell me, a zey, what Disyease dest me-an?—Ad! chell ream my Heart to the avore Ise, let the lipped.—Chell tack et out wi' the to the true Ben, fath! Tell ma, a zey, what Disyease 20 dest me-an that the zest cham a troubled wey?

Wilmot. Why; ya purting, tatchy, stertling, jowering, prinking, mincing Theng, chell tell tha what Disyease. Is <sup>12</sup> ded'nt me-an the Bone-shave \*, ner the Heartgun, ner the 24 Allernbatch that the had'st in thy Niddick. 'Tes better twar: <sup>13</sup> Vor

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I have never heard *me-at*, *me-al*, as in the text, and doubt if these forms ever existed. I believe this was an error in the original spelling, which has been perpetuated in all subsequent editions. There is no *fracture* in *meat*, but there is in *meal*—in both, the *ea* has the sound of *a* in *mate*—but the *l* in *meal* naturally produces the fracture.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Merst is now obsolete—it would now be múds for mightest.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is us not I, and is sounded nearly ess. I believe the ees of the text (line 3) is the same. The nom. plur. in N. Devon is always thus pronounced, and it is very commonly used for the nom. singular. (See W. S. G., p. 34.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This is the emphatic form, and the text conveys the exact present pronunciation. The ordinary form of wilt is wût, or simply 't, as dhee-t zèo'n u-dùe'd ('thou wilt soon have finished'). Note in this example the elision referred to above; written at length it would be dhee-t zèo'n u u-dùe'd.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778). The Bone-shave (a Word perhaps no-where used or understood in Devonshire but in the Neighbourhood of Exmoor) means the Sciatica; and the Exmoorians, when afflicted therewith, use the following Charm to be freed from it:——The Patient must lie on his Back on the Bank of a River or Brook of Water, with a straight Staff by his Side, between him and the Water; and must have the following Words repeated over him, viz.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Bone-shave right;

<sup>&</sup>quot;Bone-shave straight;

<sup>&</sup>quot;As the Water runs by the Stave,

<sup>&</sup>quot;Good for Bone-shave."

They are not to be persuaded but that this ridiculous Form of Words seldom fails to give them a perfect Cure.

Mae·ŭl.¹—Un zoa dhu muurs,² bi oa·ŭrt es³ nau, wai guut·ureen; uz 10 guut·ur dhu wuut⁴ haun dhu kau·ms tu gèo·d taak·leen.—Bud zaum zad "Shoo·ŭr-n shoo·ŭr dhu daeds bút mak wuyz, tu zee neef dhu⁵ "yuung Joa·zee Yef-ee·ŭl wúd kaum tu zlaak dhi baud·eez, un wae·ŭr u wúd bi u-voa·r ur noa."——Bŭ-twuz dhu oa·l dees-yai·z, Chuun.

Thomasin. Aa'y goo! Haut dees-yai'z dús mee'ŭn, yu guurt 15 duug'ud-taa'yuld, zwaup'een, ruws'leen Bluwz? Yu guurt Rauy'ul, tuul mu. Tuul mu, u zai', haut dees-yai'z dús mee'ŭn?—Ad! ch-úl rai'm<sup>8</sup> mi aa'rt tu dhu uvoa'r aayz lat dhu lúp'ud.—Ch-úl taak ut uwt·10 wi dhu tu dhu truè' bai'n, faath! Tuul mu, u zai', haut dees-yai'z dús mee'ŭn dhut dhu zaes'll ch-aam u-truub'ld wai?

Wilmot. Waa'y; yu puur'teen, taach'ee, stee'ŭrt'leen, jaa'wureen, preng'keen, mún'seen dhaeng, ch-úl tuul dhu haut dees-yai'z. Es <sup>12</sup> ded-n mee'ŭn dhu Boo'ŭn-shee'ŭv,\* nur dh-aart'gunn, nur dh-aal urnbaach dhut dh-ads een dhee núd'ik. Tez bad'r twaar: <sup>13</sup> vur 24

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> It is still nearly invariable to use *the* before a proper name when there is a qualifying adjective, as Aay zeed dh-oa'l Faarmur Taap; dhaat-s dhu guurt Jan Urd, 'that is great John Red' (Lorna Doone). It will be noticed that this rule is not once broken throughout these dialogues. Compare below l. 31, 'the young Dick Vrogwill' and 'George Vuuz.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> What in the text is as incorrect as the whan noted above. In I. 149, Wilmot says, 'no Direct to hot the tellst'—proving that then as now the relative had no w sound in it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Also pronounced main, which at present is the common form.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The *ea* in this word has always been sounded *ai* as in *main*, and I think the author of the text must have so intended it, as also in *Disyease*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> This form is now quite obsolete as a conditional or future tense. It is probably the *es* before noted.

<sup>10</sup> i.e. 'Have it out with you.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> The regular form still for all the persons of the present tense of to say. The sound is between zess and zass. The final t in the text is mere literary ism—the author of course wrote a t in sayest, and so of course must write zest. The same applies to dest in the same line. These t's are sounded only before a vowel.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Is in the text is precisely the same in meaning as the words spelt ees (line 2), and es (line 10). See note above. I believe it to be the nom. plur. used for the sing., as is still customary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Twar is now quite obsolcte. I have heard tware, but only from maidservants or those who try to talk 'fine.' The form throughout N. Devon and Exmoor now is twaz when emphatic, precisely the sound of has in lit. Eng.

- 15 than Ount Annis Moreman¹ coul'd ha'² blessed vore,³ and net ha'² pomster'd about et, as⁴ Moather ded.
  - Thomasin. What disyease than, ya gurt Haggage!
    Wilmot. Why, e'er zince tha wart Twonty, ay Zewnteen,
    and avore, tha hast a be' troubled wey the Doul yetch tha.
- 30 Thomasin. What's me-an by that, ya long-hanjed Meazle?

  Dist hre 5 ma? The call'st ma stertling Roil now-reert.—

  How dedst Thee stertlee upon the Zess last Harest wey the young

  Dick Vrogwill, when George Vuzz<sup>6</sup> putch'd?<sup>7</sup>—He told ma the whole

  Fump o' th' Besneze.
- 35 Wilmot. O! the very Vengance tear tha!—Dest thee tell me o' Dick Vrogwill?—Why thee art in a Ninniwatch e'ery other Torn, nif zo be tha dest bet zet Zeert in Harry Vursdon.

Thomasin. How! ya gurt chounting, grumbling, glumping, 40 zower-zapped, yerring Trash!

Wilmot. Don't tell me o' glumping: Oll the Neighbourhooden<sup>8</sup> knowth<sup>9</sup> thee to be a veaking, blazing, tiltish Hussey.

Thomasin. And thee art a crewnting, querking, yeavy, dugged-yess, 10 chockling Baggage.

Wilmot. Net11 zo chockling, ner it 12 zo crewnting, as thee art, a

<sup>1</sup> This name is always thus pronounced. So also the village Morebath is always Muur buth.

<sup>3</sup> This word adds no force to the verb, but is, and apparently has long been a mere pleonasm. Scarcely ten sentences can be heard in the district without *roar* occurring somewhere.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ — $^2$  Elisions of the vowel u, i.e. the participial prefix, or when in rapid speech, the auxiliary have is shortened into u. If spoken deliberately it would be  $k\grave{e}od\ uv\ u$ -blus ud,  $neet\ uv\ u$ -paum sturd. This form is very common, but it is impossible to determine whether the u standing for have, or the prefix, is the one got rid of. The h in ha of the text merely conventional writing.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> I think as is an error of the original transcriber. No native would have used so literary a phrase, he would have said sae-um-z Mau-dhur daed, or eens Mau-dhur daed.

 $<sup>^{5}\,</sup>$  This form is nearly obsolete, a very few old people still use it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Furze is a very common name, and is always pronounced *Vuuz*.

<sup>7</sup> Here the words being all more or less emphatic, the final inflexion would have a syllable to itself.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> This is the old plural, quite obsolete. See W. S. Gram., p. 7.

dhan Aewnt An'ees Muurmun¹ kèod u² blas ud voa r³ un neet u² 25 paum sturd ubaewd ut, uz⁴ Mau dhur daed.

Thomasin. Haut dees-yai z dhan yu guurt Ag eej?

Wilmot. Waary, ac'ŭr zúnz dhu wurt twuun tee, aary zaewn teen, un uvoar, dh-aast u-bee truub ld wai dhu Daewl yach dhu.

Thomasin. Haut-s mee'ŭn bi dhaat, yn laung-han'jud Mai'zl? 30 Dúst uy'ur mu? Dhu kyaals' mu stee'ŭrtleen Rauy'ŭl naew-ree'ŭrt.— Aew deds dhee' stee'urtlee pun dhu Zaes' laas Aarus wai dhu yuung Dik Vraug'wee'ŭl, haun Jaurj Vuuz púch-tu??—Ee toa'l mudhu woa'l Fuump u dhu bez'nees.

Wilmot. Au! dhu vuur ee Vai njuns tae ŭr dhu! Dús dhee tuul 35 mee u Dik Vraug wee-ŭl?—Waa y, dhee urt een u Nún eewauch ae ur ee uudh ur Tuurn, neef zu bee dhu dús bút zút zee ŭrt een Aar ee Vuurz dn (Fursdon).

Thomasin. Aew! yu guurt chaewn teen, gruum leen, gluum peen, zaaw ur-zaap ud, yuur een Traarsh!

Wilmot. Doa'ı̆ın tuul mee u gluum'peen : Aul dhu Naay-burèodn<sup>8</sup> nau'uth  $^9$  dhee' tu bee a vai-keen, blae'ı̆uzeen, túl-teesh Uuz-če.

Thomasin. Un dhee urt u kruenteen, kwuurkeen, yaivee, duugud-yas, 10 chauk leen bageej.

Wilmot. Neet  $^{11}$  zu chauk leen, nur eet  $^{12}$  zu krue inteen-z dhee aart, u 45

 $<sup>^9</sup>$  An example of the use of the termination th in the plural. Compare 'Ancren Riwle' (Ed. Camden Society) :—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;vor þeos riwleð þe horte alse sum deð, alse 3e telleð me.'—p. 8.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;be pine bet prisuns bolie's: bet heo ligge's.'-p. 32.

So also in 'Robert of Gloucester' and 'Trevisa' is found the same form.

10 yess has nearly lost the y sound amongst the lowest class in the Vale of
W. Somerset, but it is still common in the Hills, and in North Devon. I have
heard the word so pronounced in a half apologetic manner, by those who felt
its coarseness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Not in the sense here used, is at present always neet, and is the evident contraction of not yet or nor yet.

<sup>12</sup> Yet is always ee't, and the it of the text is decidedly too short to convey the sound to modern ears; but since throughout Devonshire it (pron.), pin, kin, if, are pronounced ee't, pee'n, kee'n, neef, the original transcriber most likely intended to represent the sound of the i in it as then spoken, and doubtless, then as now, the same spoken word represented both it and yet. This is confirmed by note to l. 110 of the text, where eet is given as an alternative spelling of yet.

46 colting Hobby-horse! Nif tha dest bet go down into the Paddick, to stroak the Kee, thee wut come oll a gerred, and oll horry zo vurs¹ tha art a vorked; ya gerred-teal'd,² panking, hewstring Mea-zel!—Thee art lick a skittish Sture jest a yooked.³ Tha woulst 50 bost any keendest Theng,⁴ tha art zo vore-reet, nif Vauther dedn't ha-ape tha.

Thomasin. Ay, ay! Kester Moreman wou'd ha be hove<sup>5</sup> up, nif zo be<sup>6</sup> a had a had tha; a toteling, wambling,<sup>7</sup> zlottering, zart-and-vair yheat-stool.

- 55 Wilmot. Ay, and zo wou'd tha young George Vuzz, mun, whan a had a rubbacrock, rouzeabout, platvooted, zidlemouth'd Swashbucket. Pitha dest thenk enny Theng will e'er vittee or gooddee wey zich a whatnozed, haggle-tooth'd, stare-bason, timersome, rixy, wapper-ee'd Theng as thee art?
- 60 Thomasin. Dest hire ma? 11 Oll the Crime o' the Country goth, that wan 12 tha liv'st up to tha Cot, tha wart the Old Rager Hill's Under Bed-blonket. And more 'an zo, 13 that tha wart a chittering, raving, racing, bozzom-chuck'd, rigging, 64 lonehing, haggaging Moil.

<sup>2</sup> The *teal* of the text is not broad enough, even if ea = ai. I have heard very ignorant people talking 'fine,' say  $tee \, il$  for tail,  $dee \, il$  for dale,  $pee \, il$  for pail, &c., but there was clearly no affectation about Wilmot.

<sup>3</sup> Probably *u-yuuk·ul* would more correctly represent the sound. In the hill districts the long o is sounded more like oo than the oa of the vales. Hence yoke is yoo·k—but yoked is more like yuuk·ud or yook·ud. In all these cases where the part is emphatic the inflexion is a distinct final syllable -ud. (See W. S. G., p. 45.)

4 i. e. anything whatever, a very common phrase. Probably any kind of thing; kind is still keernd, so oblige is always ublee; wind (v.) ween; blind is constantly bleen, right, reet, as in the text; shine, sheen. See text, 1. 128.

<sup>5</sup> I believe this to be the p. part. of *heave* with the prefix elided by rapid speech—uttered deliberately, this would be, wild u-bee u-oa'v aup.

<sup>6</sup> If when it signifies peradventure, is still neef zu bee.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Far seems to have been, as now, unknown in either comparison—distance is vuurnees. A man was giving me a direction across a very lonely part of Exmoor, and told me I should come to the guurt eeps u stoo unz baevt dhu vuurnees uv u kwaurtur muyuld uvoar yhe kaumth tu dhu gee it. 'Two great heaps of stones (two barrows) about the furness of a quarter mile before you cometh to the gate.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The transcriber was certainly wrong in writing wambling—in all these words

koa'lteen Aub'ee-au's! Neef dhu dús bút goo daewn een tu dhu Pad'ik, 46 tu stroa'k dhu Kae'ee, dhee wút km aul u-guur'ud, un aul aur'ĕe zu vuur-z¹ dh-aart u-vau'rkud; yu guur'ud-taa'yuld,² pang'keen, eo'streen Mai'zl!—Dhee urt lik u skit'eesh Stèo'r jest u-yook'ud.³ Dhu wúts buust ún'ĕe keen'dees dheng,⁴ dh-aart zu voa'r-reet, neef Vau'dhur 50 ded-n aa'p dhu.

Thomasin. Aay, aa'y! Kaes'tur Muur'mun wúd u bee oa'v<sup>5</sup> aup, neef zu bee<sup>6</sup> u ad u-ad' dhu; u toa'ŭtleen, waum'leen,<sup>7</sup> zlaut'ureen, zaart-n-vae'ŭr yee'ŭt-stèol.

Wilmot. Aa'y, un zoa' wúd dhu yuung Jaurj Vuuz, mún,<sup>8</sup> haun u<sup>9</sup> 55 adu-ad'uruub'ukrauk, raew'zubaewt, plaat-vèot'ud, zuy'dl-muw'dhud <sup>10</sup> Zwaysh-buuk'ut.—Pidhu dús dhengk ún'ĕe dheng wúl ae'ŭr vút'ee ur 'gèod'ĕe wai zich u waut-noa'zud, ag'l-tèo'dhud,<sup>10</sup> stae'ŭr-bae'ŭsn, túm'ursum, rik'sĕe, waap'ur-ee'd dheng-z dhee aart?

Thomasin. Dúst uy ur mứ  $l^{11}$  Aul dhu Kruym u dhu Kuun trẽe 60 gooth, dhut haun dhu lee vst aup tu dhu Kaut, thu wurt dh-oad Raj ur Ee ülz uun dur bai d-blaun kut. Un moo ur n zoa, dhut dhu wurt u chút ureen, rae uveen, rae useen, buuz um-chuuk ud, rig een, laun cheen, ag eejeen Mauy ul.

the b is always dropped—stuum'leen, shaam'leen, raam'leen, gruum'-leen, &c.

8 Man used in this way is a very common expression; it has a half-defiant,

<sup>\*\*</sup> Man used in this way is a very common expression; it has a half-defiant, quasi-abusive force; it is nearly always used in a threat or rude contradiction, and would be spoken to a woman, as in the text, as readily as to a man. No one would think of using it to a superior unless a deliberate insult were intended. Compare 'Ancren Riwle' (Ed. Camden Society), p. 12, 'ich chulle schawe pe mon sei\( \) pe holi Michee.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The use of short a for he and for they (see W. S. G., p. 96) is no modern corrupt pronunciation. 'John of Trevisa' (ed. Morris and Skeat), p. 244, l. 50, writes, '& seyde þat a moste spare þynges þat scholde be hys oune: again, p. 245, l. 68, '"Nay," quaþ Harold, "hy beþ no prustes, bote a beþ wel stalword knystes."'

as in the p. part. See note 3, p. 30. I think the transcriber inconsistent in having written some ed and others 'd, while, on the contrary, he writes troubled, which is pronounced truub'ld. If there be any exceptions to the above rule they would be when the noun ends in l, or a vowel, and hence I have written waap uree'd, when I believe waap uree'ul was spoken.

in Then, as now, threatening or abusive sentences very often began thus. Now this phrase, Dost hear me? is contracted into Shuur mu?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Spelt whan elsewhere, in the text.

This expression is still very common = moreover.

- 65 Wilmot. How! ya confounded Trapes! Tell me enny more o' Rager Hill's Bed-blonket, ad! chell pull the Poll o' tha; chell plim tha, chell vulch tha. Looks zee, Rager Hill es as honest a Man as any in Challacomb; no Dispreise.
- 70 Thomasin. And do thee tell me o' stertling upon the Zess, whan George Vuzz putch'd,<sup>5</sup> chell gi' tha a Lick;—chell lay tha over the Years wey the Vire-tangs. Ad! chell ting tha. Thy buzzom Chucks were pretty vittee avore tha mad'st thyzel therle, and thy Vlesh oll wangery, and thy Skin oll vlagged, with<sup>6</sup> nort 75 bet Agging, and Veaking, and Tiltishness.

Wilmot. Bed-blonket akether\*! Ha! zey zich a Word more chell cotton thy Waistecoat. Chell thong tha, chell gi' tha zich a strait<sup>7</sup> in tha Chups†, ya Grizzledemundy.

Thomasin. Me a Strait in the Chups? Dest hire ma? Come 80 ancest me, chell pummel tha, chell vag tha, chell lace tha.

Wilmot. Thee lace ma? Chem a laced well-a-fine<sup>8</sup> aready<sup>9</sup>
——Zey wone Word more, and chell bresh tha, chell tan tha, chell make thy Boddize pilmee.

Thomasin. How a Man a zed! 10 make my Boddize pilmee ? 85 Ad! if e'er tha squeakest wone Word more o' tha Bedblonket, chell trim tha, chell crown tha, chell vump tha.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The poll of thee is a much more derogatory form of speech than 'thy poll.' (See W. S. Gram., p. 13.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This expression is still very common = look here! voici! In this form, with the second person sing. it is defiant, or quasi-abusive, and would never be used to a superior = Look! dost see? The civil form implying deference is Lèokee zee = look, do you see? (See W. S. G., p. 35.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This must be an error of the transcriber accustomed to the literary style. I never heard a real native say as honest as; it should have been so honest as.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Another literaryism—this should have been as other one = as ever a one; as any is impossible. (See W. S. Gram., p. 25.) 'Robert of Gloucester' (ed. Morris and Skeat), 1 A. l. 533, writes, 'Ac noper of is oper sons.' At present we should say, nother one of his other sons.

 $<sup>^5</sup>$  This word being emphatic there would be a lingering on the final consonant, which would produce quite a distinct syllable, uh. This will be found to occur frequently.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) Akether! means Quoth he! or Quoth her!

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) Chups or Chucks, the Cheeks.

Wilmot. Aew! yu kaun faewn dud trae ups! Tuul mee ún če 65 moo ŭr u Raj ur Ee ŭlz bai d-blaun kut, ad! ch-úl pèol dhu poa lu dhu¹; ch-úl plúm dhu, ch-úl vuulch dhu. Lĕok-s zee ,²—Raj ur Ee ŭl úz uz³ au nees a mae ŭn uz ún če⁴ een Chaal ikum;—noa deespraa yz.

Thomasin. Un du dhee tuul mee a stee ŭrtleen pun dhu Zaes, haun 70 Jaurj Vuuz púch tu,<sup>5</sup> ch-úl gi dhu u lik ;—ch-úl laa y dhu oa vur dhu yuurz wai dhu vuy ur-tangz. Ad! ch-úl ting dhu. Dhi buuzz um chuuks wur puur tee vút če uvoa r dhu mae ŭds dhi-zuul dhuur ul, un dhi Vlaiysh aul wang ur če, uu dhi skeen aul vlag ud, wai o noa ûr t bút Ag cen, un Vai keen, un túl teeshnees.

Wilmot. Bai d-blaun kut ukaedh ur\*! Haa! zai zich wuurd moo úr, ch-úl kaut n dhuy wae ŭskoa ŭt. Ch-úl dhaung dhu, chú-l gi dhu zich u straat-n dhu chuups,† yu guur zl-dimuun dče.

Thomasin. Mee u straat-n dhu chuups? Dúst uy ŭr mu? Kaum unee ŭs mee, ch-úl paum ul dhu, ch-úl vag dhu, ch-úl lae ŭs dhu.

Wilmot. Dhee lae ŭs mu? eh-úm u-lae ŭs wuul-u-fuyn surad če. ——Zai woon wuurd moo ŭr-n eh-úl búrsh dhu, eh-úl tan dhu, eh-úl mak dhi baud eez púl měe.

Thomasin. Aew u mae ŭn zaed! 10 mak muy baud eez pŭl mee? Ad! neef ae ŭr dhu skwai kus woon wuurd moo ŭr u dhu bai d-85 blaun kut, ch-úl trúm dhu, ch-úl kraewn dhu, ch-úl vuump dhu.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Error of transcribers, with was unknown.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Misprint in the text for *strat* or *stratt*. See Glossary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> A common expression = very fine-

<sup>&#</sup>x27;God him sente a wel feir gras.'

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Stacions of Rome' (E. E. T. S., Furnivall), p. 14, l. 416.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;porn-out al Engelond. he huld wel god pes.'

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Rob. of Gloucester' (ed. Morris and Skeat), 1 (A), 1, 370.

The a in well-a-fine is, I think, euphonic; compare wash-a-mouth, line 138; rubb-a-crock, line 56.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> No trace of the *l* is ever heard in *already*.

<sup>10</sup> A very common exclamation as a prelude to a remark which would lead to the expectation that some oratio recta was to follow—nothing of the kind. The text, in this, is thoroughly vernacular. Another very common form is, Sae ~im~z dhu fuul~ur zaed, 'Same as the fellow said;' but we are never told what the fellow did say—the phrase has no necessary connection with what is to follow.

- 87 Wilmot. Why dedst thee, than, tell me o' the Zess, or it of the Hay-pook, as 1 tha dedst whileer? Chell drub tha, chell curry thy scabbed Yess var 2 tha.
- 90 Thomasin. And why dest thee, than, tell me 'Isterday o' losing<sup>3</sup> my Rewden Hat in the Rex-bush, out a whorting?<sup>4</sup> And more and zo, that the young Tom Vuzz shou'd le-ave<sup>5</sup> he's Cod glove!—Ad! zey a Word more o' the young Tom Vuzz, chell baste tha, chell stram tha, chell drash tha;—chell make thy Kepp 95 hoppee, wi' thy Vlanders Lace upon't.<sup>6</sup>

Wilmot. Vlanders Lace! What's me-an by that, ha-ah?<sup>7</sup> Tell me enny more o' Vlanders Lace, chell make thy Yead<sup>8</sup> addle. Chell up wi' ma Veest, and gi' tha a Whisterpoop, and zich a Zwop as<sup>9</sup> shall make tha veel ma, looks zee!

100 Thomasin. Gi' me a Zwop !—Ad! chell gi' tha a Wherret, or a Zlat in the Chups,—or up wi' thy dugged Coats, and tack tha gre-asy 10 Yess o' tha.

Wilmot. Thee tack me, ya unlifty, ill-hearty, untidy Mea-zel?—Andra wou'd ha' had a Trub in tha, nif Vauther hadent a 105 strad the Match.

Thomasin. How Dem! a Trub?——Go, ye rearing, snapping, tedious, cutted Snibblenose!——Th' art olways a vustled up in an old Jump, or a Whittle, or an old Seggard, avore 11 zich Times as 109 Neckle Halse 12 comath about:—— Than tha wut prinkee.——

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Literaryism—should be sae· m-z or eens—as is impossible.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here the prep. is emphatic, and is written *var* in the text; the vowel sound is precisely the same as in *war* in lit. Eng. Sentences very frequently end in a prep. like mod. Ger. Moreover, this prep. is often redundant, and then there is always a stress upon it. This custom is so inveterate that even people of some education constantly practice it. In a local paper of November 14th, 1878, I read in a signed letter, 'I have had three connections made with the common sewer, and in each case took care to ascertain in what state the sewer was in.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> I believe this also to be a literaryism—to lose is tu laus (t before vowel); losing is lau: steen. (See W. S. G., p. 47.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The w has disappeared, except among the better class—huurts, huurteen, only are heard among *Thomasin's* class. Probably the transcriber wrote whorting from literary habit.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The present form is *laef*—anything like the *leave* in the text is quite obsolete. (See W. S. G., p. 47.)

Wilmot. Waay dúds dhee, dhun, tuul mee u dhu Zaes, ur eet u 87 dhu haa'y pèok, uz¹ dhu daeds wuy'lae'ur?—Ch-úl druub dhu, ch-úl kuur'ĕe dhi skab'ud yaes' vaur² dhu.

Thomasin. Un waay daeds dhee, dhun, tuul mee' ús turdai u 90 laus teen 3 mi rùe du aat een dhu reks bèosh, aewt u huur teen ? Un moo úr-n zoa', dhut dhu yuung Taum Vuuz shúd lee uv 5 ee z Kaud gluuv! Ad! zai u wuurd moo ŭr u dhu yuung Taum Vuuz, ch-úl bae ŭs dhu, ch-úl straam dhu, ch-úl draash dhu;—ch-úl mak dhi kep aup če, wi dhi Vlaan durz lae us upaunt. 95

Wilmot. Vlaan durz lae ŭs! Haut-s mee un bi dhaat, haa ŭ ? 7 Tuul mee ún če moo ŭr u Vlaan durz lae ŭs, ch-úl mak dhi ai d<sup>s</sup> ad l. Ch-úl aup wai mu veest, un gi dhu u Wús turpeop, un zich u Zwaup <sup>9</sup> sh'l mak dhu vee ul mu, lèok-s zee !

Thomasin. Gi mee u zwaup?—Ad! ch-úl gi dhu u wuurrut, ur u 100 zlaat-n dhu chuups,—ur aup wai dhi duug ud Koa uts, uu taak dhu gree ŭsče 10 yacs u dhu.

Wilmot. Dhee' taak mu, yu aunlúf tee, ee ül-aar tee, auntuy dee Mai zl?—An dr wúd u ad u truub een dhu, neef Vaudhur ad-n u-strad dhu maach.

Thomasin. Aew Daem! u truub?—Goo yu rae ŭreen, snaap een, tai jus, cuut ud snúb lnoa ŭz!—Dh-urt au laiz u-vuus ld aup een un oa l juump, ur u wút l, ur un oa l Saeg urd, uvoa r l zich tuymz uz Naek l Aal s l² kaum uth ubaewt:—Dhan dhu wút praeug kĕe.— 109

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This I am sure ought to be *upaun un*. The pron. *it* is never used in reference to nouns of the definite class. This is confirmed by the text throughout. (See also W. S. Gram., p. 33.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> This is the equivalent of the well-known *eh?* but in the west generally takes the broader form.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> *Head* though written *yead* would not, I believe, have had a *y* sound, except for the close vowel preceding the long *a. dhi aid*, cannot be pronounced quickly without the *y* sound.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> In rapid speech the as before shall would quite disappear.

<sup>10</sup> Greasy would now be pronounced grai'sĕe.

<sup>11</sup> This is still the common idiom for *until*; another equally common is *gin zich tuymz*. A man at Plymouth (Feb. 12, 1879) said to me, 'us can wait avore you be ready, Sir.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Halse is a very common name in N. Devon; it is always pronounced Aals by the *Thomasin* class. *Neckle* is the usual abbreviation for Nicholas.

110 Thee hast a let the Kee go zoo vor Want¹ o' strocking.² It a vore oll\* th' art an abomination³ Pinchvart vor thy own Eends.——Ay, ay! Shoort, Wilmot, shoort!----Zwer thy Torn,⁴ or else tha tedst net carry⁵ whome⁶ thy Pad, and meet⊓ Neckle Halse by tha Wey.——He'll meet tha in the Vuzzy-park⁶ Coander⁶ 115 by Cockleert, or avore, chell warndy.¹⁰

Wilmot. Tell<sup>11</sup> ma one Word more o' Neckle Halse chell skull tha, tha hassent a be' a skull'd zo vor wone while.<sup>12</sup> Ya gurt Fustilugs! The Old Mag Dawkins es bet a Huckmuck to tha. Zet tha about ort, why, tha dest Thengs vore-and-back,<sup>13</sup> 120 a cat-hamm'd,<sup>14</sup> a vore-reert, and vramp-shaken,<sup>15</sup> like a Totle.

Thomasin. How! ya long-hanged Trapes! Ya blowmonger Baarge! Thee wut coal-varty a-bed† avore be voor days. Tha'rt so deeve 16 as a Haddick in chongy Weather. Or whan 'tes avore 17 or 124 a scratcht the le-ast Theng out, 18 or whan snewth, or blunketh, 19

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A literaryism—the vernacular would be *lau'k*; want is scarcely ever heard in this sense—a want is the only name known for a mole (Talpa).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Like yoa'k (see note, l. 38), so stroa'k is shortened by the added syllable to struuk'een, struuk'ud (intrans.): the transitive inflection not adding a syllable would be stroo'kt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Still a common expression for *abominable*. The r is distinctly sounded in all words ending in *ation*.

<sup>4</sup> This expression is still very commonly used to women. It is equivalent to 'get on with your work.' A farmer's wife would say, Zwuur dhi tuurn to a maid who was idling at the wash-tub. It is clearly a relic of the time, not so long ago, when all country women were spinsters. Well within the present century, not only did they spin for home consumption, but for hire. This is implied in the text, 'carry home thy pad,' i.e. home to the employer, who gave out the wool to be spun, and who paid for spinning at so much a pad (q. v.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Carry is a literaryism—the y is always dropped.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Home has no longer the sound of w in this district—but in Dorset and other Southern shires this is still common. In North Dev. and W. Som. it is aum—the precise sound of om in Tom.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Meet, sweet, keep, peep, deep, and some others have the ee short, something like the sound of i in pit, knit, of lit. Eng. Some, as sleep, leat, are  $zlee^*\check{u}p$ ,  $lee^*\check{u}t$ .

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) It (or Eet) a vore all, means, Yet notwithstanding. † (Note to Ed. of 1778.) Coal-varty a-bed, to warm the Bed with a Scotch Warming-pan; that is, with Half a Fart-hing.

Dhee aast u-laet dhu kae'ee goo zeo' vur wau'nt¹ u struuk'een.² Eet 110 uvoa'r au'l,\* dh-aart un ubaum'inae'ŭrshun³ púnchvaart vur dhi oa'ŭn ee'nz.—Aay, Aay! Shèo'ŭrt, Wúl'mut, shèo'ŭrt! Zwuur dhi Tuurn,⁴ ur uls dhu taeds nút kaar'⁵ woa'm⁶ dhi pad, un mčet¹ Naek'l Aa'ls bi dhi wai.—Ee ul mčet dhu een dhu Vuuz'če paark⁵ Koa'ŭndur⁰ bi Kauk-lee'ŭrt, ur uvoa'r, ch-úl wau'nd-ee.¹⁰

Wilmot. Tuul 11 ma woon wuurd moo'ur u Naek'l Aa'ls ch-úl skyèol dhu, dhu aas nt u-bee u-skyèold zoa vur woon wuy'ul. 12 Yu guurt fuus tiluugz! Dh-oa'l Mag Dau'keenz úz bút u Uuk'muuk tu dhu. Zaet dhu abaewt oa'ŭrt, waay, dhu dús dhaengz voa'r-n baak, 13 u kyaat 14-aam'ud, u voa'r-ree'ŭrt, un vramp-shee'ŭpm, 15 lik u toa'tl. 120

Thomasin. Aew! yu laung-an-jud Trae-ŭps! Yu blèo-maun-jur Baa-rj! Dhee wút koa-l-vaar-tĕe u-baid+ uvoa-r bi voor dai-z. Dh-aart-zu dee-f-s-16 u ad ik een chaun-jĕe wadh-ur. Ur haun taez avroa-r-17 ur u-skraa-cht dhu lee-ŭs-dhaeng aewt, 18 ur haun snèo-th, ur blaeng-kuth, 19 124

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Park is constantly used as a name for pasture lands. I know many such names, as Broad-park, Combe-park, Higher-park, Park farm, &c., where nothing but pasture is meant.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Corner is always so pronounced; so tailor is taaryuldur. (See also W. S. G., p. 19.)

<sup>10</sup> I'll warrant ye.

<sup>11</sup> Tell is the equivalent of say or talk. Any yourd um toul een togodh ur.
'I heard them talking together.' Doo'in toul any zich stouf, is the usual way of saying, 'don't talk nonsense.' Any yourd um toul aew wee bee gwai'n vur t-ae'u aard wee'ntur. 'I heard them tell (i. e. on dit) how that we are going to have a hard winter.'

<sup>12</sup> One while means a very long time.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> An equally common form still in use is baak-n voar, both signify backwards, or rather back in front.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Cat when emphasised is always kyaat or kyat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Shee  $\check{u}pud$  would be said at present. I suspect the en of the text is u literaryism. The shaken is a misprint for shapen, in 7th Edition 1771, it is shapen-n is always sounded m after p. (See W. S. Dial., p. 17.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Deaf is one of the words in which the f is sounded sharp. I have no doubt of the v of the text being a slip of the transcriber. 'Deaf as a Haddock,' is still the constant simile throughout W. S., used for the superlative absolute of deaf. (See W. S. Gram., p. 22.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Misprint in the text; avrore in Ed. 1771. See the Glossary. Compare Germ. gefroren.

<sup>18</sup> Still a common idiom—the out has rather an intensitive force. 'A very small piece' is generally dhu lai stees beet aewt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> Misprint in the text for blenketh. See Glossary.

125 or doveth, or in scatty Weather, or in a tingling Vrost, than the art theeklifted, and be hang'd to the.

Wilmot. And thee art a lams'd in wone o' thy Yearms,<sup>3</sup> and cassent zee a Sheen in thy Reart Ec.

Thomasin. Rex-bush! — Fath! tell me o' tha Rexbush, 130 ye teeheeing Pixy' — Es marl<sup>4</sup> who's more vor Rigging or Rumping,<sup>5</sup> Steehopping or Ragrowtering, Giggleting,<sup>6</sup> or Gambowling than thee art thyzel.—Pitha, dest'nt remember<sup>7</sup> whan tha com'st over tha Clam wi' tha Old Hugh Hosegood, whan tha Wawter was by Stave, how tha vel'st<sup>8</sup> in, and the Old Hugh 135 drade thee out by tha vorked Eend, wi' thy dugged Clathers up zo vur as thy Na'el,<sup>9</sup> whan tha wart just a buddled?

Wilmot. Lock! dest dwallee, or tell doil? —— Pitha tell 138 reaznable, $^{10}$  or hold thy Popping, ya gurt Washamouth.

### So ends the first Bout.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Words ending in *gling* or *ging*, never sound two *g*'s, as in lit. Eng. *ting-gling*, or Lancashire *sing-ging*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The participial prefix omitted in the text—it could not be so by the speaker. See W. S. G., p. 49.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> I never heard any y sound in *arms* when spoken alone, but when preceded by a close vowel in rapid speech there is the sound of y. The same applies to other words.

<sup>\*</sup> Marrel is thus pronounced—the marl of the text is not a true monosyllable; doubtless the transcriber was accustomed to sound the l more distinctly than is now common, and his orthography in that case is good; marl, i. e. clay is maardl.

ur doa'vuth, ur een skaat'ĕe wadh'ur, ur een u teng'leen¹ vrau's, 125 dhan dh-aart u-thaek'lúf'tud,² un bee ang-tu dhu.

Wilmot. Un dhee urt u-laamst een woon u dhi ae ŭrmz,<sup>3</sup> uu kas n zee u Shee n een dhi ree ŭrt ee .

Thomasin. Raeks-bèo sh!—Faa th! tuul mee u dhu raeks-bèo sh, yu tee-hee een pik see.—Es maa rul¹ ùe z moo ŭr vur rig een ur 130 ruum peen, stee aupeen ur rag gruw tureen, gig lteen, ur gaam buw leen-un dhee aart dhi zuul.—Púdh u, dús-n rai mumbur haun dhu kaumst oa vur dhu klaam wai dh-oa l Yùe Oa zgèod, haun dhu waa tur wuz bi stae ŭv, aew dhu vaalst een, un dh-oa l Yùe drae ŭd dhee aewt bi dhi vaur kud een, wai dhi duug ud Klaa dhurz 135 aup zu vur-z dhi naa ul, haun dhu wust jist u-buud ld?

Wilmot. Lauk! dús dwaade, ur tuul dauyul?—Púdhu tuul raiznubl, 10 ur oad dhi paupeen, yu guurt Waiysh-umaewf. 138

## Zoa ai nth dhu fuus Baewt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Romping is still so spoken—so Juub for Job, ruub for rob, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Giggling—this word is still pronounced with t in it. I heard a man abusing his daughter, call her 'yu gig lteen yuung búch!'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Literaryism—rémember would be fine talk. Thomasin to Wilmot would have said muyn, 'mind'—to the parson or a 'real gentleman,' rai mumbur.

<sup>8</sup> Spelt valst in l. 169.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Navel—so claa-ŭl for elavel, shoo ŭl for shovel, graa-ŭl for gravel.

This is a very common expression still  $= talk \ sensibly$ .

# AN EXMOOR SCOLDING.

## BOUT THE SECOND.

Wilmot. DIST hire ma, Dem? Chell ha tether Vinny wi'
tha.—Tha told'st¹ ma now-reert, or a whilere,
of² Rigging and Rumping, Steehopping and Ragrowtering, Giggleting
and Gamboyling.³ What's me-an by thate?⁴ But thee, thee
wut ruckee, and squattee, and doattee⁵ in the Chimley Coander
lick an ⁶ Axwaddle; and wi' the zame tha wut rakee up,7 and
145 gookee, and tell doil, tell Dildrams and Buckingham Jenkins.—Ay, ay, poor⁵ Andra Vursdon wud ha' had a rig-mutton
Rumpstall in tha, nif tad net ha' be' strat.⁶ A wud ha' had
a coad, riggelting, parbeaking, piping Body in tha! olwey wone
Glam or nether. And more an zo, there's no Direct to hot tha
150 tell'st.¹⁰ Tha wut feb et heartily.¹¹ Na, tha wut lee a Rope

Literaryism—of = uv is only used before a vowel.
 Spelt qambowling previously—I never heard qambowling.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There is no sound of the d or the t after the l in this word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> I have written thus in deference to original note to Ed. 1778, p. 1 of the 'Courtship,' but my opinion is that *thate* is much too long a sound to have been used; if not, it is now quite obsolete. (See W. S. Gram., pp. 29 to 32, on the use of *that*.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Here the similar vowel sounds—doa'ŭtee een = doattee in—of the text would in rapid speech be slurred together, as previously noted. (See note 5, l. 5. Also W. S. Gram., p. 27.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Here, on the other hand, there is no such elision—but the distinguishing adjective u stands before a vowel as well as a consonant. (See W. S. Gram., p. 29.)

# U AK'SMOAR SKOA'LDEEN.

## BAEWT DHU SAEK·UNT.

Wilmot. Dust uyur mu, Daem? Ch-úl ae ŭ taedh ur vún ee wi dhu.—Dhu toa ls¹ mu naew-ree ŭrt, ur u wuy ŭlae ŭr, 140 u² rig een un ruum peen, stee aupeen un rag gruwtureen, gig lteen un gaam buw leen.³ Haut-s mee ŭn bi dhae ŭt?⁴ Bút dhee, dhee wút ruuk ĕe, un skwaut ĕe, un doa ŭtee-n⁵ dhu chúm lĕe koa ŭndur lik u⁶ aks wad l; an wi dhu zae ŭm dhu wút rae ŭkĕe aup-m² gèo kĕe, un tuul dauy ul, tuul Dúl drumz un Buuk eenum Jing-145 keenz.—Aay, aa y, poo ŭr s An dru Vuuz dn wúd u-ad a rig-muutn ruum psl een dhu, neef t-ad nút u-bee straat.⁰ U wúd u-ad u koa ud, rig lteen, paar baekeen, puy peen ban dee-n dhu! aul wai woon glaam ur naedh ur. Un moo ŭr-n zoa , dhur-z noa durack tu haut dhu tuuls.¹¹ Dhu wút faeb ut aar ti luyk.¹¹ Naa, dhu wút lee u roo up 150

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The *and* in rapid speech becomes shortened, and after p, b, f, v, is always sounded as m, as before noted, l. 120.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The use of *poor* generally implies that the person spoken of is dead, and it does so very probably here; though there is nothing further in the text to confirm that view.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The participial prefix might be dropped in very rapid speech, or become scarcely perceptible, particularly when following another p. part. This word *strat* is the same as is elsewhere, *e. g.* l. 105, spelt *strad*. The former is the commoner form. Deliberately spoken, *net had be a strat*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Tell throughout the dialogues is used for say and talk. See note 11, 1.116; also 1.137.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This whole sentence reads apocryphal—I never heard the word *fib* in the dialect, and no one ever heard *heartily*. Moreover the word *hearty* would not be used in this sense.

151 up-reert.\* <sup>1</sup> Chad a most a borst my Guts wi' laughing, whan's zeed tha whilere trapsee hum from tha Yeoanna Lock,<sup>2</sup> thy Shoes oll besh—,<sup>3</sup> thy Hozen <sup>4</sup> muxy up zo vurs thy Gammerels to tha very Hucksheens o' tha, thy Gore Coat oll a girred,

155 thy Aead-Clathing <sup>5</sup> oll a' foust; thy Waistcoat oll horry, and thy Pancrock a kiver'd wi' Briss and Buttons,

Thomasin. Why there zo! 6 Bet dist net thee thenk, ya long-hanged Trapes, that the young Josy Yeaff-field 7 wud ha' be' plasad, when he had zitch a crewdling Theng as thee art? Eart 160 lunging, eart squatting upon thy tether Eend. Zey ort to 8 tha, why the wut twitch up thy Teal, and draw 9 up thy Noaze, and take Owl 10 o', or take Pip o'. Nif won 11 zey the le-ast Theng out, 12 the wut purtee a Zennet arter.

Wilmot. How, Hussey! ya confounded Trash! Dist remem165 ber <sup>13</sup> when tha wenst out in the Vuzzey-Park, in the Desk o' tha
Yeaveling, just in tha Dimmet, wi' tha young Humphrey Hosegood,—
and how ha mullad and soulad about tha? Ha bed <sup>14</sup> tha zet down;—
and tha zedst tha woudst net, <sup>15</sup> nif ha dedent blow tha down. Zo ha
blow'd, and down tha valst. Who shud be hard by <sup>16</sup> (vor 'twas in
170 tha Dimmet) bet tha Square's <sup>17</sup> Bealy,—and vorewey ha' cry'd

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If this saying was ever common, it is now obsolete. At present this would be expressed thus—Dhu wut tuul luyz zu vaas uz u au s kn gaal up, 'Thee wilt tell lies as fast as a horse can gallop.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I have made careful enquiry at different times, and from several persons, who know every corner of Exmoor and of the district of Parracombe and Challacombe, but can hear of no such place as *Yeoanna Lock*. I therefore conclude it to be a fiction.

<sup>3</sup> Beshut'n.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Now quite obsolete, but it was not uncommon so lately as fifty years ago. *Stockings* only are now heard of.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Head-clathing in Ed. of 1771.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This is still a common exclamation—of no particular meaning—like Oh, 1 never! Good gracious! &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Joseph Heathfield. (See W. S. Dial., p. 22.) A common name in these parts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The r is always sounded in this word, but the t is dropped in rapid speech when followed by another t.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) To lie a Rope upright, contains a Pun on the Word Lie, and means the telling such a Lie as implies a Contradiction in itself; or what is as impossible to be true, as for a Rope which lies on the Ground to stand upright at the same Time.

aup-ree ŭrt.\* <sup>1</sup> Ch-úd umoo ces buus mi guuts wai laar feen, haun-s 151 zeed dhu wuy ulae ŭr trae ŭpsče uum vrum dhu Yoa an ur Lauk, <sup>2</sup> dhi shèo z aul besh—, <sup>3</sup> dhi oa zn <sup>4</sup> muuk see aup zu vur-z dhi gaam urulz tu dhu vuur ee uuk sheenz u dhu, dhi goo ŭr koa ŭt aul u-guur ud, dhi ai d klaa theen <sup>5</sup> aul u-fuwst; dhi wae ŭskoo ŭt aul aur ĕe, un dhi 155 pang krauk a-kúv urd wai brús -n buut nz.

Thomasin. Waay dhae ŭr zoa ! <sup>6</sup> Bút dús nút dhee dhaengk, yu laung an jud trae ups, dhut dhu yuung Joa zee Yef ee ŭl <sup>7</sup> wúd u bee plai zud, haun u ad zich u krèo dleen dhaeng uz dhee aart. Ee ŭrt luun jeen, ee ŭrt skwaut een pun dhi taedh ur een. Zai oa ŭr tu <sup>8</sup> dhu, 160 waay dhu wút twúch aup dhi taay ŭl, un droa aup <sup>9</sup> dhi noa ŭz, un tak owl <sup>10</sup> oa, ur tak púp oa. Neef waun <sup>11</sup> zai dhu lee ŭs dhaeng aewt, <sup>12</sup> dhu wút puur tĕe u zaen ut aar tur.

Wilmot. Aew, uuz·ee! yu kaun·faewn·dud traarsh! Dús rai-múm-bur¹³ haun dhu wai·ns aewt-n dhu Vuuz·ee-Paark, een dhu dúsk u dhu 165 Yai·vleen, jist een dhu dúm·ut, wai dhu yuung Uum·fri Oa·zgèod,— un aew u muul·ad-n suw·lud ubaewt dhu ! U bai·d¹⁴ dhu zút daewn;— un dhu zaeds dhu wúts nút,¹⁵ neef u daed-n bloa dhu daewn. Zoa u bloa·d-n daewn dhu vaals. Ue shud bee aard buy¹⁶ (vur twuz een dhu dúm·ut) bút dhu Skwai·yŭrz¹⁷ Bee·ulče,—un voa·rwai u kruy·d 170

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Draw is always draw = trahere, but draw = designare. In Ed. of 1771 this word is drow = throw, doubtless the correct reading, i. e. 'toss up thy nose.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> This expression is quite obsolete.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> I believe this to be a literaryism—the indefinite pronoun is now always anybody. (See W. S. Gram., p. 38.) This should be Neef an ee bau dee zaeth.

<sup>12</sup> The use of out in this sense is still very common—Dhu lai'stees beet aewt means a very small slice. There is not the least connection with the modern Cockney out—'the finest thing out.' See l. 124.

<sup>13</sup> I think remember too 'fine talk'—it would most likely be dús muyn.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> This word is rare (though *forbid* is common); in the past tense it is still pronounced precisely like bed (cubile). The literary transcriber felt this, and so wrote it; but I doubt not that then, as now, it was sounded baid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> The negative being here emphatic, the *not* is fully pronounced; the ordinary form would be *dhu wûts-n*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> This is too literary. I never heard hard by used by a native—the usual form is dhae ŭr-buy. (See W. S. Gram., p. 84.) Neef twaud-n dhae ŭr, twuz dhae ŭr-buy; 'If it was not there, it was close at hand.'

<sup>17</sup> I think Square in the text fails to convey the sound—the diphthong is very long. Bailiff is often bee ŭlėe, but more commonly bae ŭlėe.

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171 out that Oll Winavalls belonged to's Measter. Wi' tha zame tha splettest away—down the Pennet—hilter skilter—as if the Dowl had he' be' in the Heels o' tha.

Thomasin. Oh the Dowl splet tha! who told theckee<sup>3</sup> Strammer? Wilmot. Why, twos thee thy own zel up to <sup>4</sup> stooling o' Terra's.

Thomasin. Oh! a Plague confound tha! dest tha thenk ees ded tell't to tha to ha' et a drode vore <sup>5</sup> agen? Well 'tes well a fine. <sup>6</sup>—Es can drow vore worse Spalls than thet to thee:—Ad! es cud rep tha up.

180 Wilmot. What, a Dowl, and be hang'd to tha, canst the drow vore to me?

Thomasin. How many Times have es a hoard <sup>7</sup> tha, and a zeed tha, pound Savin, to make Metcens, <sup>8</sup> and Leckers, and Caucheries, and Zlotters?—Tes good to know yor why yore. <sup>9</sup>

185 Wilmot. Oh! a Plague rat <sup>10</sup> tha!—Ya mulligrub Gurgin! ya shug Meazel!—Th'art good vor nort bet a Gapes-nest.—A gottering hawchamouth Theng!—Whan tha com'st to good Tackling, thee wut poochee, <sup>11</sup> and hawchee, and scrumpee; tha wut net

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A short syllable is very frequently inserted between two nouns when compounded, as in windfalls. My house is called Foxdown, but this is generally pronounced Foxydown by the labouring people. In Ed. of 1771 this word is windfalls—at present it would be ween vaulz, but I have heard ween uvaulz occasionally. Compare well-a-fine, ll. 81, 178.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The construction of this paragraph, except the literaryisms referred to, is excellent, and conveys an admirable notion of the idiom. 'With the same' is the nearly invariable expression, often repeated in every narration. It is a more forcible term than *instantly* or *immediately*; it conveys the idea of an action so quickly following as to be almost performed at the same instant as the cause.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In West Som. generally it is *dhik-ĕe*, but in North Devon and Exmoor it is *dhek-ĕe*, as in the text.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> To when thus used implies *employed at* or *in the act of*. Haun aay wuz tu pluween dhik ee vee ul u graewn—means 'When I was in the act of ploughing that field.' This gerundive form is very common, and has another meaning. See W. S. Gram., p. 80.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> To drow vore is to twit, to rake up old offences. In the Vale district this is to drow aext. Some time ago some poultry was stolen from my premises, but the thieves were not caught. Subsequently a man said to me, Aay kn tuul ee, zr, ùe ad yur vaew ălz dhik tuym. Indeed! who then? Au! aay wuz een tu dhu Kaut eej (a public-house), un dhae ŭr wuz — un —; un dhai

aewt dhut Aul ween uvaalz <sup>1</sup> bilaungud tùe z Mae ŭstur. Wai dhu 171 zae ŭm <sup>2</sup> dhu splút us uwai—daewn dhu Pen ut—úl tur skúl tur—z-auf dhu Duwl ad u-bee -n dhu ee ŭlz u dhu.

Thomasin. Oa dhu Duwl splút dhu! ùe,toa'l dhek'ĕe,³ straam'ur? Wilmot. Waay, twuz dhi oa'n zul aup tu⁴ stèol een u tuur'uz. 175 Thomasin. Oa! u plaa'yg kunfaewn dhu! ɗús dhu dhaengk es

Thomasin. Oa! u plaa yg kunfaewn dhu! dús dhu dhaengk es daed tuul-t tu dhu t-ae ut u droa d voa r 5 ugee ŭn? Wuul taez wuul u fuyn. 6—Es kun droa voa r wús-ur Spaa ls-n dhaet tu dhee .—Ad! es kud rúp dhu aup.

Wilmot. Haut, u Duwl, un bi ang tu dhu, kúns dhu droa voar 180 tu mee?

Thomasin. Aew mún'če tuymz uv es u-yuurd 7 dhu, un u-zeed dhu, paewu saav'een, tu mak maet'sunz,8 un lek'urz, un kau'chureez, un zlaut'urz? Tez gèo'd tu noa' vur waay voa'r.9

Wilmot. Oa! u plaa yg raat 10 dhu! Yu muul igruub guur geen! 185 yu shuug mai zl!—Dh-urt gèo d vur noa ŭrt bút u gyaaps-naes.—U guut ureen au chumaewf dhaeng!—Haun dhu kaums tu gèo d taak-leen, dhee wút peo chĕe, 11 un au chĕe, un skruum pĕe; dhu wút nút

daed-n zee mee; un dhae ŭr dhai wauzu-droa een aewt tu waun ur tuudh ur, un zoa aay yuurd ùe stoa ld you'r vaew ŭlz.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> i. e. 'it is all very fine' (obsolete phrase).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Nothing like the hoard of the text can now be heard. See l. 81.

Medicines still pronounced thus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See note, l. 89. The emphatic prep. here spelt *vore* is precisely the same as *var* in l. 89. Occasionally this is pronounced very long, when final as in the text, but when so emphasised it may be taken that the preposition is always redundant.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> i. e. rot—still always pronounced thus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This common word is pronounced thus. A former editor has felt *pochee* to be wrong, and hence has written *poochee* in the Glossary. In Ed. of 1771 it is *poochee* in the text. It may be well here to remark that this infinitive inflection, so frequently used in these dialogues, was no less common in the xiii. cent., as the following extracts from Robert of Gloucester, all taken from a few consecutive pages, will shew—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Reign of Will. Conqueror' (ed. Morris and Skeat)-

<sup>&#</sup>x27;He let gadery is kniztes.'—l. 478.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;& bigan sone to grony, & to febly also.'—l. 490.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; bat he ne mizte ofscapie nozte.'-l. 495.

 $\rm look^{\,1}$  vor Lathing, chell warndy;  $^2$  and nif et be  $^3$  Loblolly, tha 190 wut slop et oll up.

Thomasin. How a Man a Zed! <sup>4</sup> How dedst thee poochee and hawchee, and scrumpee, whan tha young Zaunder Vursdon and thee stey'd <sup>5</sup> up oll tha Neert a roasting o' Taties? pritch tha vor me! <sup>6</sup>
—Why, than tha wut be a prilled, or a muggard, a Zennet out195 reert; and more an zo, thee wut roweast, nif et be thy own Vauther. Nif tha beest <sup>7</sup> a Zend to Vield wi tha Drenking, or ort, <sup>8</sup> to tha Voaken, <sup>9</sup> where they be shooling <sup>10</sup> o' Beat, handbeeating, or angle-bowing, <sup>\*</sup> nif tha com'st athert Rager Hosegood, tha wut lackee an overwhile avore tha com'st, and ma' be <sup>11</sup> net 200 trapesee <sup>12</sup> hum avore the Desk o' tha Yeavling, ya blow-maunger Ba-arge. Oll <sup>13</sup> vor palching about to hire <sup>14</sup> Lees <sup>15</sup> to vine-dra

These examples might be multiplied, but only in the last here given have I been able to find a verb having this inflexion used transitively, or rather in connection with its direct object—and even in this instance, the peculiar construction seems to remove the object, and to imply that we should read, 'He would servy (if those served were) poor men.' In Robert of Gloucester's time (1298), we may therefore take it, that this inflection was, as it is to-day, affixed to verbs only when used intransitively. See W. S. Gram., p. 49.

<sup>1</sup> Wait for or expect. Still a very common expression. A person unexpectedly paid for a service would say apologetically, Shoa'ur aay daed-n lèok vur noa jish dhaeng; 'Sure I did not expect anything of the kind.' Compare

Acts xxiii. 21, also 2 Pet. iii. 12.

<sup>2</sup> i. e. 'I'll warrant you.'

<sup>3</sup> This form of the conditional is most unusual. I incline to regard it as a spurious literaryism—it should be un-eef tuez. The and nif is impossible—the d is not sounded, and the two words are slurred into one, dropping one of the ns as before explained.

\* (Note to Ed. of 1778.) Angle-bowing, a Method of fencing the Grounds, wherein Sheep are kept, by fixing Rods like Bows with both Ends in the Ground (or in a dead Hedge), where they make Angles with each other, somewhat like the following Figure.



<sup>&#</sup>x27;Life of St. Dunstan' (ibid)—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Hi lete hit do to Glastnebury to norischi and to fede.'—l. 26.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Servi he wolde poure men pe wyle he mizte deore.'—l. 63.

lèok  $^1$ vur la<br/>a·theen, eh-úl wau rnd-ee;  $^2$ un-eef ut be<br/>e $^3$ laub·laul·ĕe, dhu wút slaup ut aul aup. 190

Thomasin. Aew u mae'ŭn zaed! Aew daeds dhee pèo'chče, un au'chee, un skrum'pĕe, haun dhu yuung Zau'ndur Vuuz'dn un dhee steyd aup aul nee'ŭrt u roa'ŭsteen u tae'ŭdeez? púrch dhu vaur mi! —Waay, dhan dhu wút bee u-prúld, ur u-mug'urd, u Zaen'ut aewtree'ŭrt; un moo'ŭr-n zoa, dhee wút ruw'kaas, neef út bee dhee oa'n 195 vau'dhur. Neef dhu beest u-zai'n tu vee'ŭl wai dhu draeng'keen, ur oa'ŭrt u dhu Voa'kn, wae'ŭr dhai bee shèo'leen u bai't, an'bai'teen, ur ang'l-boa'een, neef dhu kaumst u-dhuurt Raj'ur Oa'zgèod, dhu wút laak'ĕe un oa'vur-wuy'ul uvoa'r dhu kaums, un mu bee 11 nút trae'ŭpsee 12 uum uvoa'r dhu daesk u dhu Yai'vleen, yu bluw-maun'jur 200 Baa'rj! Aul 13 vur pau'leheen ubaew-tu uyur 14 lee'z, 15 tu vuyn-draa

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> How is constantly used for as and that (conj.) in connection with say—Yûe kau n zai aew yûe ûv ur zeed mee dhae ar; 'You cannot say how you ever saw me there.' Uur zeed aew mús us waud-n aum; 'She said how mistress was not at home.' The whole phrase is very common. See note, l, 84.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> I never heard *stay* in this sense, it is always *bide*. I am not therefore able to write it in Glossic, and so leave it like the text. The only *stay* known in the dialect is the verb and noun signifying *support*. This is pronounced *staay*.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>circ}$  I do not understand this exclamation, nor does the Glossary throw any light upon it—to pritch or pirtch, i. e. to punch a hole with a smith's tool called a pritchell, has no connection with the sequence.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Thov beest is quite obsolete, if it was ever current, which I doubt. (See W. S. Gram., p. 55.) Art is used elsewhere. See l. 186, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Or ought is a very common phrase, tacked on to any clause of a sentence, and usually means nothing. Here it adds nothing to the sense, as it does not necessarily imply that she might be sent to the field for other errand than to carry the allowance liquor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> This plural in *en* is now quite obsolete, nor can I find any one who remembers to have heard it. The work-people on a farm are always called *the voaks*, whether male or female.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> i. e. shovelling the broken-up turf. Sods are called tuur uz, i. e. turves, only when intended for house fuel. See W. S. Dial., p. 71.

<sup>11</sup> May be—still a common expression for perhaps, probably.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> This word used thus is peculiarly scornful, beyond the power of lit. Eng. It implies sloth as well as dirty untidiness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This all for signifies 'entirely devoted to '—a very common phrase. *Uur-z aul vur flaa wurz*, 'She is entirely devoted to flowers.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Obsolete.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Lies are still pronounced thus, but it is more common now to hear lai'z.

Wilmot. Tell me o' Rager Hosegood, chell make thy Kep<sup>1</sup> hoppee.

202 Voaks. When the goast to the melking o' the Kee, in the Vuzzy-Park, thee wut come oll a dugged, and thy Shoes oll mux, and thy Whittle oll besh—. The wut let the Cream-chorn 205 be oll horry,† and let the Melk be buckerd in buldering Weather.

— Ay, ay, es marl hot to tha Vengance the young Zaunder Vursdon wud ha had a do <sup>2</sup> wi' tha, nif ha had a had tha. Vor why? Tha hast <sup>3</sup> no Stroil ner Docity, no Vittiness in enny 210 keendest Theng. — Tha cortst <sup>4</sup> tha natted Yeo now-reert, or bet leetle rather, <sup>5</sup> laping o'er the Yoanna Lock: (Chell tell Vauther o't zo Zoon es ha comath hum vrom Angle-bowing, don't quesson't). Hot ded tha Yoe do, whan tha had'st a cort en <sup>6</sup> by tha heend Legs o'en <sup>6</sup>—(but vurst ha button'd;—'tes a Marl ted net 215 a valled into tha Panerock, as <sup>7</sup> ha uzeth to do); but thof <sup>8</sup> ha ded viggee, and potee, and towsee, and tervee, <sup>9</sup> and loustree, and spudlee, and wriggled, <sup>10</sup> and pawed, and wraxled, <sup>10</sup> and twined, and rattled, and teared, vig, vig, vig, vig, yeet rather than tha wudst ha' enny more Champ, and Holster, and Tanbast wi'en, tha tokst en, <sup>220</sup> and dest wetherly bost tha Neck o'en.

Thomasin. And nif tha dest pick Prates upon me, and tell

Romeo. What hast thou found?

Mercutio. No Hare, Sir, unless a Hare, Sir, in a Lenten Pie,

That is somewhat stale and hoar e're it be spent.

An old Hare hoar, and an old Hare hoar, is very good Meat in Lent;

But a Hare that is hoar, is too much for a Score,

When it hoars e're it be spent.——'

Horry also signifies foul and filthy (see the *Vocabulary*); and, perhaps this is true Meaning here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cap is pronounced kep throughout North Devon and the hill country of W. Somerset, but not in the Vale district.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Here the transcriber tried to convey the elision of the t in to after the d in had by writing a for to.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is too literary. I think it should have been in the text—'Tha hast net agot no stroil.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Caughtst is a very doubtful word. At present it would be dhu kaechd.

<sup>† (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) Horry—for Hoary, mouldy or finnew'd.—Vid. Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet; where Mercutio puns upon the Words Hare and Hoar:

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Mercutio. ——— So-ho!

voaks. Haun dhu goa'us tu dhu múl'keen u dhu kai'ee, een dhu 202 Vuuz'ĕe-Paark, dhee wút kau'm aul u-duug'ud, un dhi shèo'z aul muuks, un dhi wút'l aul besh—. Dhu wút laet dhu krai'm-chuurn bi aul aur'ee,† un laet dhu múlk bi buuk'urd een buul'dureen wadh'ur. 205

Wilmot. Tuul mee u Raj ur Oa zgèo d, ch úl mak dhi kep laup ee. -Aay, aa'y, es maa'rul haut tu dhu vai njuns dhu yuung Zau'ndur Vuuz dn wúd u-ad-u 2 dùe wi dhu, neef u ad u-ad dhu. Vur waay? Dhee as 3 noa strauy ul nur daus utee, noa vút inces een ún ee keen dees dhaeng.—Dhu kaurts 4 dhu naat ud yoa nuw-ree urt, ur 210 bút lee'dl raedh'ur,<sup>5</sup> lai peen oa'ŭr dhu Yoa'an'ur Lauk: (Ch-úl tuul vau dhur oa ut zu zèo n uz u kaumth uum vrum ang l-boa een, doa n kwaes n ut). Haut daed dhu yoa dùe, haun dhu ads u-kaurt-n 6 bi dhu eend ligz oa un 6-(bút vuust u buut nd ; taez u maar ul tad nút u-vaald eentu dhu pang krauk, uz 7 u yùe zuth tu dùe ); bút thauf 8 u 215 daed vig ee, un poa utee, un tuw zee, un tuur vee, un lèo stree, un spuud lee, un vrig lud, lo un pau ud, un vraak slud, lo un twuy nud, un raat·lud, un tae·ŭrud, vig, vig, vig, eet raedh·ur-n 11 dhu wúts ae·ŭ ún'ee moo'ŭr Chaamp, un Oal'stur, un Tan'baas wai un, dhu tèoks-n, un dús waedh urlee buus dhu naek oa un. 220

Thomasin. Un-eef dhu dús pik prae'ŭts upaun mu, un tuul

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> 'Or but a little while ago'—now-right implies only a moment past.

<sup>6—6</sup> Here are two good examples of the use of the masculine pronoun for a feminine noun. (See W. S. Gram., p. 32.) 'How is the cow?' 'Au! aary-vu-saard-n un u-tain un zu wuul-z úvur u kan; búd ee úd-n noa bad r'—'Oh! I've served him and tended him as well as ever I can; but he isn't no better.'— March, 1879.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Two literaryisms in this clause -1, as is improbable; 2, the verb do would be omitted. It should be sae  $\check{u}m$ -z or eens u yie zuth tie.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Although. (See W. S. Gram., p. 94.) There are other examples of the gh of lit. Eng. being f in the dialect, e. g. ought is auf(t. See W. S. Dial., p. 74. Rob. of Glouc. ('Life of St. Dunstan'), ed. Morris and Skeat, p. 19, l. 15, has—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Ne non nuste wannes hit com. bote purf oure Louerdes grace.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> This paragraph seems to have been composed for the purpose of bringing in a string of words, many of which are synonyms, and it seems to me to exceed all probable repetition of the most verbose scold.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>—<sup>10</sup> Most words written wr are now pronounced very distinctly vr, as vruyt (write), vraeth (wreath), vraidh (wreathe), vraung (wrong), wring (wring), vraacheed (wretched), and many others.

<sup>11</sup> Should have been zoonder, not rather.

222 Vauther o', chell tell a zweet Rabble-rote upon thee, looks zee. Vor when the shudst be about the Yeavling's Chuers, tha wut spudlee out the Yemors, and screedle over mun: And more and

spudge out the Yemors, and screedle over mun; And more and 225 zo, tha wut roily eart upon wone, and eart upon another, zet Voaks to bate, lick a gurt Baarge as 4 tha art: And than Getfer Radger Sherwell he must qualify't agen. When tha art zet 5 agog, tha desent caree 6 who tha scullest: 'Twos olways thy Uze; and chem agast 7 tha wut zo vore 8 thy Een. Tha hast 230 tha very Daps o' thy old Ount Sybyl 9 Moreman upazet.

Wilmot. Why, ya gurt Roil, chant <sup>10</sup> zo bad's thee. Thee wut ha' a Hy to enny Kessen Soul. Than tha wut chocklee, and bannee, and blazee, and roundshave enny body that deth bet zey Λy to tha. Tha wudst buy tha Cot up to Town <sup>11</sup> rather than thy 235 Live, <sup>12</sup> but tha hassent tha wharewey; and tha wudst kiss tha Yess of George Hosehood to ha'en; but tha hasent tha Why for Λy.

Thomasin. How! ya gurt mulligrub Gurgin?

Wilmot. And thee art a long-hanged blow-monger Baarge vor telling me <sup>13</sup> o' Neckle Halse, and tha Square's Bealy, and tha 240 Zess.

Thomasin. And thee art a convounded 14 Trash vor telling me 13 of an 15 Under Bed-blonket, and o' pounding 13 Savin,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is a very common word, pronounced *choa'r*, *choa'reen*, in West Som., but *cheo'ăr* still in N. Dev. Written *char*, *charring*, in lit. Eng. Its use in the dialect is strictly in accord with its ancient meaning—viz. a *turn* or *job*, a *duty* or *service*. Vide 'Ancren Riwle,' ab. 1280 'A.D. (ed. Camden Society), p. 36—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;be bridde time riht also, and [be] feorthe cherre, & te vifte cherre, & nout ne chaunge 3e.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Spelt Yewmors in Ed. of 1771.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The regular objective phual them of North Devon. See W. S. Gram., p. 37; also 'Courtship,' l. 416.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> As would not be used thus—eens or sae imz dhee aart would be a more vernacular reading, but the whole clause is scarcely dialect; it is stagy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The p. part. of set is always u-zaut. I think the zet of the text must be an error of the transcriber.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Curee is still used thus, intransitively, but Thomasin would have also said, dhu dús n kee ŭr u peen, &c., when using the word to care in a quasi-transitive sense. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Agest in Ed. of 1771, but I consider agast the proper reading.

Vau dhur oa, ch-úl tuul u zweet Rab·l-roa ŭt upun dhee, leoks zee. 222 Vur haun dhu sheods bee ubaewt dhu Yai-vleenz Cheo urz,¹ dhu wút spuud·lee aewt dhu yaem·urz² un skree dloa vur mún:³ Un moo ŭr-n zoa, dhu wút rauy·lee ee ŭrt upun woon, un ee ŭrt upun unuudh·ur, 225 zút voaks tu bae ŭt, lig u guurt Baarj uz⁴dhee aart: Un dhan Gaet·fur Raj·ur Shuur·wuul, ee muus kwaul·ifuy ut ugee·ŭn. Haun dh-urt u-zaut⁵ ugaug, dhu dús-n kee·ŭree ⁰ ùe· dhu skyeol·us: twuz aulwaiz dhuy yùe·z; un ch-úm ugaa·s ² dhu wút zoa voa·r ² dhi ee·n. Dh-aas dhu vuur·ĕe daaps u dhi oa·l Aewnt Súblĕe ² Muur·mun aupuzút·. 230

Wilmot. Waay, yu guurt rauy'ul, ch-únt <sup>10</sup> zu bae'ud-z dhee. Dhee wút ae'-u Haay tu ún'ee Kaes'n soa'l. Dhan dhu wút chauk'lee, un ban'ĕe, un blae'ŭzĕe, un ruwn'shee'uv ún'ee baud'ee dhut dúth bút zai Aa'y tu dhu. Dhu wúts baay dhu Kaut aup tu Taewn <sup>11</sup> raedh'ur-n dhi luyv, <sup>12</sup> bút dh-as-n dhu wae'ŭrwai'; un dhu wúts kees dhu Yaes' u 235 Jaurj Oa'zgèo'd t-ae'-un; bút dh-as-n dhu waay vur aay.

Thomasin. Aew! yu guurt muul-igruub Guur-geen?

Wilmot. Un dhee urt u laung-an jud bluw-maun jur baa rj vur tuul een mee  $^{13}$  u Naek l Aa ls, un dhu Skwai yurz Bee ŭlee, un dhu Zaes.

Thomasin. Un dhee urt u kaun'fuwn'dud  $^{14}$  traarsh vur tuul'een mee  $^{13}$  uv un  $^{15}$  uun'dur bai'd blaun'kut, un u puwn'deen  $^{13}$  Saav.een,

<sup>9</sup> Subly in Ed. of 1771, probably the true reading.

 $^{11}$  i. e. up in the village. The word town is applied to a very small cluster of dwellings—sometimes to a single homestead.

12 'Sooner than thy life' is a very common expression to denote extreme desire. Rather in this sense is a literaryism. Wilmot would certainly now say zèorulur, and I believe that to have been the idiom 100 years ago, from the fact that in other places, e. g. 1. 211, rather is used to express earlier.

13\_13\_13 Of is nearly always used after the gerund—these should be tuul een

u mee, puwn deen u saav een.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> *i. e.* until thy end, as long as you live. Voar is constantly used in this sense. See note 11, p. 35.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This form is quite obsolete. Now it would be *any bae\*unt*, or more probably *cs bae\*unt*. I think *chant* is an exaggeration of the author, in his desire to bring in the peculiar *ch* as often as possible.

<sup>14</sup> T never yet heard convound, but kaun fuund is very common. It is spelt confound twice before—ll. 164, 176.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Oa u uun dur would be much more correct. The use of of and an are rather "fine" talk. (See W. S. Gram., p. 29.)

243 and making 1 Caucheries and Slotters wi't. Tha art a Beagle, Chun, pritch tha! vor anether Trick. Chad et in my Meend, and 245 zo chave still. Bet chawnt 2 drow et out bevore tha begen'st agen, and than chell.

Wilmot. Heigo! Mrs. Hi-go-shit!3 A Beagle? And hot art thee? The wut drew,4 and hen,5 and slat,—slat the Podgers, slat tha Crock, slat tha Keeve and tha Jibb, bost tha Cloam.

250 Tha hast a most a stinned e'ery earthly Thing in tha Houz. Absleutly 6 tha art bygaged. Ay, ay, Ount Magery was Death the near vor tha.<sup>7</sup> Her moort <sup>8</sup> ha' vet <sup>9</sup> it, nif zo be tha hadst net let her totee up and down zo ort.10

Thomasin. Why there low! Bygaged! And hot dedst thee 255 do bet jest now-reert? The henst along thy Torn, the wud'st ha' borst en 11 to Shivers, nif chad net a vung 12 en, and pung'd en back agen. Than tha wut snappy, and than tha wut canifflee, and than the wut bloggy.

Wilmot. And hot art thee? A brocking Mungrel, a skulk-260 ing Mea-zel!—And eet a vore oll\* good vor nort bet scollee,13 avore 14 tha art a hoazed that the cast 15 scarce yeppy. Petha, 16 dest thenk enny Theng will goodee or vitte wi' enny zitch a Trub es 17 thee art,—that dest net caree to zev thy Praers ? 18—bet—wut 19

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This should be mae ŭkeen u kau chureez.

<sup>2</sup> i. e. I will not throw, &c.

<sup>3</sup> Very common exclamation of coarse but extreme contempt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Drew is a misprint, it is spelt drow (= throw) elsewhere. Here it is drowin the Ed. of 1771.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This is now the commonest word for *fling* or throw. Drow rather implies to throw down, and would be used in connection with heavier objects than hain. Roberd of Brunne (A.D. 1030), in his 'Handlyng Synne' (ed. Furnivall, Roxburghe Club), has, I. 5616—

<sup>&#</sup>x27; For be stone he toke a lofe. And at be pore man hyt drofe. be pore man hente hyt vp belyne, And was perof ful ferly blybe.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This is rather 'fine,' but it is possible.

i. e. near death through you. For often means on account of - 'I could not speak for laughing.'

\* Spelt merst, l. 10. This form, i. e. merst, is very rare, if not obsolete.

<sup>9</sup> i. c. come round, fetched up, recovered. See note 3 to Preface, p. 10.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) See Note in Page 36.

un mae'ŭkeen <sup>1</sup> Kau'chureez un Zlaut'urz wai ut. Dh-urt u bai'gl, 243 Chún, púrch dhu! vur unaedh'ur trik. Ch-ad ut een mi mee'n, un zoa ch-aav stee'ŭl. Bút ch-oa'n <sup>2</sup> droa' ut aewt uvoa'r dhu bigee'us 245 ugee'ŭn, un dhan ch-úl.

Wilmot. Haay goa! Mús us Haay goa-sheet! Ubai gl! Un haut urt dhee! Dhu wút droa, un hai n, un slaat. Slaat dhu pauj urz, slaat dhu krauk, slaat dhu kee v un dhu Júb, buus dhu kloa m. Dh-ast umau st u-stúnd ae ŭree ae ŭrth-lee dhaeng een dh-aewz. Ab-250 slèo tlee dh-urt u-bigae ŭjud. Aay, aa y, Aewnt Maa juree wuz dath dhu nee ŭr vaur dhu. Uur moo ŭrt un uvút eet, neef zu bee dh-ads nút u-lat ur toa ŭtee aup-m daewn zu aurt. U

Thomasin. Waay dhae ur loa! Bigae ŭjud! Un haut daeds dhee dùe bút naew-ree ŭrt? Dhu hai nst ulaung dhi tuurn, dhu wúts 255 u-buus-n 11 tu shúv urz, neef eh-ad nút u-vuung 12 un, un u-puungd-n baak ugyun. Dhan dhu wút snaap ee, un dhan dhu wút kan eeflee, un dhan dhu wút blaug ee.

Wilmot. Un haut urt dhee? U brauk een muung grul, u skuul keen mai zl! Un eet u-voa'r aul,\* gèod vur noa'ŭrt bút skyèol ec, 13 260 uvoa'r 14 dh-aart u-oa zud dhut dhu kas 15 skee'ŭs yaep ee. Púdh u 16 dús dhaengk ún ee dhaeng-l gèod ee ur vút ee wi ún ee zich u truub úz 17 dhee aart—dhu dús 'n kee'ŭree tu zai dhi prae urz? 18—bút—wút 19

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This passage is obscure. I think it means, 'She might have fetched yet [i. e. been living still], if you had not [through your laziness] let her totter up and down so often.' *Moort* is not an uncommon form of *might*—it is more emphatic than the usual *mûd*.

<sup>11</sup> The *Torn*, *i. e.* the spinning-wheel, is spoken of here as masculine—*un*, -*n* = *him*. (See W. S. Gram., pp. 32, 36.)

<sup>12</sup> Vung is obsolete. The verb is quite common, but is now conjugated—pres., vang or (intr.) vang us; past, vangd or vang ud; p. part., u-vangd or u-vang ud = to hold, to seize.

<sup>13</sup> Spelt scull, l. 228; skull, l. 117.

<sup>14 &#</sup>x27;Until thou art hoarse.' See note 11, p. 35.

<sup>15</sup> Canst scarce(ly). This would generally be kas-n, i. e. canst not scarcely.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Spelt pitha elsewhere—l. 57.

 $<sup>^{17}</sup>$  Here we have es doing duty for as; elsewhere it stands for I, for us, for is, and he is.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> This should be *praa yurz*. Perhaps these scolds talked a little 'fine' now and then.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> The omission of the nom. pronoun is very common, and implies extreme familiarity or contempt, even more than when the second person singular is used. (See W. S. Gram., p. 35.)

strammee, and fibbee, and blazee, and bannee: And more an zo, wut
265 coltee and riggee wi' enny Troluber 1 that comath 2 athert tha.

And whan tha dest zey mun' 3 tis bet whilst tha art scrubbing, hewstring, and rittling abed. And nif by gurt Hap 4 tha dest zey mun at oll, thy Marrabones shan't 5 kneelee,—thof tha cast ruckee well a fine. 4 Tes a Marl if e'er tha comst to Hewn 7 270 only to zey men; 8 zence tha ne'er zest men, chell warndy, but whan tha art half azlape, half dozy, or scrubbing o' 9 thy scabbed Yess, whan tha art a coal-varting 10 abed, ya gurt Lollipot!—

Tha hasn't tha Sense to stile thy own Dressing. Vor why, et wel zet 11 arter tha, ether antlebeer 12 lick the Doorns of a Door, or 275 wotherway twel zet e-long or a 13 weewow, or oll a puckering. Tha zedst twos squelstring and whot 14 while'er. Ad! tha wet be mickled and a steeved wi' tha Cold vore 'T Andra's Tide, 15 Chun, nif tha dessent buy tha 16 a new Whittle.

Thomasin. Why, ya gurt Kickhammer Baggage! thee art 280 good vor no Sauce. Tha wut net 18 break the Cantlebone o' thy tether Eend 19 wi' chuering, 20 chell warndy; tha wut net take et zo vreache, ya sauntering Troant!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This epithet still common? Is it the parent of trolloper?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Camath in Ed. of 1771, but probably a misprint.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Them, i. e. prayers. Spelt mun, Il. 224, 266, 268, men twice in l. 270, and min in l. 419. (See W. S. Gram., note 2, p. 37.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Common expression = 'by great chance.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This is a peculiar though frequent use of *shall not*, and it is equivalent to never will or never do.

<sup>6</sup> i. e. 'though thou canst stoop down very well.' See note 8, p. 33.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> I have no idea what the transcriber meant to be the pronunciation of Hewn; heaven is always  $aeb \cdot m$ .

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm s}$  i. e. 'only by saying them '—an example of the common use of the infinitive for the gerund.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Here the transcriber has inserted the usual of after the gerundive (see note 13, p. 51), but he omits the prefix. It should be u-skruub een u.

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$  I cannot explain this phrase; it is quite obsolete and unknown, so far as I can ascertain.

 $<sup>^{11}</sup>$  In the Ed. of 1778, now reprinted, there is a clear misprint, zet wel et; in that of 1771 it is et wel zet. This is so evidently the true reading that it is adopted here.

 $i_2$  i. e. 'all across.' The simile is cumbrous, but therefore the more true.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) See Note in Page 13.

straam ee, un fúb'ee, un blae ŭzee, un ban'ee: Un moo'ŭr-n zoa, wút koa'ltee, un rig'ee wi ún'ee troa'luubur l' dhut kaum uth² udhuurt dhu. 265 Un haun dhu dús zai mún,³ taez bút wuy'ŭlz dh-urt skruub'een, eo'streen, un rút'leen u-bai'd. Un neef bi guurt aap 4 dhu dús zai mún ut aul, dhuy maar u-boo'ŭnz shaa'n 5 nee'ŭlee,—thauf dhu kas ruuk'ee wuul u faa'yn.6—Tez u maar ul neef ae'ŭr dhu kaums t-aeb m² uun'ee tu zai mún; s zaenz dhu nae'ŭr zaes mún, ch-úl waur'nd-ee, bút 270 haun dh-urt aa'f uzlai'p, aa'f doa'ŭzee, ur skruub'een u 9 dhi skab'ud yaes, haun dh-urt u-koa'l-vaar'teen 10 u-bai'd,\* yu guurt laul'ipaut! Dh-as-n dhu sai'ns tu stuy'ŭl dhi oa'ŭn dras'een. Vur wuy, út ul zút<sup>11</sup> aar'tur dhu, ai dhur an'tlbee'ŭr <sup>12</sup> lik dhu duurnz uv u doo'ŭr, ur waudh'urwai twúl zút ai'laung ur u <sup>13</sup> wee'wuw, ur aul u-puuk'ureen. 275 Dhu zaeds twuz skwuul'streen un aut <sup>14</sup> wuy'lae'ŭr. Ad! dhu wút bee u-mik'ld, un u-steev'ud wai dhu koa'l voa'r T-An'durz Tuyd, <sup>15</sup> Chun, neef dhu dús-n baay dhu <sup>16</sup> u nèo' wút'l.

Thomasin. Waay, yu guurt Kik'aam'ur Bag'eej! dhee urt-n noa gèo'd vur noa saars. <sup>17</sup> Dhu wút nút <sup>18</sup> braik dhi kan'tle-boa'un u dhuy 280 taedh'ur een <sup>19</sup> wi chèo'ureen, <sup>20</sup> ch-ul waurnd-ee; dhu wút nút tak ut zu vrai'ch, yu sau'ntureen troa'unt!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This a or u before an adverb is common, and is identical with the a in askew, awry, the lit. synonyms of a weewow—a word very frequently used in the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Whot in the text must be a misprint. There is no sound of w, and there never could have been.

<sup>St. Andrew's Day, November 30th.
This should have been baay dhi-zûl.</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> The text has but the ordinary literary negative. This is quite wrong—there would certainly be two and most probably three negatives in this clause, as written in the Glossic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> The negative here is emphatic, otherwise it would be dhu wut-n.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> A common expression signifying 'you are too lazy to hurt yourself.' That the tether or tother is not a modern provincialism, but veritable English, is certain. Vid. 'The Stacions of Rome' (Vernon MS., 1370 A.D.), E. E. T. Soc., ed. Furnivall, p. 3, l. 79—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;bat holy Mon 'Ananias. Him erisnet 'borw godes gras. And cleped him Poul 'petres brober. For be ton schulde 'cumforte be tober.'

<sup>20</sup> See note to chuers, l. 223.

283 Wilmot. Heigo! sauntering Troant than! vor why vore 2 dest tell wone, 3 than, o' tha Rex-bush, 4 and tha Hey-pook, and tha 285 Zess?

Thomasin. And why vore 5 dest thee drow vore zitch Spalls to me?—Go pey 6 tha Score vor tha Lecker tha hast a had zo ort in thy Teening Bottle.—There's a Rumple, 7 Chun!

Wilmot. Nif the young George Hosegood had a had the, he murt <sup>8</sup> 290 a hozed in a little Time. <sup>9</sup> Ha wud zoon ha' be' condidled.—Yeet a-vore oll, <sup>10</sup> a-vore Voak, <sup>11</sup> the wut lustree, and towzee, and chewree, and bucklee, and tear, make wise, <sup>12</sup> as <sup>13</sup> anybody passath; but out o' Zeert a spare <sup>14</sup> Totle in enny keendest Theng. <sup>15</sup>

Thomasin. Why, there's Odds <sup>16</sup> betwe' Sh—ng and Tearing <sup>295</sup> won's Yess. Wone mussent olweys be a boostering, must a <sup>217</sup>—But thee,—thee wut steehoppee, and colty, and hobby, and riggy, wi'enny Kesson <sup>18</sup> Zoul: Oll <sup>19</sup> vor whistering and pistering, and hoaling and halzening, or cuffing a Tale. <sup>20</sup>

Wilmot. Ad! tell me o' hobbing and rigging, chel vlee to  $^{21}$  tha 300 Kep  $^{22}$  o' tha. [Pulls her Poll.

Thomasin. Oh!—oh!— Mo-ather!— Mo-ather!— Murder!— Oh! Mo-ather!—Her hath <sup>23</sup> a chucked ma wi' tha Chingstey.—Es

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Then is as common in every-day talk as doch is in German. The expressions are the exact equivalents of each other.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This is simply the emphasised redundant preposition, = for why for,—quite distinct from the voar in droa voar just below, ll. 286, 309; the latter is an adverb. See note to I. 184.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The use of one as a pronoun is rare. The usual expression is ún ee baudĕe. (See W. S. Gram., pp. 38, 39.)

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  Rush-bush is still so pronounced except when a v is sounded—the common form—as vraeks-bèosh. (See W. S. Gram., p. 7.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This should have been Un vur waay voar. See note to ll. 184, 283.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This would now be broad *paay*. I fancy Miss Thomasin must have been talking 'fine' if she said *pai*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> This is obscure. I think it means there's your change!—there's a Rowland for an Oliver.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Might, spelt merst, l. 10. Obsolescent, but still used.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Time is much too literary. She would have said 'in a little bit,' but more probably 'a hozed in a quick stick.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Nevertheless—a very common phrase.

<sup>11</sup> Before folk, i. e. in the presence of strangers—still the regular idiom.

<sup>12</sup> i. e. 'make believe,' 'in pretence'—an every-day phrase.

Wilmot. Haay goa! sau ntureen troa unt dhun! vur waay voa r 2 283 dús tuul woon, dhan, u dhu raeks-bèosh un dhu aay-pèok, un dhu Zaes.

Thomasin. Un waay voa'r dús dhee droa voa'r zich spaa'lz tu mee? Goa pai 6 dhi skoa'r vur dhu lek'ur dh-ast u-ad zu aurt een dhi teen-een bau'tl.—Dhae'ŭrz u ruum'pl,7 Chun!

Wilmot. Neef dhu yuung Jaurj Oazgèod ud u-ad dhu, ee muurt <sup>8</sup> u-oa-ŭzd een u lee-dl tuym. <sup>9</sup> U wúd zeo-n u bee kuundúd·ld.—Eet 290 uvoa-r au·l, <sup>10</sup> uvoa-r voak, <sup>11</sup> dhu wút lèos-tree, un luw-zee, un chèo-ree, un buukl-ĕe, un tae-ŭr, mak wuyz, <sup>12</sup> uz <sup>13</sup> ún-ĕebaudĕe paa-suth; bud aewt u zee-ŭrt, u spac-ŭr <sup>14</sup> toa-tl cen ún-ĕe kee-ndĕes dhaeng. <sup>15</sup>

Thomasin. Waay, dhur-z audz <sup>16</sup> twĕe shuy-teen un tac ŭreen woonz Yaes. Woon muus n aul waiz bee u-bèo sturčen, muust u ? <sup>17</sup>— 295 Bud dhee ,—dhee wút stee aupĕe, un koa ltĕe, un aub ĕe, un rig ĕe wai ún ĕe Kaes n <sup>18</sup> Soa ·l: Aul <sup>19</sup> vur wús turcen un pús turcen, un oa lĕen un aal znĕen, ur kuuf een u tac ·ul. <sup>20</sup>

Wilmot. Ad! tuul mee u aubreen un rigreen, ch-úl vlee tu <sup>21</sup> dhu kep <sup>22</sup> u dhu. [*Pèolz ur poarl.* 300

Thomasin. Oa!—óa!—Mau'dhur!— Mau'dhur!—Muur'dur!— Oh! Mau'dhur!— Uur-dh<sup>23</sup> u-chuuk mu wi dhu chee nstai.—Es

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This is an undoubted literaryism—as in this sense is not used. *Haun* (when) or *eens* would be the vernacular idiom. (See W. S. Gram., p. 66.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Spare is the usual word to express slow, dilatory. A 'spare workman' is a slow one. Gardeners talk of certain plants as 'spare growers.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Common expression = anything whatever.

<sup>16</sup> i. e. a great difference. A very frequent comparison is dhik-s bad'r (or wis) bi audz; 'that one is better (or worse) by odds,' i. e. by a great difference.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Must one? the common form. (See W. S. Gram., p. 96.)  $\Lambda$  very good example of the use of this, the natural vowel, for the indefinite pers. pron.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> This is a very common phrase. Ben Jonson has ('Tale of a Tub,' Act II. sc. ii.)—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Clay. No, as I am a Kyrsin soul, would I were,' &c.

<sup>19</sup> See note to l. 201.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> Tale is a word seldom heard. Here in the text, and whenever now employed in the dialect, it means piece of scandal. At present the word more commonly used is stoa'r (story)—'There's a pretty stoar about her.'

<sup>21</sup> Always fly to, not at.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> Cap is pronounced very short, almost kp, in N. Dev.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Hath is quite literary—the pronunciation is always uur-dh. Eedh = he hath.

303 verly bleive es chell <sup>1</sup> ne'er vet <sup>2</sup> et.—And nif's don't vet et, looks zee, in a Twelvemonth and a Dey, <sup>3</sup> Cuzzen Kester Broom chell <sup>1</sup> zee 305 tha a trest up a Ground. <sup>4</sup>—He chell <sup>1</sup> zee tha zwinged, fath! <sup>5</sup>

#### Enter the Old Julian Moreman.

Julian. Labbe, labbe, Soze,<sup>6</sup> labbe.—Gi' o'er, gi' o'er;\*—Tamzen and Thee be olweys wother egging or veaking,<sup>7</sup> jawing or sneering, blazing or racing, kerping or speaking cutted, chittering or drowing vore o' Spalls, purting or jowering, 310 yerring or chounting, taking Owl o' wone Theng or Pip o' tether, chockling or pooching, ripping up or roundshaving wone tether,<sup>9</sup> stivering or grizzling, tacking or busking, a prilled or a muggard, blogging or glumping, rearing or snapping, vrom Candle-douting to Candle-teening <sup>10</sup> in tha Yeavling,—315 gurt Hap else.<sup>11</sup>

## So ends the SCOLDING.

<sup>1</sup>\_1\_1 This must be wrong. According to the text it would read I I shall. Instead of *chell* it should be *shall* in the text. In Ed. of 1771 it is *shell*, the true reading.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See note to vút, l. 253.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is in reference to the old custom of sentencing women to be hung after a twelvementh and a day.

<sup>4</sup> i. e. trussed up above ground—hanged.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Still the commonest of all expressions of asseveration = by my faith. (See W. S. Dialect, p. 95.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The transcriber is quite correct in spelling this word with s and not z (see W. S. Dialect, p. 73), but it should have been *soce*, not *soze*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> This word being quite obsolete, I do not know if it is vee \(\delta keen\) or vai keen.

<sup>8</sup> This is a common word. Vide John of Trevisa, 'Description of Britain, De incolarum linguis' (ed. Morris and Skeat), p. 241—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Mellyng furst wip Danes & afterward wip Normans in menye be contray longage ys apeyred, & som vseb strange wlaffyng, chyteryng, harryng & garryng, grisbittyng.'

By this we see that the use of strings of participles is by no means peculiar to the last century or to the 'Exmoor Scolding,' especially considering the above is an extract from the sober literature of the period (1387).

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) Speaking to Wilmot, who had pulled Thomasin's Cap.

vuur-lče blai'v es shúl ¹ núv'ur vút ² ut.—Un neefs doa'n vút ut, lèok-s 303 zee', een u twuul-muunth un u dai,³ Kuuz'n Kaes'tur Brèo'm sh-l ¹ zee dhu u-trúst aup u graewnd.⁴—Ee shl ¹ zee dhu-zwingd, faa'th !  $^5$  305

## Ai ntur dh-oa l Jue l-yun Muur mun.

Julian. Lab'ĕe, lab'ĕe, soa'ŭs, 6 lab'ĕe.—Gi oa'ŭr, gi'oa'ŭr:\* Taam-zeen un dhee bee aul'waiz wuudh'ur ag'een ur vee'ŭkeen, 7 jau'een ur snee'ŭreen, blae'ŭzeen ur rae'ŭseen, kyuur'peen ur spai'keen kuut'ud, chút'ureen 8 ur droa'een voa'r u spaa'lz, puur'teen ur jaa'wureen, yuur'een ur chaewn'teen, tak'een Owl u wan dhaeng ur púp u 310 taedh'ur, chauk'leen ur pèo'cheen, rúp'een aup ur raewn'shee'uveen wan taedh'ur, 9 stúv'ureen ur guur'zleen, taak'een ur buus'keen, u-prûld ur u-muug'urd, blaug'een ur gluum'peen, rae'ŭreen ur snaap'een, vrum kan'l-duw'teen tu kan'l-teen'een 10 een dhu Yai'vlĕen,—guurt haap uuls. 11

#### Zoa ai nz dhu $SKOA \cdot LDEEN$ .

& pat fole pat stod aboute. Here taperes perof tende.'

In both places the verb is in the past tense. The e may have been pronounced long, and if so it is identical with our teen.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> One another. The more common form is wan ur tacdh'ur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> i. e. candle-lighting, the evening. To teen a light is still a common expression. We find the word twice in the 'Life of St. Dunstan,' Rob. of Glouc., 1298 A.D. (ed. Morris and Skeat), pp. 19, 20. Speaking of his mother's miraculous taper—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;per-of hi tende here list.
Alle in pe place.
What was put oure Louerd Crist.
pe list fram heuene sende.

in This is quite vernacular and very common. It is here the alternative of the always at the beginning of this long sentence,—i. e. always, either, &c., &c.—great chance if otherwise.

## POSTSCRIPT.

THE whole of the foregoing pages were in type and printed before I had an opportunity of comparing the later editions with the earlier I had two or three editions in my possession, one of which was a copy formerly belonging to Sir F. Madden; in this are many notes in his handwriting, and signed by him; from which I gave extracts in my Preface. I believed that I might rely in the main upon so careful a person, especially when he made so positive a statement as that quoted in my note to p. 11; and I therefore took it for granted, that as there were but very few and slight variations between Sir F. Madden's copy of 1771 and mine of 1788, from which the text is reprinted, I might accept his assertion as substantially correct, although I ventured in my note (p. 11) to question its entire accuracy. Relying upon Sir F. Madden I suffered the proofs which I had read to be printed—but having now compared the reprint with the First Edition as it appeared in the Gentleman's Magazine, the Third edition in the Bodleian, and the Fourth in the British Museum, I find that I am obliged to subjoin the following list of variations, which will be found to be strangely opposed to Sir F. Madden's Fortunately the Courtship was not so far advanced —consequently the most important of different readings are dealt with It is true that the variations are generally confined to in the notes. single letters in the spelling of words, and may therefore have been thought trifling, but in a great many cases the student will find the change of much importance. In the very first line is a case in point the second vor, I knew well, must be accentuated, and therefore in writing it into Glossic had so marked it. The author knew this too, and so wrote in his First Edition, vor why vore. Again, in 1. 104, the

first Four Editions have nif's vauther, which means if his father instead of the nif vauther found in the later editions. If father of course implies our father. The difference is immense; in the first case the taunt is conveyed that 'his father prevented the match, because you were not good enough for his son.' In the later text all this piquancy of abuse is diluted by making it appear that the father of Thomasin, whom Wilmot is abusing, had prevented it.

On the other hand, some of the variations are undoubted corrections of much value.

In the following list the readings (unless specially referred to) are those of the First, Third, and Fourth Editions, which are dated respectively 1746, 1746 (three editions in one year), and 1750; of these, the two latter are almost exact reprints of the former.

The figures opposite each line denote which edition, in my opinion, has the true reading, if the difference is of any moment.

In many cases my notes upon the text will be found to be entirely confirmed by earlier readings.

Line				Line		
1	read	vor why vore	1	76-8	read	zitch for zich
3	,,	zitch for zich		77	,,	wastecoat for waistecoat
4	"	betoatled for betwatled	1	78-9		strat for strait 1
11	,,	will'st for wutt	9	82	"	tann for tan
11	,,	bet for but	1	85	,,	add for ad
12	,,	zee whare for zee nif	1	85	,,	squeak'st for squeakest
16	"	zwopping for zwapping	1	90	,,	dedst for dest
18	,,	is for ise	1	91	"	losting for losing 1
21	,,	ghowering for jowering		$^{-92}$	,,	out to for out a
28	,,	tonty for twonty	9	93	"	a word for zey a word
30	,,	meazel for meazle		98	"	zitch for zich
32	,,	zest for zess	9	104	77	nif's vauther for nif
<b>4</b> 0	,,	zower-zwaped	9	1		vauther 1
42	29	know for knowth	9	105	,,	strat for strad, IV. ed. only
43	"	heavy for yeavy	1	106	;;	ya for ye, I. and III. ed.;
<b>4</b> 6	"	hobbey for hobby				ye in IV.
50	"	vore-reert for vore-reet	1	107	"	olweys <i>for</i> always
54	,,	he-at-stool for yheatstoo	19	112	,,	ay, ya! for ay, ay! 9
55	,,	chun for mun		120	"	vramp-shapen for vramp-
57	,,	think for thenk	9			shaken 1
58	"	haggage-tooth'd for hag	_	122	"	bevore for bevoor
		tooth'd	9	123	"	zo for so
73	,,	thy zell for thyzel		123	,,	avoore for avore

Line	,		Lin	e		
127	read	can'st net for cassent 9	218	read	yet for yeet	
128	,,	reert for reart	220	,,	dedst for dest	1
130	"	ya for ye	224	,,	yewmors for yemors	ì
133	"	comest for com'st	224	"	men for mun	Î
134	,,	wos for was	229	"	agest for agast	9
138	,,	reazanable for reaznable	229	"	wut vore for wut zo vore	
143	"	doatee for doattee		77	IV. ed. only	4
143	,,	chimly for chimley	229		an a'en for thy een	9
150	"	herrtily for heartily	230	"	old muxy Ount Sybly	1
151		out-reert for up-reert 1	235	"	yess o' for yess of	1
151	"	borst for bust 9	237	"	ya mulligrub for ya gur	
152	"	trapesee for trapsee 1	242	"		
155	"	head for aead 1	245	,,	pounding o' savin	1
158-	" 999		247	"	drow't for drow'et	1
100-	-233		248	"	Mrs. Hi-go-shit-a-beagle	
150		hanged 1	1	**	drow for drew	1
$\frac{159}{159}$	"	placad for plasad 9	250	"	e'ry for e'ery	
	"	crowdling for crewdling 9	250	"	houze for houz	
160	"	lundging for lunging	251	>>	absently for abslently	9
161	"	twitch for twich	252	"	et for it	
161	"	drow for draw 1	254	"	dest for dedst	1
162	"	tha for the least	256	**	chat for chad	9
163	"	zinnet for zennet 9	257	,,	cunniflee for canifflee	
166	"	jest for just 1	263	"	as for es	1
168	"	ded net for dedent	263	,,	cary for caree	
171	,,	windvalls for winavalls 9	266-	-268	men 'tes for mun' tis	1
178-	-179	I for es	267	,,	ritling for rittling	
184	**	slotters for zlotters	273	"	et twul for et wel	1
188	,,	tha for the	275	,,	wotherwey twul zet along	1
196-	-212-	-222 veather <i>for</i> vauther	275	**	weewow for a weewow	9
197	**	or hand-beating for	276	,,	wut for wet	
		Shandbeeating	278	,,	dest net for dessent	9
202	,,	goest for goast	280	,,	sauze for sauce	
207	,,	ees for es 1	280	,,	tha for the	
210	,,	nated for natted	283	,,	Higo! for Heigo!)	
211	,,	leet for leetle 1	284	,,	dedst for dest	
212	,,	cometh for comath	286	,,	zetch for zitch	1
213	,,	question't for quesson't 9	289	,,	ha for he	1
213	,,	yeo for yoe	290	,,	it for yeet	1
213	,,	be for by [o'en	292	"	and for but	1
214	"	heend legs for heend legs	293	,,	toatle for totle	1
214-		bet for but	295	"	wone's for won's	
214	,,	tad for ted	295		must net for mussent'	9
215	"	as uzeth for as ha uzeth	296	"	steehoppy for steehopped	
217	"	wraxled and rattled—'and	300	"	kepp for kep	
,	"	twinned' in III. ed. only	302	"	ees for es	1
				77	J	-

Line			Line	Line			
304	read				sherking for sneering	1	
306	,,	Gi' o'er, gi' o'er, Tam'zen.	309	"	ghowering for jowering		
		And thee be—	311	"	t'ather for tether	1	
307	"	agging for egging 1	312	,,	grizzeling for grizzlng		
307	,,	gawing for jawing 9	314	"	yeaveling for yeavling		

While collating these early texts of the "Scolding" and "Court-ship," I came upon the letters by Devoniensis referred to in pp. 9, 10. These letters are so important, and the original Vocabulary referred to in them never having been reprinted, it has been thought best to reproduce them in full, even though a portion of the matter will be found to be repeated in the Notes and Vocabulary issued with the Seventh Edition (1771).

August 1746.—Gentleman's Magazine, vol. xvi. p. 405. "Exon, Aug. 12, 1746.

"MR. URBAN.

"On perusing those curious pieces, the Exmoon Courtship and Scolding, in your Magazines, I find several words marked with an asterisk, as wanting an explanation; and having heretofore liv'd a good while within a few miles of the forest of Exmoor\* where that dialect is spoken, and heard a good deal of it, I well remember in what sense all those words are used; which induc'd me to draw up the inclos'd Vocabulary, for the service of your readers in other parts, and perhaps it may afford some help to their under-

standing of old books.

"I have added several words that are not to be found in either the Exmoor Scolding or Courtship (though not less common in that quarter), and I believe I could recollect as many more if they would be acceptable. You will in this vocabulary find all the words that you have mark'd, and you may depend on the truth of my explanation of every one except two, of which being in doubt, I have mark'd them with a Q. (Boneshave—horry). It may not be amiss to observe that tho' it is call'd a Devonshire Dialect it is not the dialect of the whole county, and that it would be as unintelligible to the inhabitants of the southern parts of it as to a citizen of London. Every county, doubtless, has its peculiar dialect, which, among the vulgar, and those who are far removed from the more considerable towns, is generally barbarous enough; and therefore Devonshire is no more to be ridiculed on that account, than any other large county; for I dare affirm that there is as good English in general spoken in some parts of Devonshire as in any part of England.

\* This forest is in Somersetshire, and is called Exmoor from the river Ex having there its rise.

"I can't help observing that the Transcriber of the Exmoor Courtship has committed some blunders, having used the word Thek in many places where an Exmoorian would have said That, and the V instead of F, &c. For though it be very common with them to change F into V, S into Z, Th into D, &c., yet there are a great many words in which they never make this change, as Flush, Fashion, Fine, Sea, Soul, Sad, Sarrant (i. e. Servant), Third, and many others. It should be observed that they use To instead of At; Ise, ees, and ich for I; I cham or 'cham for I am; 'Chell for I shall, &c.; which was once the general mode of proper speaking throughout the kingdom, and may be found in many ancient English authors.

"I am, &c.

"Devoniensis."

A Vocabulary of the Exmoor Dialect containing all such words in the Exmoor Scolding and Courtship, the meaning of which does not appear by the sense; with the addition of some others; all accented on their proper syllables, to show the Method of their Pronunciation. (With NOTES.)

Ag'est, or ag'ast, afraid.

\* Agging, murmuring, raising quarrels.

\* 'egging, or 'egging-on, is an expression frequently used in most counties, perhaps, to spur on, from aigu, Fr. a point of a spur, or needle.

'Alkithole, a fool, a silly oaf.

'Allernbatch (probably of Allderp, elder, and Bosse, a botch), a kind of botch or old sore.

A-pu'rt, sullen.

Aqu'ott, see Quott.

Art, eight.

Arteen, cighteen.

Avro're, frosty.

A'xen, ashes.

A'xwaddle, a dealer in ashes, and, sometimes, one that tumbles in them. Azoon, anon.

Bagga'ged, or Byga'ged, mad, bewitch'd.

To Bank, to beat.

Banging, large, great.

B'arngun, a breaking out in small pimples, or pustles in the skin.

Ba'rra, or Ba'rrow, a gelt pig.

To the true Ben, or Bend (possibly of Bendan, Sax. to stretch out, to yield to). To the purpose, or sufficiently, to the utmost stretch.

Bewhiver'd, lost to ones self, bewilder'd.

Biird, or Berd, bread.

Blaking, erying till out of breath.

Blazing, spreading abroad news.

To Blo'ggy, to be sullen.

Blo'wmaunger, a fat blow-checked person.

B'oneshave, (perhaps from bone spavin, a bony crust growing on a horse's heels, or the scratches), a kind of horny tumour. Q.

Bo'ostering, labouring busily, so as to sweat.

Bourm, yeest.

Br'andires, a trivet.

Brawn, or Broan, a cleft of wood for the fire.

\* [As a seem of braunds, is a horseload of billet-wood; a rick of brands is a stack of wood cleft for the fire; so woaken, or elmen braunds, means oak or elm billets.]

Briss, dust.

Broach, a spit, spindle.

Buckard, or Bucked (spoken of milk) sourcd by keeping too long in the milk-bucket, or by a foul bucket.

Buldering (weather,) sultry, hot.

Burnish, to grow fut, or increase in bulk, look bright, rosy.

Butt, a bee-butt, or hive.

Cat-ham'd, fumbling, without dexterity.

Ca'uchery, a medicinal composition, or slop.

Champ, a scuffle.

Cha'nnest, to challenge.

Cha'ngeling, an idiot, one whom the fairies have changed.

Chaunge, a shirt, or shift.

Cho'ckling, \*hectoring, scolding.

Cho'unting, quarrelling.

Chu'er, a chare, or jobb of work.

Clathing, clothes.

Clavel, a chimney-piece.

Cloam, earthen-ware.

Coad, unhealthy.

Coajerze'end (i. e. a cordwainer's end), a shoemaker's thread.

Coander, a corner.

Co'ckleett (i. e. cock-light) day-break, or (sometimes) the dusk of the evening.

Cod-glove, a thick glove without fingers, to handle turf. Condiddled, dispers'd.

Conkabell, an 'icicle, [in the' Somerset dialect Clinkabell].

Copper - clouts, a kind of splatter dashes, worn on the small of the leg.

To Cotten, to beat one soundly.

To Creem, to squeeze, or press together.

Cr'ewnting, grunting, or complaining.

Crock, a pot.

Crowd, a violin.

Crowdling, slow, dull, sickly.

Cruh, or Croust, a crust of bread or cheese.

Cu'ffing, expounding on (applied to a tale).

Culvers, pigeons.

Daps, likeness [the very daps of one, the exact likeness in shape, or manners.]

Dear'd, hurried, frighten'd, stunn'd. Dem! you slut.

Dimmet, the dusk of the evening.

Dinder, thunder.

Dinderex, a thunder-bolt.

Dorns, doorposts.

Do'veth, it thaws.

Dowl, the devil.

Dreade, thread, and in general all Dree, three, words beginning with Th sound D instead thereof.

To Dron, to dry.

Drumbledrane, a drone [or humble bee.]

Du'bbed, blunt.

Du'gged, or Duddled, draggle-tail'd.

Eart one, eart to'ther, now one, then the other.

E'el-thing, or Ill-thing, St. Anthony's fire.

El'ewn, eleven.

E'long, slanting.

Elt, see Ilt.

Ewte, to pour in.

Fitchole, a polecat [fitcher or fitchet in other counties].

Foust, dirty.

Full - stated, spoken of a leasehold estate, that has three lives subsisting on it.

Fustiluggs, a big-bon'd person.

Ga'llied, frighten'd.

Ga'llibagger, a bug-bear.

Ga'lliment, a great fright.

Ga'mmerell, the small of the leg.

G'and or G'ender, go yonder.

G'anny, a turkey.

G'a'owing, chiding.

Ga'pesnest, a raree show, a fine sight.

Geed, gave.

Ghe'wering or Jowering, quarrelsome.

Ginged, or Jinged, bewitch'd.

Gint or Jynt, joint.

Girred, drahgle-tail'd.

Glam, a wound or sore.

Glo'wing, staring.

Glu'mping, sullen, or sour-looking.

Griddle, a grid-iron.

Grizzledemundy, a laughing fool, one that grins at everything.

Grizzling, laughing, smiling.

Gubb, a pandar, or go-between.

Gurt, great.

Gu'ttering, eating greedily [guttling].

Ha'ggage, a slattern.

Ha'lzening, predicting the worst that

can happen.

Hanje or Hange, the purtenance of any creature [in Somerset, lamb's head and purt'nance, is the head,

heart, liver and lights].

Ha'ntick, frantick.

Hare, her, also us'd for she.

Harrest, harvest.

II'awchamouth, one that talks indecently.

Ha'wthern, a kind of hitch, or pin, cut out in an erect board, to hung a coat on, or the like.

To Henn, to throw.

He'wstring, short-breath'd, wheezing.

Horry, mouldy. Q.

To Hoppy, to hop, or caper.

Ho'zee, to be badly off.

Hu'ckmuck, a little tiny fellow [thick stubbed].

Hucksheens, the hocks, or hams.

Husking, shuffling and shrinking up one's shoulders.

Jacketawa'd, an Ignis Fatuus.

Ilt, or Elt, a gelt sow.

Kee, kine, or cows.

Kep, a cap.

Kerping, carping, finding fault.

Kittepacks, a kind of buskins.

Labb, a blab.

To Lackee, to be wanting from home.

Lamps'd, lam'd or hurted.

Lathing, invitation.

Leech-way, the path in which the dead are carried to be buried.

Le'ery, empty, unloaden.

Loblolly, an odd mixture of spoonmeat.

Lock! What! Hey day !

Loff, low.

Lo'ngcripple, a viper.

Looze, a hog-sty.

To Loustree, to work hard.

Lowing, piling up one thing on another.

To Lundge, to lean on anything.

Lymptwigg, a lapwing.

Malls, the measles.

Marl, a marvel, a wonder.

Mass, acorns [mast].

Maz'd, mad, crazy, [so a maz'd man for madman].

Mews, moss.

Min, or Men, them, e.g. Put min up, i.e. Put them up.

Moyle, a mule.

To Moyley, to labour hard like a mule.

Muggard, sullen.

Muggotts, chitterlings, also a calf's pluck.

To Mull, to pull and tumble one about.

Mux, chit.

Neeald, a needle.

Niddick, the nape of the neck.

Ninniwatch, a longing desire or expectation of a thing.

Nose-gigg, a toe-piece on a shoe.

O'avis, the eeves of a house.

Over, material, important, e.g. I have an over errand to you (p. 298 II).

To take Owl, to take amiss.

Ownty, empty.

Pa'ddick, a toad.

To Pa'ddle, to tipple.

Pa'lching, patching or mending clothes.

Palching, walking slowly.

Pame, a christening blanket, a mantle.

Pa'ncrock, an earthern pan.

Pa'nking, panting.

Pa'rbeaking, fretful.

Peek, a prong, or pitchfork.

Pestle, or leg, of pork.

Pilm, dust raised by the wind.

To Ping, to push.

Pingzwill, a boyl.

To take Pip at a thing, to take it ill.

Pistering, whispering.

Pixy, a fairy.

Pla'sad, in a fine condition.

To Plim, to swell, or encrease in bulk, or to make anything swell by beating.

Plump, a pump.

Po'dger, a platter or pewter dish.

To Po'mster, to act the emperick.

To Po'ochee, to make mows at a person.

Pook, a cock of hay.

To Po'tee, to push with ones feet.

Prill'd, sour'd.

Prinked, well dress'd, fine, neat.
To Pritch, to check, or withstand.

+ [A term for making holes in the leathers of cards to admit the wire.]

Pro'sets, buskins.

Pung, push'd.

Purting or a-pu'rt, sullen.

Putch, to hand up (pitch), sheaves or the like with a pitch-fork.

Qu'elstring, hot, sultry [sweltry].

Querking, grunting.

Quott, or Aquott, weary of eating; also sat down.

Rabble-rote, a repetition of a long story, a tale of a tub.

Ragr'owtering, playing at romps.

Ranish, ravenous.

Rathe (not rear, as Gay has it), early, soon, e.g. a leet rather, i.e. a little while ago, a little sooner; [why do you op so rathe; or rise so early].

To Ream, to stretch.

Rearing, mocking, by repeating another's words with disdain, or the like.

Reart, right.

Re'arting (i.e. righting) mending.

Rexen, rushes.

To Rey ones self, to dress ones self [aray].

Ripping one up, telling him all his faults.

Rittling, wheazing [quasi rattling].

Roundshaving, chiding exceedingly.
Rumple, a large debt contracted by little and little, [Somersetshire, 'Twill come to a rumple, a breaking, at last].

To Scorse or Scoace, to exchange.

Sewent or Suent, even, regular, all alike.

Sheenstrads, splatterdashes.

Sherking or sharking, an eager desire to cheat or defraud another.

To take a Shoard, to drink a cup too much.

Shool, a shovel.

To shoort, to shift for a living.

Siss, a great fat woman.

Skotch or Squotch, a notch.

Slotter, nastiness.

To Sowl, to tumble ones clothes, to pull one about, &c.

Spalls, chips, also things cast in ones teeth.

Spare, slow.

Spewring, a boarded partition.

Sprey, spruce, ingenious.

To Sp'udlee, to stir or spread a thing abroad,

Squelstring, sultry.

Ste'ehopping, playing the hobby-horse.

Stewardly, like a good housewife.

Ste'yan or Stean, an earthern pot, like a jar.

To Stile or Stilee, to iron clothes.

Stirrups, a kind of buskins.

Stra'mmer, a great lye.

Stro'aking, milking after a calf has suck'd.

Stroil, strength and agility.

A good Stubb, a large sum of money.

Sture, a steer, also a dust raised.

Su'ffing, sobbing.

Swill, to swallow down ones throat.

Swillet, growing turf set on fire for manuring the land.

Ta'llet (i.e. top-loft) a hay loft.

Ta'nbaste or Ta'nbase, scuffling, struggling.

Taply or Tapely, early in the morning.

Tatchy, peevish.

Teaster, the canopy of a bed.

Ted or Tet, to be ordered or permitted to do a thing, as I Ted go home, i.e. I am to go home.

Terra, a turf.

To Turvee, to struggle and tumble, to get free.

Tetties (from Teats), breasts.

Thek, or Th'eckee, or The'cka this is (generally, not always) us'd for That when it is a pronoun demonstrative, but never when it is a pronoun relative, or a conjunction, in which cases Thet or Thate is the word us'd.

Therle, gaunt, lean.

To Thir, Thear, Der, Dear or Dere, to frighten, hurt or strike dead.

Tho, then, at that time.

Thumping, great, huge.

To Ting, to chide severely.

To'tle, a slow, lazy person.

To'tling, slow, idle.

Tourn, a spinning wheel.

To Toze, to pull abroad wool, &c.

Troant, a foolish fellow, and sometimes a lazy loiterer, a truant.

Trolubber, a husbandman, a day-labourer.

Trub, a slut (not a little squat woman, as Bailey has it).

Twine, packthread.

To Vang, to take or receive.

To Vang to, to stand sponsor to a child.

Ve'aking, fretfulness, peevishness.

Vi'gging, see Potee.

Vinnied, mouldy.

Vinny, a scolding-bout.

To Vit, to dress (meat, &c).

Vitty, decent, handsome, well.

Umber, number.

Voor, a furrow.

Vore, forth.

To drow Vore, to twit one with a fault.

Vo're-days or Voar-days, late in the day.

Vore-reert, forth-right, without circumspection.

Upaze't, in perfection.

Upze'tting, a gossiping, or christening feast.

Vung, receiv'd.

Vull-sta'tad, see Full-stated.

Vurdin, a farthing.

Vur-vore, far, forth.

Wa'ngery, flabby.

Wa'shamouthe, a blabb.

Wa'shbrew, flummery.

Wassa'il, a drinking song on twelfthday eve, throwing toast to the apple trees in order to have a fruitful year; which seems to be a relick of a heathen sacrifice to Pomona.

Wassail, or Was-heil, to wish health.

See Observat. on Macbeth, p. 41. We'therly, with rage and violence.

Whe'rret, a great blow; Whi'sterpoop \( \) (perhaps a back-hand

Whitwich, a pretended conjurer that discovers, and sells, charms for witchcraft.

Who't jecomb, what d'ye call him.

Whott, hot.

Why-vore, or for why vore, wherefore. Zowl, a plough.

Wop, a wasp.

Wraxling, wrestling.

Yallow beels or Yellow boys, guineas.

Yead, head.

Ye'aveling, evening.

Yees, eyes.

Yeevil, a dung-fork.

Ye'rring, noisy.

Ye'wmors, embers, hot ashes.

Yeo, an ewe.

Zennet, a week, a sev' night.

Zess, a pile of sheaves in a barn.

Zew, a sow.

Zewnteen, seventeen.

Zigg, urine.

Zinnyla, son-in-law.

Zive, a scythe.

Zo'werswopped, ill-natur'd.

"I could muster up many more words in this barbarous dialect, but

### Ne quid nimis.

"Devon"

"What is between hooks [ ], and the notes, is an addition to the Vocabulary; and we hope will not offend the author."

Gentleman's Magazine, November 1746, p. 567.

" Exon, Sept. 15, 1746.

"SIR,

"On perusing the Exmoor Scolding, I find the following words marked with an asterisk, which are omitted from the Vocabulary.

"Yours, &c.

"DEVONIENSIS."

Angle-bowing, a method of fencing the grounds, wherein sheep are kept (in and about Exmoor), by fixing rods, like bows, with both ends in the ground, where they make angles with each other; somewhat like the following figure.



Antle-beer, cross wise, irregular.

Cunniffling, dissembling, flattering.

Dwalling, talking nonsense, or as if delirious.

Eart, or Aert (i.e. oft), but generally used of now and then, as eart this way, eart that way, i.e. now this way, now that way.

Hoazed! timely off [spoken ironically], also hoarse.

Jibb, a stiller to fix a barrel of liquor on.

Lathing or Leathing, invitation.

Lipped, loose, free; and sometimes the breaking out of stitches in needlework, or the like.

Ort, ought, anything.

Ort, Orten, often. See Eart.

Rigging, playing the hobby-horse.

Stertlee, to startle, or hop up and down, or the like.

Trub, signifies not only a sluttish woman, but is sometimes masculine, and denotes a slovenly looby.

Widford, a widower.

## Gentleman's Magazine, Dec. 1746, p. 644.

" Exon, Dec. 8, 1746.

"SIR,

"Having lately been in the north parts of our county, I enquired the meaning of the word boneshave which I was doubtful of, and I find 'tis the Sciatica; so that I was mistaken in my conjecture (p. 64). I send you a ridiculous charm which they use for curing it. Had I leisure I believe I could trace the etymology of many of our Devonshire words, and show that the worst part of the dialect is not so barbarous as that of Lancashire.

"A charm for the Boneshave (as the Exmoorians, who often use

it, call the Sciatica).

'The patient must lie on his back on the bank of a river or brook of water, with a straight staff by his side, between him and the water; and must have the following words repeated over him:—

Bone-shave right; Bone-shave straight; As the water runs by the stave Good for Bone-shave. In the name, &c.'

"They are not to be persuaded but that this ridiculous form of words seldom fails to give them a perfect cure.

"Devoniensis."

I have never been able to meet with a second Edition of the Scolding and Courtship, nor of the fifth or sixth; but although the dialogues first appeared in a Magazine in July 1746, yet the third

edition, a square 12mo., of which a copy is in the Bodleian, bears date 1746—showing that the demand arose immediately after the first publication. In this third edition the two dialogues are both printed, but with separate titles, no mention being made of the Courtship upon the title-page of the Scolding, which is however put first in the pamphlet.

The same applies to the *fourth* edition, of which a copy is in the British Museum, dated 1750. This fourth edition is by far the most sumptuous I have seen; it is small 4to., large type, and has a frontispiece representing two men and a woman in a disordered house. Tables are upset and dishes broken, but there is no incident in the dialogues which can by any stretch of imagination be supposed to be illustrated. The printer, Andrew Brice, Exeter, is the same as the publisher of the *third* edition, who is said by Sir J. Bowring to be one of the authors. This copy bears the name "W. Upcott," and appears at some time also to have belonged to Sir F. Madden, who has written:—

- "Bought of Bradbury, No. 2 Mortimer St., 22nd. Feby. 1850.
- "I never saw another copy, and I have made large collections on the subject. "F. Madden."

Besides this curious fourth edition the British Museum has three copies of the seventh (1771) (which seems to be the commonest now remaining of those printed in the last century), but no other. In the Bodleian, besides the third edition (1746) there is the seventh (1771) and a reprint of the seventh dated 1793. This last is printed in double columns, thus explained on the title-page:

"To which is adjoined a Collateral Paraphrase in Plain English for explaining barbarous words and Phrases."

T. Brice, Exeter, is the Printer, but he has omitted all the notes and the vocabulary found in the editions of 1771 and onwards.

In the Bodleian is also an exact reprint of T. Brice's issue, but the title has "To which is prefixed a translation of the same into plain English"—

"Exeter,—J. McKenzie & Son"
"Price only three pence"
1795.

This last was probably a piracy upon Brice, whose issue is priced "four pence."

-I hoped to have found in this paraphrase some help towards explaining the words not found in the vocabulary, but the entire translation into "plain English" is utterly worthless and beneath contempt.

The Bodleian also possesses a "New Edition" "containing marginal notes, and a vocabulary at the End for explaining uncouth Expressions, and interpreting barbarous words and phrases." Exeter.

"Reprinted from an Edition of 1771 by Penny & Son." 1818.

The dialogues may now be bought at the Railway Book Stalls, apparently reprinted from the ed. of 1771, with the preface and vocabulary, price sixpence.

In the *Monthly Magazine*, Sept. 1814, p. 126, is a letter which may well be reproduced here, inasmuch as it throws light upon the pronunciation of the *ch* when used for the first person singular.

Monthly Magazine, September 1814, p. 126.

"SIR,

"Seeing lately in your Magazine a list of provincial words used in Essex, and a wish subjoined that your correspondents resident in different places would transmit such lists from their respective counties, I beg leave to offer to your notice the following scanty vocabulary of the provincial words of Somerset, together with a short essay on the dialect of this county, which I hope will not be deemed altogether unworthy of notice.

"Somersetiensis."

" Taunton, July, 1814."

#### VOCABULARY.

Ar'quefy, argue.
Aus'ney, to anticipate bad news.
Brack, flaw.
Doff, take off.
Dout, put out, extinguish.
Dumps, twilight.
Dumpy, short, squat.

Gabey, Gawkey, simpleton.

Hell, to pour.

Hend, to throw.

Latch, fancy, wish.

Lie-a-bier, lie-dead.

Lissom, active.

Swant, proper.

Thick, that.

Tottle, totter.

Trapes, slut.

\* Upsetting, christening.

Wap, to beat.

"These marked thus \* pe

"Those marked thus \* peculiar to Exmoor.

"It is a very common observation that the pronunciation of Somerset is more vitiated than that of any other county, so much so that a thorough-bred Somerset-man is with difficulty understood in various parts of England. The cause of this does not consist so much, I think, in the use of provincial words, the inhabitants of this county not making use of so many as those of various other counties, but from a mispronunciation of those words which they make use of. has always been my opinion that this fault arises in a great measure from a sort of indolence which prevents the people of Somerset from making use of those consonants which require an effort to articulate well, such as f and s, and relaxing into v and z, as father, vather: Somerset, Zomerzet; and of those combinations of consonants which not only require an effort to pronounce them, but are offensive to a delicate ear, in which cases they either interpose a vowel or omit one of the consonants, as posts, postes; desks, deskes; needle, neel; with me, wi' me; a pound of butter, a poun' o' butter.

"Another effect of this indolence is the lengthening or dwelling on the vowels, so as to make them sound almost like diphthongs, as, none,

no-an; fool, vo-ol; door, doo-er, &c.

"They also make use of the word be nearly through the whole of the present tense of the verb to be, as, I be—thou beest (pronounce bist), he is, we, you, they, be. They terminate the preterite tense and participle past of most verbs, in d—as, I saw, or have seen; I zeed, or have zeed; gid for gave or given, &c. They always use 'en for him (ihn, German), and 'em for they or them, both in affirmation and interrogations, and 'er (German er) for he in interrogations only, as, did they see him? did'em zee'en? did he give them anything? did'er gi''em ort (aught)! give him, gi''en, &c.

"They change the *snt* in such contractions as isn't, was'nt, into d'n, as, isn't he? *id'n er*? was'nt he? *wad'n er*? but they say *han't er*?

for hasn't he? to distinguish it from had'n er, hadn't he?

"Beside these general corruptions there are a few peculiar to different parts of the county. At Marlock, Yeovil, and the adjacent places, they make use of *che*, (pronounced almost like the French *je*), for *I*, as *ch'ill*, I will; *ch'ave*, I have, &c. Nor do they pronounce the final r at all; except by relaxing the sound of the vowel that precedes it into that sound which the French designate by *eut*, in the word *peut*; and if it exists in English, in the syllable *er* in porter, &c., in the

same manner as the modern Parisians pronounce fille (fi-en), door,

doo-eu; pear, pea-eu, &c.

"Of the dialect of the inhabitants of Exmoor, the most western part of this county, I can give you little or no information; it is so very corrupt that no one can understand it who has not been bred among them. If you could procure a pamphlet, published sometime since, entitled, I think, "the Exmoor Scolding," you might give your readers a specimen of it. If I meet with it you may depend on a communication. It is from seeing that work some years since that I have been enabled to recollect those two or three (? words) inserted in the vocabulary marked with an asterisk.

"I must conclude with the hope that, if any of your readers should come into Zomerzetshire, they may find this essay of real utility, both in understanding the inhabitants, and in making themselves understood

by them."

In the Monthly Magazine of November, 1814, p. 330, Mr. J. Jennings writes a long letter from Huntspill, dated September 10th, 1814, in reply to the above, and stating many particulars as to the dialects east and west of the Parrett, all of which, together with a considerable list of words accompanying the letter, have since been published in Jennings's 'Dialect of the West of England,' John Russell Smith, 1869.

# Exmoor COURTSHIP;

OR, A

# SUITORING DISCOURSE

IN THE

Devonshire DIALECT and MODE,

NEAR

The FOREST of EXMOOR.

# The Perfons.

Andrew Moreman, a young Farmer.

Margery Vagwell, his Sweetheart.

Old Grammer Nell, Grammer to Margery.

Thomasin, Sister to Margery.

A N

# AN EXMOOR COURTSHIP.

SCENE Margery's Home.2

To Margery enter Andrew.3

316 Andrew. HOW goeth et, Cozen Magery ?4

Margery. Hoh! Cozen Andra, how d'ye try?

Andrew. Come, let's shake Honds,<sup>5</sup> thof Kissing be <sup>6</sup>
scarce.

320 Margery. Kissing's plenty enow; bet chud zo leefe kiss the Back o' ma Hond es c'er a Man in Challacomb, or yeet in Paracomb; no Dispreze.

<sup>1</sup> Courtship is a literary word—kyèo-ŭrteen, 'courting,' alone is heard in the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Another literaryism—a person's home is never heard of—it would be Maajureez aewz. Home is used only in the sense of at home; as, az mae ustur aum? 'is master at home?' In early editions of 1746 it is house.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Again, this would be—Tu Maa'juree kaumth An'dr—enter is altogether too stary a word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This salutation is thoroughly vernacular. See Preface, p. 15.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> I have never heard honds—this pronunciation is obsolete, but only recently so. Jennings (W. of E. Dialect) gives hon for hand as used so lately as 1814, in East Somerset. No doubt hond is the old West Country pronunciation—for Robt. of Gloucester (Will. the Conq., ed. Morris and Skeat, l. 41), says—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;& uor Harald adde is op ibroke pat he suor mid is rixt hond.'

# U AK'SMOAR KOO'URTSHUP.

SAIN Maajureez aum.2

Tu Maa jurëe ai ntur An dr.3

Andrew.

↑ ew gooth ut, Kuuz n Maa jure 14

316

Margery. Hoa! Kuuz n An dr, aew d-ee traay?

Andrew. Kau m, lat-s shee ük hauns,<sup>5</sup> thauf Kees ĕen bee<sup>6</sup>
skee üs.

Margery. Kees een-z plai ntee unèo ; 7 bút ch-úd zu leev 8 kees dhu 320 baak u mù haun uz ae ur u mae ŭn een Chaal ikum, ur eet een Paar ikum ; noa deespraa yz. 9

So also William of Shoreham, A.D. 1307 (De Baptismo, l. 121), says-

' be prest takeb bat ilke child In his honden by-thuixte.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This be is emphatic, otherwise it would be thauf kees en-z skee is.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See 'Somerset Man's Complaint,' p. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> This is still the usual phrase, alternating with zu zeo u—it implies readiness more than preference. In the 'Chronicon Vilodunense,' A.D. 1420 (ed. Hoare, 1830), we find Stanza 274 referring to St. Editha—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;For lever here was be pore to ffedi.'

This is also a good example of the use of her as a nominative. (See W. S. Gram., p. 35.)

<sup>•</sup> Spelt dispreise, l. 69—dispreize in Ed. I. to IV. 1746. It must have been pronounced as with long i—precisely like the modern Cockney praise.

Andrew. Es dont believe thate\*;1 yeet es2 believe well too.

[Swop! he kisses and smuggles her.

325 Margery. Hemph—Oh! tha very Vengeance out o' tha!—
Tha hast a creem'd ma Yearms, and a most a bost ma Neck.—Wall,
bet, vor all, how dost try, es 2 zey, Cozen Andra? Es hant a zeed
ye5 a gurt while.

Andrew. Why, fath, Cosen Margery, nort marchantable, 330 e're since es scoast<sup>6</sup> a Tack or two wey Rager Vrogwell tether Day.—Bet sugs!<sup>7</sup> es trem'd en & vagg'd en so, that he'll veel et vor wone while, chell warndy.<sup>8</sup>

Margery. How, Cozen Andra! Why es thort you coudent a vert zo.

<sup>1</sup> I never heard *thate*—the *thet* of the original note is more like the present form. (See W. S. Gram., p. 32.) In First Ed. it is *thek*, clearly an error of the original author. See letter of 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.

<sup>2</sup> In Editions I. to IV. we find and eet es believe, &c. This pronunciation of yet is the only correct one. I cannot account for the insertion of the y in the text, except that it is found and sounded in the literary yet. See note to 1.110, p. 36.

<sup>3</sup> The spelling of *arms* with y is, I think, an error—a y sound would be inevitable, with a diphthong after a close vowel, as mi ae urmz, dhi ai d—which cannot be uttered without the y sound.

<sup>4</sup> In the first four editions, both es-s in this line are written ees, a form which is still common in interrogative sentences. (See W. S. Gram., p. 34.)

<sup>5</sup> I am confirmed in the conclusion expressed in Note 2, by the transcriber's writing ye with a y which is never sounded—aew b-ee'? 'how ye be?' d-ee dhaenyk t-l oa'l tùe u vrau's? 'do you think it will hold to a frost?' (very common idiom); you in l. 333 is spelt ee in 1st ed.

<sup>6</sup> In the early editions this word is written *scorst*—which still represents the sound more nearly than the text.

<sup>7</sup> A quasi oath, still heard occasionally, but I cannot interpret it.

<sup>6</sup> Here the transcriber denotes the 2nd pers, pl. by simple y—pronounced precisely the same as when spelt ye, as above in l. 328.

<sup>9</sup>—<sup>9</sup> In many words ending in *ught* this *r* is inserted, as in *nort*, l. 329; *ort*, l. 167; *brort* = brought; *bort* = bought; *cort*, l. 389.

\* (Note to Ed. of 1778.) Thate is the proper Word here, according to the Exmoor Dialect; though Thek was in the former Editions improperly inserted insteal thereof. 'Tis true the Word Thek, as well as Theckee or Thecka, is (generally but not always) used for That, when it is a Pronoun Demonstrative: but never when it is a Pronoun Relative, or a Conjunction, in which Cases Thet or Thate is the Word used. The Devonians however in their Distinction

Andrew. Es doa'n bleev dhaet,\*1 eet es 2 bleev wuul tùe'.

[Zwanp! u keesth un smuuglth ur.

Margery. Haemf—Oa·! dhu vuur'ee Vai'njuns aewt u dhu!— 325 Dh-as u-kraimd mi ae'ŭrmz,³ un umaus u-buus mu Nak.—Wuul, bút vur au'l, aew dús traay, es⁴ zai, Kuuz'n An'dr? Es aa'n u-zeed ee⁵ u guurt wuy'ul.

Andrew. Waay, faa'th, Kuuz'n Maa'jurĕe, noa'urt maar'chuntubl, ae'ŭr súnz es skoa'urst<sup>6</sup> u taa'k ur tùe wai Raj'ur Vraugwúl taedh'ur 330 dal.—Bút z'uugz!<sup>7</sup> es tremd un vag'd-n zoa, dhut u-l vee'ŭl ut vur wan wuy'ul, ch-úl wau'rnd-ec.<sup>8</sup>

Margery. Aew, Kuuz n An dr! Waay es dhaurt<sup>9</sup> yùe kèod n u vaurt<sup>9</sup> zoa.

between Theek or Theekee, and That, do not altogether conform to that which our Saxon Ancestors made between Thylic or Thyle, (whence the Scotch Thilk) Thyllice or Thylee, hic & hac talis, and their That or Thaet, by which they commonly expressed, id, illum, illud, istud, hoc, istoc, &c. The Devonshire Use of these Words may be exemplified by the following Phrases:

— "Hot's thet tha zest? What a gurt *Lee* es thate! The Man thet told tha thecka Story, thof' a murt zey theeze Theng and thicky, whan a had a Parwobble weth tha, to make hes Tale hang vittily together, coul'dn't bleeve et 'es own zell: Shore and shore, thek Man shou'd a' had the Whitstone."

This is the proper Exmoorian Language, and in plain English runs thus:

"What's that thou sayest? What a great Lye is that! The Man who told thee that Story, though he might say this and that Thing when he held a Parley (or Conference) with thee, the better to connect and embellish his Tale, could not believe it himself: Verily and indeed that Man should have had the Whetstone."

And here it may be requisite to observe, that the Whetstone is deemed a proper Present for a notorious *Liar*, or one who has asserted the Truth of an incredible Story, by Way of Allusion to the following Aneedote, from whence we learn the real Origin thereof:

"Two Journeymen Shoemakers working together in the same Shop, in or near Exeter, had a Dispute concerning their Property in a Whetstone, (a necessary Implement of theirs) each claiming it as their own: At length it was proposed that he of the two that could tell the greatest Lie, in the Judgment of a third Person then present, to whose Decision it was referred, should have the Whetstone to his own Use: This being agreed to, the One to make sure of it asserted, that he once drove a Nail through the Moon; the other readily acknowledged this to be true, swearing that he at the same Time stood on the other Side of the Moon and clinch'd it. Upon which this latter was immediately adjudged to have an indisputable Title to the Whetstone.——Hence the Whetstone came to be deemed a proper Present for a notorious Liar; and hence every great Lie, when intended to corroborate another, is called a Clincher."

335 Andrew. Why, 'twos oll about thee, mun;——vor es chan't hire an eel Word o' tha,

Margery. How! about me!——Why, why vore about me, good zweet<sup>3</sup> now?——Of a Ground<sup>4</sup> ha can<sup>5</sup> zey no Harm by<sup>6</sup> ma.

Andrew. Well, well, no Mater.<sup>7</sup> Es couden hire tha a run<sup>8</sup> 340 down, and a roilad upon zo, and zet still like a Mumchance, and net pritch<sup>9</sup> en vort.

Margery. Why, whot, and be hang'd to en, cou'd a zey o' me a gurt Meazel?

Andrew. Es begit tha Words now;—bet ha roilad zo, that 345 es coudent bear et.—Bet a dedent lost 10 hes Labour, fath; vor es toz'd en, 11 es lamb'd en, es lace'd en, es thong'd en, es drash'd en, es drubb'd en, 12 es tann'd en to the true Ben, fath: Bet step! 13 cham avore ma Story. 14 — Zes I, Thee, thee art a pretty Vella! Zes he, Gar, thee cassent make a pretty Vella o' ma.—No 350 agar, zeys I, vor th' art too ugly to 15 be made a pretty Vella, that's true enow. Gar, a was woundy mad 16 thoa. 17 \*——

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is clearly an error—it could not have been es chant, but the common shant for shall not.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This an is a literaryism. (See W. S. Gram., p. 29.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Good now is a very common phrase, but I never heard good sweet now t

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This is quite obscure.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Another literaryism—the double negative, *u kaarn zai noa*; 'he can't say no' would be the true idiom.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This by is the regular idiom, and means against, as applied to conduct or character—the sense would have been identical if the word harm had been omitted, and it had been written, ha cant zey nothing by ma. The word is used here precisely in the same sense as—'I know nothing by myself.'—1 Cor. iv. 4.

 $<sup>^7</sup>$  No matter—impossible for a native—no odds would have been the expression.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> run is always uurn, the true descendant of the O.E.

<sup>\*\*</sup> r followed by a short u or short i always changes places, as buursh, burj (bridge), urch (rich).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> To lose is still to lost. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.) Here the editor of 1771 has rightly corrected the text—in the early Editions it is loose.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> All these different words, to repeat the same act, are thoroughly characteristic of the custom still in use, though perhaps a little exaggerated. I have often heard boasts nearly as verbose and absurd.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) The or Thea is used for Then when spoken of Time past; but Than when referred to Time future. (See l. 360.)

Andrew. Waay, twuz aul ubaewt dhee, mun ;——vur es-shaa nt 1 335 uy ŭr u 2 ee ŭl wuurd u dhu.

Margery. Aew! ubaewt mee!——Waay, waay voa'r ubaewt mee, gèod zwĕet³ naew!——Uv u Graewnd⁴ u kn⁵ zai noa aa'rm buy6 mu.

Andrew. Wuul, wuul, noa maat ur. Es kèod-n uy-ur dhu u-uurn 8 daewn, un u-rauy lud upaun zoa, un zút stee ŭl lik u muum chaans, 340 un nút púrch-n 9 vaur-t.

Margery. Waay, haut, un bi ang tùe un, kèod u zai u mee, u guurt Mai zl?

Andrew. Es begit dhu wuurdz naew; bút u rauy lud zoa, dhut es keod-n bae ur ut.—Bút u daed-n lau st 10 úz lae ŭbur, faa th; vur 345 es toa ŭz-n, 11 es laam un, es lae ŭs-n, es dhaungd-n, es draa shd-n, es druub-m, 12 es tan un tu dhu trùe Bai n, faa th: Bút staap! 13 ch-úm uvoa r mi stoa ree 14—Zaez aay, Dhee; dhee urt u puur te vael u! Zaez ee; Gaa r! dhee kas-n mak u puur te vael u oa mu.—Noa Agaa r, zaez aay, vur dh-urt tùe uug lee tu 15 bee mae ŭd a puur tee 350 vael u, dhaet-s trùe unèo. Gaa r, u wauz waewn de 16 mad dhoa. 17—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Drumm'd in early Editions.

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$  Step in the text is an error—in the First Ed. it is step—which is still the only pronunciation of stop.

 $<sup>^{14}</sup>$  Uvore my story is the regular idiom for 'I am digressing.' A scandal is a stoar.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This clause is too literary, it should be, 'the ungrie vur to be u-mae'nd u puur tee vael'u oa',' with distinct stress on the final preposition of. The speaker would certainly not have omitted either of the prepositions. The for before the infinitive of purpose is nearly invariable, as in O.E.; and the final of is equally a part of the construction. See note 16, p. 83.

<sup>16</sup> Clench. 'An In-and-In: a woundy bray young vellow, As the 'port went o' hun then, and in those days.' Ben Jonson, Tale of a Tub. Act I. Sc. 2.

Medlay. 'Indeed there is a woundy luck in names, sirs,
And a vain mystery.'—Tale of a Tub. Act IV. Sc. 11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> (See W. S. Gram., p. 86.) Tho is used for then, throughout the Wilton Chronicle, A.D. 1420, as—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Five moner pepull here dwellyd bo.—Stanza 12.

To wex be Bretones for hurr' synne;

Pictis and Scottys and Hyrisshe also;

And be Denmarkes come bo first ynne.'

<sup>&#</sup>x27; po alla baysshette.'-Stanza 217.

<sup>. &#</sup>x27;To Wylton and be come he ywys.'-Stanza 351, ed. Hoare.

addle to4 en.

352 Chell try thate, zeys he.—As¹ zoons that wut, zes I.—
Zo up a roze, and to't we² went.—Vurst a geed ma a Whisterpoop under tha Year, and vorewey a geed ma a Vulch in tha
355 Leer.—Ad, thoa¹ res rakad³ up, and tuck en be tha Collar, and
zo box'd en, and zlapp'd en, that es made hes Kep hoppy, and hes Yead

Margery. Well, es thenk ye, Cozen Andra, vor taking wone's<sup>5</sup> Peart zo.—Bet cham agest he'll go vor a Varrant <sup>6</sup> vor ye, and take 360 ye bevore tha Cunsabel; and than ye mey<sup>7</sup> be bound over, and be vorst<sup>8</sup> to g' in to Exeter to Zizes; and than a mey <sup>7</sup> zwear tha Peace of es,<sup>9</sup> you know.—Es en <sup>10</sup> et better to drenk Vriends and make et up?

Andrew. Go vor a Varrant! <sup>6</sup> Ad, let en, let en go; chell net 365 hender en: Ver there's Tom Vuzz ean take his cornoral Oath that he begun<sup>11</sup> vurst.—And if he deth, chell ha' as <sup>12</sup> good a Varrant <sup>6</sup> vor he, as he can vor me, dont quesson et: Vor the Turney into <sup>13</sup> Moulton knowth me, good now, and has <sup>14</sup> had zome zweet Pounds o' Vauther <sup>15</sup> bevore ha dy'd. And if he's a meended to <sup>16</sup> go to La, es can 370 spend Vorty <sup>18</sup> or Vifty Shillings as <sup>19</sup> well's he. And zo let en go,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is quite wrong—zu zeo·n-z dhu wut is the correct idiom.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> We is a literaryism—it should be es or uus waint.

i.e., wake up as out of sleep—rouse oneself. The same word is used, l. 144.
 A adle vor'n would be the true idiom—aadle to en as in the text sounds

<sup>4</sup> Aadle vor'n would be the true idiom—aadle to en as in the text sound: quite foreign to the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This expression is impossible in the dialect. The expression in this case would certainly be—takeen u un'eebau'deez pae'urt-zo. (See W. S. Gram., 38, 39.)

6—6—6 Warrant is a common word, and it is quite foreign to the

<sup>6-6-6</sup> Warrant is a common word, and it is quite foreign to the dialect to pronounce w as v. In Ed. 1746 the word is spelt warrant—the change to varrant is an error of the editor of 1771, who doubtless desired to make his dialect as marked as possible.

 $<sup>^{7}</sup>$ — $^{7}$  May is literary; never heard in the dialect. (See W. S. Gram., p. 71.) The y in ye is never sounded, although so persistently written throughout these dialogues. It is clear that y is a very doubtful consonant in such words as yearms, l. 326; yeet. See note 2, l. 323.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> The transcriber has made two errors in this word—it is one of those which always keeps the *f* sharp, while it drops the *r*; as a noun the word *force* is unknown. A third error is the omission of the participal prefix.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Here, where it is manifestly first person plural, is the same spelling as is throughout supposed to represent *I*.

<sup>10</sup> i. e. Is'nt it better. Here es stands for is. This is is emphatic, otherwise it would be aèd-n ut. (See W. S. Gram., p. 56—61.)

Ch-úl truy dhaet, zaez ee.—Uz¹ zèo·n-z dhu wút, zaez aay.— 352 Zoa aup u roa·zd, un tùe-t wee² wai·nt.—Vuust u gid mu a wús·tur-pèop uun·dur dhu yuur, un voa·rwai u gid mu u vuulch een dhu lee·ŭr.—Ad, dhoa·¹¹ es rae·ŭkud³ aup, un tuuk-n bi dhu Kaul·ur, un 355 zoa bauks-n, un zlaap-n, dhut es mae·ŭd úz kĕp aup ee, un úz ai·d ad·l tùe⁴ un.

Margery. Wuul, es thaengk-ee, Kuuz'n An'dr, vur tak'een waunz<sup>5</sup> pae'ŭrt zoa.—Bút ch-úm agaast-u-l goa vur u Waar'unt<sup>6</sup> vaur ee, un tak ee bivoa'r dhu kuun'subl; un dhan ee múd<sup>7</sup> bee u-baewn oa'vur, un 360 bee u-foo-ŭs<sup>8</sup> tu g-een t-Aek'stur tu Suy'zúz; un dhan u múd<sup>7</sup> zwae'ŭr dhu pai's oa es,<sup>9</sup> yu noa.—Uz-n<sup>10</sup> ut bad'r tu draengk vrai'nz un mak ut aup?

Andrew. Goa vur a Waarunt! Ad, lat-n, lat-n goo; ch-úl nút een dur-n: Vur dhur-z Taum Vuuz kn tak úz kaur-nurul oa ŭth dhut 365 ee bigeend vuus.—Un-eef u dúth, ch-úl ae u zu 2 gèod u Waarunt vur ee, z-ee kan vur mee, doa'n kwaes n ut: Vur dhu Tuur-nĕe een tu 3 Moa ltn noa ŭth mee, gèod nuw, un-dh 4 u-ad zum zweet paewnz u vau dhur 1 uvoa ru duyd. Un-eef ee-zu-mee ndud tu 6 goo tu Laa, es kún spai n vaur tee 1 ur veef tee shúl eenz uz wull-z ee. Un zoa lat-n goo, 370

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Begun is literary, not dialect. (See W. S. Gram., p. 46.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> As is impossible here.

<sup>13</sup> The market or neighbouring town is always spoken of as into—'Send into market'—'He livth into Lynton town.' Moulton here means South Molton.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Has of the text is literary—hath is the proper word contracted after and into dh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> In the Editions up to 1750, Father is in this case, and generally elsewhere, spelt *veather*, pronounced *vai'dhur*. In a few cases only in those editions we find *vauther*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Should be vur tu goo tu Laa. Law is still pronounced thus. The use of the prep. for before the infinitive of purpose is nearly invariable. (See W. S. Gram., p. 52.) Just as it is in the old writers—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Swete lefdi seinte Marie, vor þe muchele blisse þet tu hefdest þo þu iseie þine brihte blissful sune þet te Gyus wenden vorto Aþrusemen, ase anoþer dea'slich mon.'

<sup>(</sup>Ancren Riwle, ed. Camden Society, p. 40.)

See also Chronicon Vilodunense, ed. Hoare, Stanzas 100, 101, and throughout the poem. Of this use endless quotations might be given.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> See p. 80, l. 351.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Forty and fifty are generally pronounced with the f quite sharp as in lit. Eng., while four and five are always vaauur, vai v. See remarks by Devoniensis, p. 64.
<sup>19</sup> Should be, so well as he.

371 and whipe whot a zets upon o' Zendeys wey hes Varrant. But hang en, let's ha nort more to zey about en; vor chave better Besense in Hond a gurt deal.

[He takes hold of her & paddles in her Neck & Bosom.

375 Margery. Come, be quite, 5—be quite, es zey, 7 a grabbling o' wone's 8 Tetties.—Es wont ha' ma Tetties a grabbled zo; ner es wont be 9 mullad and soulad.——Stand azide, 10 come, gi' o'er.

Andrew. Lock, lock; how skittish we be now; you werent 11 so skittish wey Kester Hosegood up to Darathy 380 Vuzz's Up-setting. — No, no, you werent 11 so skittish thoa, ner sa squeamish nether. — He murt mully and soully tell 12 a wos weary. 13

Margery. Es believe the very Dowl's in Voke vor leeing.

Andrew. How; sure and sure you wont deny et, wull ye, 385 whan oll tha Voaken  $^{14}$  took Notese o' et.

Margery. Why, Cozen Andra, thes wos the whole Fump o' the Besenese. 15——Chaw'r 16 in wey en 17 to daunce; and whan the Daunce was out, tha Croud cry'd Squeak, squeak, squeak, (as a useth to do, 18 you know) and a cort ma about the Neek, and woudent

390 be a sed, <sup>19</sup> but a would kiss ma, in spite o' ma, do what es could to hender en.—Es could a borst tha Croud in Shivers, and tha Crouder too, a voul <sup>20</sup> Zlave as <sup>21</sup> a wos, and hes Viddlestick into the Bargain.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This word is very emphatic, and hence the strong aspirate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the Exmoor district the *th* inflection is quite the rule, and particularly with such words as *sit*, *wet*, *fret*, *eat*, *walk*, *take*—which all have *th* only, and not *eth*; *take* becomes *tae ăkth* or *takth*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Misprint in the text. See Besenese, l. 387.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> In rapid speech the t of guart glides into the d of deal—thus it is always a grant-dae it for a great deal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Quiet is always a monosyllable. In the early editions this was written quiet—but has been very properly amended in the 7th.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See p. 82, note 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Es zey is improbable—the two sibilants destroy each other, in rapid speech.

<sup>8</sup> This should be grab leen u ûn eebaw deez tút eez. See W. S. Gram., pp. 38, 39.

 $<sup>^{9}</sup>$  In early editions this was wont be zo mullad, a much better reading than the text.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This is quite literary—*aside* is unknown. She would not have used such an expression under such provocation—she would have said *git uwai*. The idiom of *stand aside* is *stan u wan zuyd* (stand on one side).

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un hwuyp¹ haut u zút-th² upaun u Zún dĕez wai úz Waar unt. Bút 371 ang un, lat-s ae ŭ noa ŭrt moo ŭr tu zai ubaewt-n ; vur ch-uv bad r bús unees³ een haund u guur-dae ŭl.  $^4$ 

[U takth oa'ld oa ur, un pad'lth een ur nak-n buuz'um.

Margery. Kau'm, bee' kwuyt, bie kwuyt, u zai<sup>7</sup> u grab'leen u 375 waunz<sup>8</sup> tút:eez.—Es oa'ŭnt ac'ŭ mi tút-eez u-grab'ld zoa; nur es oa'unt be<sup>9</sup> u-muul'ud un suwlud.——Stan uzuyd; lo kau'm, gi oa'ŭr.

Andrew. Lauk, Lauk; aew skútreesh wee bee naew; yùe wae ŭrunt <sup>11</sup> zu skútreesh wai Kaes tur Oarzgèod, aup tu Daar utee Vuuzúz aup-zútreen.—Noa, noa, yùe wae ŭrunt <sup>11</sup> zu skútreesh dhoa, 380 nur zu skwai meesh naedh ur.—Ee muurt muul ee un suw lee tael <sup>12</sup> u wúz wae ŭree. <sup>13</sup>

Margery. Es bleev dhu vuur ee Duw'l-z een voak vur lee een.

Andrew. Aew; shoa ŭr un shoa ŭr yùe oa n denuy ut, wul ĕe, haun aul dhu voa kn 14 tèok noa ŭtees oa ut.

Margery. Waay, Kuuzn Andr, dhús wuz dhu woa'l fuump u dhu bús'unces. 15——Ch-au'r 16 een wai un 17 tu dau'ns; un haun dhu dau'ns wuz aewt, dhu kraewd kruyd skwik, skwik, skwik (uz u yŭe'zuth tu dùe, 18 yu noa) un u kau'ŭrt mu baewt dhu nak, un wúd-n bee u-saed, 19 bút u wúd kees mu, een spuyt u mu, dùe haut es kèod tu 390 ee'ndur-n. Es kèod u buus dhu kraewd een shúv'urz, un dhu kraew'dur tùe, u vuw'ul 20 Zlae'ŭv uz 21 u wauz, un úz Fúd'lstik een tu dhu baar'geen.

 $<sup>^{11}</sup>$ — $^{11}$  The present form would be *yie wand-n*. The *werent* of the text sounds too bookish.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> I doubt if till or until would have been used—it should be gin or vore.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> I never heard weary in the dialect—it should be rore u wuz u-tuy-ŭrd.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Quite obsolete. See note, l. 197.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This being rather a 'fine' word, it is lengthened out into its full three syllables. This is doubtless intended to be conveyed in the text.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Quite obsolete. This form evidently stands for I war or were.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> This phrase 'in with him' is peculiar, but thoroughly vernacular—it implies in the ring made by the company while two of the party performed a reel or some other pas de deux. Square dances were not known, and are not now danced by the real peasantry at the revels, gossippings, or club walkings when dancing is the usual evening diversion.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Do here is literary—the dialect omits the verb, uz u yùc zuth tùc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> *i. e.* refused, resisted. Compare gainsaid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> This is not a dialectal word. It may have been used, but I doubt it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> As is literary. Slave that he was is the more probable expression.

Andrew. Well, well, es b'ent angry, mun.¹—And zo let's 395 kiss and Vriends.² [Kisses her.] Well, bet, Cozen Magery, oll thes while³ es hant told tha ma Arrant;—and chave an over Arrant to tha, mun.¹

Margery. [Simpering.] Good zweet now, whot Arrant es et? Es marl whot Arrant ye can ha' to me.

400 Andrew. Why, vath, 4 chell tell tha. Whot zignivies 5 et ta mence tha Mater ? 6 Tes thes ? bolus nolus wut ha' ma?

Margery. Ha ma? Whot's thate? Es cant tell whot ya me-an by thate.

Andrew. Why, than, chell tell tha vlat and plean. Ya know es 405 kep Challacomb-Moor in Hond;<sup>7</sup> tes vull stated:<sup>8</sup> But cham to chonge a Live<sup>9</sup> for three Yallow-beels. And than there's tha Lant up to Parracomb Town: And whan es be to Parracomb, es must ha' wone<sup>10</sup> that es can trest to look arter tha gerred-teal'd Meazels, and to zar<sup>11</sup> tha Ilt and tha Barra, and melk tha Kee to Challa-410 comb, and to look arter tha Thengs o' tha Houze.

 $\it Margery.$  O Varjuice! Why, Cozen Andra, a good steddy Zarrant  $^{12}$  can do oll thes.

Andrew. Po, po, po! chell trest no Zarrants. 12—And more an zo, than they'll zey by 13 me, as 14 they ded by 13 Gaffer Hill tether 415 Day: They made two Beds, and ded g' in to wone.—No, no, es bant zo mad nether. 15—Well, bet, look, dest zee, 16 Cozen

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>—<sup>1</sup> See note, l. 55. Extreme familiarity is here implied, as also in l. 355.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The omission of the verb be, as in this instance, is very common. (See W. S. Gram., p. 57.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> All this while is not dialect, and has no business here. Some such expression as aa dr au l (after all), or kaum tu laa's (come to last), the latter most likely, would have been used.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This word is pronounced *fuath*, with the *f* quite sharp—it is spelt so in many places in the text; *e. g.* Il. 345, 347.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Not a dialectal word—such words, and indeed this whole sentence, tends to bring the entire 'Courtship' into discredit as a faithful record.

<sup>•</sup> What do Exmoor natives even now know about mincing the matter?—bee:ut-baewt-dhu bĕosh (beat about the bush), is what they would comprehend.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> An owner is said to keep land in hand when he farms it himself.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Full-stated, a technical quasi law-term, implying that 'the three lives' are all now surviving, but the context shows that one of the lives was not a satisfactory one, and hence he was to substitute a better upon payment of a fine.

Andrew. Wuul, wuul, es bae'ŭnt ang gree, mun.¹—Un zo lat-s kees-n Vrai nz.² [Keesth ur.] Wuul bút Kuuz n Maa jurëe, 395 aul dhús wuy ul³ es aa n u-toa l dhu mi Aar unt ;—un ch-uv u oa vur Aar unt tu dhu, mun.¹

Margery. [Súm pureen.] Gèod zweet naew, haut aarunt úz ut? Es maar ul haut Aar unt ee kn ae ŭ tu mee.

Andrew. Waay, faath, 4 ch-úl tuul dhu. Haut zig n-eevuyz 5 ut tu 400 maens dhu Maat ur ? 6 Taez dhús ? boa lus noa lus wút ae ŭ mu ?

Margery. Ae-ŭ mu? Haut-s dhaet? Es kaa'n tuul haut ee mai'n bi dhaet.

Andrew. Waay, dhún ch-úl tuul dhu vlaat-n plae-ŭn. Yu noa es kip Chaal-ikum-Moa-ŭr een aund; taez vèol stae-ŭtud: but ch-aam 405 tu chaunj u luyv vur dree yal-ur bee-ŭlz. Un dhan dhur-z dhu Lant aup tu Paar-ikum-taewn: Un haun es bee tu Paar-ikum es mús ae-u wan dhút es kn trús tu lèok aa-dr dhu guur-ud taay-ŭld Mai-zlz, un tu saar dhu últ un dhu baar-u, un múlk dhu Kae-ee tu Chaal-ikum, un tu lèok aa-dr dhu dhengz u dhu aewz.

Margery. Oa Vaarjees! waay, Kuuz'n An'dr, u gèod stúd'ĕe Saarunt<sup>12</sup> kún dùe aul dhús.

Andrew. Poa, poa, poa! ch-úl trús noa Saar unts. 12—Un moo ŭr-n zoa, dhan dhai ul zai bi 13 mee, uz 14 dhai daed bi 13 Gaaf ur Ee ŭl taedh ur dai: Dhai mae ŭd tuè bai dz, un daed g-een tu wan.—Noa, noa, es 415 bae ŭnt zu mad naedh ur. 15—Wuul bút, lèok, d-ee zee, 16 Kuuz-n

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> In North Devon, the district here named, a good deal of the land wasuntil very recently, held upon leases for lives, renewable upon payment of fines and quit rents. The custom was and is to pay a smaller fine during a survival for the right to exchange an old life for a younger one. This is still called 'changing a life.' This tenure is becoming rarer, as the Ecclesiastical Commissioners the great reversioners of these lands—are refusing to continue the system.

<sup>16</sup> This would be somebody, not one.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Serve is always saar, not zar. See 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.

<sup>12</sup>—<sup>12</sup> So servant is never zarrant. See 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$   $^{13}$   $^{13}$   $^{13}$  is used when what is said of a person is derogatory. Natives would never think of speaking well  $^{13}$   $^{13$ 

<sup>14</sup> As here is a literaryism—it should be sae'ŭm-z (same as) or ee'ns. (See W. S. Gram., p. 66, Note 1.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This would now be nuudh·ur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> In a coaxing, persuasive sentence, a native would never use the 2nd pers, sing except to a child. He would invariably use the plural. (See W. S. Gram., p. 35.)

Magery; zo vur vore es tha wut¹ ha' ma, chell put thy² Live pon Parracomb Down. Tes wor³ twonty Nobles a Year and a Puss to put min in.⁴

- 420 Margery. O vile! whot marry?—No chant<sup>5</sup> ha' tha best Man in Challacomb, nor yeet in Parracomb. Na, chell ne'er marry, vor ort's know. No, no! they zey<sup>6</sup> thare be more a marry'd aready than can boil tha Crock o' Zendeys.—No, no. Cozen Andra; es coud amorst swear chudent ha' tha best
- 425 Square in oll Ingland.—Bet come; prey,<sup>7</sup> Cozen Andra, set down<sup>8</sup> a bit. Es must g' up in Chember, and speak a Word or two wey Zester Tamzin. Hare's darning up of <sup>9</sup> old blonkets, and rearting tha Peels, and snapping o' Vleas.—Es ell come agen presently. <sup>10</sup>
- 430 Andrew. Well, do than; bet make Haste, d'ye see.—Me-an time<sup>11</sup> chell read o'er the new Ballet cheve<sup>12</sup> in ma Pocket.

Margery. New Ballet! O good now, let's hire ye sing et  $^{13}$  up, $^{14}$ 

 $Andrew.\ {\rm Zing\,!--No,\ no,\ tes\ no\ singing\ Ballet,\ mun\,;\ bet}$  435 tes a godly one good now.

Margery. Why, whot's't about, than?

Andrew. Why, tes about a Boy that kill'd hes Vauther;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Here too he would say *yûe'ûl* or *ee'ûl*. Thee wilt is most improbable; it is slightly hectoring and not in the least persuasive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The foregoing remarks apply equally to thy. It should be you ăr.

<sup>3</sup> I never heard wor—it is always waeth or wuth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> *i.e.* 'twenty nobles and a purse to put them in.' (See W. S. Gram., p. 37.) Very common phrase, in speaking of value.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Chant is a misprint or mistake.

<sup>6</sup> This 'they say,' or as is most usual, 'they do say,' is the precise equivalent of on dit—and it is just as commonly used. Usually in such a sentence as this it would be, 'they do say how,' &c., or 'they do say eens there,' &c.

<sup>?</sup> Pray in this sense is bookish, not dialect. A native would say Púdh·če, i.e. prithee. See I. 261.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Sit is spelt zet elsewhere. Here in rapid speech the t final and d initial become one, and the whole becomes one word  $z\hat{u}$ -daewn.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> This of is quite vernacular, and conveys a fine shade of meaning beyond the power of lit. Eng. in so few words. It gives the idea of general occupation, i.e. darning blankets in a frequentative sense, and not any particular old blankets. The same applies to the snapping o' vleas, but these pursuits are contrasted with rearting the Peels, which conveys the impression, through the

Maa'jurëe; zu vuur voa'r uz dhu wút  $^1$ ae'ŭ mu, ch-ul puut dhuy  $^2$ luyv pun Paar'ikum daewn. Taez waeth  $^3$ twaun'tee Noa'blz u Yuur un u Puus tu puut mún een.  $^4$ 

Margery. Ou vuy ul! haut maar če?—Noa, shaant ae ŭ dhu bas 420 mae ŭn een Chaal ikum, nur eet een Paar ikum. Naa, ch-úl nac ŭr maar če, vur oa ŭrt-s noa. Noa, noa, dhai zai dhur bee moo ŭr u-maar-čed urad če-n kún bwuuy ul dhu Krauk u Zún dĕez.—Noa, noa, Kuuz n An dr; es keod umau rs zwae ŭr ch-èod-nt ae ú dhu bas Skwae ŭr-n aul Ing·lun. Bút kau m; prai, Kuuz n An dr, zú-daewn 425 u beet. Es mús g-uup-m Chúm bur, un spaik u wuurd ur tùe wai Zús tur Taam zeen. Uur-z daar-neen aup uv oa l blaun kuts, un ree urteen dhu Pee ulz, un znaap een u vlai z.—Es ul kaum ugee ŭn praz unt luyk. 10

Andrew. Wuul, dùe dhan; bút mak ac ŭs, d-ee zee.—Mai'n tuym 11 430 ch-úl rai d oa ŭr dhu nùe baal ut ch-uv 12 een mu pau gut.

Margery. Nùe baal ut! Oa gèod naew, lat-s uy ŭr ee zing ut  $^{13}$ aup.  $^{14}$ 

Andrew. Zing !—Noa, noa, taez noa zing-een baal ut, mun; bút taez u gaud lee wún geod naew.

Margery. Waay, haut-s-t ubaewt, dhun?

Andrew. Waay, taez ubaewt u bwuwy dhut kee ŭld úz Vau dhur;

absence of the prep. of righting (i. e. mending) the pillows actually in use by the household, while the blankets would be understood to be spare ones.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This word sounds rather literary. *Presently* when used at all implies *now*, and not as is politely understood, *after a little time*. I think Margery would have said—'Es ell come agen purty quick.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Not dialect. Andrew would have said, wuy "it yie bee u-yoo—certainly not meantime.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> He would have said here, *haut ch-uv u-gaut—have* is not used alone in this sense, and he would not have omitted the relative in this case.

<sup>13</sup> A song or ballad is a thing used, not an abstraction—the pronoun therefore would be *he*, nom. *un*, objective. *it*, in reference to a song, is not vernacular. (See W. S. Gram., p. 32) It should read *zing un aup*.

would imply an ordinary, sober, or sentimental one; but to sing a song would convey an idea about the song that there was something outre about it—extravagant or indecent. Familiarly to tell a tale would imply a sober, orderly story, but to tell up a tale implies something that nobody believes—a cock and bull story.

and how hes Vauther went agen,<sup>1</sup> in Shape of<sup>2</sup> a gurt voul<sup>3</sup>
Theng, wey a cloven Voot and Vlashes<sup>4</sup> o' Vire, and troubled
440 the House so, that tha Whatjecomb, tha Whit Witch, wos vorst<sup>5</sup>
to<sup>6</sup> lay en in the Red-Zea;<sup>7</sup> and how the Boy repented,<sup>8</sup>
and went distracted, and wos taken<sup>9</sup> up, and wos hang'd vor't
and sung<sup>10</sup> Saums, and sed his Praers. 'Twull do your Heart good to
hire et, and make ye cry lick enny Theng.—There's tha Picture
445 o'en too, and tha Parson, and tha Dowl, and tha Ghost, and tha
Gallows.

Margery. Bet es et true, be sure ?

Andrew. True? O La! Yes, yes: 11 es olways look to thate. Look see' tes here in Prent 12—\* Lissened according to Order.—That's 450 olweys prented on what's true, mun.—Es took care to see thate whan es bort en.

Margery. Well, well, read et;—and chell g' up to Zester.

#### SCENE the Chamber.

To Thomasin enter Margery.

Margery.
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H! Zester Tamzen!—Odd! ee es a come a long, and vath and trath 13 hath a put vore 14 tha Quesson

<sup>1</sup> i.e. appeared or walked after death—went again is the common idiom to express the reappearance of the dead. I well knew a case of an old man, of whom it was said, after he was killed, that he went again. The succeeding tenant (still living, 1879) of his cottage was a man with a wooden leg, who could only live in the cottage a very short time, because the previous (dead) tenant was so 'troublesome'—for he used to come every night and drag the wooden leg all about the plancheen (floor) by the buckle-straps. This occurred less than 25 years ago, and all the circumstances and people are well-known to me. Similar stories are very common, and so is the belief in both the reappearance of the dead, and in the power of white-witches to lay the ghosts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This is quite a literaryism. It would be *lig u guurt*, &c., 'like a great.'

<sup>3</sup> Foul is not a West Country word—it is Lancashire in this sense. Here it should read gurt ugly thing. (See W. S. Gram., p. 102.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> An r is sounded in most words in ash, as aarsh = ash; smaarsh, laarsh, wawrsh. Comp. vort, thort, &c., of the text, l. 334; flash too is not sounded vlash, but the f is quite sharp—vlaarsh is flesh. (See W. S. Dial., p. 71.)

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) So Country People us'd to read Licensed, &c.

un aew úz Vau'dhur wai'nt ugee'ŭn,¹ een shee'ŭp² uv u guurt vuwI³ dhaeng, wai u kloa vm vèot un flaar shúz u vuy ur, un truub ld dh-aewz zoa, dhut dhu Hauch eekum, dhu Weet Wúch, wùz foo us 5 440 tu6 laa'y un een dhu Huurd-Sai;7 un aew dhu bwuwy raipai ntud,8 un wai'nt deestraak tud, un wuz u-tèokt aup un wuz angd vaur't un zingd 19 Saa·mz, un zaed úz praa·yŭrz. Twúl dùe yur aart gèod tu huy ur ut, un mak ee kruy lig un ee dhaeng.-Dhur-z dhu pik tur oa un tùe, un dhu paa'sn un dhu Daewl, un dhu goa'ŭs, un dhu 445 gaal·ĕes.

Margery. Bút úz ut trùe, b-ee shoa ur?

Andrew. True? Oa laar! ees, ees; 11 es au vees lèok tu dhaet. Lèok zee túz yuur een púrnt<sup>12</sup>—\* Lús<sup>1</sup>nd ukoa<sup>1</sup>rdeen tu au<sup>1</sup>rdur.—Dhaat-s au vees upúrn tud pun haút-s trùe, mun.—Es tèok kee ŭr tu zee tu 450 dhaet haun es baurt-n.

Margery, Wuul, wuul, rai d ut ;---un ch-úl g-uup tu Zaes tur.

#### SAI'N dhu Chúm ur.

Tu Taam zeen aintur Maa jurëe.

Margery. a! Zaes tur Taam zeen!—Aud! ee úz u-km u lau ng, un faa th-<br/>n traa th,  $^{13}$ u-th u-puut voa r $^{14}$ dh<br/>u Kwaes n454

6 This ought to read foo us vur tu laay un.

10 (See W. S. Gram., p. 76.) Sung is a literaryism.

11 Yes is never heard—it is always ee's.

12 It is still a very common saying. Oa! aay noa tuz trùe, kuuz aay zeed ut een purnt. Print is always purnt. See note 9, p. 80.

13 This is the only way in which troth is used—by my troth is never heard. The pronunciation is much broadened to rhyme with fath—the vath of the text is a mistake, the f is pronounced sharply.

14 To put vore is the common idiom = to out with.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Force is always foo  $\check{u}s$ , not  $voo \check{u}s$ . There is no sound of r in the dialectal word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Red-Zea is impossible; red is uurd, but emphasised it is huurd. Sea is always sai, never zai, the latter means say. See p. 64, where 'Devoniensis' confirms this.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Repented is rather a 'fine' word, but it is used in the dialect, and is then uttered very deliberately rai-pai ntud.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> i.e. was apprehended—the regular idiom for arrested. Taken up is impossible; past. part. u-tèokt. (See W. S. Gram., p. 48.)

- 455 to ma a' ready.—Es verly beleive thy Banes will g' in next Zindey.

  —Tes oll es ho' \* vor.—Bet es tell en, Marry a-ketha! and tell en downreet es chant marry tha best Man in Sherwill Hunderd. Bet dest tha hire ma, Zester Tamzen; dont ye be a Labb o' tha Tongue in what cham a going to sey, and than
- 460 chell tell tha sometheng. The Banes, cham amorst sure, wull g' in ether a<sup>2</sup> Zindey or a<sup>2</sup> Zindey-senneert to<sup>3</sup> vurdest. Es<sup>4</sup> net aboo Two and Twonty;—a spicy Vella<sup>5</sup> and a vitty Vella<sup>5</sup> vor enny keendest Theng.—Thee know'st Jo Hosegood coreckon'd a vitty Vella<sup>5</sup>: Poo! Es<sup>4</sup> a sooterly<sup>6</sup> Vella to Andra; 465 there's no Compare.

Thomasin. Go, ya wicked Cunterveit! Why dest lee so agenst thy Meend; and whan ha put vore tha Quesson tell en tha wudsent marry!—Besides, so vur as tha know'st, ha murt take P'p o', and meach off, and off come no more anearst tha.

- 470 Margery. Go, ya Alkitotle? ya gurt voolish¹¹ Trapes!
  Dest thee thenk a beleev'd¹² ma, whan es sed chudent marry? Ee
  es net so sart¹³-a-baked nether. Vor why? es wudent be too
  vurward nether; vor than ee murt dra back. No, no; vor oll whot's sed, es hope tha Banes wull go in, es sey, next Zindey.—
- 475 And vath, nif's do vall over the Desk, twont thir ma, ner yeet borst ma Bones.—Bet nif they dont g' in by Zindey-senneert, chell tell tha, in short Company, 14 es chell 15 borst ma Heart.—
  478 Bet es must go down to en; yor he's by ees zell oll theez while.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is evidently a misprint. Margery could not have believed *thy Banns*, *i. e.* her sister's would go in. In the early Editions of 1746 it is *tha Banes*.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ — $^2$  This short sound—a in the text—is the contraction of on. (See W. S. Gram., p. 96) It is precisely the same as the a in amiss. In the Chronicon Vilodunense, Stanza 279, ed. Hoare, we read: dude on mys = did amiss.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> To is used for at. (See W. S. Gram., p. 89.) Also Devoniensis, p. 64.

<sup>4</sup>\_4 Here es, which usually stands for us or I, means he is.

<sup>5</sup>\_5\_5 Fellow is generally fuulur, a word in very common use—this sharp pronunciation of the f distinguishes fellow from felloe or felly, which is always pronounced vuulur.

<sup>6</sup> i.e. Whipper-snapper, a nobody.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> This is not dialect, but the epithet is probable.

<sup>8</sup> This would certainly now be— $u \ mud \ tak = \text{he might take, &c.}$ 

 $<sup>^9</sup>$  Meech and meecher are still very common terms for sneak—skulk—and the word is also old—

tu mu urad če.—Es vuur lee blaiv dhu¹ bae ŭnz úl g-een naks Zún dee. 455
—Túz aul es oa·\* vaur.—Bút es tuul-n, Maar če u-kaedh u! un tuul-n
daewn-ree-ŭrt es shaam maar če dhu bas mae ŭn een Shuur weel
Uun durd.—Bút dús dhu huy ŭr mu, Zaes tur Taam zeen; doam ee
bee u Laab u dhu tuung een haut ch-úm u-gwaim tu zai, un dhan
ch-úl tuul dhu zaumfeen:—Dhu Bae ŭnz, ch-úm umauns shoa ŭr, 460
wúl·g-een aedh ur u² Zún dee ur u² Zún dĕe zaen ee ŭrt tu³ vuur dees.
U-z⁴ nút ubeo· tùe un twaun tee;—u spuy sĕe Vael·u⁵ un u vút ĕe
Vael·u⁵ vur ún ee keen dees dhaeng.—Dhee noa·s Joa Oa·zgèod úz
u-raek nd u vut ĕe Vael·u⁵: Pèo·! ú-z⁴ u sèo·turlĕe⁶ Vael·u t-An·dr·;
dhur-z noa· Kumpae·ŭr.

Thomasin. Goa, yu wik'ud Kuun'turvai't! waa'y dús lee' zoa ugúns dhi meend; un haun u puut voa'r dhu Kwaes'n tuul-n dhu wúts-n maar'če —Uzuydz, zu vuur-z dhu noa's, u muur-tak Púp oa, un meech oa'f, un oa's, un moa'ur unee'ur dhu.

Margery. Goa, yu Aal keetoa tl? yu guurt fèol eesh 11 trae ŭps! 470 Dús dhee dhaengk u blai vud 12 mu, haun es zaed chèod-n maar ee? Ee úz nút zu zaart-u 13-bae ŭkud naedh ur. Vur waay? es wúd-n bee tùe. vuur wurd naedh ur; vur dhan ee murt draa baak.—Noa, noa; vur aul haut-s zaed, es oap dhu Bae ŭnz wúl g-een, e-zai, naks Zún dĕe.— Un faa th, neef-s dùe vaal oa vur dhu dús, t-oa n dhurr mu, nur eet 475 buus mi boa ŭnz.—Bút neef dhai doa n g-een bi Zún dĕe zach ee ŭrt, ch-úl tuul dhu, een shoa urt Kau mpmĕe, 14 es ch-úl 15 buus mi Aart.— Bút es mus goo daewn tùe un; vur ee-z bi eez-zuul aul dheez wuy ŭl. 478

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Ny in alle be tyme of his regnyng, Theff nor mycher forsothe ber nasse.' (Chronicon Vilodunense, a.d. 1420, ed. Hoare, Stanza 206.)

<sup>10</sup> Here a negative should come in, un nút kaum noa moo'ŭr.

<sup>11</sup> Fool and its compounds are pronounced with the f, sharp and distinct.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> The inflexion would in this case be fully sounded. In the early editions this was *ee believad*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Spelt zart elsewhere in the text, l. 54.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> i. e. in few words. For change of n into m. See W. S. Dialect, p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This cannot be right. The pronoun is in the text used twice over = I, I shall, it should read, es sh'l; as the chell can be only intended for shall. In Ed. 1746, we read shall borst, which is of course right. The change is in the later editions, and the alteration was doubtless made to get in as many instances as possible of the ch—which after all is the main feature of the dialogues.

<sup>\* (</sup>Note to Ed. of 1778.) Ho' is here an Abbreviation of Hope.

### SCENE the Ground-Room 1 again.

## To Andrew enter Margery.

Andrew. WELL, Cozen Magery, cham glad you're <sup>2</sup> come agen: Vor thes Ballet es zo very good, that et makes <sup>3</sup> wone's Heart troubled to read et.

Margery. Why, put et up than,<sup>4</sup> while es git a Putcher o' Cyder. Wull ye eat a Croust<sup>5</sup> o' Brid and Chezee,<sup>6</sup> Cozen Andra?

485 Andrew. No, es thankee, Cozen Magery; vor es eat a Crub as <sup>7</sup> es come <sup>8</sup> along; besides <sup>9</sup> es went to Dinner <sup>10</sup> jest avore.

—Well, bet Cozen Magery, whot Onser dest <sup>11</sup> gi' ma to tha Quesson es put vore now-reert.

489 Margery. What Quesson was et?

¹ Ground-room is not dialect. The ground-floor rooms are dh-aewz (the house) and baak-aewz (back-house). If either are spoken of on the upper floor the expression is daewn-aewz—the precise equivalent of the ordinary down-stairs. Neither up-stairs nor down-stairs are dialect. In houses of greater pretension the family living room is dh-aa·l (the hall), and the room for company, seldom used, dhu paa·ldur (the parlour).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Literary. In the dialect it is yùe bee, or in N. Dev. very often yùe m, or

emph. yùe haam. See W. S. Gram., p. 55; also W. S. Dial., p. 19.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This whole clause is too literary—no native would thus express himself. *Makes* is not used in N. Devon or Exmoor district, it is always *makth*. The impersonal pronoun is not *one* but *anybody*. See W. S. Gram., pp. 38, 39. *Troubled* so used would be *u-truub·ld*—prefix never omitted except for euphony. The natural rendering of the clause would be, in the spelling of the text, 'that et troubleth anybody's Heart to read it.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This would be nearly unintelligible to a real native. Such a phrase as put it up is impossible. The pronoun would always, even judging from the transcriber's own context, be en. Margery would have said puut-n uwai dhan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Crust and crumb are peculiar in pronunciation—they have more of the oo sound than is conveyed by the croust of the text.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Chezee is a misprint. The pronunciation of cheese is the same as in received English. Brid is rather too fine talk. It would be said probably by Margery if speaking to a 'real gentleman.'

<sup>7</sup> This use of as is much too literary—it has not the sense of whilst or

## SAI·N dhu Graewn-rèom¹ ugee·ŭn.

Tu Andr aintur Maajuree.

Andrew. UUL, Kuuz n Maa jurëe, ch-úm glad yèo ur² u-kaumd ugee 'ŭn: Vur dhús baal ut úz zu vuur ee gèo d, 480 dhut út maks ³ wanz aart truub ld tu rai d út.

Margery. Waay, puut út aup dhan,4 wuy'l es git u púch'ur u Suy'dur. Wuul ee ai't u krèost<sup>5</sup> u buurd-n chee'z,<sup>6</sup> Kuuz'n An'dr?

Andrew. Noa, es dhangk ee, Kuuz<sup>n</sup> Maa'jurĕe; vur es ait u 485 krèob uz<sup>7</sup> es km<sup>8</sup> ulaung; zuydz<sup>9</sup> es wai'nt tu daen ur <sup>10</sup> jest uvoa'r.
—Wuul, bút Kuuz<sup>n</sup> Maa'jurĕe, haut aun'sur dús <sup>11</sup> gi mu tu dhu kwaes'n es puut voa'r naew-ree'ŭrt.

Margery. Haut kwaes n wauz út?

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during in the dialect. Andrew would have said ee'ns es km ulaung (see W. S. Gram., p. 66), or still more probably ee'ns es wuz u-kaum'een ulaung.

In the Chronicon Vilodunense come is used for the past tense throughout, comen for the plur., and y come for the p. part. :

So Trevisa always uses com for the past tense :

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> In the early editions we read *came*, but this was quite literary, and was correctly altered. The past tense of *come* is still *come* (or *com'd* before a vowel). See W. S. Gram., p. 46. *Came* would seem to be a modern form. Robert of Gloucester uses *com*:

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Wende azen to Normandie '
from wan he com er.'—Will. Conq. l. 252.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; A Scin Nicolas day he com.'-1. 254.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;To Wylton and be come he y wys.'-st. 351.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;And sekemen come Fedur mony and ffele.'-st. 586.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Whanne he com tovore be duc.'—Norman Invasion, l. 33.

 $<sup>^{9}\,</sup>$  This word generally loses the first syllable. It is spelt bezides in earliest editions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This idiom is still the common one, and means not went to dine, but actually partook of and finished dinner.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This persuasive question should have been in the 2nd pers, plur.—haut ann sur dùe ee gi mu? In the next sentence he addresses to her Andrew uses the plur.

490 Andrew. Why, sure ya bant so vorgetvul, Why, tha Quesson es put <sup>2</sup> a little rather.<sup>3</sup>

Margery. Es dont know whot Quesson ye mean; es begit whot Quesson twos.

Andrew. Why, to tell the vlat and plane 4 agen, twos thes; 5 495 Wut ha' ma, ay or no?

Margery. Whot! marry to Earteen? 6—Es gee tha same Onser es geed avore, Es wudent marry tha best Man in oll Ingland. 7—Es cud amorst zwear chud never marry at oll. 8—And more and zo, Cozen Andra, cham a told ya keep Company

500 wey Tamzen <sup>9</sup> Hosegood, thek gurt banging, thonging, muxy Drawbreech, daggle-teal'd <sup>10</sup> Jade, a zower-zop'd, yerring, chockling Trash, a buzzom-chuck'd haggaging Moyle, a gurt Fustilug. <sup>11</sup> Hare's <sup>12</sup> a Trub! And nif ya keep hare Company, es'll ha <sup>13</sup> no more to zey to tha.

505 Andrew. Ay, thes es Jo Hosegood's Flimflam. — Oh, tha vary Vengance out o'en!

Maryery. No, no; tes none of Jo Hosegood's Flimflam; but zo tha Crime o' tha Country goth.

Andrew. Ah, bet twos Jo Hosegood's zetting vore in tha vurst <sup>14</sup> 510 Place. Ha wull lee a Rope upreert.—Whan ha hath a took <sup>15</sup> a Shord and a paddled, ha wull tell Doil, tell Dildrams, and roily

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The transcriber is wrong in spelling this -ful with a v. Adjectives in ful have the f quite sharp. (See W. S. Gram., p. 15.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Es aakst oa ee u lee dl rae ŭdhur is much more vernacular than the text. To put a question is bookish.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Vor he hadde ylost meny stalword men in þe raþer batayl.'

Trevisa, Norman Invasion, l. 55 (ed. Morris and Skeat). The fifetende day, that bathe

Sal be mad newe and faire ful rathe.'

Homilies in Verse, A.D. 1330, Signs of the Doom, l. 144. 'Lete not is luft hand late nor rape,

Beo war what \( \mathbf{i} \) riht hond \( \mathbf{w} \) or dele\( \mathbf{i} \).'

Piers Plowman, Pass. III. l. 56 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  This pronunciation is obsolete—the broader plawyn has become usual, especially in the Exmoor district, but in S. Dev. and Cornwall it is not so.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Andrew would certainly have said dhús yuur = 'this here.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> I do not know the meaning of this word, but from the to preceding it, conclude it means out-right or all at once (the word is quite obsolete).

Andrew. Waay, shoo'ur yùe bae'unt zu vurgit'fèol,¹ waay, dhu 490 kwaes'n es puut² u lee'dl rae'udhur.³

Margery. Es doa noa haut kwaes n ee main; es bigit haut kwaes n twauz.

Margery. Haut! maar et tu ee ürteen ? 6—Es gee dhu sae üm aun sur es gid uvoar, es wúd-n maar et dhu bas mae ün een aul Ing·lun. Es kúd umaurs zwae ür ch-úd năv ur maar et ut au·l. 8—Un moo ür-n zoa, Kuuz n An·dr, ch-úm u-toa·ld yùe kip kau mpmee wai Taam zeen 9 Oa zgeod, dhek guurt bang een, dhaung een muuk see 500 draa buurch, dag l tee üld 10 jee üd, u zaa wur zaap ud, yuur een, chauk leen traa rsh, u buuz um chuuk ud, ag ee jeen mauy ül, u guurt fuus tilugz. 11 Hae ür-z 12 u truub! Un-eef yùe kip hae ür kau mpmee, es-ul u 13 noa moo ür tu zai tu dhu.

Andrew. Aa'y dhús uz Joa Oa'zgèodz flúm-flaam. — Oa, dhu505vuur'ee vai'njuns aewt oa un'.

Margery. Noa, Noa; túz noa'ŭn u Joa Oa'zgèodz flúm-flaam; bút zoa dhu kruym u dhu kuun'trĕe gooth.

Andrew. Aa, bút twuz Joa Oa zgèodz zút een voa r een dhu fuus <sup>14</sup> plae us. U wúl lee u roo ŭp aup-ree ŭrt.—Haun u aath u-tèokt <sup>15</sup> u 510 shoa ŭrd ur u-pad ld, u wúl tuul dauy ul, tuul dúl drumz, un rauy lĕe

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> England is always so pronounced, never as in received speech with two gs = Ingglund.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> In the first four editions Margery adds here, 'No more chon't-vor ort's know.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Thomasin, with its diminutive *Tamsy*, pronounced Taam zeen, Taam zee, was a very common name, but is becoming rarer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This form is rare now, but I have heard it. *Tail*, like *plain*, is sounded much broader, *tawyul*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This epithet is always in the plural, and it is so given elsewhere, l. 118.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> This is very emphatic, hence the aspirate and the drawling out of uur, the usual she, into hae ur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> *Have.* (See W. S. Gram., p. 96.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> First is pronounced generally with f sharp, fuus. Occasionally this is thickened into v as in the text, but the r is not sounded. Vuus is a noun—the technical name of the ridge-piece of a roof.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Always u-tèokt. (See W. S. Gram., p. 48.) See also 'Nathan Hogg.'

512 upon enny Kesson Zoul.\(^1\)—Ad; nif es come athert en, chell gee en a Lick;—chell ly en o'er tha Years;—chell plim en, chell tose en, chell cotten en, chell thong en, chell tann en;—chell gee en a

515 Strat in tha Chups;—chell vag en, chell trem en, chell 'drash en, chell curry hes Coat vor en;—chell drub en,² chell make hes Kep hoppy.—Ad! chell gee en zutch a Zwop;—chell gee en a Whappet, and a Wherret, and a Whisterpoop too:—Ad chell baste en to tha true Ben.

[Speaks in a great Passion, and shews with his Hands how he'll beat his Adversary.<sup>3</sup>

520 Margery. Lock, lock, lock, Cozen Andra? Vor why vore 4 be ye in zitch a vustin Vume?—Why, es dont zey twos Jo Hosegood zes zo, but only zo tha Crime of tha Country goth.

Andrew. Well, well, Cozen Magery, be't how twull, whot caree I? 6 — And zo, Good-buy, Good-buy t'ye, Cozen 525 Magery. — Nif Voaken, be jealous avore they be married, zo they mey arter. — Zo Good-buy, Cozen Magery. Chell net

trouble ye agen vor wone while, chell warndy.

Cozen Magery. Chell het trouble ye agen vor wone while, chell warndy.

Margery. [Calling after him.] Bet hearky, hearky a Bit, Cozen Andra! Es wudent ha ye go awey angry nether. Zure and 530 zure you wont deny s to zee me drenk?— Why, ya hant a tasted our Cyder yet. [Andrew returns.] Come, Cozen Andra, here's t'ye.9

Andrew. Na, vor that Matter, <sup>10</sup> es owe no <sup>11</sup> Ill-will to enny Kesson, net I.—Bet es wont drenk, nether, except <sup>12</sup> ya vurst 535 kiss and Vriends.

[Kisses her.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Soul is always pronounced with sharp s. A zoa'l is a plough, and natives never make mistakes in names. See Devoniensis, p. 64; also note, l. 297.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> After p, b, f, v, the n changes to m. (See W. S. Gram., p. 65.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Not a dialectal word.

<sup>4</sup> See l. 1 ('Scolding').

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This is a very common phrase, but the *it* is usually omitted. *Bi aew* twûl, spoken almost like one word, is the precise equivalent of the Cockney anyhow.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> This is possible, but most improbable. It would now be haut d-aay kee ur? or haut audz uz ut tu mee? This is the first appearance of I in either Scolding or 'Courtship.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> In salutations and farewells it is most usual to add t-ee = to you.

pun ún če kaes n Soa'l.¹—Ad; neef es kaum udhuurt-n, ch-úl gee un 512 u lik;—ch-úl laay un oa ŭr dhu yuu rz; ch-úl plúm un, ch-úl toaz-n, ch-úl kaut-n un, ch-úl dhaung un, ch-úl tan un;—ch-úl gee un u straat-n dhu chuups; ch-úl vag-n, ch-úl trúm un, ch-úl draash-n, 515 ch-úl kuur ĕe úz koa ut vaur-n, ch-úl druub-m,² ch-úl mak úz kep aup ĕe.—Ad! ch-úl gee un zúch u zwaup;—ch-úl gee un u waup ut, un u wuur ut, un u wús turpèop the .—Ad ch-úl bae ŭs-n tu dhu trùe bai n.

[Spaikth een u guurt paar shn, un shoath wai úz anz aew u-l bait-s adversary.<sup>3</sup>

Margery. Lauk, Lauk, Kuuz'n An'dr! Vur waay voa'r <sup>4</sup> 520 b-ee een zúch u vuus'teen vùem?—Waay, es doa'n zai twuz Joa Oa'zgèod zaes zoa, bút uun'ĕe zoa dhu kruym u dhu kuun'trĕe gooth.

Andrew. Wuul, Wuul, Kuuz'n Maa'jurĕe, bee't aew twúl,<sup>5</sup> haut kee'ŭrĕe aay? <sup>6</sup>—Un zoa, Gèod bwuuy, Gèod bwuuy t-ee,<sup>7</sup> Kuuz'n Maa'jurĕe. Neef voa'kn bee júl'ees uvoar dhai bee u-maar'ĕed, zoa 525 dhai múd aartur.—Zoa Gèod bwuuy, Kuuz'n Maa'jurĕe. Ch-úl nút truub'l ee ugee'ŭn vur wan wuy'ŭl, ch-úl waurn'd-ee. [Gwai'n.

Margery. [Kau leen aa dr-n.] Bút aar kče, aar kče u beet, Kuuz n An dr! Es wúd-n ae-ee goo-wai ang grče naedh ur. Zhoo ur un Zhoo ur yùe oa'n dinaa y <sup>8</sup> tu zee mi draengk? Waay, yùe aa'n 530 u-tae ŭstud aa wur Suy dur eet. [An dr rai tuurnth.] Kaum Kuuz n An dr, yuur-z t-ee.<sup>9</sup>

Andrew. Naa, vur dhaat Maat ur, $^{10}$  es oa noa  $^{11}$  ee 'ŭl wee 'ŭl tu ún ee Kaes'n, nút aay.—Bút es oa'n draengk, naedh ur, saep  $^{12}$  yùe fuus kees-n vrai nz. [Keesth ur. 535

Maur neen t-ee (good morning), Gèod nai t-ee (good night to you), &c. Buy in good-buy is always bwuuy = be wi' ye.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> This is the real old intransitive form of the verb—simply to refuse. It is still used commonly in this form, but is rather rare as a transitive verb.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> This is the most usual form of pledging. In a hay-field the first drinker usually says before putting the cup to his lips, *Kaum soa ŭs*, *yuur-z t-ee* (come mates, here's t-ye).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> I never heard this phrase—matter is not dialect. Andrew would have said, Naa, zu vuur-z dhaat gooth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This is literary. In such a sentence a double negative would be invariable —Es dont owe no ill-will.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Except is unknown—sacp or saeps are common.

- 536 Margery. Ya wont be a zed.<sup>1</sup>—[He drinks.]—Well, bet hearky, Cozen Andra; wont ye g' up and <sup>2</sup> zee Grammer avore ye g' up to Challacomb? Tes bet jest over tha Paddick, and along tha Park.<sup>3</sup>
- And how do have tare along ? 6

Margery. Rub along, d'ye zey? — Oh! Grammer's wor <sup>7</sup> Vower Hundred Pounds, <sup>8</sup> reckon tha Goods indoor and out a door.

545 Andrew. Cham glad to hire et; vor es olweys thort her to ha be<sup>9</sup> bare Buckle and Thongs.

Margery. Oh, no mun; hare's mearty well to pass, 10 and maketh gurt Account 11 o' me, good now.

Andrew. Cham glad to hire o' thet too. Mey  $^{12}$  be hare  $^{13}$  may 550 gee tha a good Stub.—Come, let's g' ender  $^{14}$  than.

[Takes her  $\Lambda$ rm  $^{15}$  under his, and leads her.

# SCENE Old Grammer Nell's.

To her enter Andrew and Margery.

Andrew. GOOD DEN, good Den, Ont Nell.—Well, how d'ye try? How goth et wey ye. 16

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> You won't be answered or contradicted, gain-said. Common phrase.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> And in rapid speech would become m after p. See note, l. 516.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See note, l. 114.

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  This expression sounds quite foreign to the district. Es doa'n kee'ŭr muuch would now be said.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This is quite characteristic to leave out the *prep. to* before the infinitive, but it should have been *due goo vur zee*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Common phrase = how does she do? Another equally common would be How do her bear't up?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Worth is now always waeth.

<sup>\*</sup> Margery would never say hundred pounds, but would say hundreds of pounds. (See W. S. Gram., p. 11.) Hundred is spelt hunderd in early editions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Here the part, prefix is omitted for euphony. At length it would read to ha a be. Robert of Gloucester usually wrote ibe for the p.p. of to be.

Margery. Yùe oa'n bee u-zaed.\(^1\)— [u drengkth.] — Wuul, bút 536 aar kee, Kuuz'n An'dr; oa'n ee g-uup-m\(^2\) zee Graam ur uvoa'r ee g-uup tu Chaal ikum\(^2\) Túz bút jest oa vur dhu pad eek, un ulaung dhu paark.\(^3\)

Andrew. Es kee ŭrnt muuch  $^4$  neef-s dùe goo  $^5$  zee Oa'l Aunt Nal : 540 Un aew du hae ŭr tae ŭr laung  $^2$   $^6$ 

Margery. Ruub ulaung, d-ee zai? Oa! Graam·ur-z wuur vaa·wur uun·durd paewn, s raek·n dhu gèo·dz ee·ndoo·ŭr-n aewt u doo·ŭr.

Andrew. Ch'úm glad tu huy'ŭr ut; vur es au'vees dhaurt uur 545 tùe u bee $^9$ bae'ŭr buuk'l-n dhaungs.

Margery. Oa, noa mun; hae ŭr-z muur tee wuul tu paas, 10 un makth guurt ukaewnt 11 u mee, gèo-naew.

Andrew. Ch-úm glad tu huy ŭr u dhaet tùe. Mai $^{12}$  bee uur $^{13}$  múd gi dhu u gèod stuub.—Kaum, lat-s g-yaen dur $^{14}$  dhan. 550

[Takth ur aarm een 15 uun dur eez, un lai dth ur.

# SAI'N Oa'l Graam'ur Nalz.

T-uur ai ntur Andr un Maajuree.

Andrew. C EOD-AI'N, gèod-ai'n, Aunt Nal.—Wuul, aew d-ee traay? Aew gooth ut wai'ee? 16

'Ar king Willam adde ibe king Volliche bre zer.'

Reign of William Conq., l. 317 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

<sup>10</sup> Mighty well off.

<sup>11</sup> i. e. sets great store by me. Very common expression.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Mayhap, mee-aa p, is much more common. May be is very bookish.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> The transcriber persists in spelling *her*, *hare*, but it cannot be right when unemphatic. *Har* is more like it, but too broad. *May* is not so used

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Let us go yonder then.' Yonder is a very rare word—lat-s g-yaen dhan is the usual dialect form. Yaen is very common. (See W. S. Gram., p. 84.)

<sup>15</sup> Although this is mere stage direction, it is as well to point out that in the dialect under is not used alone, but with either in or down or down in to qualify it—'Es voun un down in under the jib.'

<sup>16</sup> This form is the common one in the hills of W. Som. In the vale it is acw due ut goo wai ee?

- 553 Old Nell. Why, vath, Cozen Andra, pritty vitty, whot's chur. Chad a Glam or two about ma.—Chad a Crick in ma
- 555 Back and in ma Niddick. Thoa <sup>2</sup> chur a lamps'd in wone o' ma Yearms. Tho <sup>2</sup> come <sup>3</sup> to a Heartgun. Vorewey struck <sup>3</sup> out and come to a Barngun. Tho come <sup>3</sup> to an <sup>4</sup> Allernoatch; and vorewey fell <sup>5</sup> in upon ma Bones, and come to a Boneshave.—Bet e'er zenz the Old Jillian Vrinkle blessed vore tes pritty vitty;
- 560 and cham come to my Meat list agen.—Well, bet hearky, Cozen Andra: Es hire ya lick a lit 6 about ma Cozen Magery; ay, and have smelled about her a pritty while. Chawr<sup>7</sup> a told that <sup>8</sup> ye simmered upon wone tether up to Grace Vrogwill's Bed Ale. 9—Well, Cozen Andra, twull <sup>10</sup> do vary well vor
- 565 both. No matter <sup>11</sup> how soon. Cham all vore, <sup>12</sup> and so chawr <sup>7</sup> zo zoon's es hired o'et.—Hare's net as <sup>13</sup> zome Giglets, zome prenking mencing Thengs be, oll <sup>14</sup> vor Gamboyling, <sup>15</sup> Rumping, Steehopping, <sup>16</sup> and Giggleting; bet a tyrant Maid vor Work, and tha stewarliest <sup>17</sup> & vittiest Wanch that comath on tha' Stones o' 570 Moulton, no Dispreise.

<sup>2</sup>—<sup>2</sup> i. e. then. (See W. S. Gram., p. 87.) This was the regular literary form in the olden time—

'Bot whe he had brouzt po four' kindam? to hepe, And won pe cyte of Chest' also, He comandede all men to clepe All his lond England po.'

Chron. Vil. (ed. Hoare), st. 22.

be is used throughout the Chronicon. See p. 81, note 17.

Robert of Gloucester (ed. Morris and Skeat).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quite obsolete. I think the s a mistake in the text. It should have been whot chur, otherwise it would read what I I were. On the other hand there is authority for a pronoun preceding the ch (see Glossary, chave); but it is strange that in the text just below, l. 555, the same speaker uses chur alone for I were. Haut aay wauz is the present form, i. e. compared to what I was,

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Duc Willam was to old 'nyne and tritti 3er.'—l. 195.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; po his bataile was ydo · duc Willam let bringe.'-1. 197.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;& Richard pat was po a child.'-1. 107.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>—<sup>3</sup>—<sup>3</sup> Examples here and following of the still very common omission of the nominative. (See W. S. Gram., p. 34.)

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  The article an is literary; not used in the dialect even before a vowel. See W. S. Gram., p. 29.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Fell is unknown.

Old Nell, Waay, faath, Kuuz n Andr, púrtee vútee, haut-s 553 ch-ur.¹ Ch-ad u glaam ur tùe ubaewt mu. Ch-ad u krik een mu baak un een mu Núd'ik. Dhoa² ch-ur u-laampsud een wan u mi 555 ae urmz. Dhoa 2 kaum 3 tùe u aart-guun. Voa rwai strèokt 3 aewt un kaum tùe u baarn-guun. Dhoa kaum³ tùe u⁴ Aal'urnbaach; un voa rwai vaald 5 een pun mu boa ŭnz un kaum tùe a boa ŭn-shee ŭv.— Bút ae ŭr zúnz dh-oa l Júl yun Vringkl blas ud voa r túz pur tĕe vút ĕe; un eh-um u-kaum tu mi Mai t lust ugee un. - Wuul, but aar kee 560 Kuuzm Andr; es huyur ee lik u leet 6 ubaewt mu Kuuzm Maajurëe; aay, un-v u-smúld ubaewt ur u púr tĕe wuy ŭl. Ch-awr u-toa ld dhut 8 ee súm'urd pun wan taedh'ur aup tu Grae'ŭs Vraug'wee'ŭlz bai'd ae'ŭl.9—Wuul, Kuuz'n An'dr, t-l 10 dùe vuur'ee wuul vur bèo dh. Noa maat ur 11 aew zèo n. Ch-úm aul voar, 12 un zoa ch-awr 7 565 zu zèo·n-z es huy·ŭrd oa ut. Uur-z nút uz 13 zaum Gig·luts, zaum prengkeen mún seen dhaengz bee, aul 14 vur gaambuw leen, 15 ruum peen, stee aupeen 16 un gig lteen; bút u tuy runt maa yd vur wuurk, un dhu stùe urlees 17 un vút ee-ees waunch dhut kaumth pun dhu stoa un u Moaltn, noa deespraayz. 570

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Pay a little attention. Not an uncommon expression, borrowed from canine courtship, and the idea is developed in the next line by the *smelling about*.

<sup>7-7</sup> *I was.* The form in the text quite obsolete. This is the same word as spelt *chur*, ll. 554, 555.

<sup>8</sup> That as a conjunction is far less frequently used than how or eens.

<sup>9</sup> Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub'—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;A man that's bid to a bride-ale, if he have cake And drink enough, he need not vear his stake.'

Act II. sc. i. (Turfe).

<sup>&#</sup>x27;And by that means the bride-ale is deferred.'

Act III. sc. i. (Turfe).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> The w is quite dropped in it will—unless emphatic, always  $t\hat{u}l$  or t'l.

<sup>11</sup> No odds is much more natural. No matter is quite literary.

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$  I am all for it (or in favour), and so I was, &c. Lit. I am all forward. Common expression.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> As is not dialect, like is the proper word.

<sup>14</sup> See note, l. 201,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Spelt gambowling elsewhere, the correct sound.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> In early editions we read *steehopping*, ragrouting, and gightting. The last word is always pronounced with t in the final syllable, precisely as written in the text—giggle-ting. This reading is an improvement on the first ed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Stewardlest, vittest (no and), in early eds. Vittiest is the better reading.

571 Margery. [Softly aside <sup>1</sup> to her.] Thenk ye, Grammer, thenkee keendly.—And nif es shudent ha en shou'd borst ma Heart.

—[Aloud.] Good Grammer, dont tell me of marrying. Chave a told Cozen Andra ma Meend already, thet <sup>2</sup> chell ne'er marry 575 yer ort es know.

Old Nell. Stap hether,<sup>3</sup> Cozen Magery, a lit and tarn these Cheesen.<sup>4</sup>—[Pretendedly private to her.] Go, ya Alkitotle,<sup>5</sup> why dedst<sup>6</sup> tell<sup>7</sup> zo, tha wert <sup>8</sup> ne'er marry? Tha wutten ha tha leek; <sup>9</sup> a comely sprey vitty Vella vor enny keendest 580 Theng. Come, nif tha wut ha en, chell gee tha <sup>10</sup> good Stub. Thare's net a spreyer Vella in Challacomb.

Margery. Bet Grammer, wull ye be zo good's ya zey, nif zo be, vor your Zake, es vorce ma zel to let en lick a bit about ma?

Old Nell. Ay, es tell tha—[Aside]—Cham agest<sup>11</sup> hare'll dra 585 en into a Promish wone Dey or wother.

Andrew. Well, Ont Nell, es hired whot ya zed, and es thank ye too.—Bet now chave a zeed ye, tes zo good as chad a eat ye, as <sup>12</sup> they uze to zey. Es must go home now as vast as <sup>13</sup> es can.—Cozen Magery, wont <sup>14</sup> ye go wey ma a lit Wey.

590 Margery. Mey be <sup>15</sup> es mey go up and zee Ont Moreman, and mey be <sup>15</sup> es mant. [Exeunt.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$   $U\ wan\ zuyd$  = on one side, is the vernacular for a side. This is but stage direction, and perhaps not intended to be in the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> How is much better.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is still the usual form of come here. Step is always pronounced staap.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This plural is quite obsolete.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Alketole in first ed. The text is the correct reading.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Dest in first ed., the evidently true reading.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>\*</sup> <sup>7</sup> Tell is always used for talk—'I heard them telling together,' 'He was telling up all sorts of stuff.' See note to l. 116.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Wert is evidently a misprint, it never can have been used for wilt. In first ed. it is that t never.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Luck. Leek is surely a misprint in the text. It is the same in all editions, but I have never heard anything like it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Here the article is dropped on account of two similar vowels coming together. Spoken slowly it would be *gi tha a good stub*. In first ed. read *gi'* for *gce*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> This word is spelt agast, l. 229—the correct reading.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;& is folc uor mid him as hii were agaste.'
Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., l. 142 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

Margery. [Sau flée uzuy d¹ tùe ur.] Dhaengk ee, Graam ur, 571 dhaengk ee keendlee.—Un-eef es shèod-n ae-un, shúd buus mi aart.
—[Ulaewd.] Gèod Graam ur, doa'n tuul mee u maar ee-een. Ch-uv u-toa'ld Kuuz'n An'dr mu meend urad ee, dhut ² ch-úl nae'ur maar ev vur aurt es noa.

Old Nell. Staap aedh'ur,³ Kuuz'n Maa'jurče, u leet un tuurn dhai'z cheez'n.⁴—[Purtai'ndeen pruy'vut tu uur'] Goa, y-Aal'kitoa'tl,⁵ waay dús⁶ tuul ² zoa—dhu wút ³ nae'ur maar'ĕe? Dhu wút-n ae'ŭ dhu luuk;⁰ u kaum'lee spraay vút'ĕe Vael'u vur ún'ĕe keen'dees dhaeng. Kaum, neef dhu wút ae'-un, ch-úl gi dhu ¹⁰ gèod stuub.— 580 Dhur-z nút u spraay'ur Vael'u een Chaal'ikum.

Margery. Bút Graam ur, wúl ee bee zu geod-z ee zai, neef zu bee, vur yoo ŭr zae ŭk, es foo ŭs mi zuul tu lat un lik u beet ubaewt mu?

Old Nell. Aa'y es tuul dhu—[uzuyd]—Ch-úm ugaa's <sup>11</sup> uur-úl drae un een tùe u praum'eesh wan dai ur nuudhur. 585

Andrew. Wuul Aunt Nal, es huy ŭrd haut ee zaed, un es dhaengk ee tùe.—Bút naew ch-uv u-zeed ee, túz zu gèod-z ch-ad u ai t ee, uz <sup>12</sup> dhai yùe z tu zai. Es mus g-au m naew zu <sup>13</sup> vaas uz es kan.—Kuuz n Maa jurĕe, oa n <sup>14</sup> ee goo wai mu u leet wai ?

Margery. Mai bee  $^{15}$  es mai g-uup-m zee Aunt Muur mun, un mai 590 bee  $^{15}$  es mant. [Exeunt.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Falsnesse for fere bo 'flegh to be freres, And gyle dud hym to gon 'agast for to deye.' Piers Plowman, C. Pass. III., l. 221 (ed. Skeat, E. E. T. S.).

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Of this meruaille agast was all the prees,
As mased folk they stoden everichone.'

Chaucer, Man of lawes tale, 1. 677.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; þe Englysshmë þey woxe a gast.'
Chronicon Vilodunense (ed. Hoare), st. 71.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> As in this sense is not dialect. It should be sae um-z (same as), or eens they uze to zey.

<sup>This as is also literary, and impossible to Andrew.
The w in wont is quite dropped in the dialect.</sup> 

<sup>15—15</sup> Mayhap is much more common—may be is 'fine talk.' This sentence, to be vernacular, must be thus—'Mee-aap es múd g-uup-m zee Auunt Muurmun, un mee-aap es múd-n.' Mant is a word in an unknown tongue, '

# SCENE the open Country.

Enter Andrew followed by Margery.

592 Margery. D! es'll zee en up to Challacomb-Moor Stile.—

Now must es 1 make wise ehuwr 2 a going to Ont Moreman's, and only come theez 3 Wey.

[Aside.]

595 Andrew. [Spying her.] Cozen Magery, Cozen Magery! stap a lit.<sup>4</sup> Whare zo vast mun?—[She stays.]—Zo, now es zee ya be as good as yer Word; na, and better; vor tha zedst mey be chell, and mey be chont.

Margery. Oh, ya take tha Words tether Way. Es zed may be 600 chell, and may be chont, go up and zee Ont Moreman. Es zed no more an zo. Es go thes Wey vor to zee hare 5 that es oll. Bet chudent go zo vur to meet 6 enny Man in Challacomb, ner Parracomb, ner yeet in oll King George's Kingdom, bless hes Worship! Meet tha Men aketha!—Hah! be quiet, es zey,7

605~a creeming a Body  $^8$  zo. And more and zo, yer Beard precketh illvavourdly.  $^9$  Es marl  $^{10}$  what these gurt black Beards be good vor. Ya ha made ma Chucks buzzom.  $^{11}$ 

Andrew. Well, whot's sey, Cozen Margery? Chell put in the Banes a Zendey, $^{12}$  bolus nolus.

610 Margery. Then es ell vorbed 13 min, vath.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In this form the first person singular is still very often as in the text. *Naew mus ees mak wuyz* would be the common idiom at present. It is written *ees* in first ed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Chuwr must be a misprint. It is spelt chawr on the last page = I were, and also spelt chawr in first ed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is usually dhee'z in North Dev., dhee'ŭz in West Somerset.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> I think this must have been intended for *bit*, *staap u beet* is so very common a phrase, and more in harmony with the context.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Her is here emphatic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Meet is pronounced very short, also sweet, feet, keep, &c. The fine it in pit, knit, &c., of received Eng. exactly represents the sound.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Spoken rapidly, the s before z is lost. See numerous instances in W. S. Gram., also see l. 597.

<sup>\*</sup> This would be far more commonly unee bau dee than u bau dee.

 $<sup>^{9}</sup>$  I never heard this word in the dialect. It might be used, but if so the f in farour would be pronounced sharp.

# SAI:N dh-oa·pm Kuun·trĕe.

Ai ntur An dr u vaul ĕed bi Maa jurĕe.

Margery. A D! es-l zee un aup tu Chaal ikum Moar Stuy ul. 592 Naew mus ees <sup>1</sup> mak wuyz ch-awr <sup>2</sup> u-gwai n t-Aunt Muur munz, un uun če kaum dheez <sup>3</sup> wai. [Uzuyd.

Andrew. [Spuy'een oa ur.] Kuuz'n Maa-jurĕe, Kuuz'n Maa-jurĕe! 595 Staap u leet' Wae-ŭr zoa vaas, mun !—[Uur staapth.]—Zoa, naew e-zee yùe bee zu gèod-z yur wuurd; naa, un bad'r; vur dhu zaeds mai bee ch-úl, un mai bee ch-oa'nt.

Margery. Oa, yùe tak dhu wuurdz taedh ur wai. Es zaed mai bee ch-úl un mai bee ch-oant g-uup-m zee Annt Muur-mun. Es zaed noa 600 moo ŭr un zoa. Es goo dheez wai vur tu zee hae ŭr <sup>5</sup> dhaat úz aul. Bút ch-èod-n goo zu vuur tu mit <sup>6</sup> ún ĕe mae ŭn een Chaal ikum nur Paar ikum, nur eet een aul Keng Jaurjuz keng dum, blas úz wuush up! Mit dhu mai n ukaedh u! — Aa! bee kwuy t, e-zai, <sup>7</sup> u-krai meen u bau dĕe <sup>8</sup> zoa. Un moo ŭr un zoa, yur bee ŭrd praekth 605 ee ŭl-fae ŭvurdlĕe. <sup>9</sup> Es maar ul <sup>10</sup> haut dhai z guurt blaak bee ŭrds bee gèod vaur. Yùe v u-mae ŭd mi chuuks buuz um. <sup>11</sup>

Andrew. Wuul, haut-s-zai, Kunz'n Maa'jurëe? Ch-úl puut een dhu bae'ŭnz u Zún'dĕe, 12 boa'lus noa'lus.

Margery. Dhan es-l vurbai d 13 mún, faa th!

610

<sup>10 &#</sup>x27;Where is your sweetheart now, I marle?' Ben Jonson, Tale of a Tub, Act II. sc. i. (Hilts).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> I have not heard this adjective verbalised, but it is quite in keeping with the spirit of the dialect, only in the case here given it would certainly be buuz·umĕe. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> On Sunday. This a or u has many meanings. (See W. S. Gram., p. 96.)

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Ac sone azen to Engelonde · a Sein Nicolas day he com.'
Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., l. 254 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

<sup>&#</sup>x27;y-pyned onder pouns pilate : y-nayled a rode.' Dan Michel (A.D. 1340), Credo (ed. Morris, E. E. T. Soc.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Curiously this word is always pronounced thus, and it was so doubtless when the 'Courtship' was written. Both bed and bid have the same sound, baid.

611 Andrew. Oh! chell trest that vor thate. Es dont thenk you'll take zo much Stomach to yer sel as to vorbed min avore zo menny Vokes.—Well, Cozen Magery, good Neart.

 $\it Margery.$  Cozen Andra, good Neart. — Es wish ye well to 615 do.

# SCENE Margery's Home.

To Thomasin enter Margery.

Margery. ZESTER Tamzen, where 2 art? Where art, a popeling and a pulching? Dost hire ma?

Thomasin. Lock, lock! Whot's the Matter, Magery, that the leapest, and caperest, and sing'st so? What art the 620 hanteck?

Margery. That's nort to nobody.<sup>3</sup> Chell whistley, and capery, and zing,<sup>4</sup> vor oll thee.<sup>5</sup>—Bet yeet avor oll,<sup>6</sup> nif tha wuttent be a Labb of tha Tongue now, chell tell tha sometheng—Zart!<sup>7</sup> whistery!—Ma Banes g' in a Zendey, vath, to Andra, 625 the spicest Vella <sup>8</sup> in Sherwill Hunderd.

Thomasin. O La! why there lo! Now we shall be marry'd near together; vor mine be in and out agen;—thof 10 my Man dont yeet tell ma the Dey. Es marl he dont pointee whot's in the Meend o'en. 11

Margery. Chell g' in to Moulton To-marra pritty taply, to buy  $^{12}$  some Canvest vor a new Chonge.

i i. e. 'You will not have the face,' &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The first where art has the accent on the verb, the second on the adverb.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> One of the commonest sayings in the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This ought to be *singy* in the text, as much as *capery*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Common phrase = in spite of thee or notwithstanding thee.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This phrase, very common in the district, is the equivalent of the howsomever of other dialects, and of nevertheless of lit. Eng.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> I think Zurt! is a common quasi-oath like Zounds! and not as given in the Glossary.

Andrew. Oa! ch-úl trús dhu vur dhaet. Es doa'n dhaengk yùc-ul 611 tak zu muuch stuum'ik¹ tu yur-zuul-z tu vurbai'd mún uvoa'r zu mún'ĕe Voaks.—Wuul Kuuz'n Maa'jurĕe, gèod nec'ŭrt.

Margery. Kuuz<sup>-</sup>n An<sup>-</sup>dr, gèod nee<sup>-</sup>ŭrt.—Es weesh ee wuul tu dùe.

# SAI'N Maa jurĕez Aew z.

Tu Taam zeen ai ntur Maa jurëe.

Margery. ZAES:TUR Taam zeen, wur 2 aant? Wae ür urt u-poapleen un u-puul cheen? Dúst uy ür mu?

Thomasin. Lauk, Lauk! Haut-s dhu maat ur, Maa juree, dhut dhu lai pus, un kee upurus un zingus zoa? Haut, urt dhu han tik?

Margery. Dhaat-s noa urt tu noa baudĕe.³ Ch-úl wús lĕe, un kee upurĕe, un zing ĕe,⁴ vur aul dhee.⁵ But eet uvoa r aul,⁶ neef dhu wút-n bee u Laab u dhu tuung naew, ch-úl tuul dhu zaum feen.— D-zaart! wús turĕe!—Mu bae unz g-een u Zún dĕe, faath, tu An dr, dhu spuy sees vael u ⁵ een Shuur weel Uun durd. 625

Thomasin. Oa Laa! waay dhae'ŭr loa! Naew wee 9 shl bee u-maar'ĕed nee'ŭr tugadh'ur; vur muyn bee een un aewt ugee'ŭn; thauf 10 muy mae'ŭn doa'n eet tuul mu dhu dai. Es maar'ul u doa'n pwuuy'ntĕe haut-s een dhu meend oa un. 11

Margery. Ch-úl g-een tu Moa'ltn tu maar'u púr'tee taap'lĕe, tu 630 buy 12 zum kan'vúst vur u nùe chaunj.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Fellow is spelt vella throughout in the text, but this is one of the errors like those referred to by Devoniensis, p. 64. See note, l. 462.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> We is not heard in the district. This is evidently a slip of the transcriber. Should be us, or rather es, as in the text throughout, except in 1. 378.

<sup>10</sup> Thanf is always pronounced with sharp th, the direct converse of though, its equivalent in received Eng.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>This form of possessive is much more used than his. (See W. S. Gram., p. 13.)

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$  Here it ought to have been  $vur\ tu\ buy.$  (See W. S. Gram., p. 52.)

632 Thomasin. Ay, ay; zo do; vor the cassent tell what mey happen 1 to the in thy middles Banes.

Margery. How! ya gurt Trapes!—Whot dest me-an by thate? 635 Es scorn <sup>2</sup> tha Words. Ded ort hap to thee in thy middle Banes? Happen aketha!

Thomasin. Hah! Ort happen to me in my middle Banes? Es scorn et to tha Dert o' ma Shoes, looks zee, ya mencing, kerp-639 ing Baggage,—Varewell.<sup>3</sup>

To those who are unacquainted with the Glossic System, or who have not the key referred to in page 16, the following brief abstract will be found convenient.

The Consonants b, d, f, j, k, l, m, n, p, t, v, w, y, z, and the digraphs ch, sh, th, have their usual values; g is always hard, as in gig; h initial as in ho! (only used for emphasis in this dialect); s as in so, never as in his; r is reversed or cerebral, not dental or alveolar, and ought properly to be written x, but for convenience simple r is printed; ng as in sing, think = thingk; ngg as in anger = ang gur; zh is used for French j, the English sound in vision = vizh un; and dh for the voiced form of th, as in that = dhat. The Vowels, found also in English, are a as in man; aa in bazaar; aa short, the same in quality, but quantity short; ai in aid; ao; like o in bore; au as in laud; au the same short, as a in watch; ee in see; ee, the same short, as in French e in e

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Happen is unknown. This is a simple literaryism.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Scorn is a rare word in the dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This word is pronounced with f sharp.

The Third Edition has

<sup>&#</sup>x27;So end all the Dialogues.'

Thomasin. Aa'y, aa'y ; zoa dùe ; vur dhu kas-n tuul haut múd 632 aap  $^1$  tu dhu een dhi múd  $^1$  bae'ŭnz.

Margery. Aew! yu guur-trae-ups!—Haut dús mee-un bi dhaet? Es skaurn <sup>2</sup> dhu wuurdz. Dúd oa-urt aap tu dhee, een dhi múd 1635 bae-unz? Aa-p ukaedh-u!

Thomasin. Haa! Oa'ŭrt aap tu mee'-n mi múd·l bae'ŭnz? Es skaurn ut tu dhu duurt u mi shùez, lèok-s zee, yu maen seen, kyuur-peen bag'eej.—Faar'wuul.<sup>3</sup>

uu, a deeper sound of u in up than the London one, but common in England generally; ua, a still lower and deeper sound; u (now used for Mr. Ellis's oe No. 28, and i,  $\dot{e}o$ ,  $\check{u}o$ , No. 30) is the natural vowel heard with l in kind-le =kind al. It lies between in and un, and etymologically is a lowered and retracted i, as  $t \hat{u} m \cdot u r$ ,  $z \hat{u} l = \text{timber}$ , sill. The diphthongs  $a a \cdot w$ , as in Germ. haus; aay, long aa, finishing with i, as in Ital. mai; aay, the same with shorter quantity (a frequent form of English I); aew, ae finishing in oo, sometimes heard in vulgar London pronunciation, as kaew = cow; auy, as in boy (nearly);  $au^{y}y$ , with the first element longer or drawled; uw = ow in how; uy, as in buy = i, y in bite, by; uuy, the same a little wider, under influence of a preceding w, as pwuny zn = poison. Imperfect diphthongs, and tripthongs, or fractures formed by a long vowel or diphthong finishing off with the sound of  $\check{u}$ , or the natural vowel, are numerous; thus  $ae\check{u}$  (nearly as in  $fair = fae\check{u}$ );  $ao'\check{u}$  (as in more = mao' $\check{u}$ );  $ee'\check{u}$  (as in idea, near);  $oa'\check{u}$  (barely distinct from ao·ŭ, say as in grower = groa·ŭ); oo·ŭ (as in woo·er = woo·ŭ); aaw·ŭ (as in our broadly);  $aay \check{u}$ ;  $aew \check{u}$ ;  $uw \check{u}$  (as flower = fluw  $\check{u}$ );  $uy \check{u}$  (as in ire =Of the imperfect diphthongs ee'ŭ and oo'ŭ, from the distinctness of their initial and terminal sounds, are most distinctly diphthonal to the ear, the stress being also pretty equal on the two elements. The turned period after a vowel, as oo; indicates length and position of accent; after a consonant it indicates shortness of the vowel in the accented syllable, as  $vadh \dot{u}r = v\ddot{a}dh'\ddot{u}r$ . As a caution, the mark of short quantity is written over ĕe, ŏa, when short, as these are never short in English; and it is used with  $\check{u}$  when this has the obscure unaccented value found in ă-bove, mannă, nation, etc. The peculiar South-western r must be specially attended to, as it powerfully affects the character of the pronunciation. It is added in its full strength to numerous words originally ending in a vowel, and whenever written it is to be pronounced, not used as a mere vowel symbol as in Cockney winder, tomerrer, etc. sound is here expressed by  $\check{u}$ , as  $win d\check{u}$ ,  $maar \check{u}$ .

# POSTSCRIPT.

List of variations in the readings in the first, third, and fourth editions as compared with the text. (See note to p. 11, also Postscript, p. 60.)

The figures opposite each line denote which edition, in my opinion, has the true reading, if the difference is of any moment.

Line				Line	9		
	read	Tamzin sister to Marge	ery	347	read	stap for step	1
		for Thomasin (Title)		348	,,	thee! thee for thee, thee	1
	,,		for	349	,,	Gar! for Gar,	1
		Margerys Home	1	349	,,	Castn't for Cassent	
322	,,	dispreize for dispreze	1	350	,,	zes I for zeys I	1
323	,,	thek for thate	9	351	,,	ha was for a was	
323	,,	and eet for yeet	1	351	,,	mad than for mad thoa	9
325	,,	vary for very		352	,,	thek, for thate	9
326	,,	morst for most	1	352	,,	zes he for zeys he	1
326	,,	burst for bost	9	355	,,	Add, then ees for A	d,
326	,,	well for wall				thoa es	9
327	,,	oll for all		358	"	ees for es	
327	,,	ees zay for es zey	1	359	,,	eel for he'll	1
327	,,	ees hant a zee'd for	es	359	,,	Warrant for varrant	1
		hant a zeed	1	360	,,	t' Exeter for to Exeter	1
330	,,	e'er zince for e're since	1	365	,,	Tom Vuss for Tom Vuzz	9
330	,,	scorst for scoast	1	365	,,	hes for his	
330	,,	t'ather for tether	1	365	,,	thet for that	
331	"	zo for so	1	<b>3</b> 66	,,	he begun for he begun	
333	,,	ee for you	1	366	,,	do's for deth	9
<b>3</b> 39	,,	Matter for Mater		368	,,	knows for knowth	9
339	,,	cou'den for Couden		369	,,	Veather for vauther	1
340	"	leke for like		369	,,	ha for he	1
342	,,	zey o' me for zey o' me	1	371	,,	wipe for whipe	
<b>3</b> 45	,,	looze for lost	9	371	"	zindeys wi for zendeys we	y
347	,,	drumm'd <i>for</i> drubb'd	1	371	,,	Bet for But	1

Line			1	Line		
373 r	ead	bezneze for besense	1	427	read	Zister for Zester
375	,,	quiet for quite (2)	9	427	"	blankets for blonkets 1
375	"	zay for zey		428	,,	ees 'll for es ell 1
375-6	"	es (3) for ees (3)	9	429	,,	prezently for presently
377	"	be zo mullad for be mullad	1	430	,,	zee for see
380	"	than for thoa	9	432	,,	you for ye
381	"	squeamesh for squeamish		437		Veather for Vauthur 1
383		ees for es	9	439	"	we for wey 9
384	"	zure (2) for sure (2)	1	440	"	zo for so 1
385		noteze for notese	_	440	12	whotjecomb for whatje-
387	"	bezneze for besenese		110	"	comb
387, 3	"	donce for dannee		441		tha Boy for the Boy
389		uzeth for useth		442	"	was ta-en for wos taken
390	"	a zed for a sed	1	443	"	zung zed for sung sed 1
	"	ees for es	9	1	"	0 0
390, 3		v	9	443	"	24441125 ) 07 104441111
392	"	ha wos for a wos veddlestick for viddlestic	1-	444	"	yow for ye
392	"	v	K	444	"	Thare's for There's 1 begure for be sure 1
393	"	bargen for bargain	0	446	"	beland jor be sine
399	"	ees for es	9	447	"	Look's zee for Look see
<b>3</b> 99	"	ee for ye	l l	448	"	Lissen'd for Lissened
400	"	zignavies for zignivies	1	449	"	what es for what's
400	"	to for ta		449	,,	zee that for see thate 1
401	,,,	volus nolus for bolus nol			,,	Tamzen enter for Thomasin
402, 4	103	thek (2) for thate (2)	9			enter 1
402	"	ye for ya	9	453	,,	fath for vath
404	"	yow for ya	9	454	,,	b'leive tha Banes wull for
405	,,	statad for stated	_			beleive thy Banes will 1
406	,,	dree for three	1	456	"	downreert for downreet 1
498	,,	girred for gerred	_	457	,,	dont ee for dont ye 1
410	"	of for o'	9	458	"	zey for sey
414	"	t'ather for tether		459	,,	zometheng for sometheng 1
416	,,	lock, dost for look, dest	9	459	,,	amost for amorst 9
417	"	vur yore for vur vore	9	459	,,	zure for sure 9
418	"	twanty for twonty		460	,,	other for ether 9
418	,,	purse for puss	9	460		Zendey (2) for Zindey (2)
421	,,	$\operatorname{ner} \operatorname{eet} for \operatorname{nor} \operatorname{yeet}$	1	460		zenneert for senneert 1
423	,,	marryd <i>for</i> marra'd		461	,,	E's not abo' for Es net
424	"	$\operatorname{cud} for \operatorname{es} \operatorname{coud}$	1			aboo
424	"	zwear chudn't <i>for</i> swe	ear	463	"	Ees a zooterly for Es a sooterly 9
425	,,	Squaer for Square	1	464	,,,	thare's for there's
425	,,	zet for set	1	465	,,	Countervit for Cunterveit 9
426	,,	a lit for a bit	9	466	,,	tha meend for thy meend 9
426	,,	ees murst for es must	9	467	,,,	wudstn't for wudsent
426	,,	chamber for chember		467	,,,	Bezides, zo for Besides, so 1
						1

Line   Line	
467 read as knowst for as tha 496 read ne'er for never	
know'st 9 496 , No more chon's	t vor ort's
ACT District 1	
400 many Albitala Guina Albit 407	11 1 2 1 2 1
40410	
400 war ount milest for me	or zower-
count realish 501 man and 111 0	-
450 h-R 1 C 1 -1 1 1	or ya
1 1 1 2 2 1 700 11: 1 2 1	
470 ,, ees zed chudn't for es sed 503 ,, this is for thes e	
chudent 1 506 ,, of that goeth	
471 ,, zo zart for so sart 1 goth	9
471 ,, ees wudn't for es wudent 509 ,, Doil, and tell	for Doil,
472 ,, vurword for vurward tell	
473 ,, ees (2) for es (2) 510 ,, Add! gi'	for Ad;
473 ,, zed zey for sed sey 1 gee	
473 , Zundey for Zindey 9 511 , lay the	
474 ,, ner borst ma for ner yeet ly tha	•
borst ma 511 ,, toze for tose	1
475 " Zendey-zenneert for Zin- 515 " Add! gi'.	
476 , shoort for short $1 \mid 515$ , whapper for what	ippet 1
476 ,, es shall $for$ es chell 1   517 ,, Benn $for$ Ben	
477 ,, ees es zel $for$ es ees   519 ,, ee $for$ ye	
zell 9 519 " fume ees	for vume
477 , thes for theez 9 $\dots$ es	
479 ,, zo for so $1 \mid 520$ ,, only that zo for	only zo 9
481 , get for git 9 520 , goeth for goth	9
482 ,, Zyder for Cyder 9 525 ,, yow for ye	1
482 , will ee for wull ye $1 \mid 527$ , ees away for	or es
482 ,, bread and cheeze for brid awey	
and chezee 1 528 ,, ma drenk, wull y	e? for me
484 , came for come 9 drenk?	1
484 , bezides for besides 1 528 , yow for ya	1
484 , Denner for Dinner 1 529 , Zyder for Cyder	9
485 ,, dost for dest 9 530 ,, tee for t'ye	
488 ,, zure for sure 9 532, 534 yow (2) for ya (2	2)
488 ,, yow ar'n't for ya bant 9 535 ,, hearkee for hear	
489 ,, vorgetvul for vorgetful 9 538 ,, Ees caren't for H	Es earent
490 , eesees for eses 541 , vour for vower	9
490 ,, ee mean for ye mean 1 541 ,, Hunderd for Hu	indred 1
490 ,, what for whot 545 ,, Oh, no no mun	
494 ,, Ees for es mun	1
494 ,, zame for same 1 547 ,, thek for thet	9
495, 496 ees (3) for es (3) 547 ,, mey for may	
495 ,, wudn't for wudent 548 ,, gi' for gee	

Line	,		Lin	e	
	read	Ount Nell for Ont Nell		read	yow be zo for ya be as 1
550	,,,	goeth et wi' for goth et	596	,,	$\max (2) \text{ for mey } (2)$
-	,,	wev 9	597	"	yow t'ather for ya
553	,,	Tho chawr for Thoa chur		,,	tether
556	,,	vell for fell	597.	598	ees (2) for es (2)
557	"	zince for zenz 9	598	,,	chell g' up for chel
557	"	Jilian for Jillian		,,	go up 1
559	"	Ees yow for es ya	599	,,	Ees for es
560	"	smeled pritty for	599	"	Wey to zee for Wey vor
-00	"	smelled pretty		,,	to zee
561	,,	yow t'ather for ye	599	,,	that's for that es 9
001	"	tether	600	"	chudn't for chudent
562	,,	twell for twull	601	"	ner eet for ner yeet 1
564	"	eeshiredo't for eshiredo'et 9	602	"	ees zey for es zev
565	"	Steehopping, ragrouting	604	"	ees marl whot theze for es
	"	and gigletting for Stee-		,,	marl what these
		hopping and giggleting	605	,,	yow for ya
567	"	stewardlest, vittest for	606	"	zey Magery for sey
•	"	Stewarliest and vittiest 9		,,	Margery
569	,,	Thenkee for Thenk ye 1	607	,,	volus nolus for bolus nolus
570	"	nif's shudn't for nif es	608	"	ees'll vorbed men fath for
	,,	shudent 9	- "	"	es ell vorbed min vath 1
571	,,	o' for of . 1	609	,,	thek yow'll for thate
572	"	that, for thet	000	"	you'll 9
573	"	ort's for ort es 9	610	"	yare zel men for yer
574	"	hather for hether 9		77	sel min 1
574	"	lite and tern for lit and tarn	611	"	many for menny
575	,,	alketole for alkitotle 9	613	"	Tamzin popling for
576	,,	dest for dedst		,,	Tamzen popeling
576	22	tha' rt for tha wert	614	"	Dest for Dost
578	29	gi' for gee	615	& 899.	Tamzin for Thomasin
579	,,	spryer for spreyer 1	616	,,	zing'st zo for sing'st so 1
580	,,	wullee yow for wull ye	619	,,	yow for thee 9
		ya 1	619	"	Eet a vor oll for yeet avor
581	"	ees do vorce for es vorce 1			oll 1
585	,,	chat eat for chad a eat 9	620	"	zometheng for sometheng 1
587	,,	wontee go wi' for wont ye	621	,,	fath for vath
		go we <b>y</b>	625	,,	eet tell me Ees for
588	"	ees may g' up for es mey			yeet tell ma Es 1
		go up	628	"	zome for some
589	,,	ees for es	622	"	whot for what
590	,,	Add! ees'll for Ad! es'll	630	,,	tha for thy
591	"	ees chawr for es	631	,,	thek for thak 9
		chuwr 1	632	"	happen for hap 9
592	"	thes for theez 9	634	,,	ees for es
					I 2

# A VOCABULARY OR GLOSSARY,

#### EXPLAINING

THE MOST DIFFICULT WORDS IN THE FOREGOING DIALOGUES.

The original Glossary is reprinted verbatim from the Edition of 1778.

It will, of course, be understood that the etymologies here given are exact reproductions, and are by no means to be considered as correct. Many of them are wrong; as, for example, *Lock!* from the A.S. word to look; which word, moreover, is said to be locan, instead of lócian. Many more of these etymologies are simply ridiculous.

The present editor's remarks upon each word are inserted at the end of the respective paragraphs, and commence with the present pronunciation of the word, unless obsolete, in Glossic between square brackets [ ].

The reference figures have been inserted immediately after the word, and apply to the lines of the text.

In many instances words are said to be 'from Ang. Sax.' where no A.S. word is given. In these cases the word presumed to be intended has been inserted in italics and within brackets [ ?].

When no further definition of a word is given, it must be understood that the original Glossary gives the full meaning as understood at present.

The words of the text which are not in the original Glossary but which seem to need explanation have been added, and are printed in Italies, their pronunciation in Glossic immediately following the word. I desire gratefully to acknowledge the many valuable hints I have received from Professor Skeat, as well as the kind assistance of Mr. Chorley, of Quarme, in the remarks following.

## A

- Abomination, 111 [ubaum inae urshn], this word is scarcely dialect, though it is very frequently used by the working class as an expletive. 'Abomination shame,' abomination lie,' are very common.
- Ad! 17, 72, 85, 93 [ad], an interjectional quasi oath, still very common. Of the same meaning as Gar!
- Acad-Clathing, 155 [aid-klaadheen], head-clothing or covering, cap or bonnet (rare). Clathing is very commonly used for covering, precisely as coat is used in lit. Eng.—as 'a good clathing o' thatch,' 'a thick clathing o' dung.' In both these examples coat would be the idiom of received Eng.
- Agar, 350 [u gaur], a quasi oath.
- Agest, 359, 584, aghest, or agast, 229, Afraid, terrified; and sometimes used to express such great Terror, as if a Ghost had appeared. [ugaa's] (common). See note, 1. 584.
- Agging, 75, murmuring, provoking, egging on, or raising Quarrels. [ageen] nagging (very common).
- Agog, 228, going. At present this would be Zaut ugoo instead of Zet agog, as in the text. All agog is still common in the sense of 'all up for anything.'
- Aketha, 456, 604, 636, Akether, 76. See note, p. 32 (obsolete).
- Alkitotle, 470, 577, a silly Elf, or foolish Oaf. Perhaps, a foolish Creature troubled with Fits or Epilepsies, to which the Elk, in Latin Alce, is said to be subject. Q. [aal-kitoa·tl] (obsolete, but not forgotten).
- Allernbatch, 24, 557, an old Sore: From the Angl. Sax. Ælan, accendere, Botch ut Supra; and then it may signify a Carbuncle or burning Boil. [aal urnbaach] (common).
- A-long, as spelt in some former Editions, but should be F-long, means slanting. [airlaung or ulaung]. At present this word means flat, not slanting—all along = at full length. I have no knowledge of E-long. Slanting, in the ordinary sense, cannot here be meant; warped or drawn awry is the meaning. Halliwell gives avelong, elliptical, oval. In the Promptorium Parvulorum (ed. Way) avelonge is translated oblongus, with a note: 'This word occurs again hereafter, WARPYN, or wex wronge or auelonge as vesselle, oblongo. In Harl. MS. 1002, f. 119, oblongo is rendered to make auelonge; and in the Editor's MS. of the Medulla, oblongus is rendered auelonge. Moore gives the word avellong, used in Suffolk, when the irregular shape of a field interferes with the equal distribution of the work.'
- Ancest, 80 [unee us], near. Used indifferently with a-nigh, but always with some verb implying motion. It would not be used to explain a

situation, such as 'the house lies aneest the road'—here it would be nigh or handy the road; but it would be said, 'I wad-n ancest the place,' because the was not implies did not go.

- Angle-bowing, 198, 212, a Kind of Feneing against Sheep: From Angl. Sax. [angel?] a Hook, or Bending of a Fishing Rod. [ang·l-boa·een]. Note that one g only is sounded, not two as in lit. Eng. Angle-bowing, as described p. 46, is still used on the turf-coped walls of the Exmoor district; and would also now be understood to mean a kind of fish-poaching by means of an angle-bow or wire noose fixed at the end of a rod. To set angle-bows, is to set wires for game. Any running noose is called ang·l-boa. See angylle, Prompt. Parv.; also note to Ed. of 1778, p. 46.
- Antle-beer, 274, Cross-wise, irregular: Ab Antæ, the Door-Posts. [an'tl-bee'ŭr] (rare, still in use). The form of two uprights and one cross-piece, like a door-frame. I fail to see any sort of connection between badly-ironed linen and a door-frame. 'Antle-beer, gallows fashion,' is common.
- A-prill'd, 194, 313, Sour'd, or Beginning to turn sour; when applied to Milk, Beer, &e.; sometimes to be prickt or gored, so as to be made to fret or fume. Vide Skinner. [u-pur'ld] (rare, obsolescent). It is common to speak of eider as 'pricked' when turning sour, and there is connection between pritch (q. v.), or prick, and pritchell, a black-smith's punch.
- Apurt, Sullen; disdainfully silent, with a glouting Look; in a sour dogged Disposition. [upuurt]. It is still common to say 'her's a gone off apurt.'
- Arrant, 396 [aarunt], errand; always so pronounced.
- Athert, 198, 512 [udhuurt], athwart, across. This word, pronounced as above, is the only one to express across or crosswise in use in the dialect. A cross-cut saw is always a dhuurt zau.
- Avore, 17, 29, 73, 108, 122, 199, 261 [uvoar], before; also very frequently until, or by the time that. U-l kip aun uvoar ee-v u-broakt-n ubroa id, 'He will keep on until he has broken it to pieces,' was said in my hearing very recently of a child playing with a picture-book. Dhik ul lèok d'urnt uvoar ee-z u-fun eesh, 'That (article) will look different by the time that (not before) he is finished.' See note, 1. 108.
- Avore oll, 291 [uvoar au'l], nevertheless, notwithstanding (the regular phrase).
- Avroar, 123, or Avraur, Frozen, Frosty. [uvroa·ŭr] (rare). See note 17, p. 37.
- An Axwaddle or Axwaddler, 144 (from the Devonshire Word Axen for Ashes), an Ash-padder or Pedlar; one that collects and deals in Ashes; sometimes one that tumbles in them.—Hence an Axen Cat; and sometimes one that paddles and draws lines in them with a stick or poker. [aaks-waud'l] a well-remembered but obsolete trade. Not many years ago, coal fires were unknown in the Exmoor district, and ashes meant only the ashes of burnt wood or peat; even now the two kinds are carefully distinguished as aar shez and kow'l aar shez. Before the cheapening of alkalies for washing, wood-ashes used to be, and

still are, placed in a large box strainer; water is thrown upon them, which, when poured off, is quite clear and of the colour of porter; this is called lie [luy], and being strongly alkaline is still used in

some places for washing, to save soap.

The axwaddles used to go about with a pack-horse and collect the surplus dry ashes from farm-houses, paying for them in drapery or other pedlary wares, but seldom in money. Cottagers used only to have sufficient to make their own lie. Axen for ashes is now spoken by some very old men, and the word is also retained in the names of several farms, &c.

Ay, 234. See Hy.

## В

Ba-arge, 122, 201, 226, 238, from the Saxon [bearh ?], Majalis, a Barrow-pig, generally used in Devonshire to signify a fat heavy Person, one that is unwieldy as a fatten'd Hog. (Obsolete.)

Baggage, 44, 279, 639 [bag eej], a common term applied to females only. Puurtee oa'l bag'eej, uur ai'z, shoa'r nuuf. This word has no connection with Baggaged. Bundle [bun'l] is an equally common epithet for a woman.

Baggaged, 4, or By-gaged, Behagged, i. e. Hog-ridden or bewitch'd. [bag-eejd, bigae-ŭjd] (common), over-looked, hag-ridden.

Banes, 455, 460, 474, 609 [bae·ŭnz], banns of marriage; also bands, middle-bands, q. v.

'Andr. Would that were the worst.

Fox. The very best of our banes, that have prov'd Wedlock. Come, I'le sing thee a catch I have Made on this subject.'

'The Women's Conquest,' 1671.

Banging, 6, 500, large, great. [bang een] (very common). This word is used only in connection with gurt, and generally seems to be merely complimentary to it, adding no particular force as to size, but implying a coarseness of quality, precisely like the Italian acci, as in carta, cartaccia. In the text (6) it implies a hoidenish bouncing as well, in consequence of its being separated from gurt. A gurt banging lie, a gurt banging dog, are common phrases.

Bannee, 233, 264 [ban-ee], to rudely contradict (still used, not common).

Bure, 546 [bae'ur], simple, plain, unadorned (very common as used in the text).

'Polish. Before her as we say, her gentleman usher, And her cast off pages, baro to bid her aunt Welcome.'—Ben Jonson, 'Magnetic Lady,' Act ii. sc. 4.

'Fitzdottrel. That's your proportion! and your coachman bald, Because he shall be bare enough.'

Ben Jonson, 'Devil is an Ass,' Act ii. sc. 1.

Barngun, 557, some fiery Pimples breaking out upon the Skin; or, perhaps, a burning Sore of the Erysipelas Kind, vulgarly called St.

Anthony's Fire: But this is what the Devonians call Ill-thing, from the Angl. Sax. (beornan?) to burn. [baarn'guun], an inflammatory skin disease. I believe it to be shingles, which I have heard called barney-gun (rare, but still used). See Heartgun.

Barra, 409, or Barrow, a gelt Pig [baaru], this word is not now used alone, but always with pig—barrow-pig (the only term in use).

Buste, 93, 518 [bae us(t], to beat so thoroughly that the beaten one shall steam. All the words for thrashing have various fine shades of meaning.

Bate, 226 [bae ut], to contend, to quarrel. A bate, a passion, a rage.

'And hat hey repented hem wonder sore, h' ev' hey maden azeyn hurr' bate or stryff.' Chronicon Vilodunense, ed. Hoare, stanza 739.

Beagle, 243 [bai-gl]. I cannot find that as an epithet this word has now any particular force. Its use here seems to mean simply bitch.

Beat, 197, or Peet, Turf burnt for the Improvement of cold land, commonly called Burn-beating, and in some Counties Denshiring, because frequently used in some Parts of Devonshire. [bai't, beet] (daily use).

Bed-Ale, 564, Groaning Ale, that which is brewed for a Gossiping or Christening Feast. [bai'd ae'ŭl] (very common). We do not now talk of groaning ale but of groaning drink. I doubt if the former term was ever used, the latter is still quite common. The term ale applies to the festival, not to the drink, as in Two Gentlemen of Verona, Act ii. sc. 5:

'Launce. . . . . Not so much charity as go to the ale in a Christian.' So also Piers Plowman, ed. Skeat, Prol. 42:

'Feyneden hem for heore foode 'fouzten atte ale.'

'Bride-Ales, church-ales, clerk-ales, give ales, lamb-ales, leet-ales, Midsummer Ales, Scot-Ales, Whitsun-Ales, and several more.'—Brand's 'Pop. Antiq.' (4to. ed.), vol. i. p. 229.

See note 9, p. 103.

Beest, 196. This I believe to be a mere piece of literary dialect. I have often heard beeth [bee'dh] construed with a plural nominative, but never with a singular. See Robert of Gloucester, William of Shoreham, Chaucer, &c., who all use bet with plural construction.

Begit, 493 [bigit], forget (very common still).

To the true Ben, 19, 519, or Bend, soundly and to the Purpose. [tu dhu true bai'n] (common).

But leetle rather, 210 [but lee'dl rae'udhur]. Rather means earlier in point of time in the dialect, and is never used to imply a preference, for that the word is zèo ndur, sooner. See note 3, p. 96.

Betwattled, 4, seised with a Fit of Tattling, or betotled and turn'd Fool. [bitwaut'ld] (obsolescent).

Be voor days, 122. See Vore days. I quite dissent from the definition here given, which appears to be contrived to render the text

intelligible. The present term is uvoa r dai, meaning before daybreak. In the 'Ancren Riwle' (ed. Camden Society), p. 20, we read:

'& lesten vort efter prime ibe winter erliche; ibe sumer biuor deies.'

To this is a note referring to the Cleopatra MS., giving another reading, 'I sumer bifor's marezen.' Here we have the identical phrase as old as the XIII. cent. clearly meaning before daybreak. I think the true meaning of l. 122, however small the connection may be with the text, is "Thou wilt coal varty a-bed until (just) before daylight." One of the very commonest similes for a person who fusses about without doing anything is "jist like an old hen avore day."

Blazee, 233, 264 [blae uzee], fly into a rage and scold loudly and abusively (very common still).

Blazing, 42, 308, spreading abroad News, or blazoning and proclaiming the Faults of others. [blae uzeen] (very common). Belg. oorblaesen? to blow in one's Ear, meaning to whisper. One often hears, 'So-and-so will blaze it all over the place.'

To Blenky or blenk, 124, to snow but sparingly, resembling the Blinks or Ashes that sometimes fly out of a Chimney, and fall around the Place. [blaenkee]. Possibly to whiten. This word is rarely used respecting snow, but is very commonly applied to the falling of sparks or flakes of fire. See Snewth.

Bloggy, 258. See Blogging.

To Bless vore, 25, 559 (i. e. to bless for it, with a View to cure it), to use Charms or Spells to cure Disorders.—' She should have needed no more Spell.'-Vid. Spenser's Calender, Ægl. 3d. & Theocriti Idyll. B. Ver. 90. [blas voa r] to charm, very commonly spoken about warts. The word probably is used in the sense of to wave or brandish, as in passing the hand backwards and forwards over the affected part while reciting the hocus pocus: this meaning may be derived from the common action used in the benediction:

> 'And burning blades about their heads doe blesse,' Spenser, 'Faerie Queene,' Bk. i. c. 6.

Blogging, 313, looking sullen. (Obsolete.)

Blowze, 16 [bluwz], rough red-faced wench, hoiden. As a substantive this word is now very rare, but blouzy, rough, romping, hoidenish, is not an uncommon word applied to females.

> ' Whiles Gillett, his blouse, is a milking the cow, Sir Hew is a rigging thy gate or the plow.' Tusser, ed. E. D. S., p. 43.

Blowmaunger, 121, 200, 238 (perhaps from the French Blancmanger, White Meat, a Kind of Flummery), used by the Exmoorians, &c., to denote a fat blown eheek'd Person, as if blown up with Fat by full feeding and juncketing; or perhaps it may be applied to one who puffs and blows while he is eating. (Obsolete.)

Boddize, 13, 83, 84 [band eez], the stiff leather stays worn by country women. I have often seen them worn with no garment covering them, and in that case the state of deshabille favours the description in p. 84 (Courtship), where 'He takes hold and paddles,' &c.

- Bolus nolus, 401, 609 [boa·lus noa·lus], nolens volens. This is still a common expression, picked up no doubt originally at the Suy·zez (Assizes).
- Bone-shave, 23, 258, The Sciatica. See Note to Page 26, also p. 70. [boa'ŭn shee'uv] (common).
- Boostering, 295, Labouring busily, so as to sweat. [bèo:stureen] impetuous, bustling, working in a fussy, blustering manner (common).
- Borst, 256, 391, 572. See Bost.
- Bost, 50, 249 [buust], burst. This word is constantly used in the sense of break—in 1. 50 this is the meaning; she is like a fresh-yoked steer, so headlong that she would burst, i. e. break, the plough tackle, however strong. So in 1. 220, bost dha neck o' en, i. e. 'break the ewe's neck;' 1. 249, bost tha cloam, i. e. 'break the crockery.'
- Bozzom, 63, 72, 607, or, Buzzom-chuck'd, 502, The having a deep dark Redness in the Cheeks. [buuz-um chuuk·ud] (still used, rare). See note, l. 607.
- Bresh, 82 [brish, buursh], beat, thrash; indefinite as to implement.
- Briss, 156, Dust.—Briss and Buttons, Dust and Sheep's Buttons or Sheep's Dung. [brús] (very common). This word does not mean simply dust—for that pilm [púl'um] is the word—but the fluffy kind of dust found behind furniture, or in old barns. So in the text, briss and buttons means the fluffy, cob-web sort of dust to be got from an old shed, or from pulling about fusty hay, and the clinging burs of thistles or cly. In this place and connection, I do not think buttons mean sheep's dung.
- A Brocking Mungrel, 259, a Mungrel Jade that is apt to throw her Rider.—From the Saxon [Broc?] Caballus, [and?] a Monger. [braukteen muung grul]. I wholly dissent from the above explanation. Brocking (quite obsolete) meant badgering, hence bothering, aggravating. Mongrel was not applied to horses but to dogs, and hence the epithet in the text is perhaps simply equivalent to aggravating bitch. Prof. Skeat says: 'The place in A.S. where broc is applied to a horse is contemptuous; the true sense being badger only. The epithet means literally a mongrel dog used for badgering or brocking, without regard to the fact that a mongrel would be of slight use for such sport.' The word mongrel is very commonly applied in a contemptuous sense to any creature, man or beast, and conveys the idea of low or bad breeding. 'A mongrel-bred bullock,' 'a lot of mongrels' (sheep), 'a gurt mongrel' (a coarse, ill-bred man), are every-day expressions.
- Buckard, or, Bucked, 205, when spoken of Milk, soured by keeping too long in the Milk-Bucket, or by being kept in a foul Bucket.— When spoken of other things,—hircum olens, having a rankish Taste and Smell. [buuk'ud] (very common). The word is not now used in the senses here given, but is applied to cheese only, when instead of being solid it has a spongy look and is full of cavities.
- To Buckle, 291, or, Buckle to, to gird up the Loins,—to be diligent and active. [buuk'l túe] (very common).

Buckle and Thongs, 546 [buuk'l-n dhaungs], an expression (still used) to imply emptiness, as of the straps and buckles to bind a burden, but without the materials to be bound. See Bare.

Buddled, 136, Drown'd, Suffocated, as if in the Buddle Poll, and serv'd as Tin Oar, when washed. [buud'ld] (rare, but in use). A buddle-hole is a hole made in a hedge for a drain.

Buisy (Ab. A.S.) (?), Busky my Boys! [This word does not occur in the text.—Ed.]

Buldering Weather, 205, hot and sultry, tending to Thunder. (Obsolete.)

Busking, 312, running up against one-anothers Busk (sic) by Way of Provocation. Q? [buus keen] (very common), raising the busk—or Americane, 'rizin the dander.' The busk is the hair or bush, growing along a dog's back, which when angered by another dog he raises on end, or stivers. A cat raises her fur also, but I never heard of a cat's busk. So busking means doing or saying something to excite another's choler.

Buttons, 156, besides the commonly known meaning of the word, is sometimes us'd to express Sheeps Dung, and other Buttons of that Kind; as also the Burs on the Herb Burdock, but these in Devonshire are call'd Cuckold-Buttons, in some other Places Beggars-Buttons. See Briss.

Button'd, 214. See Buttons.

Buzzom and Buzzom-chuck'd. See Bozzom.

Bygaged, 251, 254. See Baggaged.

### C

Candle-teening, 314, Candle-lighting.—To teen and dout the Candle means to put in and put out the Candle. [kan'l-teen'een] (common). Teen the candle = light the candle, is a common expression. See noto, 1, 314.

To Canifile, 257, or, Canifilee, to dissemble and flatter. (Obsolete.)

Cantlebone, 280 [kan·tl-boa·ŭn] (common), usually the collar-bone. In the text the expression is equivalent to 'break the back.'

Caree, 228, 263, care. See note 6, p. 50.

Cassent, 127 [kas-n], canst not. See W. S. G., p. 64.

Cat-ham'd, 120, ungainly, fumbling, without any Dexterity. [kyat-aamd or aam'ud] (very common). Generally applied to horses, and especially to moor-bred ponies; but I have heard it used respecting persons, and then it implies *splay-footed*. The more usual form is *cat-hocked* [kyat-unk'ud].

Caucheries, 183, 243, perhaps for potential Cauteries, Caustics or burning Medicines; but in Devonshire means any Slops or Medicinal Compositions without any Distinction; the same with Couch or Cauch, perhaps from the Gr. (sic) miscere, to mix or mingle. [kau'chureez]. Cauch is still used in the sense here given, but I never heard of caucheries. The word implies rather a plaister or salve than a potion.

Chad, 244, 256, 554, 555, I had.

Cham, 405, I am.

- Champe, 219, a Skuffle. (Obsolete.) I doubt this definition. It is quite common to say, 'I ont ha no more chim-cham,' i. e. no more nonsense, objection, hesitation.
- A Change or Chonge, 631, a Shirt or Shift;—because it should be often changed. [chanj]. This pronunciation is not like Eng. change, but the same as in flange. Still the regular name for a shift.

Chant, 231, I am not.

'Chave, 206, 211, 372, 396, i. e. Ich have, I have.—And so 'ch for Ich is prefixed to many other Words, viz. 'Mey be chell and mey be chon't;' i. e. It may be I shall, and it may be I won't or will not. [This form of I is entirely obsolete and forgotten in the district. I cannot but think that its use in the text is much exaggerated, and the more so as it is in one or two instances used in evident error. Before Shakspere's time all these words were written y chave, i cham, icholle, y chull, &c. See 'Essay' by 'Somersetiensis,' p. 73.

Chawnt, 245, I will not; Chont, 11, 598, 600.

Chawr, 563, 565. See Chur.

Chell, 246, 404, 413, 421, I shall.

Chingstey, 302 [cheen stai], chin-stay, the cap-strings tied under the chin. The leather strap which fastens a bridle by passing round the jaw is called a *chin-stay*, but I never heard the term applied as in the text.

Chittering, 63, 309 [chút ureen]. This word (still very common) implies something between chattering and tittering. The noise made by a number of sparrows is called chittering. Applied to a person, it signifies something lower than chatter—something as meaningless as the twittering of sparrows. See note, 1, 309.

'The feathered sparrowe cald am I;
In swete and pleasaunt spryng
I greatly doe delight, for then,
I chitter, chirpe and syng?
Kendall 'Flowers and Enjoy

Kendall, 'Flowers and Epigrammes,' A.D. 1576.

Chocklee, 232, to cackle. See Chockling.

Chockling, 44, 45, 311, 502, the Cackling of a Hen when disturbed; and when spoken of a Man or Woman, means hectoring and scolding. [chaak leen]. A hen always chackles, never cackles.

To chonge a life. See note 9, p. 87.

Chongy, 123 [chaun jee], changeable, unsettled, stormy—applied to weather (very common).

Chounting, 39, 310, taunting, scornfully reviling, or jeering. This is not derived from chanting, nor has any relation thereto, unless meant in a harsh disagreeable Tone. Vide Chun. [chuwn teen] (still used). The word implies mumbling or mouthing, but more in the way of complaint than abuse.

- Chucked, 302 [chuukt], choked. This word is still always pronounced thus.
- Chuer, 223, in other Counties a Chare, a Jobb of Work; generally applied to the Work of a Person who assists on all Occasions, and in different Kinds of Work: Hence a Chare-women or Chewrer, who helps the Servants in a Family. [chèo'ur in N. Dev., choa'ŭr in W. Som.] (very common). See note 1, p. 50.
- To Chuery or Chewree, 281, 291, to assist the Servants, and supply their Places occasionally, in the most servile Work of the House. [chèo'ŭrĕe, choa'ŭrĕe]. Uur du choa'ŭrĕe, means that she goes out for hire as a charwoman. See note, 1. 223.
- Chun, 14, 244, 278, 287, Quean, or Woman, Q?—But a Quean formerly meant a Whore, and generally now a bad sort of a Woman. [Chun is obsolete, but quean [kwee·un] is very common. 'Her's a nice old quean' may be often heard.]
- Chups, 101 [chuups], chops, i. e. cheeks.
- Chur, 554, 555, I was. See note 1, p. 102.
- Chuwr, 593. See Chur.
- Clathing, Cloathing—Clathers, 135, Clothes. [klaardheen, klaardhurz] (very common). See Aead-Clathing.
- Clam, 133, a Stick laid over a Brook or Stream of Water to clamber over, supplying the Want of a Bridge, a Clap or Clapper. [klaam] called also more frequently a clammer, is still a common name for a board or pole laid across a brook for a foot-bridge.
- Clome, 249, (perhaps from Loam), Earthen-ware. [kloam] (the common name for crockery). Spelt cloam in the text.
- Coad, or Caud, 148, unhealthy, consumptive, or cored like a rotten Sheep. [kao'd] common disease of sheep, through feeding on wet land. Cf. A.S. cos.
- Coal-varty, 122, 272. See note, p. 36.
- Coander, 143 [koa'ndur], corner. The insertion of a d in this and other words, as taa'yuldur, tailor, is still a peculiarity of this dialect. See W. S. G., p. 19.
- Cockleert, 110 (i. e. Cock-light), Diluculum, the Dawn, when the Cock crows: In the Evening, Crepusculum. [kauk-lai't] (very common).
- **Cod-Glove**, 92, a Furze-Glove without Fingers. [kaud gluuv] (obsolescent), now generally called 'hedging glove.'
- **To Coltee**, 265, 296, to act the Hobby-horse, to be as playful as a young Colt. [koal·těe] (very common).
- Colting, 46 [koa·lteen], romping in a very opprobrious sense, when applied to a woman (common). Chaucer has coltish (Halliwell). See also Cymbeline, Act ii. sc. 4.
- Compare, 465 [kmpae'ŭr], comparison (very common).

- 'This offspring of my braine, which dare not scarcely make compare with the foulest.'—'Optic Glasse of Humours,' A.D. 1639.
- To Condiddle, to waste, disperse, or convey away secretly or imperceptibly. [kundúd·l] (still in use). 'I'd a got ever so many old spade guineas wan time, but they be all a condiddled.'
- Condiddled, 290, insensibly wasted away.—Spoken of Goods or Substance, clandestinely and gradually spent and consumed.
- Cornoral Oath, 365 [kaurnurul oa ŭth], an oath as solemn as that sworn before a coroner (common).
- Cort, 210, 213, 389, intended for the past tense of catch. No such form of tense now exists in the dialect, but if it ever did the r would be sounded as in thort = thought. See W. S. Gram., p. 46.
- Cotton, 77, 514 [kautn], to beat, to whack. The use of this word implies an instrument, and not a drubbing with fists or bare hands. See Lace. (Still very common.)
- To Creem, 326, 605, to squeeze, and as it were to cramp. [krai·m] (still in use).
- Crewdling, 159, a cold, dull, unactive and sickly Person, whose Blood seems to be as it were curdled. [krèo·dleen] (still used).
- Crewnting, 43, 45, or Cruning, Groaning like a grunting Horse. [krèo'nteen] grunting, complaining, lackadaisical (common).
- The Crime of the Country, 508, 522, the whole Cry, or common Report of the Neighbourhood. [kruym u dhu kuun tree] (still in use).
- Crock, 248, always means a Pottage-Pot, when not distinguished by an Adjunct; but besides this Porridge-Crock (as 'tis sometimes call'd) there is the Butter-Crock, by which the Devonians mean an Earthen Vessel or Jar to pot Butter in; and the Pan-Crock, which see in its place. [krauk]. The crock is an iron pot of peculiar and well-known shape. It is nearly a globe, having a swinging handle, by which it is hung up to the chimney crook, and has three short projections by way of legs. Moreover, it has always three horizontal rings upon its circumference. Other vessels and utensils change their fashions, crocks never do.
- A Croud, 388, 391, a Fiddle. [kraewd] (obsolescent).

'This fiddle is your proper purchase, Won in the service of the churches; And by your doom must be allow'd To be, or be no more, a crowd.'

Butler, 'Hudibras,' Pt. I. c. ii. l. 1002.

'A lacquey that can . . . wait mannerly at a table . . . Warble upon a crowd a little.'

Ben Jonson, 'Cynthia's Revels,' Act i. sc. 1.

Crouder, 392 [kraew·dur], fiddler (common).

Crown, 86 [kraewn], to strike on the head (rare, but not obsolete). The use of some instrument is implied in this word.

A Crub, 486, a Crumb of dry Bread, with or without Cheese. [krèob] (obsolescent).

To Cuff a Tale, 298, to exchange Stories, as if contending for the Mastery;—or to canvas a Story between one and another. (Obsolete.)

Curry, 89, 516 [kuur'ĕe], to thrash, to whack. 'I'll curry your hide for you,' is a very common threat. Some weapon is here also implied.

Cutted, 107, 308 [kuutud], a word of rather general meaning, implying erabbed, ill-conditioned, snappish (rare, obsolescent).

D

Daggle-teal'd, 501. See Dugged.

The Very Daps of a Person, 230,—The Aptes, Aptitudes or Attitudes: The exact Likeness of another, in all his Gestures and Motions, [dhu vuur ĕe daaps] (very common).

Deeve, 123 [deef], deaf. See note 16, p. 35.

Dem! 106, 139, You Slut! [dae um] (very common). This word does not now mean you slut! but its use in speaking to any woman would be insulting, without conveying any definite implication.

Good Den, 551, Good E'en, Good Even.—An Afternoon Salutation. —Vide Shakespear's Romeo and Juliet:

> 'Mercutio. God ye Good e'en, fair Gentlewoman! Nurse. Is it Good e'en? Mercutio. 'Tis no less I tell you,' &c.

[gèod ain] (common). The good den of the text is impossible.

Deny, 530 [dinaay], to refuse. This word is still commonly used as in the text, p. 98—'You wont deny to see me drenk.' A quite authentic story is told of a man standing up in a church, not very far from Parracombe, nor very long ago, to forbid banns thus: 'I deny it and defy it, th' ummun's mine!'

'And now he left that pilgrims might denay To see Christ's tomb, and promis'd vows to pay.' Fairfax, 'Tasso,' i. 23.

To Dere, to hurry, frighten, or astonish a Child.—See Thir. (Obsolete.)

Dest, 35, 37, 46, 57, 60, 79, 129. See Dist.

Deth, 366 [deth, dúth], doth. This pronunciation is still that most heard in N. Dev., and has certainly been so for above 500 years.

' be King Phelip of France ' be lasse be of him tolde, & drof him to busemure ' as me ofte deb ban olde.' Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., 1. 463 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

'Ac 3yf bou nart, ich cristni be; And deb bat his to donne.'

William of Shoreham, A.D. 1307, 'De Baptismo,' l. 125.

To tell Dildrams, 511, and Buckingham-Jenkins, 145, to talk strangely and out of the Way.—The latter seems to be an Allusion to

some old incredible Story or Ballad concerning one Jenkins of Buckingham: Q. Whether that Jenkins, who is said to have liv'd to the Age of 167 Years was a Buckinghamshire Man? or what other Person of that Name may be alluded to? (Obsolete.)

The Dimmet, 163, 170, the Dusk of the Evening. [dúm'ut] (very common), the evening twilight.

No Direct, 149, no plain downright Truth, and consequently no Trust to be given. [noa durak-] (very common), no reliance.

Dispreise, 68, 570 [deespraa'yz], a very expressive phrase, still very common, for which no precise equivalent exists in lit. Eng. In l. 68 its use implies that in proclaiming Roger Hill's character to be equal to any other, she by no means wished to put a slight upon the rest.

'Pandarus. I will not dispraise your sister Cassandra's wit.'
Shakspere, 'Troilus and Cressida,' Act i. sc. 1.

Dist, 31 [dús(t], dost. See W. S. G., p. 35, on the use of the 2nd pers, sing.

Distracted, 442 [deestraak tud], mad. This is a word of very common use. 'I be amost distracted wi the tooth-ache.' 'Poor blid, her's most distracted, ever zince he died;' i. e. her husband died.

'Better I were distract, So should my thoughts be sever'd from my griefs.' Shakspere, 'K. Lear,' Act iv. sc. 6.

To Doattee, 143, to nod the Head when Sleep comes on whilst One is sitting up. [doa'ŭtĕe] (very common). The action is occasionally to be noticed in church.

Docity, 209 [daus utee], gumption, knack, handiness (very common still).

To tell Doil, 137, 145, 511, to tell like a sick Man when delirious. (Obsolete.) Compare To Dwallee.

The Dorns, 274, the Door-Posts. [duurnz] (the usual name). This word is quite technical, and is applied to the frame to which a door is 'hung,' when this frame is made of solid, square timber, such as is usually the case in buildings of the cottage, stable, or barn class. The framework of doors in better-class buildings is usually flat, and is then called door-jams or door-linings. See Antlebeer.

It Doveth, 125, it thaws. [doa'vuth] (obsolescent).

The Dowl, 173, 174, 383, 445, or Dæul, the Devil. [daew'ul] (rare, but not unknown).

Dowl vetch tha, 29 [dhu Daewl vaech dhu], the devil fetch thee, a disease of which the context sufficiently explains the meaning. It would be quite well understood nowadays what was meant by such an expression, but it is rare. It implies the almost severest reproach that can be uttered to an unmarried woman.

Drade, 135 [drae ud], drew. See note 9, p. 43. This is a good example of a strong verb in lit. Eng. remaining weak in the dialect. See W. S. G., p. 46.

Drash, 94, 346, 515 [drash, draarsh], to thrash. When used for drub it implies some weapon, as stick or cudgel. The word would not be used to signify a mere drubbing with hands or fists. See Lace.

A muxy Draw-breech, 7, 501, a lazy filthy Jade, that hangs an A-se as if overloaden by the Dirt at her Tail. [draa-búrch] (common).

Drenking, 196 [draeng keen]. In Devonshire this is the food, i. e. meat and bread and cheese, given in the afternoon to labourers during hay-making and harvest. Called in Somerset vower o'clocks or arternoons. It has nothing to do with the cider allowance, which is quite understood to be going on all day, often ad lib. The word drink is applied to malt liquor only. 'A drap o' drink' means 'a drop of ale.' 'A dinner and drinkings' is the usual term for a landlord's feast, meaning the dinner with pipes and grog to follow.

Dressing, 273 [dras een], clothes, linen.

Drow, 245 [droa], throw.

Drow vore, 175, 176, 180, 309 [droa voa·r], to twit (very common still). See note 5, p. 44.

To drub, 347, 516 [druub], to beat, with or without weapon (seldom used—more Cockney than provincial). See Lace.

Dugged, 101, 135, 203, Dugged-teal'd, 16, Dugged-yess, 44, and Daggle-teal'd, Wet, and with the Tail of the Garment dragg'd along in the Dirt. [duug'ud] (common). Sheep when in a well-known dirty state are said to be dugged-tailed.

To Dwallee, 137, or Dwaule, to talk incoherently, or like a Person in a Delirium. [dwau-lĕe] (still used). A man in his cups, who talks in a rambling hiccoughing style, is said to dwallee.

#### $\mathbf{E}$

Earteen, 496. See note 6, p. 96.

Eart one, eart t'other, 159, 160, 225,—Now one, then the other. (Obsolete.)

Ee, 128 [ai·, rarely ee·], eye.

Een, 229 [ee'n], end (common).

Egging, 307, spurring on, or provoking. [ag·een] (See Agging.)

E-long, 275, slanting. (See A-long.)

Elt, See Ilt.

Eu, 364 [un, 'n], him; 214, her. See note 6, p. 49.

'But what was that Zin Valentine? Did you ever know'un, goodman Clench?

As the 'port went o' hun then, and in those days.'
Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. 2.

Es, 2, 10, that is Ise (the Scotch of the Pronoun Ego) which, as well as Ich, is sometimes used in Devon for I.—(See Chave.)—Es or Ez is also

sometimes used for is. [I entirely dissent from this. The use of es in the text is exaggerated but not impossibly frequent. It is the regular us of Devonshire used as a nominative. It is to be heard daily throughout N. D. pronounced ess, and is nothing more than the very common substitution of the plur. for the sing., as in the Cockney let-s look for let me look. This word is spelt ees, ll. 2, 176, but when so pronounced it is used interrogatively only. See W. S. Gram., p. 34.]

## $\mathbf{F}$

Fath ! 19, 345, 347 [faa-th], By my faith! still about the most frequent exclamation of asseveration to be heard in N. Dev. and the Exmoor district of Som. It occurs many times in the text, but is generally spelt vath. This, however, is wrong. In some instances, e. g. l. 19, it is fath! the true pronunciation. See Fy.

Fibbee, 264 [fúb ee], to lie (rare).

Flimflam, 505, 507 [flúm-flaam], idle talk (very common still): quite different from chim-cham. See Champe.

'This is a pretty flim-flam.'
Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Little Fr. L.,' Act ii.
'These are no flim-flam stories.'

' These are no flim-flam stories.' Ozell, 'Rabelais' (Trans.), Prol. Bk. ii. vol. ii. p. 4.

- Foust or a-foust, 155, Dirty and soil'd; but this Word is not used in Devonshire to express mouldiness, as in some other Counties. [fuwst] (very common). This word implies dusty from the winnowing of corn, or from hay, rather than dirty; or if soiled by mud or other filth it must have become dry or 'dried on' before it would be called foust. The word fousty is applied to hay or straw when in a bad condition.
- Fulch or Vulch, 67, a pushing Stroke with the Fist, directed upward; —from fulcio, fulcire, to prop up or support. [vuulch] (used but rarely).
- Full-stated, 405, Spoken of a Leasehold Estate that has Three Lives subsisting thereon; that is, when it is held for a Term, which will not determine till the Death of the Survivor of Three Persons still living. [vèol stae utud] (very common). See notes to ll. 405, 406.
- The whole Fump of the Business, 34, for Frump, (Sanna) (?)—The whole of the Jest; or all the Circumstances of a Story, and the Means by which it came to such an Issue. (Rare.)
- Fusty-lugs, 118, 502—spoken of a big-boned Person,—a Great foul Creature. [fuus tiluugz] (common). Used only in the plural. The foulness implies bad smelling.
- Fy! [faa·y] = par foi, as common an expression in Devonshire as its analogue is in France—'Are you quite sure? Ees fy!' Oh fie! is a common exclamation of disapproval.

In Prompt. Parv., p. 159, ed. Way, Camden Soc., 1865, is a note:

'In the Wicliffite version occur the following passages: "He that seith to his brother Fy (al. fugh) schal be gilty to the counsell."—Matt.

v. 22. "And as thei passiden forth, thei blasfemeden him, movynge her heddis, and seiynge, Vath, thou that distriest the temple," &c.—Mark v. 29.

Compare also Ps. xxxv. 21, and Ps. xl. 18, Prayer Book version.

## G

- Gambowling, 131 [gaambuw·leen], gambolling, frisking. This very common word is always pronounced thus—accent on penult. Gamboyling, 141, 568.
- The Gammerels, 153, the lower Hams, or the Small of the Leg. [gaam urulz] (common), of a quadruped, the projecting joint or elbow of the hind legs; of a human being, the under sides of the thighs just above the bend of the knee.
- A Gapesnest or Gapesness, 186, a Wonderment, a strange Sight.—
  'Fit only for a Gapesness,' i. e. Fit only to be stared at, as some strange uncommon Creature. [gaaps-naes] (very com.), a gazing-stock.
- Gar, 349 [gau'r], a quasi oath, still one of the commonest.
- Geowering, 309, or Jowering, Brawling or Quarrelling. [jaaw ureen] (very common), growling, grumbling in a quarrelsome manner. In the Prompt. Parv. this word is Iorowre and Iurowre, susurro, and in a note (p. 268, ed. Way) is said to be onomatopeic, in the same sense that the sound of some birds is termed jurring or jarring. In the 'Liber Vocatus Femina' (MS. Trin. Coll. Cam.) it is said 'coluere jurrut, and cols syngep.' Cotgrave gives 'Bocquer, to butte or jurre;' also 'Heurter, to knock, jur, or hit violently.' Surely the dialect word to jower is more expressive than any of these for a murmuring, grumbling growl.
- Gerred, 47, 48, 154, or Girred, for Gorred; Dirty or bedaub'd. [guurud] (heard occasionally).
- Gerred-teal'd Meazles, 408, Filthy Swine;—Because frequently scrophulous, or, in many Places, spotted. (Obsolete, unknown.)
- Getfer, 226 [gaet fer] (Gefter in some editions), gaffer, neighbour.
- Gigleting, 131, 141, 568 [gig·lteen], giggling, silly, laughing at nothing. See note 6, p. 39.
- Giglet, 566 [gig·lut], a giddy, silly romp, one who grins or giggles at nothing, when applied to a woman; a wastrel, a good-for-nought, when applied to a man (very common). The Prompt. Parv. has (pp. 193-4, ed. Way) 'Gybelot, gyglot, gygelot, ridax, agagula. Ben Jonson also uses giglot, a wanton girl (Glossary to ed. Gifford, Moxon, 1838). See also Halliwell; 'Measure for Measure,' Act v. sc. 1; '1 Henry IV.' Act v. sc. 1.

'If this be
The recompence of striving to preserve
A wanton giglet honest, very shortly
'Twill make all mankind pandars.'

Glam, 149, a Wound or Sore, a Cut or Bruise, Botch or Swelling, &c. an accidental Hurt. Vide Lampsed. [glaam] (obsolescent).

'A pottage for a gleymede stomak, pat may nozt kepe mete.'—See Prompt. Parv. p. 198.

Glumping, 39, 41, 313, Looking sullen; Dark and lowering, gloomy or glum. [gluum'peen] (very common).

Gooddee, 58, 262 [gèod·ĕe], to improve, to get on. Used very commonly in speaking of cattle. Dhai sheep-l shoa'r tu gèod·ĕe, 'Those sheep will (be) sure to thrive.'

To Gookee, 145, To have an awkward nodding of the Head, or Bending of the Body backward and forward. [gèok'ĕe] (common), to bend backward and forwards, like a cuckoo's well-known swing. To act the cuckoo [gèok'eo].

A Gore-Coat, 154, A Gown or Petticoat gored, or so cut as to be broad at the Bottom, and narrower at the upper Part; such as may be seen in some antient Pictures, particularly of Q. Elizabeth; from Gore a Pleit or Slip.—Vide Ball's Edit. of Spenser's Calander, Ægl. 3. [goa'ŭr koo'ŭt] (common).

'Betere is polien whyle sore pen mournen euermore. Geynest vnder gore, Herkne to my roun.'

Alysoune, l. 41, 'Specimens of Lyric Poetry,' A.D. 1300 (ed. Percy Soc.).

'An elf-quene shall my leman be And slepe under my gore.' Chaucer, 'Cant. T.,' l, 13,719.

'Goore of a smocke, poynte de chemise.'—Palsgrave.

'Gheroni, the gores of a woman's smocke.'—Thomas, 'Ital. Gram.'

Gottering, 187. See Guttering.

To Grabble, 376—for Grapple. [grab·l] (very common), to seize tightly, to hold firmly.

Grammer, 537, 542 [graam ur], grandmother; applied to any old woman.

To Grizzle, 312, to grin, or smile with a sort of Sneer. [gúrːzl] (very common), to laugh in a mocking manner.

A Grizzle-de-mundy, 78, a foolish Creature that grins or laughs at any trifling Incident. [gúr zl-di-muun dĕe] (very common).

Gurt, 6, 15, 39, 118, Great. [guurt] (always thus).

Guttering, 10, 11, 187, Guttling and devouring, eating greedily. [guut'ureen] (very common).

### H

Ha, 167, 214 [u], he, she. See note, l. 214. See also W. S. G., p. 96.

'Nixt pan: ha zette strengpe · pet pe vyendes pet slezpe zent to zygge to keste out.'

Ayenbite of Inwyt (A.D. 1340), E. E. T. S., ed. Morris, p. 263.

The 'Chronicon Vilodunense,' which is a life of St. Editha, speaks of her throughout as he. She is not once to be found.

'And Kyng Egbert sustre also he was And pere inne also hee was ybore.'—Stanza 35.

'Erle Wolstons wyff forsothe hee was Or he toke ye mantell and be ryng And to make a relygiose house of hur owne place He prayede hur brother Eybert be kyng.'—Stanza 36.

'His owne spencer's douzt' he was.'—Stanza 44.

I much doubt if this is from A.S. heo. See En.

Ha-ape, 51, Stop, or keep back,—(To Ha-ape,) is generally applied by Plowmen, to the forcing the Oxen backward, to recover the proper Direction of the Furrow, which is termed Haaping them back; and the Word of Command to the Bullocks in this Case is Haape! Haape back!—l. 51.—'nif Vauther dedn't haape tha,' i. e. If Father did not stop, restrain, and force thee to a contrary Course. [hau'p] (very common). The use of this word would convey an extra insult, as implying that the father would treat his daughter, and use the same language to her, as he would to a bullock. The word is thus very forcible in connection with sture, 1. 49, just above.

Haddick, 123 [ad·ik], haddock. See note 16, p. 37.

Haggage, 27, an awkward slovenly Hag, or Slattern. [ag·eej] (very common), baggage.

Haggaging, 64, 502 [ag'eejeen], slovenly, awkward, beggarly, or dressed like a hag (still in use, but rare).

Haggle-tooth'd, 58, Snaggle-tooth'd. [ag·l-tèo·dhud] (common). Having teeth growing across or projecting.

Halzening, 298, predicting the Worst that can happen. [aal:zneen] (common). Predicting or divining with the halse or hazel rod, hence predicting evil to an enemy, and hence, as now used, speaking or wishing evil generally.

Handbeating, 197 [an-bee iten], digging up the turf to burn it in the process of burn-beating. There is a process of cutting the turf by a sort of large flat knife pushed forward by the chest—this is called spading the beat; but in stony ground, or where there are many roots, the turf must be dug with a mattock—this latter is handbeating. See Beat.

Hange or Hanje, 30, 158, The Purtenance of any Creature, join'd by the Gullett to the Head, and hanging all together, viz. the Lights, Heart, and Liver. [anj, hanj] (the only term in use). The word does

not include the *head* of the animal, as here stated: when sold together, the whole is called *ai·d-n anj*, 'head and hange.'

Hanteck, 620, Antic or frantic. [an tik, emph. han tik] (very common as a noun, but rare as an adjective), cracked, mad.

Hap, 267, 315 [aap], chance; gurt-hap = unusual chance (in daily use). Happen, in any sense, is never heard.

' be couherdes hound but time ' as happe by-tidde, feld foute of be child ' and fast bider fulwes.' William of Palerne, l. 32, ed. Roxburgh Club.

See also Prompt. Parv. p. 226.

'Is wip tresor so full begon,
That if ze happe pervpon,
ze schull be riche men for eure.'
Gower, 'Tale of the Coffers,' 1. 62.

Hare,—Her; by the Exmoorians also used for She.—By the Cornish (on the contrary) and also by some few Devonians, She is often used instead of Her, viz. in the Accusative as well as Nominative Case. [uur, emph. huur]. The hare of the text is too drawn out, even if very emphatic. It is in the Exmoor district a broad sound, almost har. See W. S. Gram., p. 35.

Harest, 32 [aarus], harvest. Always so pronounced.

To Hawchee, 188, 192, to feed foully. [au·chee] (still used, rare), to make a loud noise in feeding.

Hawchemouth'd, 187, One that talks indecently, or rather makes no Distinction between decent and indecent Language, but mouthes out what comes uppermost; and whose Discourse therefore is a mere Hotch-potch. [au·ch-maew·dhud, au·chĕe-maew·dhud] (common), loud, obtrusive, gross in talk. Hauchmouth is a common epithet.

Huy-pook, 88, 284 [aa'y-pèck], hay-cock—the usual word. Pèck u au'y is equally common, but cock is unknown. See Pook.

Heart-Gun, 23, 556 (Cardialgia—Tabum quoddam Cordis:) Some great Sickness in the Stomach, or Pain about the Heart, rather worse than the common Heart-burn. [aa'rt guun] (still in use). Gun as a suffix, probably A.S. gund, seems to mean ailment of an inflammatory kind. See Barn-gun.

To Henn, 248, 255, to take and throw. [Vide Spenser's Calend. Ægl. 3. 'The Pumie Stones I hastily hent and threw.'] But this Word is seldom used in Devon, the' frequently in Cornwall. [ai'n], the most commonly-used word for to fling or throw, as to henn a stone. It does not mean to take and throw. It is in daily use in N. Dev. and W. Som., where to throw [droa'] means either to east down in wrestling or to fell. Trees are always u-droa'd. See note 5, p. 52. This word in no case means to seize or take hold.

Hewstring, 48, 267, Houstring, coughing, wheezing. [èo streen] (very common).

Hey go! 15, 247, 283 [aavy go], Heigho! The g is always sounded in this interi.

Hire, 31, 139, 444, 566, 617—used for Hear. (Still used by a few old men, obsolescent.)

Hoazed, 261, Hoarse.—see Hozed below. [oa·ŭzd] (very common).

Hoazed [u-oa'ŭzd, emphatic u-hoa'ŭzd], become hoarse; used as a verb only in the past participle (still very common). Hoarse [oa'ŭz] is a noun in the dialect. Uur-dh u-guut u tuur'ubl oa'ŭz, 'She has a terrible hoarse.' Prof. Skeat says, 'Why not "cough?" Surely it is here = M.E. host, a cough; not the adj. hoos, hoarse. The r in Mod. E. hoarse is an absurd intrusion, never sounded, and wrong.' Mr. Chorley says, 'I once heard a clergyman say that on going on a Saturday night to do duty for a brother clergyman, he found the sexton walking up and down the river (the Barle) to get a hoaze, he said, as he was to sing bass in church next day.'

To Hobby, 296, 299, to play the Hobby-horse, to be at Romps with the Men. [aub·ee] (very common), to jump on a man's back, to act the romping, wanton hoyden.

Hobby-horse, 46 [aub'ee au's], a sham horse moved by a person inside, a stage horse. In olden times, and even in living memory, the hobby-horse formed part of the sports of the village revel. Applied to a woman the epithet is coarse and offensive. See Ben Jonson, 'Entertainment to the Queen,' vol. v. p. 211, ed. Walley; also

'Shall th' hobby-horse be forgot then, The hopeful hobby-horse shall he lie founder'd?' Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Woman Pleasel,' Act i.

In the same act we are told how the horse was carried:

'Take up your horse again, and girth him to you, And girth him handsomely.'

Holing, 297, Calumniating; ab. A. S. Hol, Calumnia. [oa'leen], picking holes. Prof. Skeat suggests that probably the phrase 'picking holes' arose from a misunderstanding of A.S. hol, detraction.

Horry, 47, 155, 205, foul and filthy. (Obsolete.)

'Of vche best bat berez lyf busk be a cupple, Of vche clene comly kynde enclose senen makez, Of vche horwed, in ark halde bot a payre.'

Alliterative Poems (A.D. 1360), E. E. T. S., ed. Morris, l. 333.

' pat þis synfull world þat so horry ys.'
' Chronicon Vilodunense,' ed. Hoare, st. 467.

In the above quotation the meaning is 'adulterous,' 'lecherous'—hence it may have readily come to mean filthy as applied to clothes.

To Holster, 219, to hustle and bustle, to make a confounded Noise. (Obsolete.)

Hoppee, 95, 206 [aup·ĕe], to hop, to jump. A good example of the inflection ĕe to the intransitive infinitive, which often lends a frequentative force, as in the text. See W. S. Gram., pp. 45, 49.

Hot, 149, 207, 213, 254, 259 [haut], what. This is the true pronunciation, although generally the literary what appears in the text.

- To be Hove up, 52, means the same as Hozed. [oa'v], lifted up, exalted; past tense of heave.
- Hozed or Hawzed, 290, finely off!—Ironically spoken.—Perhaps finely housed, or in a fine Hovel; for the Word Hobble (probably from Hovel) is used by the Devonians ironically in much the same Sense; as, such a-one is in a fine Hobble! meaning in some great Difficulty. [oa'zd]. I doubt the explanation here given. This word is evidently a cant phrase for died, i. e. have become so short of breath as to stop breathing. I have heard the word so used.
- A Huckmuck, 118, a short thick-shouldered Person; or rather meant for a Person with short Legs, one whose Hocks are immers'd in, or bespattered by the Muck or Dirt;—or perhaps an unshapely Creature like a Brewer's Huckmuck, i. e. a sort of Wicker Strainer us'd to prevent the Grains and Muck from running out with the Wort. [uukmuuk], very common as an epithet for a paltry, mean, shuffling person. As a common implement in brewing, it consists of a mere bundle of twigs placed at the bottom of the mashing 'kieve' for the purpose given above. Hence as an epithet it is closely allied to bundle or faggot. Cf. heck, E. D. S. Gless. B. 14, p. 86.
- The Hucksheens, 154, the Legs up to the Hams, or Hocks. [uuk-sheenz] (common), hock-shins, under side of thighs. See Gamerels.
- Hum, 152, 200, 212 [uum, aum], home. Spelt whome, l. 113. See note 6, p. 36.
- To have a Hy to every-body, 232—to call after,—to have some-what to say to:—Heus! Heigh Sir! You Sir! [haay!] (very common), applied to gossips and forward women, 'ready to talk to any man that comes along.'

#### Ι

Jawing, 307 [jau'een], mouthing, growling.

- The Jibb, 249, a Stiller to fix a Barrel of Liquor upon. [júb], the only name in use for a cask-stand.
- Ill hearty, 103 [ee'ŭl aar'tĕe], unhealthy, ailing, delicate (very common).
- The Ilt, 409, the spayed female Pigs. (Obsolete, both word and custom.) This word was formerly gitt or yilt. The Prompt Parv., p. 194, has Gylte, idem quod Galte (nefrendus); and adds in a note: Bishop Kennett in his glossarial coll. gives "galts and gilts, boarpigs and sow-pigs, from old Dan. gallte, porcus."... Any female swine is called a gilt in Staffordshire.
- Jowering, 21, 309, Geowring. See Geowering.
- Ise, 17. See Es. I believe this form of ego does not and never did exist. I'ze means I has = I have, but it is not Western. I have been told by educated people that ise is still used for 'I will,' or rather 'I shall,' = I s', but I can find no sign of it, and I think it is the literary dialect of Shakspere and Ben Jonson, which has been

taken to be infallible—and hence if the form is not used, it ought to be. Professor Skeat agrees with me that it is no more than 'conventional play-writers' slang,' and says that it occurs also in a song in 'Two Noble Kinsmen.'

Jump, 107 [juump], a loose jacket or slop, a man's garment, and hence the piquancy of the abuse; called now a jumper.

# K

- The Kee, 110, 202, 409, the Kine, or Cows. [kae'ee]. This is a common pronunciation. In the singular it is a cow [kae'ee]—cows are [kae'eez].
- Any Keendest Thing, 210, 293, any Kind of Thing,—all Sorts of Things, ever so much. [keendees] (very common).
- Keeve or Kieve, 249, a Mashing Tub. [kee'v]. This word generally means the mash, i. e. the malt in process of infusion. The malt as soon as wetted is left to stand a certain time before the mashing or stirring takes place, and this operation is called setting the kieve. The word kieve used alone in reference to a vessel would be understood to mean a cider-vat, but the same utensil is constantly used for brewing, and then it becomes the mashing-kieve [maer sheen kee'v].
- A Kep, 94, 206, 300, 516, a Cap. [kep, kp]. This is still the usual pronunciation in N. D. and Exmoor district. Spelt kepp, 1. 94.
- Kerping, 308, 638, Carping. [kyuur-peen] (very common), discontented, grumbling.
- **Kesson**, 232, 297, 512, 534, Christian. (Obsolescent; now *kúr'steen*.) See note 18, p. 57.
- A Kickhammer, 279, a Stammerer. [kik-aam ur] (very common), no longer a stammerer, but an insignificant, bumptious little upstart.

Kiver'd, 156 [kúv'urd], covered.

# L

**A Labb**, 3, 459, 623, a Blab. [lab] (common).

'Labbe, or he that can not kepyn non counsel.'
Prompt. Parv., p. 282.

' Quod tho this sely man, I am no labbe, Ne, though I say it, In'am not lefe to gabbe.' Chaucer, 'Miller's Tale,' l. 3506.

To Labbe, 306. I am quite uncertain as to this word. I assume it to be pronounced labee, and if so it might mean let be (obsolete).

'Hee'l purchase induction by simony,
And offers her money her incumbent to bee,
But still she replied, good sir, la-bee,
If ever I have a man, square cap for me.'
Cleaveland's Poems, A.D. 1561 (Nares).

- To Lace, &c., 80, 81, 346.—See below in the Note subjoined to this Page. [lae us] (very common). Implies the use of some pliant instrument; the word would not be used to express a drubbing with the hands or fists. The words referred to below are not all synonymous, and are therefore inserted separately, if in the text. Some imply a particular kind of beating, others the use of some weapon or instrument, others that no other weapon than hands or fists is used.
- To Lackee, 199, to loyter, or be long lacking or wanting from Home. [laak'ĕe] (very common). The word want is scarcely ever heard in the sense in which it is used in lit. Eng.—I want is always I lack or do lackee. Doa'ĭn laak bút tai'n mún'eets tu dree u klauk, 'It wants but ten minutes to three o'clock;' lit. (It) don't lack but.

To Lamb, 346 [laam], to beat, with or without instrument. See Lace.

Lamps'd, 127, Lamed, or disabled by a Wound or otherwise: vel ab A. S. Lama claudus, debilis, enervatus; vel a Lat Barb. Lanceatus. Vide G. J. Vossium de vitiis Sermonia, Lib. 4. Cap. 12. (Very rare.) This word is spelt lams'd in the text, but there can be little doubt of its being the old lampass, a disease common to horses, here verbalised, like rheumatised, spavined, &c.

'Biondello. His horse . . . . besides, possessed with the glanders, and like to mose in the chine, troubled with the lampass, infected with the fashions.'—Shakspere, 'Taming the Shrew,' Act iii. sc. 1.

Lant, 407 [lan], land, i. e. freehold property as distinguished from any other tenure. It is still very usual in speaking of a farm or any piece of ground, 'he'v a bought in the lives and made land of it,' i. e. he has paid for the enfranchisement. A very common saying of a man who has an unattractive daughter is 'her's land to un,' meaning that there is no more chance of her being removed from her home than a piece of freehold, or that in her he has an abiding tenure.

Laping or Leeaping, Leaping. (Not dialect.)

Lathing, 189, Invitation. [laatheen]. Kennett says this is a Staffordshire word, and Halliwell says it is still in use. I believe it is to be heard in N. Dev., though rarely.

Lecker, 287 [laek·ur], drink. Quite another thing from Leckers.

Leckers, 183 [laek'urz], mixtures, or compounds of fluids for medicinal purposes. To express ordinary drink the word is singular—laek'ur, liquor. I have heard a sick person ask for mi laek'urz, meaning my physic.

'Hizt most be do ine kende water, And non oper licour.' William of Shoreham, 'De Baptismo,' l. 13.

Ne mede, ne forpe, no oper licour pat chaungep wateres kende.'—Ibid, l. 22.

Note,—To Lace, to Lam, to Lick, to Linse, to Liquor; as likewise to baste, to cotton, to curry, to drub, to drum, to fag, to tan, to thong, to thresh, to toze, to trim, cum multis aliis,—are metaphorically used to signify,—To give a sound Beating, and want little or no Explication: It was therefore thought needless to insert them under their several Initials, but only to hint thus much concerning them.

'Ac 3yf þer wer y-mengd licour Oþer wid kende watere Ich wost wel þrinne to cristnye Hit nere nefur þe betere.'—Ibid, l. 42.

'And bathed every vein in such licour Of which virtue engendred is the flower.'

Chaucer, 'Prologue,' l. 3.

Lee, 150, 201, 510 [lee, oftener lai], to lie. See note 1, l. 151.

The Leer, 355, the Leer-Ribs,—'He gave him a Fulch under the Leer,' i. e. in the Hollow under the Ribs. See Fulch. [lee'ur], the most usual name for the flank between the ribs and the 'pin' or hip. In speaking of animals that part is always called the leer (very common).

Lick, 71, 513, 561 [lik], a blow with the hand; no implement understood.

Lick, 226 [lig], like.

**Lipped**, 18, to be let pass; to be loose and free; and sometimes the breaking out of the Stiches in Needle-work, or the like. [I think this should be 'lat dhu lúp ut,' i. e. slip it = get off] (obsolete as used in the text, but common as in the last definition).

List [lúst]. See Meat-list.

Lit, 561, 576, 589 [leet], little (still used, but rare). See note 6, p. 103.

Live, 235 [luy'v], life.

Lock! 1, 137, 520, 618, What! Heyday! Alack! Lo! ab A. S. Locan (sic), to look. [lau·k!] (very common). This is a quasi oath—a variety of Lor!

Loblolly, 189 (so call'd, perhaps, quasi Lubber-lolly, as being the Broth of the Country Lubbers; or rather Laplolly, because it may be lapp'd up and eaten without a Spoon) an odd Mixture of the worst Kind of Spoon-meat: The Word is also sometimes used for thick Beer. [laub-laul'ee] (common). This word is applied to any of the milk compounds or puddings, such as *junket*, blanc mange, syllabub, &c.

Lollypot, 273, a common epithet, meaning booby, softy.

Lonching, 64, quasi Launching, or making long Strides. [lau ncheen] (rare, still heard).

'Who lukes to the lefte syde, whenne his horse launches, With the lyghte of the sonne men myghte see his lyvere.' 'Morte Arthure,' 1. 2560.

'That long-legged fellow comes launching along.'

Forby, Gloss. E. Anglia.

Long-hanged, 30, 121, 158, 238 [laung-an-jud]. See Hange. This epithet means long-bodied; it is still very common.

Lounging or Lundging, 160, leaning on any Thing, such as a Gate or Stile, like a lazy Creature that hath nothing else to do. [luun:jeen] (very common). Spelt lunging in the text.

Loustree, 216 (obsolete). See Lustree.

To Lustree or Lewstery, 291, to bustle and stir about like a lusty Wench. [lèo'stree] (common).

Ly, 513 [laay], to strike, to beat; a weapon is rather implied in the use of this word.

# M

To Make-Wise, 12, 292, 593, to pretend,—to make as the Things are so and so, when they are not. [mak wuyz], to feign, to pretend, to make believe, to counterfeit (still very common). Used also for pretending, as Ee paast ulau'ng mak wayz u ded-n zee mu, 'He passed along pretending he did not see me.'

'Besides to make their admonitions and reproofs seeme graver and of more efficacie, they made wise as if the gods of the woods . . . . should appear and recite those verses of rebuke.'--Puttenham, l. i. ch. 13, p. 24 (Nares).

Maid, 568 [maa'yd], girl; the only word ever heard in common talk. Girl [guur:ld], if used, is fine, for gentlefolks' ears.

The Malls, the Meazels. (Obsolete.)

Marchantable, 329 [maar chuntubl], perfect, fit for sale; thence applied, by the bucolic mind, to state of health. Nort marchantable means 'nothing to boast of' (still very common).

Marl, 130, 207, 214, 269, 628, a Marvel or Wonder. [maarul] (common). See notes, Il. 130, 606.

Marrabones, 268 [maar·uboa·unz], knees (very common).

Meach off, 469 [meech oaf], to slink off, to play the truant. Meacher [meechur], a truant (very common). See note 9, p. 92.

'Some meaching rascal in her house.' Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Scornful Lady,' Act v. sc. 1.

'Ophelia. What means this, my lord? Hamlet. Marry this is miching malecho; it means mischief? Shakspere, 'Hamlet,' Act iii. sc. 2.

'Falstaff. Shall the blessed sun of heaven prove a micher and eat blackberries.'—Ibid, '1 Henry IV.,' Act ii. sc. 4.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Mychyn, or pryuely stelyn smale thyngys.' Mearty, 547, mighty (common).

Meat-list, come to my, 560, i. e. Stomach, Appetite. [mai·t, always] (common phrase).

Meazels, 30, 49, 104, 186, Sows or Swine. [Obsolete. Spelt meazle, 30. I doubt if it meant swine, as here stated. In 'The Stacions of Rome,' Vernon MS., ab. A.D. 1370, ed. Furnivall, E. E. T. S., 1, 247, of the Emperor Constantine we read—

'A. Mesel forsobe, we fynde he was. Til crist sende him · of his gras.; Pope Siluestre . . . . 1. 255. • pat pe water wesch · a-wey his sinne And al pe fulpe · pat he was Inne.'

Here the word clearly means leper. See also 'Piers the Plowman,' ab. A.D. 1370, ed. Skeat, Pass. X. 179. Chauces uses both mesel, a leper, and meselvie, leprosy—'The Persones Tale' (De Ira). From the connection in the text with long-hanjed the glossarist probably concluded the word to mean sow, but he might just as well have put cow. Prof. Skeat reminds me that the dictionaries confound meazel, leprosy, and measles (see Webster), which are totally distinct.

Men, 270. See Min.

Mencing, 22, 568, 638 [mún seen], mincing, affected (very common). Spelt also mincing, 1, 22 in the text. See Isaiah iii. 16, 'walking and mincing as they go.'

Merst (obsolete) = mightest. l. 10, the be is here, as it still is very commonly, omitted. See W. S. Gram., p. 57.

Mickled with the Cold, 277 (a Lat. micare, tremere,) (?) shrunk'd up and benumb'd, the same with Steev'd, which means also stiffen'd and benumb'd. (Obsolete.) The glossarist has here given a good example, quite unconsciously, in the word shrunk'd, of the addition of the redundant weak inflection to the past participle of a strong verb. See W. S. Gram., p. 48.

Middle-banes, 632, 636 [múd·l bae·ŭnz], middle-bands, the waist (rare, but not obsolete).

Min or Mun, 224, 268, for Them; as l. 266, 'When tha dost zey mun,' i. e. when thou dost say them.—and l. 419, 'A Puss to put min in,' i. e. a Purse to put them in.—Mun is also used vocatively for Man, and sometimes even in speaking to a Woman, l. 335, but then it seems rather to mean mannus, for the which the Saxon Word was also man; thus l. 397, 'chave an over Arrant to tha, mun.'—i. e. I have an important Errand to thee, my little Hobby.—See the Word Over, explained in p. 143. [mún] (common in both senses here given). See W. S. Gram., p. 37.

Moil or Moyle, 64, 502, a Mule. (Obsolete.)

'Pyrgus. Sir, Agrippa desires you to forbear him till the next week; his moils are not yet come up.'—Ben Jonson, 'Poetaster,' Act i. sc. 1.

See also Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Scornful Lady,' Act ii. sc. 1.

To Moily, to labour like a Mule, to be an incessant Drudge.—'I have toiled and moiled all Day,' i. e. I have had a very hard and toilsome Day's Work. [mauy'lĕe] (common). Prof. Skeat doubts if there is any connection between a mule and to moil. Nares says, 'Probably from moile, a mule, being an animal very useful for labour.'

More an' zo, 63, 140, 195, 499 [moo'ŭr-n zoa], moreover (very common).

Mullad or Mulled, 167, 377, closely rubb'd and tightly squeezed. [muw'lud], pulled about, mauled, tumbled about.

Muggard, 194, 313, and Muggaty, sullen and displeas'd, at a real or suppos'd Affront. [muug'urd] (obsolescent). Way, in the Prompt.

Parv., refers to this word as in the Exmoor dialect, and seems to connect it with muglurd, a nyggarde. It is easy to conceive of a niggard as sullen and morose.

Mully, 381 [muw·lĕe], to pull about, to handle overmuch (common).

- A Mulligrub Gurgin, 185, 237, a Meal Grub that feeds only upon Gurgins or Gurgians, the coarsest Kind of Meal, and the common Food for Hounds. [muuligruub guurigeen] (epithet still used).
- A Mum-Chance, a Fool dropt as it were by Chance, or by the Fairies; or One who is for the most Part stupid and silent, and never speaks, at least not to the Purpose, but by mere Chance. [muum-chaans] (common).

'What would you have a body stand like mum-chance, as if I did'nt know?'—'Unnatural Mother,' 1698 (Nares).

Earlier in the seventeenth century the word meant a kind of game played with dice or cards, in which silence was an essential part; hence it came to mean a person stupidly dumb.

Mun, vide supra Min.

A brocking Mungrel.—See Brocking.

Murt, 468, 473, might (obsolete).

Mux, 204, Muck or Dirt. [muuks] (very common), mud, the ordinary soft ordure covering of a farm-yard. See Pilm.

Muxy, 7, 153, 500, Dirty, Filthy. [muuk see] (very common), muddy, deep in mire; also, as in the text, plastered with the contents of a farm-yard.

# N

The Natted Yeo, 210 (for Notted, or Not-headed, because without Antlers,) the Ewe without Horns. [naut ud yoa]. This term is applied to both sheep and cattle. A sheep without horns is a 'nott;' a cow without horns (a distinct breed) is a 'nott bullock.' In the district of Exmoor the sheep are still, as they were then, nearly all horned, and an ewe without horns would be an exception, hence we find Wilmot in the text speaking of the natted yeo as one in particular, and therefore to be specially described as natted.

'Sweet Sirope I have a lamb, Newly weaned from the dam, Of the right kind, it is notted.'

Drayton, 'Muses Elysium,' Nymph 2.

The word in Chaucer's 'Prologue' (l. 109), which in modern popular editions is 'translated' nut-head, and so is senseless, should be nott-head, i. e. close cropped.

Nether, 149 [naedh ur], another.

The Niddick, 24, 555, the Nape or hinder Part of the Neck. [núd·ik] (common).

Nif, 12, 162, 195, 196, 198, 208, 221 [neef], if. This is still the

common, indeed the nearly invariable, form; i. e. an if, so common in old writers.

- A Ninniwatch, 36 (q. d. the Watch of a Ninny or Fool,) a foolish Expectation,—vain Hopes or Fears. [nún'ewauch] a state of great excitement (very common).
- Nort, 621 [noa mrt], nought, nothing. Still the invariable pronunciation—the r very distinct.
- Now-reert, 31, 140, 210, 255, 488 (i. e. now-right,) just now. [naew ree'urt] (obsolescent).

# 0

- Odds, 294 [audz], difference. See note, l. 294.
- Ort, 10, 119, 160, 197, 253, 575, 635, sometimes us'd for Ought, or Aught, any Thing; at other Times for Oft, often, as in l. 253. [oa urt], always thus pronounced when meaning ought or anything, but it is not now used for often. This is quite a different word from orts, leavings.
- Ount, 25 (pronunciation obsolete). The use of this word does not at all imply relationship. It is the 'aunt' of Shakspere, and is equivalent to the Cockney Mother—'Mother Shipton,' 'Mother Redcap,' &c.; and simply denotes an old person.
- Over, is frequently us'd to express over great, material, or important; as 'he hath an over Mind to such a Thing,' that is, a great Inclination to it:—An over Errand, an important Message.—See Min or Mun, as explain'd in P. 141. [oa'vur] (obsolescent in this sense).
- Ovore, 14 [uvoar]. This is the same word as is elsewhere spelt avore, but the meaning in l. 14 is slightly different—here it means to the front. The passage means 'whether he would come forward or no.'

'Pan. My ancestor To-pan, beat the first kettle drum Avore hun, here vrom Dover on the march.' Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. 2.

To take Owl o', 162, 310 (i. e. to take unwell of it) to take it ill, or amiss. (Obsolete.) Perhaps the phrase survives in the very common saying, 'I do live too near a 'ood, vor to be a frightened by a Owl.'

### P

Pad, 113 [pad], a bundle of yarn consisting of twenty-four small slipes or hanks, each consisting of four skeins, each skein measuring 360 yards; consequently a pad of yarn always contained the same number of yards, whatever its size or weight. Before the days of machinery, but far into the nineteenth century, the country manufacturers gave out wool to the peasants to be spun at home, and the size of the thread required was noted by ordering the pad to be spun to a certain weight, or in other words—24 × 4 × 360 = 34,560 yards, to be got out of so many lbs. of wool. In some factories even now this mode is still retained, and instead of spinning 20s. or 30s. they spin at

so many lbs. per pad. This word is not to be confounded with *ped*, a basket, used by Tusser, Ray, and others, as also in the Norwich *Pedmarket*.

To Paddle, 5, 374, 511, signifies not only to dabble in the Water, &c. but also to make too free with Liquor, or to drink freely. [See the old Song of the swapping Mallard,

'And as the Mallard in his Pools, So we will paddle in our Bowls.']

(Obsolete in this sense.) The act described in 1. 374 et seq. seems to have been quite in keeping with the manners of the period, as shown by the following:

'It is not becoming a person of quality, when in company with ladies, to handle them roughly, to put his hand into their necks or bosoms, to kiss them by surprize, &c.; you must be very familiar to use them at that rate, and unless you be so, nothing can be more indecent, or render you more odious.'—'Rules of Civility,' A.D. 1678, p. 44 (Nares).

- To Palch along, 201—To Stalk, or Walk on softly,—To Palch, also signifies to patch or mend Clothes, that is to put a Palch or Palliage on them; from the Word Palliate, which signifies either to disguise or to patch up a Matter. (Obsolete.)
- A Pan-crock, 156, 215, a little Earthen Pan. [pang-krauk] (very commen). This word is also still used occasionally for a skirt or petticoat. This must be its meaning in 1, 156, as an earthen pan covered with briss and buttons would be scarcely probable. The word must be pank-rock. I cannot account for the k sound, but submit that panrock would be quite intelligible. The Prompt. Parv. has 'Pane of a furrure.' 'Panne, a skinne, fell, or hide.'—Cotgrave. Again pame is the ordinary name of the flannel wrapper with which babies are covered, not especially, as Halliwell says, when they are 'going to be christened.' Nares gives pane, an opening or division in parts of a dress. 'A pane of cloth, panniculus.'—Coles.

'He ware jerkins and round hose, With laced panes of russet cloath.'

Fynes 'Moryson,' Part ii. p. 46.

'Fastidious. Strikes off a skirt of a thick-laced satin doublet I had, lined with four taffatas, cuts off two panes embroidered with pearl.'—Ben Jonson, 'Every Man out of his Humour,' Act iv. sc. 5.

Beaumont and Fletcher, Minsheu, Massinger, Warton, all speak of 'paned hose,' which seems to have meant striped; hence a pan-k-rock may have been a striped petticoat. Germ. rock.

Prof. Skeat says, 'Perhaps pank-rock = pant-rock = pan'd-rock.'

- To Pank, 48, to pant. [pangk] (always thus). A man who saw a locomotive for the first time exclaimed, 'Lor! how a panketh!'
- Parbeaking, 148, Belching;—perhaps a Corruption of Parbreaking, vomiting,—stomachosus, facile in Iram prorumpens. [paarbai keen] (very rare).

'Her filthy parbreake all the place defiled has.' Spenser, 'Faerie Queene,' B. i. c. i. st. 20. Pawed, 217 [pau'd], dug or beat with the fore-feet.

Peels, 428, for Pillows. [pee'ŭlz] (generally so pronounced still). See note 9, p. 88. 'Peel is the older word.'—Skeat.

**Pennet**, 172, a little Pen, a Sheep or Cow-Pen. (Obsolete), a cow-pen is always now a pine [puyn].

Petha, 261. See Pitha.

Pick prates, 221, to tell tales (still used).

Pilm, 83, 84, Flying Dust: hence in P. 16, 'I'll make thy Boddice pilmee,' means, I'll thresh thee so as to make the Dust fly out of thy Boddice. [púl'um] (very common). See Briss. I have seen in some local Society's Transactions, I think, but cannot find it, a story of a witness who was asked by a Judge what he meant by pillium, 'Pillum, my lord, why that's mux a drow'd.' Judge, in despair: 'But what is that?' 'What mux a drow'd, my lord? Oh! that's pillum a wet.'

Pinchvart, 111, or Pinchfart, a miserly Niggard, who pinches and saves that which is not worth Half a Fart-hing. [púnchfaart] (very common). Cf. Prompt. Parv. 'Pynchar, nyggarde.'

To Pink, 256, to push.—In the Præter Tense pung, as 'he pung me,' i. e. he push'd me. [paeng], ping is the word now used (rare). The idea is rather to prod or to push with some instrument, as pitchfork or broom, and the glossarist seems to consider it the same as to pink, which means to pierce or stab, as 'To pink a man,' i. e. to run him through. Shakspere speaks of 'her pink'd porringer' ('Henry VIII.' Act v. sc. 3), and of 'pumps . . . all unpink'd i' the heel' ('Tam. Shrew,' Act iv. sc. 1), which evidently means pierced with holes. The puny'd of the text is another good example of the super-addition of the weak inflection to the strong verb. See Mickled, also W. S. Gram., p. 48.

To take Pip, 162, 310, 468, and meach off,—See P. 92—to take amiss, or be out of humour, and so steal away. (Obsolete.)

Piping, in l. 148, means wheezing.—'A parbeaking and piping Body'—a Person subject to belching and wheezing. [puy peen] (very common). Of a person with a short hecking cough it is often said, 'Her'v a got the pip.' The well-known gaping disease of chickens is always called the pip. 'Pyppe, sekenesse.'—Prompt. Parv. 'Pyppe, a sickenesse, pepye.'—Palsgrave. 'Chervel, y-dronkyn with muls, oftyn for-dop be pippe.'—Arundel MS. 42, fo. 66.

Pistering, 297, a Word which whenever used, is always joined with Whistering, i. e. Whispering, (as in P. 56) perhaps from the French pester, to rail at, or tell Tales; and so Whistering and Pistering must be understood to mean telling Stories to the Disadvantage of others in Whispers, or with an Air of Secrecy. [pús-tureen] (common), a mere pleonasm, still used only in connection with whistering, adding nothing to the sense, but only a further onomatopæia, to represent the sound of whispering.

Pitha, 57, 132, 137 [pidh·u, púdh·u; now pronounced púdh·ĕe], prythee; very commonly used, but no r is ever heard in the word. See W. S. Dial., p. 20.

Pixy, 130, pigsnye, a Fairy.—(ab Islandic. Puke, Dæmon.)—Tee-heeing Pixy, P. 38. Laughing Fairy or Goblin. [pik'sĕe]. The well-known 'little folks' or fairies are still firmly believed in. They are known in the West only as Pixies. A very common expression is 'Plaze God and the Pigs,' the latter word being no doubt a corruption of Pixies. Hence we have pixy-stools, fungi; pixy-rings, in the pastures; pixy-wording, or hoarding, in the orchards; pixy-rided, to guard against which a horseshoe is nailed against the stable-door.

'Thee pixie-led in Popish piety.'
Clobery, 'Divine Glimpses' (1659), p. 73.

- Plat-vooted, 56, broad and flat-footed. [plaat-veotud] (very common). The word is now used to imply splay-footed, also shambling in gait.
- To Plim, 67, 513, to swell up, as new Bacon, &c. in dressing.—'Chell plim tha,' l. 67—i. e. I shall or will beat thee, so as to make thee swell like a young Fowl put to the Fire:—So to make the Cheeks plim, is to beat them so as to make swell and look plump. [plum]. This word is still constantly used to express the thickening or swelling process caused by boiling rice, flour, or pease; hence any person or animal becoming fatter is said to plim. Compare plump.
- Podger, 248, a Platter, whether made of Pewter or Earthen Ware; but the former is generally term'd a Podger-dish, and the latter a cloamen Podger, or frequently a Podger without any Distinction. [pauj·ur] (obsolescent).
- Pointee, 629 [pwauy'ntee], to appoint, to make known (common).
- To Pomstery, 26, to use Slops or Salves, and play the Empiric and Quack. [paum'sturee] (obsolescent). Compare pomander.
- To Poochee, 188, 192, 311, to make Mowes or Mouthes, or screw up the Mouth like a Pouch. [pèo chěe] (very common), to pout, to protrude the lips.
- Pook, 88, a Haycock, quasi Peake or Cone;—Cornu-Brit. Pooc, or Punk, a Heap. See Dr. Borlase's Cornish Vocabulary. [pèok], the only name in use for hay-cock, to be heard every day.
- Popeling, 616 [poa:pleen], poking, loitering (obsolete). The word now is 'poking,' i. e. very slow in movement, dilatory.
- To Popple about, to hobble about. (Not in the text.)
- Popping, 138, Blabbing, like a Popinjay or Parrot. (Common.)
  - 'For a suretie this felowe waxeth all folyshe, doth utterly or all togyther dote, or is a very popyng foole.'—'Acolastus,' 1540 (Halliwell).
- To Potee, 216, to push with the Feet. [poa·ŭtěe] (very common). This word means to struggle and kick with the feet while lying down—it would not be applied to the kicking of a standing animal or person. A sheep while being shorn is said to poa·utěe; a bed-fellow who kicks is said to poa·utěe.
  - 'Corn. poot, to kick like a horse.'—Williams's 'Corn. Dict.'
  - 'Welsh, pwtio, to prick.'-Richard's 'Welsh Dict.'

'Pwtio, to butt, to thrust.'—Williams's 'Corn. Dict.'

This very common word seems to be a veritable Celtic relic.

- To Powt, to thrust out the Lips and swell the Cheeks in Token of Anger. [puwt] (very common). (Not in the text.)
- To Prink, 22, 109, 567, or prinkee, to dress fine, or set one's self off to the best Advantage. [pringk, praengk] (common).
  - 'To be prinkt up, to be drest up fine or finical like children or vain women.'—Lansdowne MS. No. 1033 (Halliwell).
- Prill'd, 194. See A-prill'd.
- To Pritch, 193, 244, to prick Holes in ;—to make Holes for the Wires in the Leathers of Wool-Cards. [purch] (in daily use). At present the word is chiefly used to express the punching of the nail-holes in horseshoes. The instrument used is called a purcheel or prucheel, written pritchel.
- Puckering, 277, in Rolls and Wrinkles,—all zig-zag and awry. [punk'ureen] (very common). This word is chiefly applied to sewing. If two edges of cloth are sewn together unevenly, so that one is wrinkled while the other is smooth, the work is said to be puckered. To pucker is to sew as described.
- Pulching, 616. See Palch. Stalking about very deliberately.
- To Pummel a Person, 80—to beat him soundly,—to box him. [puum ul] (very common). This word implies the use of fists only—no weapon.
- Pung, 256. See Ping (? Pink).
- To Purt, 21, 163, 309, purtee, or be apurt,—to sit silent or sullen. [puurt] (common). See Apurt.
- Puss, 419 [puus], purse. Still always thus pronounced—precisely the same sound as in fuss.
- To Putch, 33, 71, to pick up Corn or Hay to the Mow or zess with a Pitch-fork. See Zess. [púch]. This word still means not merely to take up hay or corn on or with a pitchfork, but to load it on the wagon in the field, or from the wagon on to the rick or the zess. This is accounted the hardest work in the hay or harvest field, and is the post of honour for the ablest man. Hence we infer a kind of compliment to George Furze, 1. 32.
- To put vore, 467, to put forward, a phrase used in a variety of ways.

  To put vore work, is to set it on, to start it; to put vore any animal or thing, is to exhibit it, or to place it in front of something else. In the text the use is quite vernacular.

### Q

Qualify, 227 [kwaulifuy], to bear witness, to testify.

Quelstring, hot and sultry, or sweltry. (Common.) Not in the text. See Squelstring.

Querking, 43, the deep slow breathing of a Person in Pain; a Tendency to groaning. [kwuur'keen] (very common), complaining generally of ill-health, croaking, grunting.

# R

Rabble-rote, 222, a Repetition of a long Story;—a Tale of a Tub. (Obsolete.)

Racing, 63, 308, raking up old Stories, or rubbing up old Sores. (Obsolete in this sense.)

Ragrowtering, 131, 141 (from ragery and rout, tumultus) playing at Romps, and thereby rumpling, roughening, and tearing the Clothes to Rags; or playing the Rogue, viz. in a wanton Frolic. [rag ruw-tureen] (common), going on the rampage.

Rakee up, 144, 355 [rae ŭkĕe aup], to rouse oneself as from sleep, to gather oneself together, fig. to gird up the loins; to move like young cattle do after a rest, stretching, yawning (very common still). I have very often heard, 'Why! thee didsn't rakee up avore just eight o'clock.' See roily for remarks upon the past tense inflection, rakad.

'Benedicite he by-gan with a bolke ' and hus brest knockede

Rascled and remed · and routte at pe laste.

"What a-wake, renk," quap repentance · "rape pe to shryfte!" '
Piers Plowman, C viii. 6, ed. Skeat, E. E. T. S.

Rathe, (not rear, as Gay has it,) early, soon; e. g. 'a leet-rather,' or as in l. 211, 'bet leetle rather,' i. e. but a little while ago,—a little sooner. I would rather, i. e. I would sooner do so and so.—In Somerset, 'Why do you op so rathe,' i. e. get up or rise so early? [rae·ŭdh] (common). See Rather.

' Bring the rathe primrose, that forsaken dies,

To strew the laureat herse where Lycid lies.' Milton, 'Lycidas.'

Rather, 211, 491 [rae-ŭdhur], earlier; the comparative of rathe, early. A well-known early apple is called the Rathe-ripe. This word is never used in the dialect to express preference, but for that zèo·ndur, sooner, is the word; occasionally it is lee·vur, liefer. The use of rather in l. 218 is a literaryism—zoonder it should be. See note, l. 491.

'The rather lambs be starved with cold, All for their master is lustless and old.' Spenser, 'Shepherd's Cal., Feb.,' 1. 83.

Rathe-ripe Fruit, early Fruit.

A rathe-ripe Wench, a Girl of early Puberty.

'So it is no lesse ordinary that these rathe-ripe wits prevent their own perfection.'—Hall's 'Quo Vadis,' p. 10 (Nares).

To Ream, 18, to stretch or strain.—Bread is said to ream, when made of heated or melted Corn, and grown a little stale; so that if a Piece of it be broken into two Parts, the one draws out from the other a kind of String like the Thread of a Cobweb, stretching from one Piece

to the other.—Note, Corn is said to be melted when put together before thoroughly dried, and so heated and fermented in the Zess or Mow. [raim], the only word in use for stretch or enlarge. The implement for enlarging holes in iron is called a reamer [rai mur]. Cider is said to be u-rai mud when it becomes adhesive and capable of being stretched, i. e. when it runs like oil or treacle, a condition by no means uncommon; called also ropy.

'His full growen stature, high his head, lookes higher rise, His pearching hornes are ream'd a yard beyond assise.'
'A Herring's Tayle,' 1598 (Nares).

See Rakee.

- Rearing, 106, 313, Mocking, by repeating another's Words with Scorn and Disdain. [rae'ŭreen] (obsolescent in this sense).
- Reart, 128, right.—So Light is pronounced Leart; Might, Meart; and the like Pronunciation prevails in almost all Words ending in ight, among the Rusticks in Devon. [This pronunciation is obsolete, it is now rait.]
- Rearting, 428, righting or mending.
- Rewden Hat, 91, a Straw Hat;—a Woman's Hat made of Rood or Reed, that is of Combed Straw. [ree'dn] (rewden is obsolete).
- Rex or rather Rix, a Rush; Rixen, Rushes.—The Rex-bush, 129, 284, a Bush or Tuft of Rushes. [raeks, vraeks, pl. vraeksn]. In the particulars of a sale of land (1879) one of the fields is described as 'Wrexens Plot' (always thus).
- A Rigg, an impudent wanton Girl. Minshew. [rig]. This word now generally means a horse imperfectly castrated.
- Riggee, 265, 296 [rig·ĕe], to act the wanton.
- Rigging, 63, 130, 141, 299, acting the Wanton; ready to bestride any inactive Stallion, and give him a quickening Spur. [rig-een] (very common).
  - 'Wantonis is a drab!
    For the nonce she is an old rig:
    But as for me, my fingers are as good as a live twig.'
    'Marriage of Witt and Wisdome,' 1579.
  - 'Nay fy on thee, thou rampe, thou ryg, with al that take thy part.'—'Gammer Gurton' (Nares).
- Riggleting, 148, Wriggling, Twisting and turning, or playing the Romps, and riding upon Men's Backs. [rig'leteen] (very common), wanton, riggish.

'Enobarbus.

Become themselves in her; that the holy priests
Bless her when she is riggish.'

Shakspere, 'Antony and Cleopatra,' Act ii. sc. 2.

A Rigmutton-Rumpstall, 146, may sometimes mean a rammish Ridgel; but is generally used to denote a wanton Wench that is ready to ride upon the Men's Backs: or else passively to be their Rompstall. (Common epithet.) The word mutton, when applied to a

woman, whether alone or as part of a compound epithet, seems always to have been opprobrious.

'Speed. Ay sir; I, a lost mutton, gave your letter to her, a laced mutton; and she, a laced mutton, gave me, a lost mutton, nothing for my labour,'-Shakspere, 'Two Gent. of Verona,' Act i. sc. 1.

The same expression is used by Ben Jonson and others. We also find mutton-monger used by Bellafront ('Honest Wh.') in several places, by Webster ('Appius and Virg.'), Chapman ('May Day'), and in 'Sir J. Oldcastle.

Ripping, 311, taking off the Rind and exposing our Nakedness:—or ripping up our Character and laying open all our Faults. [rup een] Very commonly used in this sense, but in that case it is always to rip up.

'They ripped up all that had been done from the beginning of the

rebellion.'—Clarendon.

This word, when used alone, commonly means the pealing off the bark from oak for tanning. Ripping-time is the season of spring, when the sap is rising in the oaks, and when the bark will run, i.e. come off easily.

Rittling a-bed, 267, Wheezing, rattling, routing, and snoring. (Obsolete.)

Rixen. See above.

- Rixy, 59, Quarrelsome, scolding. a Lat. Rixa (?). [rik·see], carping (rather rare).
- A Roil, 16, 31, 231, or Royle, a big, ungainly Slammakin; a great awkard Blowze or Hoyden. [rauy'ŭl] (common), a scold, a loudtongued railer.
- To Roily upon One, 1, 6, 7, 225, 340, 344, 511, to rail on him, or traduce his Character. [rauy lee] (very common), to abuse, to villify. The past tense and p. part. (ll. 340, 344) have the full inflection (roilad) in the text. Compare this with all the transitive verbs in 11. 346, 347, for a striking confirmation of the rule given in W. S. Gram., pp. 45, 76, 80, as to this inflection marking the intransitive and frequentative form of verbs.
- Roundshaving, 233, 311, Spoke-shaving, reprimanding severely. [raewn-shee ween] (common), abusively scolding.
- Roustling, 16, Rustling and Rattling. [ruw sleen] (sometimes heard).
- A Rouzabout, 56, a restless Creature never easy at Home, but roaming from Place to Place. Also, a Sort of large Pease, which from their regular Globosity will hop or roll about more than others. [ruwzubaewt], spelt rouzeabout, 1. 55. I disagree with this definition. The word implies a rough, slap-dash, bustling holden—much the same as roustling, with the idea of gad-about added.
- To Rowcast, 195 (i. e. to rough-cast), to throw Dirt that will stick. [ruw kaas] (very common), properly the technical name for a particular kind of rough plastering, in which the mortar is thrown and made to stick against the wall; hence to 'throw mud' means to abuse with strong epithets.

- Rowl or Real, 2, a Revel or Wake; the Anniversary of the Dedication of a Church. [Obsolete; the word is now raevul.] Nearly every village in the district still has its revel, when a kind of rustic fair is held, with wrestling, bell-ringing, and much drunkenness.
- Rubbacrock, 56, a filthy Slattern that is as black as if she were continually rubbing herself against a Boiler or Kettle. [ruub·ukrauk] (common epithet). See Crock.
- To Ruckee, 143, 269, to quat or crouch down, whether on a necessary Occasion or otherwise. [ruuk·ĕe] (very common).

'But now they rucken in hire neste, And resten as hem liken beste.' Gower, MS. Soc. Antiq. 134, f. 114.

'Thai sal for thryste the hefed sowke, Of the neddyr that on thaime sal rowke.' Hampole MS., Bowes, p. 198 (Halliwell).

'Have lazie wings, be ever leane, in sullen corners rucke.'
Warner, 'Alb. Eng.' p. 185, ed. 1610.

'The furies made the bride-groomes bed, and on the house did rucke.' Golding's Ovid, p. 73, ed. 1603 (Nares).

Chaucer also uses rowke.

- Rumping, 131, 141, 568 [ruum peen], romping. Several words spelt with o are still pronounced u, as ruub = rob, juub = job, ruump = romp.
- A Rumple, 288, a large Debt contracted by little and little. [Somerset, "Twill come to a Rumple, or breaking, at last: But Rumple in Devon means not the same as Rupture, but a Thing ruffled and drawn up together, as a Garment rumbled up to a Wad, with many Plaits and Wrinkles.] (Obsolete; the word is now ruum pus.) Professor Skeat suggests that this word means runkle, i. e. wrinkle or hint. See note, l. 288.

### S

Sar, 409 [saar], to serve, to feed. To give their food to pigs or cattle is always to sar them. It also means to earn, i. e. to serve for—'I shant sar zixpence to-day, to this work.' This word is never zar. See 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.

Surt a baked, 472 [saart u-bae-ŭkud], soft or dough-baked—a very common description of a softy.

Sauntering, 282, 283, idling, dilatory.

Savin, 183, 242 [saaveen], the well-known shrub Juniperus Sabina.

A Scatt or Skatt, a Shower of Rain. [There is a Proverb at Kenton, in Devon, mentioned by Risdon, 'When Hall-down has a Hat, let Kenton beware of a Skatt.' See Brice's Topographical Dictionary, Art. Kenton.] [skad] (very common). Scatt is not Exmoor but Exeter dialect; in N. D. and W. S. it is always scad. Here is one of the

evidences that these dialogues, as well as the glossary, were written or transcribed by a South Devoner. The proverb relating to *Haldon* (a hill near Exeter) still further confirms this.

Scatty Weather, 125, Showery, with little Skuds of Rain. [skad·če wadh·ur] (common). The *skud* here is literary or else 'Shropshire' (Skeat).

Scoarce or Scoace, 330, to exchange. 'Es Scoast a Tack or two,' P. 78, i. e. I exchanged a Blow or two,—I swopp'd with him a Fisty-Cuff or two. [skoa'rs].

'Pan. . . . . Would not miss you, for a score on us, When he do 'scourse of the great charty to us.

Pup. What's that, a horse! can 'scourse nought but a horse, And that in Smithveld. Charty! I ne'er read o' hun.'

Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. 2.

The pun in this passage would not be intelligible except in the literary or conventional dialect of Ben Jonson, because discourse is, and I think was, pronounced skeo's, while scoarce, to swap, is pronounced skoa'rs or skoa'urs. The word is still used, though not commonly.

Scollee, 260. See Skull.

- Scratch'd or a-scratch'd, 124, just frozen; the Surface of the Earth appearing as it were scratch'd or scabby. [u-skraacht] (common). When water shows the slightest film of ice, when the appearance is only of lines or scratches, it is said to be scratched. 'Twad-n very sharp z'mornin', I zeed the water was only jist a scratched.'
- To Screedle, 224, or scrune over the Embers, to hover over them, covering them with one's Coats as with a Screen. [skree'dl] (rare, not obsolete).

Scrubbing, 266, 271 [skruub'een], scraping, scratching, rubbing the skin.

To Scrumpee, 188, 192, to scranch like a Glutton, or as a Dog eating Bones and all. [skruum'pĕe] (rare), to craunch.

 $\mathcal{S}\!\mathit{ed}$  [u-zaed], refused, prevented, hindered (still common as in the text). See Zed.

Seggard, 108, Safeguard, a kind of outer Garment so call'd. (Obsolete, but not quite forgotten), a skirt for riding, to be put on over all.

'Make you ready straight;

And in that gown, which first you came to town in,

Your safeguard, cloke, and your hood suitable.'

Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Noble Gentleman,' Act ii. sc. 1.

'On with your cloak and saveguard, you arrant drab.'
'Ram Alley' (Nares).

'The men booted, the gentlewomen in cloaks and safeguards.'—Stage direction in 'The Merry Devils' (Nares).

Sheen, 128 [sheen], shine, a glimmer. Many words in long i in lit. Eng. are still pronounced long ee.

Shivers, 256 [shúv·urz], pieces, atoms.

Shoard, a Piece of broken Earthen Ware, a Potsherd. [shoa'ŭrd] (very common).

To take a Shoard, 5, 511, to take a Cup too much. [shoa'ŭrd] (very common). Spelt shord in the text. The Prompt. Parv. has 'Scherde or schoord, of a broke vesselle.' Potsherd was potsheard in early editions of the Bible. Shakspere spells it shard.

'1st Priest. For charitable prayers, Shards, flints, and pebbles, should be thrown on her.'

'Hamlet,' Act v. sc. 1.

The word also means a notch or to notch—'Thee's a shorded my knife;' 'There was a gurt shord in the hedge, eens could drave a wheelbarrow drue un.' As a piece of broken crockery, shord is often used for the entire vessel; cf. in 'taking a shord.' A 'shord o' tea' is a very common phrase for 'a cup of tea.'

A Shool, a Shovel. [shèo'l in N. D., shuw'ul in W.S.]

Shooling, 197 [shèo·leen], shovelling. This is still pronounced shèo·leen in N. Dev. and the Exmoor district, but shuw·leen in the rest of W. Som. Prompt. Parv. has 'Schovelyn wythe a schowelle.' This last exactly represents the present pronunciation in W. Som. In the old ditty, 'The Death of Cock Robin,' the word shovel is made to rhyme with owl:

'Who'll dig his grave?
I, said the Owl, with my spade and showl,
And I'll dig his grave.'

Shoor and shoor, 12, surely.

To Shoort, 112, to shift for a Living. [I never heard the word, but this explanation does not agree with the text.]

Shug-meazel, 186. I cannot find any certain explanation of this epithet. Throughout W. S. the call for a pig is chèog! chèog! and possibly the shug of the text may be this word. See Meazel. If I am correct the phrase means 'measly pig.'

To Simmer, 563, to simper, like Water in a Kettle, or Broth in a Pot, when beginning to boil. [súm'ur] (common).

Skulking, 259 [skuul·keen], sneaking.

To Skull, 117, 228, to School; to rate or scold at. [skèol] (very common). The ull of this word is identical with the sound of bull, pull, &c., treated at length in W. S. Dial. School is pronounced precisely the same, and hence to scold and to school are synonymous. Spelt scollee, 1. 260; scullest, 1. 228.

To Slat, 101, 248, to slit a Stick or Board lengthwise, to crack, to throw a Thing against the Ground so as to break it;—also to give a Slap or Blow. [slaat]. See W. S. Gram., p. 65.

'How did you kill him? Slatted his brains out.'

'Marston' (Webster).

This is precisely the expression now to be heard daily in the dialects of N. Dev. and W. Som., except that it would be slat instead of slatted.

Slop it all up, 190 [zlaup ut aul aup], to slobber, to eat greedily and noisily, like a pig (very common).

Slotters, 243. See Zlotters.

Slottery Weather, Foul Weather. [slaat ure wadh ur] (very common), rainy weather.

Smuggle, 324 [zmuug·1], to hug violently, smotheringly. See Mullad (common).

Snappy, 257, 313 [znaap·ĕe], to speak very snappishly, to snub, to snap at one (very common still). These words are spelt in the text some with y and some with ee. In all cases the termination is the same, and marks the intransitive inflection of the infinitive. See W. S. Gram., p. 49.

'King. Biron is like an envious sneaping frost, That bites the first-born infants in the spring.' Shakspere, 'Love's Labour Lost,' Act i. sc. 1.

'Do you sneap me too, my lord?'

Brome, 'Antipodes' (Nares).

'Falstaff. My lord, I will not undergo this sneap without reply.'
2 Henry IV., Act ii. sc. 1.

Snewth, 124 [znèo·th], snoweth. This and blenketh are good instances of the idiomatic omission of the nom. case. See W. S. G., pp. 34, 51.

Snibble-nose, 107, or rather Snivel-nose, One who snuffs up the Snot.

—Cutted Snibble-nose, a cutting niggardly Person; One that would save the very Droppings of his Nose:—A common Description of a Miser, in this County. [snúb'l noa'ŭz] (common epithet).

Sooterly, 463 [sèo turlee], paltry, mean.

To Sowle, 167, 377, 381, to tumble one's Cloaths, to pull one about, &c. See Mullad. (Obsolete.) Spelt soulad in the text. 'To pull by the ears' (Nares).

'3rd Servant. He'll go, he says, and sowle the porter of Rome gates by the ears.'—Shakspere, 'Coriolanus,' Act iv. sc. 5.

'Venus will sowle me by the ears for this.'
'Love's Mistress' (Nares).

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Sowlynge, or solwynge, makynge folwe, solwyn or fowlyn.' It is probable that the meaning in the text is to imply rough usage, as well as soiling.

Soze, 306, or Soace, properly for Sirs; but sometimes spoken to a Company of Women as well as Men. [soa'us] companions, mates; very commonly used, but only in the vocative case. It is probably a vestige of the old monkish preachers, whose socii would be analagous to the brethren of their modern successors. The word is still preserved in the Winchester 'notion' socius, the school term for the compulsory companion of a boy outside the college precincts.

Spalls, Chips.

To drow vore Spalls, 178, 286, 309, to throw one's Errors and little Flaws in one's Teeth, quasi Spalls or Chips, which fly off from the Carpenter's Ax or Woodman's Bill:—Or to throw out spiteful Hints, or spit one's Venom against another, quasi Spawls. [droa voa'r spaalz] (common). The spalls here do not mean chips, as stated above—that word is spralls, or sprawls. I do not know the meaning of spalls, and never heard it in any other connection than the above. See note 5, p. 44. Professor Skeat suggests that it may mean splinter. Cf. spelk, spellican. In Cambs. spalt means split.

Spare, 293, slow.—It also sometimes means a Thing not constantly used, but kept in reserve for a Friend occasionally, as a Spare-bed, &c. [spae 'ŭr] (very common). Spare-growing is a constant description of slow-growing plants.

Splet, 172, 174 [splút]. This word is used with very different meanings in these two instances—the first meaning to run and the

second to split.

Sprey, 579, 581, sprack, spruce, and clever. [spruy] (very common). This word implies more litheness and activity of body than of mind. Clever is quite inappropriate to sprey as a Devon word, except in the sense that a horse is clever, i. e. a good fencer; but in Norfolk clever would mean spry. See Ray (ed. Skeat), E. D. S.

Sproil, a Capacity of Motion, Ability to sprawl about, and be active. See Stroil. [sprauy'ul; more commonly sprau'l], activity, quickness of limb. Precisely the substantive of sprey.

A good Spud, a good Gift or Legacy, such as may answer your Hopes and Expectations. (Obsolete.) Not in the text.

To Spudlee, 217, or Spuddle out the Yewmors, 223—to stir or spread abroad the Embers, with a little Spud or Poker. [spuud'lĕe] (very common), also to struggle. Halliwell is quite wrong in connecting this word with embers. It is very commonly used, and is applied to several meanings. A man, just recovering from an illness, to whom I offered a job of pulling down a bank of earth, said, 'I s'pose I can spuddle down thick.' It is usual for farmers to say, 'Come, look sharp, and spudlee along.' In the latter it has the force of 'bestir yourself.' In the text, l. 217, it is used in its most usual sense, to struggle.

To Squat down, to quat down.

Squattee, 160 [skwaut'ĕe], to crouch down, to sit on the heels (very common). See Ruckee.

Squelstering Weather, 276, sweltry or sultry. [skwuul streen] (common), sweltering.

'The slaughter'd Trojans, squeltring in their blood, Infect the air with their carcasses.'

'Tragedy of Locrine,' p. 26.

A Stare-bason, 58, One that is saucer-eyed, and impudently stares one in the Face. [stae·ŭr bae·ŭsn] (common epithet).

Stave, 134, a Staff;—also a Tree or Plank laid across the Water for a Foot-bridge, with something of a Rail.—'When the Water was by Stave' (l. 134) or up by Stave, i. e. When it was so high as to cover the Bridge, and render it dangerous to pass over. [The definition here given is quite imaginary. The bridge was never called a stave.

See Clam. The expression in the text is by stave; to show the condition of the river, i. e. that it was in flood, and as deep as an ordinary walking-staff. At present it is quite common in the district to speak of a river when in flood as 'stave high.'

Steehopping, 131, 296, 568, Gadding abroad idly to hear or carry News: Possibly from the British Ystiferion Eve-droppings, and so may denote the Conduct of Eve droppers who hearken for News under Windows; and so is expressive of the Talebearer's chief Employment, viz. to carry Stories from House to House. Also, jumping and capering. [stee aupeen]. The derivation here given is simply absurd. Prof. Skeat suggests that stee is a way, path—hence 'going by the way.' Cf. sty-head (i. e. pass-head) and stee, a ladder, Cumberland. See Glossary of Cumberland (Dickson), E. D. S., p. 94. Compare also Germ. stey. The word is very common, and is applied to any person fond of gadding about. Not long ago I heard a woman thus described, 'Her's always steehopping about; better fit her'd bide home and mind her houze.'

'To climb aloft, and others to excel:
That was ambition, a rash desire to sty,
And every link thereof a step of dignity.'
Spenser, 'Faerie Queene,' Bk. ii. c. vii. st. 46.

Steev'd with the Cold, 277, (See Mickled,) quite stiff and frozen. [u-stee'vd] (very common).

To Stertlee, to startle. [stuur tlĕe] (very common). Not used in this sense in the text. See Stertling Roil.

Stertling Roil, 21, 31, a wag-tail Blowze, or one whose Motion is directed like a Ship by the Rudder in her Stern.—'Stertlee upon the Zess,' (as in 1, 32, 70) i. e. to act the Wag-tail there; (one that will fall down upon her Back with the least Puff of Wind. [styuur'tleen rauy'ul] (still used, rare). This is quite another word from to startle, and is differently pronounced.

Stewarliest, 569 [stue urlees], most careful, best managing, most stewardly (common).

Stinned, 250 [stúnd], stunned. Used sometimes for cracked—this is probably the meaning in the text.

Stivering, 312, or Stubvering up against, Standing stiff. [stúv ureen] (very common). Generally applied to the hair, which is said to be all stivered up when it is standing up on end, or of a neat-haired person when his or her hair is ruffled and untidy. The word is also used intransitively in the sense of getting angry—'Did'n her stiver up tho', hon her yeard o' it!' See Busking.

To Stile Linen, 273, &c. to smooth it with a Steel, or ironing Box.

—To iron the Clothes. [stuy'ul]. The instrument is still known as the stiling iron, but I believe to stile is now obsolete.

Stomach [stuum ik]. To take stomach, is to face, to dare, to brave out (common).

'Katherine. He [Wolsey] was a man Of an unbounded stomach, ever ranking Himself with princes.'

Shakspere, 'Henry VIII.,' Act iv. sc. 2.

'Stern was his look, and full of stomach vain.'
Spenser.

- To Stool Terras, 175, to set up wet Turfs two and two, one against another, touching each other at the upper Part, and astrout at the Bottom, that the Wind may blow between them, and help to dry them for Fuel. [stèo'l tuur'uz] (very common). See W. S. Dial., p. 71.
- To Stram, 94, 264 [straam], to beat with the fists.
- A Stram, 174, any sudden, loud, and quick Sound: So (as a Verb) to Stram the Doors, means to shut them with Noise and Violence.—
  Hence a bold and unexpected Lie that greatly shocks and surprizes the Hearer, is called a Strammer; and hence also to Strammee, means to tell great and notorious Lies. [straam] (very common).
- To Strat, 105, 147, to dash in Pieces; to throw any Thing against the Ground, &c. so as to break it off: Hence to strat the Match that is to break it off, or prevent the intended Marriage. [straat] (common). Spelt strad in the text, 1. 105.
- A Strat in the Chops, 78, 80, 515—A Blow in the Face or Mouth. [straat] (very common). A blow with hand or fist only.
- To Strat a Person up,—To dash the foul Water or Mud of the Streets against him, and bespatter him therewith. (Obsolete in this sense.) The word would now be to slat, i. e. to splash, to bespatter.
- Stroil, 209 (from Struggle) Strength and Agility.—'Thou hast no Stroil or Docity,' i. e. no Activity nor Docility;—No more Agility or Motion than a Person disabled from striving or struggling. [strauy.ul] (very common), pluck, quickness of eye and limb.
- Stroil is also a Denomination of the long Roots of Weeds and Grass, in Grounds not properly cultivated. [strauy-ul] (very common), couch, twitch, triticum repens. Not used in the text.
- Stroaking, 47, 110, or Strocking the Kee, (i. e. the cows.) Milking after a Calf has suck'd. [struuk'een, stroa'keen] (in constant use). Drawing off a little milk from ewes after the weaning of the lambs; also partially milking a cow when it is intended to dry up the milk. The term is applied to any female, whether man or beast, when it is desired to take no more milk than is necessary to relieve the organs.
- A good Stub, 550, 580, a large Sum of Money, whether given or expended; as, 'it cost a good Stub,' i. e. it was bought at a great Price.—'He did not give his Vote without having a good Stub,' that is, a large Bribe. This word is still in common use in the Exmoor district in W. Som. It is more usually sub.
- A Sture, 49, a Steer; also a Dust raised. ['stùe'ŭr, rarely so pronounced]. For a dust it is a different word, stoa'r, i. e. stir—to stir is always to stoa'r. A very old and common saying against undue dwelling upon the disagreeable is—'Dhu moo'ŭr yùe stoa'r-t, dhu wús t-l staengk.'
- Sugs / 331 [suugz]. See note 7, p. 78. This is a variation of Zooks!
- Swapping, 16, or Swopping, big, large, unwieldy;—as the Swopping Mallard of All Souls College in the Song, means a very large

Mallard. [zwaup een] (very common), generally used with, and as a complement of, great or big. See Banging.

'A filch-man in his handle, a swapping ale dagger at his back, containing by estimation some two or three pounds of yron in the hyltes and chape.'—'A Countercuffe given to Martin Junior,' 1589 (Nares).

A Swash-bucket, 57, a Wench who carelessly swashes and splashes the Pig's Wash out of the Bucket, when she carries it to feed the Hogs:

—That this, or some such slatternly Conduct, whether of the Pig's Bucket, or Milk-Pail, &c. is meant by this Word in the foregoing Dialogues, seems evident; at least that it can have no Reference or Allusion to a Swash-buckler or hectoring Soldier, but to some mean Office of a Woman Servant in the Country. [zwaursh-buuk·ut], common term for a farm-house slattern. Prof. Skeat suggests that this word 'may, after a sort, allude to swash in swash-buckler.' The swash here used certainly denotes rough force as well as slovenliness. Those who are acquainted with the style of genuine hedge draggletails will at once perceive the full force of the epithet.

'Sam. Draw if you be men. Gregory, remember thy swashing blow.'—Shakspere, 'Romeo and Juliet,' Act i. sc. 1.

#### т

To Tack, 18, 101, 103, 312 (from Attaquer, Fr. to attack) means in Devon, to give a Stroke with the Palm of the Hand, not with a clench'd Fist. [taak] (very common), always to strike with the open hand, to smack. Infants are threatened with having their hands or bottoms tacked. Probably tack is the same as tap.

A Tack, a Stroke so given. (very common). Not in the text.

To Tack Hands, to clap Hands, either by Way of Triumph or Provocation; as also in a Dance, &c. [Not in the text.]

Tackle, good Tackle, a Table well furnished.—Good Things, good Provisions. [taak'l] (very common). Applied to food in general, but more frequently to drinkables. I have very often heard the remark upon weak grog, or upon some experimental beverage, 'This is poor tackle.' Tackle not in the text.

Tackling, 11, 187 [taak·leen], food, provisions. Anything very nice is frequently called rae ir taak·leen. Tackle is, however, the commoner word. Taak·l fút vur dhu keng is often heard. Tackling is the usual name for harness.

Tacklou, in Cornish signifies a Creature (? creatures), a Thing (? things)
—Good Things, fit Instruments for the Purpose. [Unknown in Devon or W. Somerset.] (Not in the text.) Prof. Skeat says—'Cornish, tacel, a thing, a tool; plur. taclow, things. Welsh, tacyl; plur. taclau. Pure Celtic, not Eng. dialect. Hence Eng. tackle, Cornish tacel, i. e. a thing, instrument, tool, and thence the sense of tackle in English.'

Tan, 82, 347, 514 [tan], to beat with some weapon. See Lace.

Tanbaste, 219, or Tanbase, Scuffling or Struggling. (Obsolete.) Halliwell is wrong in giving this word as a verb.

Taply, 630 (a Corruption of Timely (?), Sax. Timlice tempestive)— Early; betimes in the Morning. (Obsolete, unknown).

To Tare. See Tear.

Tachy, 21, peevish, captious, displeased on every trifling Occasion. [taech ee] (very common), touchy. Here is a good example of not dialectal but literary corruption.

'Touchy is the absurd corruption of it (tachy). It has nothing to

do with touch.'—Skeat.

Prompt. Parv. has 'Tetch'e, or maner of condycyone. Mos condicio.'

'A chyldis tatches in playe shewe playnlye what they meane' (mores pueri inter ludendum).—Horman.

'Offritiæ, crafty and deceytful taches.'—Elyot.

' Of the maners, taches, and condyciouns of houndes.' 'Master of Game,' Sloane MS, 3501, c. xi.

'Sith all children be tached with euill manners.' 'Piers Plowman,' B 9, 146, ed. Skeat, E. E. T. Soc.

'Alle byse ar teches & tokenes to trow vpon zet, & wittnesse of pat wykked werk.'

Alliterative Poems, 1360, 'Destruction of Sodom,' l. 1049.

'And to his fadris maneris enclyne, And wikkid tacchis and vices eschewe.'

'Occleve,' MS. Soc. Antiq. 134, f. 279.

'It is a tacche of a devouryng hounde To resseyve superfluyté and do excesse,'

MS. Cantab. Ff. 16, f. 157 (Halliwell).

Bailey's Dictionary has tech for touch, marked as old. Coles has 'Titchy, morosus, difficilis. To be titchy, asperibus moribus esse.'

> 'Duchess. A grievous burden was thy birth to me; Tetchy and wayward was thy infancy.'

Shakspere, 'Richard III.,' Act iv. sc. 4.

'Troilus. I cannot come to Cressid but by Pandar: And he's as tetchy to be woo'd to woo, As she is stubborn-chaste against all suit.'

Shakspere, 'Troilus and Cressida,' Act i. sc. 1.

It is easy to see how from simple 'frame of mind' the word developed an evil significance. Webster completely slurs over the word as colloquial, and calls it 'vulgarly techy or tetchy;' while Johnson says it comes from touch!

Taties, 193, Potatoes. [tae·ŭdeez] (always so).

To Tear or Tare, 218, 292, 294, signifies (in Devon) not only to rend, crack, or break, but also to make a great Stir. [tae'ur] (very common). Windows or crockery are torn, while clothes are broken [u-broa kt]. It is very usual to hear of a person in a passion, 'Wad-n ur in a purty tare, hon a yeard o' it?' or 'You never zeed nobody in no such tare in all your li-ve.'

To Tear or tare along, 541—to bustle through business, to be stirring and active.— 'How do have tare along' (p. 100) i. e. How doth she go

on, or make her Way in the World? How doth her Diligence and Assiduity succeed? [tae ur laung] (common). See note 6, p. 100.

Ted, 113, or Tet, to be ordered or permitted to do a Thing; as 'I ted go home at such a Time,' i. e. I am to go home, &c. 'We tet not put on our Shoes till we have them,' i. e. We are not to put them on till, &c. [taed] (rare), bound, or under obligation. There is no idea of being ordered in this word—it is that of being tied. Cf. 'tied to time.' Prof. Skeat thinks ted in this phrase a p. part, of tie. The word also means to turn or shake hay, in which sense it is a different word altogether. Mr. Chorley says that a farmer would say to his man, 'Thee tak the machine, and go and ted thick mead o' hay.'

'Then Dick and Doll, with fork and rake, Trudge after him, the hay to make; With bouncing Bess and piping John, Merry as crickets every one; Tedding, turning, cocking, raking, And such bus'ness in hay making. The lads and lasses sweat and fry, As they the grass do toss and dry.'

' Poor Robin,' A.D. 1746.

Tedious, 107 [tai:jus], aggravating (very common).

Teeleeing, 130 [tee-hee-en], giggling, tittering, silly laughing (still very common). 'Very old.'—Skeat.

'Te he! quoth she, and clapt the window to.'
Chaucer, 'Cant. Tales,' l. 3738.

'For all the tee-hees that have been broke by men of droll, or dirt that has been thrown from daring spight.'—Fairfax, 'Bulk and Selvedge of the World,' A.D. 1674 (Halliwell).

'But when the hobby-horse did wihy,
Then all the wenches gave a tihy.'
Cobbe, 'Brit. Popular Antiquities,',vol. 1, p. 207.

Teening, 314. See Candle-teening.

' Wash your hands, or else the fire Will not teend to your desire.'

'Part must be kept wherewith to teend The Christmas log next yeare.'

' Come while the log is teending.'

Herrick (author of 'Cherry Ripe'), 'Hesperides,' A.D. 1620.

'Ne was there salve, ne was there medicine,

That might recure their wounds; so inly they did tine.'
Spenser, 'Faerie Queene,' Bk. ii. c. xi. 21.

Compare tinder, tinder-box. See note 10, p. 59.

Teening-bottle, 287 [tee neen bau'tl], tin-bottle. Tin is always tee neen. See W. S. Gram., p. 19.

Tell, 150 [tuul], to say, to speak, to talk. See notes to ll. 116, 138.

Terra or Terve, 175, a Turf. [tuur'ù] (always thus). See W. S. Dial., p. 71.

Tervee, 216, to struggle and labour to get free. [tuur'vee] (common).

Tether, 139, 160, 311 [taedh'ur, tuudh'ur], other. See note, l. 281. It should be noted that although tother may now be almost accepted in colloquial English, as in tother day, it only occurs in Early English when preceded by  $\flat e$ , because  $\flat e$  to  $\flat er = \flat et$  o $\flat er$ .

'Bot þe tō shall for þe toþ' dye.' Chronicon Vilodunense, ed. Hoare, st. 236.

i. e. that one, that other. This distinction is still very much more retained by real dialect speakers than by mere users of colloquial phrases. The former still retain the before tother in most cases.

Tether-eend, 281 [taedh'ur ee'n], seat, Podex (very common).

Tetties, 375 (Teats,) Breasts. [tút·eez] (the usual name). Corn. tidi, the breast, pap; Welsh, did. Prompt. Parv. 'Tete, uber.'

Thick-lifted, 126, short winded or breathing with Difficulty, (as very fat Persons do)—Asthmatical. [thik lúf tud] (common), given to pant and puff, wheezy. This word is given as thick-listed in some editions, and so is copied by Halliwell. (Thecklifted in the text.)

To Thir, 475—This signifies much the same as to Dere, a Word commonly used by Nurses in Devonshire, signifying to frighten or hurry a Child out of his Senses. (Rare, obsolescent.)

Thirl or Therl, 73, gaunt and lank, thin and lean. (Obsolete.) Spelt therle in the text.

Thoa, 355, 556 [dhoa], then. See note, l. 351. So used by most old writers,

Thof, 215, 268, 348, 628 [thau f], though or although. This word is always pronounced with the th sharp as in think and the ough as off; on the other hand trough (tran: f in lit. Eng.) is invariably pronounced troa. See W. S. Gram., p. 94. See note, l. 215.

' pou Bethleem Iuda, pof pou be noght pe mast cité, pou es noght lest of dignité.'

Cursor Mundi (A.D. 1320), Visit of the Magi, l. 97, ed. Morris.

'And dampnyd men he savede fele paw pey weron dampnyd in pt stounde.' Chronicon Vilodunense (A.D. 1420), ed. Hoare, st. 277.

'And those the bryde blythe be That Percyvelle hase wone the gree.'

'Tho3fe Percevelle has slayne the rede knyght, 3itt may another be als wyghte.'

'Perceval,' A.D. 1453 (Halliwell).

Thong, 77, 364, 514 [dhaung], to thrash with some limp thong or lash-like instrument (very common). See Lace.

Thonging, 6, 501 [dhaung'een], flinging or swinging the skirts or tail by bouncing about, so as to make them resemble a great whip. The word is most expressive, and means much more than bouncing (common).

- Thort, 333 [dhaurt], thought. Still always pronounced thus—r quite distinct as in fought. See Vort; also note 9, p. 78.
- Tiltish, 42 [túl·teesh], uppish, touchy, ready to take offence (common). Of a horse, apt to kick.
- Tiltishness, 75 [túl·teeshnees], fretfulness, touchiness, ill temper (common).
- Timersome, 59, Passionate. [tum ursum] (common), sensitive, easily roused in temper; also shy, timid.
- Ting, a long Girt or Surcingle, that girds the Panniers tight to the Pack-Saddle. [ting] (common), a tying, usually a long strap of raw hide.
- To Ting a Person, 72, to give him or her a tight Scolding; or to upbraid one with such Particulars as touch the quick, and pinch as feelingly as the Ting does the Belly of the Horse when tightly buckled. [ting, more commonly ding]. The connection here assumed with ting = a girth, is very far-fetched; it seems to me much more allied to the ding, dong of a persistently sounding bell. To ding a person is to scold loudly and long.
- Tirant, special, extraordinary. [See Tyrant. The explanation here is incorrect, but, as usual, copied by Halliwell.]
- Torn or Tourn, 255, a Spinning Wheel; so call'd from its turning round. [tuurn] (very common). The whole machine is called a turn, quill-turn, or spinning turn. The wheel is only that part which drives the spindle. See Pad. A very favourite description of any article much patched or renewed by instalments is 'Dhik-s jis lig dh-oarl duum'unz speen een tuurn.' The turn in question is said to have first had a new wheel, then new legs, then new spindle, then new frame, but always to have been the same turn.
- Torn, 37 [tuurn], moment, instant. 'Every other turn' is still a constant expression for 'now and again,' or for any quickly repeating incident. It may be taken from the spinning-wheel or from ploughing, when at every alternate turn the plough passes by the same spot.
- Toteling, 53 [toa:tleen], slow moving, inactive, dead-alive (common).

  Applied also to the slow, laboured movement of aged and infirm people.
- A Totle, 120, 293, a slow lazy Person; an idle Fool, that does his Work awkardly and slowly.—(so call'd perhaps, q. d. Taught ill, but Q. as to this?) (Obsolete.)
- To Totle and totee about, 253—to totter up and down. [toa·tl] (common). Tottle is rather a common surname.
- To Towzee, 216, 291, to toss and tumble. [tuw·zĕe] (rare). Spelt towsee in the text, l. 216.
- To Toze, 346, 513 [toa ĭiz], used in the text for to thrash, but it conveys the idea of twisting, or rather untwisting, as if a struggle or scuffle had been the beginning of the fray. The common meaning is to untangle, to loosen by pulling. To toze out matted locks with a comb is the usual expression. A knot difficult to untie must be a toz'd.

'Autolycus. Think'st thou, for that I insinuate, or toze from thee thy business, I am therefore no courtier?'—Shakspere, 'Winter's Tale,' Act iv. sc. 3.

Prompt. Parv. has 'Tosare, of wulle or other lyke. Carptrix.' Johnson has 'Tose, to comb wool.'

- Trapes, 65, 158, 470, 634 [trae ups], a woman all bedraggled by walking through deep mud, hence a slattern (common).
- Trapsee, 200 [trae upsee], to walk through a wet or muddy path, and to get all bedraggled. A man may trae upsee drue dhu muuks, but he would never be called a trapes. A man said to me, 'I was a forced to trapesee all the way to Withypool avore I voun un.'
- Trem, 515 [trúm], to trim, i. e. thrash or beat (still very common), with or without instrument. See Cotton.
  - 'An she would be coold, sir, let the soldiers trim her.'
    Beaumont and Fletcher, 'False One,' Act ii. sc. 3.
- Trest up a ground, 305 [u-trúst aup u graewn], trussed up above ground, i. e. hung (a rare but not obsolete phrase).
- Trim, 86 [trúm], to beat. Generally spoken in connection with children—in that case it implies slapping with the open hand. See Trem.
- A Troant, 282, 283 (not a Truant or Micher, but in Dev.) a foolish witless Fellow, and sometimes a lazy loitering Lubber. (Obsolete.)
- A Trolubber, 265, or Trough-lubber, a common Labourer, whose ordinary Business is hedging and ditching. [troa'luub'ur] (very common), one whose work is mostly with troa'z, i. e. troughs or ditches; hence a clownish, heavy, slouching fellow. A ditch is nearly always a ditch-trough [deech-troa']. ? is this the origin of trolloper and trollop?
- Troubled, 20, 29, 439 [truub'ld], afflicted. This word is still used in connection with all kinds of disease or ailments. Uur-z u-truub'ld wai dhu rùe'maatik; he is troubled with the ar'y-sup'ulees, &c. The word has in the above sentences a frequentative meaning, equivalent to 'subject to rheumatism,' erysipelas, &c. It is also the usual word for haunted. See note, 1. 439. A very common saying respecting any one who is believed to appear after death is, 'he's main troublesome.'
- Trub, 104, 106, 262, 503 [trèob], a drab, a slut, a good-for-nothing, useless wench. This is an opprobrious epithet for a woman. See Chun. (Very rare now.)
- How do you Try? 317, 327, 551—How do you find yourself? How do you do?—Sometimes the Salutation is, 'How d'ye hold it?' to which some Punsters will answer, 'In both hands when I can catch it;' but the Meaning is, how do you hold or retain your Health?—A Nautical Term. [aew d-ee traay] (rare, but not obsolete salutation).
- Twined, 217 [twuy nud], twisted, wriggled (very common still). Note that intransitive verbs have their past inflexion fully sounded ud. See W. S. G., pp. 45, 77. See also Roily.

Tyrant, 568 [tuyrunt], a pushing, driving, bustling person. No implication of oppression or cruelty is conveyed by this expression, any more than in cruel good. 'Her's a tyrant for butter and cheese,' is an every-day expression, and means that she is an excellent hand at making them. The word is only applied to women.

### U

Unlifty, 103, Unwieldy. [aun'lúftěe] (common), clumsy, awkward.

Upazet, 230, or Uppa-zit, opposite; set before you in full view. [anpuzaut·]. This word has no connection with opposite. Halliwell's definition, 'Upazet. In perfection' (copied from old Gloss., see p. 68), is an absurd invention to complete the sense of the passage. The phrase means up-a-set, set up in view, or exhibited as plainly as if 'Ount Sybyl Moreman' were before you. The use of the word in the text, though somewhat redundant, is quite in keeping with the spirit of the dialect, and is not at all uncommon. I heard a man say of another, whom he had recognised, 'I be so safe 'twas he, as auf (though) I'd a got-'n now avore me, up-a-zot,' i. e. set up for inspection. Of. Upzetting.

Up-reert, 151, 510 [aup-ree urt, oftener aup-rait], upright. In early editions it is lee a rope out-reert. See notes, l. 151.

**Upzetting**, 8, 380, i. e. Up-sitting;—a Gossipping or Christening Feast. [aup-zút'een] (common). At present the being dressed and ready to receive visitors after a wedding, funeral, &c., is called 'sitting up,' and the days when such visitors are expected are called 'sitting up days.'

Uze, 229 [yùe'z], use, custom, habit (still very common).

#### v

To Vag, 80, 515, to thwack, or beat one with a Rod, &c. to fag. (Obsolete.)

To vall over the Desk, 475, a Cant Term for having had the Banns of Marriage published in the Church. [vaal oa vur dhu dús] (still a common saying).

To Vang, 8, to take:—And likewise to undertake at the Font of Baptism, as a Sponsor for a Child.—In the Præter Vung (?).—Thus 1. 8, 'When tha vungst (and be hang'd to tha!) to Robbin'—i. e. When thou wert Godmother (and may hanging await thee!) to Robbin. [vang] (very common), to hold, to seize. Cf. fang. I have never heard of vung for the past tense, and believe it never existed; if it did, it is now quite forgotten. It no longer signifies to become sponsor. The present term for that duty is to stand for [tu stan vaur]. The verb is conjugated vang, vang(d before a vowel), u-vang(d before a vowel). Compare Germ. fangen. See note, 1. 256. See E. D. S. Gloss, B. 14.

Vurjuice, 411 [vaarjees], verjuice; a common exclamation.

Vath, 400, 475, 553, 610, 624. See Fath.

Vath and trath! 454 [faath-n trath!], a rather stronger interjectional phrase than faath! only, = 'by my faith and troth.' The expression

is still much used, and in it alone is the word *troth* extant. Whether *traath* is the original pronunciation, or whether it has been adapted to match *fauth*, is a question for students. See Fy.

Vauthe [fau th], fault. This pronunciation is still not uncommon, but fau t or fau t are more usual. (Not in the text.)

Veaking, 42, 75, 308 (quasi Feiging, Carping;) fretful and peevish. (Obsolete.) The explanatory word *Feiging*, in all the editions, is obsolete also.

Veest, 93 [vees, often vuys; plur. vee stez, vuy stez], fist.

Vengeance, 4, 35, 207, 506 [vai njuns], still a very common name for the Devil. See also 'Somerset Man's Complaint,' p. 9.

'Left to conflict nakedly with hell and vengeance.'
Rogers (1642), 'Hist. of Naaman,' p. 39.

Verly bleive, 303 [vuurlĕe blaiv], verily believe; still a very common form of asseveration. Verily is always sounded as two syllables.

Vet et, 252, 303 [vút ut], fetch it, i. e. come round, recover. This word is altogether different from to vit meat. It is, I think (l. 252), the p. part. of fetch. We see the word spelt vett in the 'Somerset Man's Complaint,' p. 8, and fet by Chancer. In the 'Chronicon Vilodunense' the word is used frequently in different forms, in all of which it has a form more like the modern dialectal. Fetch is now pronounced faach or vaach. In stanza 732 of the Chron. Vilo. we read fache for the infin. of fetch.

'hurre soule was fate to hevene w' angels ffre.'-st. 482.

'Bot Seynt Ede was dede forsothe byfore

And hurre soule fatte to hevene blysse.'—st. 549.

'For bleynde men hadden pere hurr' seyzt
And crokette and maymotte fatton pere hurre hele:
Miracules weron do per' pus day and nyzt
And sekemen come pedur mony and ffele.'—st. 586.
'A basyn w' wat' po forthe was fatte.'—st. 704.
'twey p'stes . . . fetten pe shryne.'—st. 1174.

In Piers Plowman, about the same date as the above, we read:

'And of-sente hire a-swipe · Seriauns hire to fette.'—Pass. III. 96.

' Freres with feir speches : fetten him bennes.'-Pass. II. 205.

#### Gower has:

'And panne he let be cofres fette

Vpon be bord and dede hem sette.'

Tale of the Coffers, l. 45.

# Chaucer has:

'A Briton book, writen with Euangiles, Was fet, and on this book he swor anoon.'

Man of Lawes tale, 668.

See note 3, p. 8.

Viggee, 216 [vig ee]. See Vigging.

Vigging, 218 (See Potee,) vig, vig, vig; used to express the Action of Dogs digging with their Feet, in order to scratch out Fleas. [vig cen] (this would be still understood, rare).

'The old word is fike, of which fidget is the diminutive.'—Skeat.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Fykiū a-bowte, infra in Fyskiū.' 'Fiskiū a-bowte yn ydilnesse.'

' I praye you se howe she fysketh aboute.'-Palsgrave.

'Trotière, a raumpe, fisgig, fisking huswife, raunging damsell.'—Cotgrave.

'Make's feir semblaunt, & fike's mid te heaued.'

'Ancren Riwle,' p. 206.

' þet flickereð so mit þe, & fikeð mid dogge uawenunge.' Ibid, p. 290, ed. Camden Soc.

'And since I trotted from my trotter stall, And figd about from neutes feete neatly drest.' 'A Quest of Enquirie,' A.D. 1598 (Nares).

Vinnied or Vinnad, Finnewed, Mouldy. [vún ud] (the usual term in every-day use), mildewed, spotted with mould, or with any defiling matter. Choese with green mould is always called vún ud. Webster gives this word as 'vinnewed, obsolete.'

'Many of Chaucer's words are become as it were vinew'd and hoarie with over long lying.'—T. Beaumont to Speght, in his Chaucer (Nares).

'A souldier's hands must oft be died with goare, Lest, starke with rest, they finew'd waxe and hoare.' 'Mirror for Mag,' p. 417.

'A panary of wholesome food, against fenowed traditions.'—Bible Translator's Preface to Readers.

'The old moth-eaten leaden legend, and the foisty and fenowned festival.'—Dr. Fayour, cited by Todd (Nares).

In Shakspere the word is whinid in early editions, but in later ones, e. g. Stebbing, it is quite deflavoured and spoilt by the reading unsalted.

'Ajax. Speak then, thou whinid'st leaven, speak: I will beat thee into handsomeness.'—'Troilus and Cressida,' Act ii. sc. 1.

'Fenne has occasionally the abstract signification of mire.' In Vegecius, Roy. MS. 18, A. xii., Scipio speaks 'with this reprovable scorne; ye ben worthy, to be blottede and spottede, foulede and defoulede with fenne and with drit of water (luto inquinari) and of blode, pat in tyme of werre ne were not, ne wolde nat be bespreynt ne be wette with ennemyes blode.'—Bk. iii. c. 10, Prompt. Parv. p. 155, ed. Way.

Vinny, 139, a Battle or Skirmish; and in the foregoing Dialogues (see p. 40) a scolding Bout.—Possibly from Whinniard (?), a Hanger or crooked Sword, used as a Defence from Assaults; and this perhaps derived from the Latin Vindicta (?), Revenge: For the Word Vinny here, cannot mean to whinny or neigh like a Horse, this being a signal of kind Invitation, rather than garrulous Opposition. [Obsolete.] This derivation is far too speculative. Why may not this word also be derived from fenn = mire; hence bespattering or befouling as the usual result of a tussle? Cf. 'throwing dirt.' See Vinnied.

To Vine-dra Voaks, 201, i. e. to finedraw Folks; to flatter or deceive People by fair Speeches;—to cut their Throats with a Feather.
[I believe it would have been pronounced fair draw vouks.] To 'fine-

dra a stoar' (a tale) would mean to grossly exaggerate. 'Thick there stoar's too fine a dra'd,' is not an uncommon saying. I cannot find any trace of the word being now used as in the text.

Vire-tangs, 72 [vuy·ur-tangz]. The common tongs are still called most usually the fire-tongs. Tongs alone are smith's pincers.

To Vit Meat, to dress it, or make it fit to be eaten. (Obsolete.) Not in the text. Halliwell is again absurdly wrong in copying this, and so giving 'Vit. To dress meat.' To vit is clearly to make fit, and is simply the transitive form of the verb, of which to vittee is the intransitive and frequentative. A native never could have got his mouth into shape to utter 'to vittee meat,' but he would of course have said 'the mait will vittee.' It is evident the last century glossarist was a native and practically knew the true meanings of the words, though he was unconscious of the grammatical connection. See W. S. Gram., p. 49, et seq.

To Vittee, 57, 262, to go well, fitly, and successfully. [vút·če] (common), to thrive, to get on.

Vitty, 73, 462, 464, 553, 559, 569 (quasi fitty,) apt, decent, handsome and well. [vút-ĕe] (very common); also as an adverb—properly, in the right manner. Spelt vittee, 1. 73.

Vittiness, 209 [vút inees], dexterity, neat-handedness (very common).

Vlagged, 74 [vlag·ud], loose, flaceid, flabby (very common).

Vlee, 299 [vlee], to fly; so always vlee lig u bnurd, 'fly like a bird.' Always, as in the text, fly to, not fly at.

Voar, Voor, or Vore, 286—Forth;—Also a Furrow. [voar] (very common still in all the senses found in the text).

To drow voar, 286, 309, i. e. to throw forth; to twit a Person with a Fault. [tu droa voa'r] (very common). See note 5, p. 44.

Voar-and-Back, 119, revers'd; the Right-hand Side being placed on the Left, or what should be forward put backward: So up and-down (in the Devonsh. Dialect) means up side-down, or inverted. [voer-nn baak] (very common); baak-n-voa'r is more usual. Spelt voer-and-back, 1. 119. I do not think this expression means fore or right hand back, or back-hand forward, as here implied—(a) because no stress is laid on the and, which is clipped down to a mere sound of n in both the forms I have given; and (b) because the same idiomatic form is used to express the other positions of reversal, e. g. in-and-out [een-un-aewt] is invariable for inside-out, and up-and-down [aup-m-daewn] for upside-down. If hand were intended it would have stress—the right side is always called right-hand side [rai't-an'-zuyd], or left-hand side [laft-an'-zuyd] for left side.

Prof. Skeat suggests that the and in up-and-down, &c., is on; i. e. up-on-down = up- (side) on-down (side). This is very probable.

Vokes, 202 [voaks], folks, people. Also spelt voaken, ll. 197, 385, 525, but this latter form is quite obsolete. According to context, the word may mean people in general or the work-people. Usually voak, as in ll. 291, 383, would mean people in general, while the plural, as in l. 297,

means work-people. It is most common to distinguish men and women, as mai'n voaks, wuom'een voaks. See note 9, p. 47. Spelt voaks, 1. 202.

Vore, 286 [voa·r], for (emphatic).

Vore, 229 [voa·r], until. See notes, ll. 108, 229.

- Vore-Days or Voar-Days, 122, late, or forward in the Day; the Day being far advanced. [voa'r daiz]. Be voor days in the text. The expression vore-days is rare, while vore-day, or avore-day is very common. The latter undoubtedly means 'before daylight.' Halliwell, as usual, throws no light, but simply copies this glossary. Bosworth certainly gives A.S. for8 dages, at the close of day; but I can find no passage in later Eng. to confirm the definition of vore days given above. See Be voor days.
- Vore-reert, 50, 120, forth-right, or right forward.—headlong, without Circumspection. [voar recurt] (rare, obsolescent); [voar ruyt], the present form (very common). Spelt vore-reet, l. 50. This word has at present a stronger force in the dialect than it seems to have possessed formerly, if we are to accept the definitions of dictionary makers. Bosworth gives 'for's riht, right forward, direct, plain;' and much the same sense is given to the word by Beaumont and Fletcher and by Massinger, according to Webster. The vernacular meaning is truly given in the glossary, the idea being headstrong, unreasoning, hence rudely blustering. The following quotations seem to imply something approaching the force of the dialect:

'Though he foreright
Both by their houses and their persons pass'd.'
Chapman, 'Odyssey,' xvii.

'Fil. Hey boy! how sits the wind? Gios. Fore-right, and a brisk gale.' 'The Slighted Maid,' p. 3 (Nares).

- Vorewey, 170, 354, 556, 558 [voa rwai, voarwai], immediately, straight away. This word (still very common) does not imply quite so instantaneous an action as wi' tha zame. See note 2, p. 44. In some cases this word would have just the meaning of literary fore-right.
- Vorked, forked. 48, 'so vur's that art a vorked' i. e. so far as thou art forked: and l. 135, 'drade that out by the vorked Eend' i. e. drew thee out by the forked End; which Phrases want no other Explanation, the Fork therein meant being well known: And perhaps it may not be deem'd beside our Purpose to add, that the same Word is us'd for the Twist or Twissel of Maiden Trees. [vaur'kud]. See W. S. Gram., p. 81. (Common.)
- Vort or Voart, 334, fought.—'Es thort you coudent a vort zo' i. e. I thought you could not have fought so. [vau'rt] (common). Most words in ought have an r in them. See Thort, Nort.

Vor why? 208 [vur waary], on which account, because, wherefore (common phrase as here used).

'Al p' vuel of Dina p' ich spec of er, ne com nout forsui p' te wummen lokede cangliche o weopmen.' 'Ancren Riwle,' ed. Camden Soc., p. 56. 'And swa wald God at it suld be; For-whi he sayd pus till Noe.' Non permanebit, &c.

Richard of Hampole, 'Pricke of Conscience,' 1. 732.

'For sythen mans lyf bycom shortere, For-whi be complection of ilk man Was sythen febler ban it was ban.'—Ibid, l. 744.

**Vramp-shapen**, 120, distorted. [vraamp shee upm] (obsolete). In the text this word is *shaken*—this is clearly an error or misprint. Possibly the same as *frampold*.

Vreach, 282, Readily, carefully, diligently and earnestly. [vrai'ch], actively, with spirit (common). The idea is the same in 'the free horse,' i. e. energetic, with all the might. I believe this is the old word wreche, which would be naturally pronounced vreache, like vrite, vrestle, &c.

'That may be heled with no leche, So violent thei are and full of wreche.' MS. Addit. 11,305, f. 97.

'And couere me atte that dredful day, Til that thy wreche be y-passed away.' Ibid, f. 75 (Halliwell).

'Ne do pu nout him scheome, so pet tu uorhowie Wreche of his dome 't nime to pin owune dome.' Ancren Riwle, p. 286, ed. Cam. Soc.

Vulch, 67, 354. See Fulch.

Vull-stated. See Full-stated.

A Vump, 86, a Thump. [vuump] (rare).

To Vump, to thump, or give one Blows with the Fist;—also to vamp or botch up old Clothes. (Obsolete.)

Vung, 8, 256. See Vang. Halliwell gives 'Vung, received. Devon,' but no such word is known, or ever has been, in the dialect.

Vustin Fume, 521, a mighty Fume, a swelling boisterous Rage. (Vustin obsolete, fume not dialect.)

Vustled up, 107, wrapped up; a Lat. Fascia (?). [vuus ld aup] (very common). This means more than wrapped up—it is bustled up or bundled up, like a very loose, untidy package. B and v are constantly interchanged, as in ruvvle (rubble), curbe (curve).

Vuzzy-perk, 114 [vuuz'ĕe paark], the name of a field still very common on many hill farms. It implies a pasture field liable to be overrun with furze or gorse. See note 8, p. 37.

### W

Waistcoat, 155 [wae-us-koa-ut]. This was not always a man's garment. The short jackets still worn by peasant women, just reaching below the waist, are still called waistcoats. Beaumont and Fletcher speak of a fine lady wanting

A ten pound waistcoat, or a nag to hunt on.'
'Woman's Prize,' Act i. sc. 4.

The word is used for the name of a woman's garment by them in several plays, also by Massinger ('City Madam') and in 'Poor Robin.'

Wambling, 53, a Rumbling or Commotion in the Guts;—also waving tumbling or lolling a Thing backward and forward, or from Side to Side. [waum·leen] (very common), unsteady, going from side to side. A wheel running much 'out of truth' is said to waum·l. A stock for centre-bits is a waum·l stauk.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Wamelynge, of be stomake, idem quod walmynge. Nausia.'

'Allecter, to wamble as a queasie stomacke dothe.'—Cotgrave.

In Trevisa's version of 'Barth. de Propriet.' it is said of mint: 'It abateth with vynegree parbrakinge (q. v.), and easting, that comethe of febelnesse of the vertue retentyf; it taketh away abhominacion of wamblyng and abatethe the yexeing.'

To wamble in this sense is still very common, but in the text, 1.53, the meaning is *rambling*, like a drunken man.

- Wangary or Wangery, 74, soft and flabby. [wang uree] (very common). This is the regular word used by butchers to express the condition of meat which will not get solid—a very common fault in warm weather, or if the animal was out of condition when slaughtered. I heard a very respectable cook say (1879) of some meat, "Twon't never take salt when 'tis so wangery.' This word is the same as to wang, to shake about, to be unsteady, to wag.
- Wapper-eyed, 59, Goggle-eyed, having full rolling Eyes; or looking like one scared;—or squinting like a Person overtaken with Liquor.—Possibly from wapian, Sax. fluctuare, stupere. [waap'ur uyd] (very common).
- 'Chell Warndy, 270, 281, 332, 527, I'll warrant you. [waurnt-ee] (very common). It is to be carefully noted that, as explained in note, I, 332, the y in warndy represents ye, and the word is correctly defined by the glossarist. Halliwell is utterly wrong in giving 'warndy, to warrant.' The word should be read as warrant-ye or warnt-ee. To warrant (v. tr.) is warn, as 'I'll warn thick 'orse sound.' Before a vowel or vowel sound the t is heard, as in 'I'll warnt-y,' the usual form of asseveration; i. e. warrant you.
- Washamouth, 138, One that blabs out every Thing at random, or whatever happens to be uppermost. [waursh-umaewf] (common).
- Wee wow or a-wee-wow, 275 (see note)—Waving this Way and that Way; prave, perverse. [wee wuw] (very common), unsteady, out of truth, as of a wheel very loose on its axles, and so running in zig-zags.

Well a fine, 81, 269, very well. See note, l. 81.

Well to pass, In a thriving Way, possess'd of a good Estate, or having a competent Fortune. [wuul tu paas] (rare).

Went agen. See note 1, p. 90. Appeared after death.

Wetherly, 220. See p. 69 (obsolete).

Wey, 10, 32, 58, 72 [wai], with.

**A Whappet**, 517, a Blow with the Hollow of the Hand. [waup'ut] (very common). The word is now whap [waup'].

Whare, 13 [hwae'ur, emphatic; wuur, unemph.], whether (still the common form).

'Why here's all fire, wit, where he will or no.'
'Match at Midnight,' vii. 386.

'Lady Frampul. I know not wher I am or no; or speak, Or whether thou dost hear me.'

Ben Jonson, 'New Inn,' Act v. sc. 1.

'Good sir, say wher' you'll answer me or not.'
'Comedy of Errors,' Act iv. sc. 1.

'No matter now, wher thou be false or no, Goswin; whether thou love another better, Or me alone; or wher thou keep thy vow.' Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Beggar's Bush,' Act v. sc. 1.

Wharewey, 235, Wherewith, or Wherewithal. [wae'ŭr-wai'] (very common).

Whatjecomb, 440, or Whatchecam, what d'ye call him? [hauchikum] (very common).

Whatnozed, for hot nosed, (formerly spelt hoate-nosed,) red-nosed, as if heated by drinking too freely. [waut-noa·ŭzud] (common).

A Wherret or Whirret, 100, 518, a Clap or Cuff given on the Face, according to Minshew; but in Dev. it rather means a Box o' the Ear. [wurut] (very common).

'Troth, now I'm invisible, I'll hit him a sound wherret on the ear, when he comes out of the garden.'—'Puritan,' Act iv. sc. 2.

'How meekly
This other fellow here received his whirrit.'
Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Nice Valour,' Act iv. sc. 3.

Whileer, 88, 140, 152, 276, i. e. a while e're or a while before; a little while since. [wuy·lae·ŭr] (obsolescent). Spelt whilere, l. 152; ere-while.

'Caliban. Let us be jocund; will you troll the catch You taught me but whilere.' Shakspere, 'Tempest,' Act iii. sc. 2.

'That cursed wight, from whom I scapt whyleare, A man of hill, that calls himself despaire.' Spenser, 'Faerie Queene,' Bk. 1, ix. 28.

' Doe you not know this seely timorous deere, As usual to his kinde, hunted whileare.' Browne, 'British Pastimes,' i. 3, p. 69.

Whitstone, a Whetstone; a Liar's Property. See Notes on P. 78 & 79. [The term whetstone for a liar, or for the prize for lying, seems to be very old, and, according to Nares, was a standing jest among our ancestors as a satirical premium to him who told the greatest lie.

Ray puts first ' $He\ deserves\ a$  whetstone,' among proverbial phrases denoting liars.

'And what shall he gain that gets the victorie in lying? He shall have a silver whetstone for his labour?

Lupton, 'Too Good to be True,' p. 80, A.D. 1580.

Other instances are given in 'Popular Antiquities,' i. p. 429. Mendax, the liar, in an old Morality (Bulleyn's), cited in Waldron's 'Sad Shepherd,' pp. 162, 220, says his arms are

'Three whetstones in gules, with no difference.'

Well might Martano beare away the bell, Or else a whetstone challenge as his dew, That on the sodaine such a tale could tell, And not a word of all his tale was true.'

Harrington, 'Trans. of Ariosto,' xviii. 36.

'Crites. Cos! how happily hath fortune furnished him With a whetstone.'

Ben Jonson, 'Cynthia's Revels,' Act i. sc. 1.

Hence the force of Bacon's sarcasm to Digby, who was unable to describe the philosopher's stone which he professed to have seen, 'Perhaps it was a whetstone.'

'It is a custom in the North when a man tells the greatest lie in the company to reward him with a *whetstone*; which is called lying for the *whetstone*.'—Budworth, 'Fortnight's Ramble to the Lakes.' ch. 6, A.D. 1792.

'Diurnals writ for regulation
Of lying, to inform the nation,
And by their public use to bring down
The rate of whetstones in the kingdom.'
Butler, 'Hudibras,' pt. ii. 1, 57.

To whister, 297, 624, to whisper.—'Zart! Whistery' P. 108, i. e. Soft! let us whisper. [wús'tur] (common).

A Whisterpoop, 93, 353, 518, a Sort of whistling, or rather whispering Pop,—a Blow on the Ear; ironically meant to express a sudden and unwelcome Whisper. [wús tur pèop] (very common), an unexpected blow, a sudden blow.

Whittle, 108, 204, 278 [wút1], a flannel petticoat. It is now the name in common use for the long flannel petticoat, made to open down the front, which is worn by babies until they are 'shortened,' or, as is said in W. S., 'tucked up.'

A Whitwitch, 440, a white Witch, a Conjuror;—A good Witch, that does no Mischief unless it be in picking the Pockets of those who are no Conjurors, by pretending to discover the Rogueries of others. [weetwuch] (very common). There are many still thriving, and in large practice.

Whorting,—'out a Whorting,' l. 91—i. e. out in the Woods, &c. to search for and gather Whorts or Whortle-berries. [huur-teen]. The w in this word is quite gone—I doubt if it ever was sounded. Prof. Skeat says the w is not sounded in Surrey. Cf. Hurtmoor, near Godalming.

Whot, 275, hot. Halliwell says whot is still in use. Cf. Whatnozed.

The Why for Ay, 236, a sufficient Compensation, or valuable Exchange of One-thing for another.—As in P. 50, 'Thou wouldst kiss the A—of G. H. to ha'en' (i. e. to have him); but thou hast not the Why for Ay, i. e. not a sufficient Fortune to answer his. [waay vur aa'y] (very common).

Wimbing, Winnowing Corn. [wim'een]. To winnow is always to wim or wuom; there is no b sound. Hence wim-sheet, the large sheet used in winnowing.

Wi' the same. See note 2, p. 44.

Witherly, 220, Wilful, contrary,—a Witherly Chat: Item, wilfully; with main Force and Violence. (Obsolete.) Spelt wetherly in the text.

Wone tether, 312 [wan taedh'ur], one another (always so).

Wother, 307, either (still used in Devon).

Wothering, otherwise, else (rare in Devon).

Wotherway, 275, otherwise (rare in Devon).

Woundy, 351 [wnw'ndĕe], wildly, excessively (obsolete). This is one of those expletive adverbs, without much meaning, which have their day and are forgotten. Awful or awfully would just now be the colloquial equivalent. Woundy, however, seems to have lasted at least 200 years, from Jonson's time. See note 16, p. 81.

Wraxled, 217 [vraak slud], wrestled. It should be noted that to wrestle being an intransitive verb, the past inflection is pronounced fully ud (see W. S. Gram., p. 50); also that words spelt wr are most commonly pronounced vr, as vrite, vrong, vright. Nathan Hogg spells these words with v.

Wraxling, Wrestling. [vraks·leen, vraa·sleen, vrau·sleen]. See Wraxled.

Wutt, 11 [wuut], wilt (emphatic).

#### $\mathbf{Y}$

Yellow Beels, 406, or Yellow Boys, Guineas. (Obsolete.) Probably Yellow Bills, as we might now say Yellow Vics for sovereigns. At the date at which these dialogues were first written the coinage would mostly bear the image of William III. Beels meant also bills or notes. In those days there were guinea notes. A five-pound note is to-day a five-pound bill. Bill is still pronounced bee'ül.

To Yappee, when spoken of a Dog, signifies to yelp.—See Yeppy. [yap'ée] (very common). A spaniel or terrier is said to yap'ée when he utters his sharp bark on disturbing his game.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Wappyn, or baffyn as howndys (or snokyn) —wappon, or berkyn.'

'Wappynge, of howndys, whan pey folow here pray, or that they wolde harme to.'

Forby gives 'Wappet, a yelping cur; and yap.'

Dr. Caius gives 'wappe' in the same sense.

To wappee is just as common as to yappee in the dialect. Both words imply the shrill bark of a small dog. A hound is never now said to yappee or wappee, but to speak or give tongue.

**Yeaveling**, 166, 200, 223, 314, the Evening. [yai'vleen] (obsolescent). For change of n into l, compare chimley for chimney.

Yeavy, 43, Wet and Moist.—a Sax. Ea, aqua (?). [yai'vĕe] (very common). This word describes the condition of condensed damp on walls or stone floors just after a thaw. At such times the walls are said to ai'vĕe. The y in yai'vee is obsolescent.

Yemors, 224 [yaem'urz], embers. When a wood fire has burnt down there are always plenty of hot embers underneath, even though to all appearance the fire is quite out. By stirring these a considerable heat is readily obtained—hence the allusion in the text, 'spudlee out the yemors.' Nothing was known of coal fires in Thomasin's days around Exmoor.

Yeoanna Lock, 152, 211. See note 2, p. 42.

To Yeppy, 261, to make a chirping Noise like Chicken or Birds;—also used negatively to denote the Voice of a Person that can't be distinctly heard: As in P. 52, 'thou art so hoarse that thou canst scarce yeppy.' [yep'ĕe]. This word is precisely the same as yappee (q. v.), but in N. Dev. it is often pronounced closer, yep'ĕe.

Yerring, 41, 310, 501, Yelling, Noisy. [yuureen] (very common).

**Yess**, 44, 89, 102, 295, Podex, in plain English mine A—· [yes] (the y is obsolescent). See note, 1. 44.

Prompt. Parv. gives 'Ars, or arce, aars. Anus, culus, podex.'

'If sheepe or thy lambe fall a wrigling with taile, Go by and by search it, whiles helpe may preuaile: That barberlie handled I dare thee assure, Cast dust in his arse, thou hast finisht thy cure.'

Tusser, 'Maies husbandrie,' 51, st. 4, ed. E. D. S.

In the dialect this word is of course in daily use as above, but it is also used to express the back part of anything, as 'Put thick up 'pon the arse o' the wagon.'

Yewmors, Embers, hot Ashes: The same Word is also used for Humours. [yùemurz, sometimes]. See Yemors.

Yeo, 210, an Ewe Sheep. [yoa·] (always so pronounced).

Yheat-stool, 54 [yee ut-steol]. In every large old chimney-corner is to be found on either side a short stool or bench, which is of course the warmest seat—this is probably the heat stool. This explanation is borne out in 1.160. In the first edition this word was spelt he-at-stool. It is possible that the word may express what is now known as the brandis, an iron tripod for supporting a pot or pan over a wood fire.

In the Prompt. Parv. this word is 'Brandelede, branlet, branlede, or treuet = Tripes.'

Halliwell gives the word as brandreth, but gives no authority.

'Tak grene zerdis of esche, and lay thame over a brandethe.'

MS. Lincoln Med. f. 283.

Yoe, 213. See Yeo.

 $\mathbf{z}$ 

Zar. See Sar.

- Zart! 624 [zaart!], a quasi oath, —a's heart! (very common). Not to be confounded with soft, also spelt zart in the text.
- Zart-and-vair, 54 [zaart or saart-n-vae'ŭr] soft and fair (more commonly saart-n-vae'ŭr), i. e. soft-witted, idiotic. The whole epithet is quite incongruous and unmeaning as used in the text, but quite in keeping with the spirit of the dialect—to apply any kind of adjective to any object in sight, and to make the whole into an epithet. This is not peculiar to any district, for recently I heard a cad in the London streets call out in an abusive tone to another—'You're a nice old cup o' tea.'
- Zœwl or Zowl, a Plough to cast up Furrows. [zoo'ŭl]. This word, though in daily use, and indeed the only common name for a plough throughout Devon and W. Somerset, and although it has certainly come down to us from Saxon times, is scarcely found in mediæval authors. In the dialect plough (arare) is used as a verb only. As a noun, plough means team of horses. I heard a farmer (Oct. 1879) say of two strayed horses in a field, 'Who's plough's this here, then?' The word sull appears constantly in local advertisements, and we have many kinds, as the eld nauny-zool, two-vore-zool, combing-zool, double-zool, tatie-zool, and others, all of them various kinds of ploughs.

'Eif eux ne kurue, ne þe spade ne dulue, ne þe suluh ne erede, hwo kepte ham uorte holden?'—'Ancren Riwle,' p. 384, ed. Cam. Soc.

Zeck, 2, sick.

- Zed, 536 [u-zaed], a said, withstood, gain-said, take no! for an answer.
- Zeert, 37 [zee tirt], sight. This pronunciation is now rare—generally zait only is heard. The same applies to cock-leert, vore-reert, &c.
- Zenneert or Zinneert, 163, 194, Sev'night. [zaen'ait] (obsolescent). Spelt zennet, l. 163.
- Zet, 37, 119, 226, 228 [zút], set. The same sound as sit, 167. Both verbs are conjugated alike—p. tense, zau't; pp. u-zau't. See W. S. G., p. 48. See note, l. 228.
- Zewnteen or Zœwnteen, Seventeen. (Obsolete; present form, zab·mteen.)
- 'Should Zem, 9, for 'I should seem,' it seems, or so the Report goes:

  —As in P. 24, 'Should zem thou wert sick,' &c. i. e. it was so reported.

  —I Sem, an old word, for I see, I perceive. [zúm]. This is the common word for consider, think, reckon. Any zúm t-l kaum tùe u skad, 'I think it will come to a scad,' i. e. there will be a shower.
- The Zess, 32, 70, 87, 240, 284, the Sheaves regularly piled and stowed in a Barn in like Manner as a Corn rick or Mow is without

- doors; but the Devonshire Word Zess, always means the Pile of Sheaves within the Barn. [zaes, zes]. The regular term, still used as here defined. The part of the barn where the zess is placed is called the pool [peo·l]. Halliwell is wrong in defining it as a compartment of a barn.
- Zidle mouth, 51, the Mouth awry, or more extended on One Side than the other. [zuy'dl muwdh or maewf] (very common epithet).
- Zlat, 101 [slaat], a blow. See Slat. This word is one of those corrected in the Glossary. It is in very common use. See W. S. Gram., p. 65.
- Zlotter, 184 [zlau tur], a mixture for medicinal purposes, implying rather a semi-fluid, such as a soft poultice, or a mixture of the brimstone and treacle kind (still in use). This word and the next are not to be confounded with slatter. See Caucheries.
- Zlottering, 53 [zlautureen], physicking, given to taking medicine, or doctoring. This quite agrees with the character ascribed by Thomasin to Wilmot throughout the dialogues (rather rare, but still in use).
- Zoo, 110, as 'To let the Kee go Zoo,' i. e. let the Cows go dry. [zèo, zoa'] (very common). Prof. Skeat says this is a real Celtic word. Cornish, sych; Welsh, sych; Irish, siuc; Latin, siccus. Halliwell gives this as assue, but without authority.
- **Zowerswopped**, 40, 501 (quasi Sowre sapped,) ill natured, crabbed. [zaaw'ur zaap'ud] (very common). This word implies a nature so thoroughly crabbed that the very sap or marrow is sour. Spelt zowerzapped and zower-zop'd in the text.
- Zwir thy Torn, 112, Quhir, or whirl round thy Spinning Wheel with speed; let thy Diligence be proclaimed by its Zwirring, or quhirring Noise. [zwuur dhi tuurn] (very common). See note, l. 112.
- Zwop, 324 (a Sax. Swapa, ruina,) the noise made by the sudden Fall of any Thing; as 'He fell down, zwop!'—In the Exmoor Courtship, P. 78, it expresses the sudden snatching of a smacking Kiss. [Spelt swop in the text.]
- Zwop, 98, 100, 517 [zwaup], a whack, a whop, blow with or without a stick or other instrument.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Swap, or stroke, *Ictus*.' 'Sweype, or swappe, or strok, *Alapa*.'

FINIS.

\* \* \* \*

## II.

## WESTMORELAND.

## A BRAN NEW WARK.

EDITED BY THE

REV. PROFESSOR SKEAT, M.A.



## INTRODUCTION.

The following piece is carefully reprinted from the original edition, printed at Kendal in 1785. This edition is described in the Bibliographical List, published by the E. D. S., at p. 104; which see. I may add that I have discovered another copy of the work amongst the books given by Dr. Whewell to the library of Trinity College, Cambridge; this is not quite the same edition, being a reprint of the former one, as appears from internal evidence. The date has been cut off in the binding, but it was printed in London. For the purpose of the present reprint, I applied to the authorities at King's College, London, and was much gratified by their kindness in lending me their copy. Whilst carefully following this copy throughout, I have also collated the proof-sheets with the copy in the Trinity library, and have noted all the variations of any interest.

The author of the present curious tract was the Rev. Wm. Hutton, Rector of Beetham in Westmoreland from Sept. 1762<sup>1</sup> till his death in August, 1811, and the head of a very ancient family seated at Overthwaite in that parish; see Burn and Nicolson's Hist. of Westmoreland and Cumberland, i. 219. The present vicar is our author's namesake and grandson. The word Worfat, as we learn from the Prologue, is a corruption of Overthwaite.

Unlike many specimens of (so-called) provincial talk, this piece does not appear to have been written to sell; so that the author was not endeavouring, as is often the case, to put together a quantity of trash (often very incorrect as specimens of dialect) in order to raise a laugh and catch a penny. The difference in tone from the ordinary

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The author himself, writing at 'Yuletide, 1784,' says he has 'tented his flock' for 'aboon twenty-four years'; see I. 20. The explanation is, that he was already curate of Beetham in 1760.

run of such productions is most striking. It breathes the language of genuine Christian love, and shews that the author was a man of kindly feeling and excellent sense. It is rightly styled 'A Plain Address,' and is well calculated to promote that kindly feeling amongst neighbours which the author had so much at heart. It will commend itself, to the reader who possesses a kindred spirit, as 'a gem of purest ray serene.'

Strictly speaking, the language is not dialectal, but literary English; yet it contains so large a number of dialectal words as to make it well worthy of being reprinted for the Society.

The peculiarities of the original have been preserved. One of these, for example, is the use of a note of interrogation in place of one of admiration.

The notes at the bottom of the text (except that to 1. 60) are the author's own. The short glossary which immediately follows the text is also the author's. The Appendix, containing various readings, a few notes, and a rather fuller glossary, is added by myself.

WALTER W. SKEAT.

A PLAIN ADDRESS,
WRITTEN IN THE
PROVINCIAL DIALECT,
OF THE
BARONY OF KENDAL.

Beneath this is written, in the King's College copy, "fifty only printed," in the author's own handwriting. On the back of this leaf he has also written—"Master Henry Wilson—For the sake of your Father, Wm. de Worfat sends you this small Present. When you are grown a Man, judge of Me with Candour, & smile upon my Wark? It has its faults, but I say with Montesquieu; 'the ill grounded objections of many spring from their own heads, not from what I have written.' Wm. de Worfat, Sept. 12th, 1785."

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  On a fly-leaf at the beginning is printed a second title, containing only the words—

## BRAN NEW WARK,

## BY WILLIAM DE WORFAT,

CONTAINING

## A true Calendar of his Thoughts

CONCERNING GOOD NEBBERHOOD.

Naw first printed fra his M.S. for the use of the hamlet of WOODLAND.

Diligens appetitus aliquando negligit verba cultiora nec curat quid bene sonet, sed quid indicet atque intimet quod ostendere intendit. St. Aust.

KENDAL:

Printed by W. Pennington, 1785.



#### THE

## PROLOGUE

BY WILLIAM DE WORFAT,\* CLERK;

Shewing his awn estate, and then addressed to sic north-country folks, as may be flown into the autlands, or sped thro' these realms in divers occupations, and wha in length of time, and with good leeving, may hev amaast forgitten their mother tongue.†

OD be with ye! I regard with the tenderest affection every mother's barn o' ye, fra the heeghest to the lawest; I equally respect the gentleman that treads in black snod pumps, and the clown that rattles oor the paavement in cakered cloggs; because each hes a race to run, a saaul to save, and may he prosper! The person that 5 addresses himself to ye, is placed by providence amang woods and scarrs, oorun with brocks and foumarts, otters and weezels. Ye waat it is the height of aur fun to beat the bushes and hunt thro' the scrogs; what can excel the chaace of a wild cat? or naaked in summer to splash in the Ea, and dive like a porpoise? different 10 spots; have their different pleasures, eigh and difficulties tea. We laugh at a wedding, and cry at a berring; a christning brings a feast;

<sup>\*</sup> Alias Orfat, alias Overthwaite.

<sup>†</sup> Several words which occur in these pages mark the different sources from which the English language is derived, at the same time they shew the mutability to which it is subject, confirming the observation of *Horace*.

Multa renascentur quæ jam cecidere; cadentque Quæ nunc sunt in honore vocabula; si volet usus Quem penes arbitrium est, & jus, & norma loquendi,

<sup>‡</sup> Spot, upon the spot, in the plural also places.

on the sabbath we say aur prayers, and the rest of the week ya day marrows another. What I mean to give ye, gentlemen, mun be 15 delivered in hamely manner, in clauted terms, net that my reading, sic as it is, was gitten in a summer's heat, as said auld Ascham, nor I trust will be weshed away with a christmas snaw, for my books hev been conn'd early and late; but inkhorn words, to be honest, we knaw lile abaut; in this hamlet, they wad net edify. 'Tis the pride 20 of my heart to tell ye, that for aboon twenty four years I hev duly tented the flock of my allotment, naa prawling wolf, naa cunning fox iver escap'd my eye, naa sad dog iver glanc'd on the virgin of the dale without my giving an alarm. Pleased with rural simplicity. asiming to hev a good conscience, I am meeterly content. 25 humble situation indeed may check ivery sprauting thought, but then my duty to my parishioners is mare strangly enforced, "and my attention kept in by necessity, is mare sharpened towards concerns which end net with my life."\* Every place hes its advantage and its disadvantage; heigh leeving and extravagance heve net fund 30 their way yet into Arnside, and Worfat is a deserted village; what then, naa hard fac'd bumbalif comes within my fald-yeat, fidling and revelry disturb net my hause, except when the waits gang their raund: Then to be sure the Yule clog blazes on the hearth, then the lads of my family thump the flure to the tune of Ald Roger. 35 barns of the nebber-raw merrily carrol the story of the Cherry Tree+ with other godly Ballads; ‡ and lasses fidge their parts; naw Jumping Joan, 1 naw Queen of Hearts. Fine times but seldom seen; o 38 the rest of the year, they mend and darn, knit and spin, bauk and

<sup>\*</sup> This is the sentiment of a minister of one of the islands of the *Hebrides*.

<sup>†</sup> One of our carrols has a story of Joseph and Mary's going into a garden, when the virgin desired Joseph to pluck her a cherry, telling him she was with child. This is very ridiculous, yet in all ages people have entertained themselves with rude conceits on this subject. In a chamber of Shelbrea priory, Sussev, there is now remaining some paintings of animals bearing testimony to the birth of Christ. From the beak of a cock in the act of crowing, is a label with these words, Christus natus est, next a duck from whose beak issues another, quando quando, from a raven in hac nocte, a cow has ubi ubi, and a lamb seems to bleat out Bethlam. Such is the production of monkish leisure.

<sup>‡</sup> In an old translation the song of *Solomon* is called the ballad of ballads.

<sup>1</sup> Names of old country dances.

bleech; they hev mucking and threshing, ploughing, peating, mawing, haying, shearing. Haw lile knaws ya part of the ward haw 40 tother leeves.<sup>1</sup>

Ye good christians, that like swallows and cuckoos, love to change to mare sunny hawghs, and naw feed on richer pickings, turn yer thoughts for a minute to the shaws, the crofts and intacks of the north, to the strea theck'd cottages which gave ye birth? 45 think of them, then strike your breasts, and thank your God, thank him twice, nay thrice, for weel I wat ye ken the poverty of aur dales; sic saunds as these ye sauked in upon yer mother's laps, ye lisp'd and prattled on yer father's knee: But hah! wha is this that fancy marks, shooting dawn the braw of Stavely, and laaking on the 50 banks of Windermere? the water nymphs popple up thro' the surface of the deep, and hail his future fortune.

Most learned and venerable prelate,

Excuse my provincial dialect? I only annex such words to my ideas as we and our fathers have used for ages past. When I reflect 55 on the number of  $men^2$  which the north country produced, some of whom<sup>3</sup> even assisted in translating the bible and in composing our liturgy, I am not ashamed of it; I know them by their lingua, I 58

These revenues however are greater than that of *Micah' Levite*, see *Judges* xvii, who had ten shekels of silver a suit of apparel, and his victuals.

¹ About fifty years ago, my worthy predecessor, not indeed a saint, but worth a hundred saints of the middle ages, with twenty marks per year, brought up a large family decently, and gave to two of his sons a college education. About that time a living in *Cumberland* was no better; the vicar had 5l. per year, a goose grass, a whitle gate, and a harden sark.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Amongst these the northern apostle Barnard Gilpin, stands first in the list, then follow a number of eminent persons, Airy, Smith, Crakenthrop, Chambers, Barwick, the bishops Carleton, Pearson, Fleming, Barlow, Cibson, next Mills, Seed, Shaw, Fothergill, Lancelot Addison, Peter Collinson, &c.

Roger Askam, speaking of Dr. Medcalf, master of St. John's college, Cambridge, about 1533, says he found that college spending two hundred marks per year income, he left it spending a thousand marks and more. Speaking of the donors, he says all these givers were almost northern men. Some men thought that Dr. Medcalf was partial to northern men, but sure I am that northern men were partial in doing good, and giving more lands to the furtherance of learning than any other country men in those days did.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ryelley the martyr, born in Northumberland, Aglionby and Grindal of Cumberland, Sands of Hawkshead.

trace them to have gone out from us. They did not conceal their 60 aras, they cou'd not their foces. But see! another form peers forward, he holds the gospel in his right hand, a crucible in his left. Once the play-fellow of my childhood, excuse my language? thro' Woodland we communicate all our ideas in cast off terms, yet terms which monarchs formerly deign'd to use, and which were yours and 65 mine, when we rambled together o'er the head of Heversham, or angled in the brook of Beetha. Reverend champions of our holy faith, defend it from every public, every insidious enemy? Do ye inform the great and affluent? proselyte them from the vanities of the world to the knowledge and love of the saviour? but permit me, 70 whilst I grovel amongst these knots and barrows, to instruct my people by every honest mean, which may enlighten vulgar comprehension. 'Tis my wish by slow degrees to reduce the savage tempers of the Saxon lineage, to calm their passions, and humanise 74 their hearts.

Yule Tide, 1784.

W. DE WORFAT.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sic; for focos.—W. W. S.

#### THE

## PLAIN ADDRESS.

AW strangely the mind of man flackers and flounces? It skims 75 oor earth, air, fire and water; is nivver at rest, ner nivver will be whilst the ward standeth. I Cor. viii. 13. Sometimes it is butterflee mad; sometimes teers itsel with measuring the tail of a fiery comet. There's naa sort of parlish feats it will net attempt. Two hundred years sen somebody thought of harnessing a flock of wild 80 geese for a trip to the moon. They nivver cou'd du it. A good bishop was cock-sure that in fifty summers, it wad be as common to co for my wings, as it is naw for my boots: We quite beat these ald dons at invention; aur fathers knew some at, we knaw mickle maar. 'Tother day I was inform'd, that an unshot codfish hes maar raans in 85 its belly than there be people on the face of the earth, and that a mite er a maggot will run as fast as a race-horse. These discoveries, my good brethren, er ta fine for my addle paate; I will neither venture my neck, ner strain my wits. What is it to us, shoul thare really be four millions of taad-poles in a single drop of vinegar? god 90 hes wisely hidden them fra aur seet. I grant it, that ya drop o alligar may be an ocean to sic tiny inhabitan[t]s, but when yan comes a shoar, 'twill be time enough to study his shap. We believe in god, let us magnifie his works, which men er sure they behold. His works, varily, er net stinted; see them in the lile tomtit? the chitterwren? 95 leak at them in the great eagle, the ostrich, the condor ?1 ye heve

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A large American bird in the woods of *Potomack*, fierce and formidable, with a body as large as a sheep, and its wings measure 12 feet from tip to tip.

- 97 heard of elephants, and whales; what huge lumps of bane and girsle, of fat and blubber! deary me! let net these creatures surprise ye? should a kraken¹ welter up the sands, and fill the gap between
- 100 Arnside-point, and Meethop-cragg, ye mud weel be astonished. But, what am I talking abaut? such marvelous things indeed shew the vastness of creation, and they tickle the ear of curiosity; they dunnet edify mitch. It is a blessed truth that the mind cannot continue lang in a bree, when teered with ballooning, it therefore
- 105 descends to maar useful subjects. Star-gazing is a pleasure, but to leak to yans feet is maar necessary. Tully, a sensible fellow, said that we come into the ward to stare about us, to admire this and that and tother; a seet of folks think soa still, yet God seems to design us for better business. We er called by faith in Christ Jesus
- 110 to good works, and a promise of ETERNAL LIFE is made to us, if we du aur best humble endeavours. Aur God is good, is merciful thro' o generations, and ta assist us, hes laid dawn two great commands. Ye knaw'em bath, my dear brethren, and he that loves God with all his heart with all his soul, with all his mind, will sartenly love his 115 brother also. If we gang wrang here, we er lost for ivver.

# THOU SHALT LOVE THY NEIGHBOUR AS THYSELF. Math. xix, 19.

I write this in capital letters, and wish it to be engraven on aur hearts. It is a teata conny verse indeed, yet things mun widely 120 alter before it be duly obsarved. At present there er in ivvery neak ta manny mischief-makers, busy-bodies. What! leve my neighbour<sup>3</sup>

¹ The kraken is an enormous sea animal of a crablike form, found near the coast of Norway. Its back only has appeared to be of a mile, or a mile and a half surface, with several points or horns growing out of it, as high as the masts of a middle sized vessel. Mr Guthrie says, he would not mention this animal could there be the least doubt of its existence. There is no fixing the limit of bulk encreasing by longevity: perhaps no man has yet seen the greatest whale in being. Serpents encrease their size the longer they live. The one which stopped the Roman army in Africa, was 120 feet long. "Tis very credible, for there are now serpents in that country as large; some have been seen to swallow an ox or buffalo whole, others will take the water and roll o'er the deck of a ship lying at anchor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Strong agitation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The wretch I am speaking of, never thinks he has grist enough at his mill.

as mysell! will a griping covetous hunx believe this to be gospel ? 122 nay, nay, says he, rubbing his elbow, emess its enough naw a days to pay ivvery man [h]is awn. Charity begins at haame. True my friend, but let me raund it in thy ears, charity shoud reach to the 125 Hottentots; thy guts heve nivver yearned with compassion, nor hes tau followed on, as Hosea says, to love thy fellow creatures. A covetous man trapes to th' kirk-garth on a sunday morning, he meets them that he wants to see, and it saves another journey; then he mappen enters the Lord's hause, doffs his hat, claps it before his 130 face, and squats dawn in a form. I wish that mammon is net next his heart, I wish that christians wad, during the sarvice, be serious and devout, net come to kirk with a moon belief,1 with unsettled thoughts, but to pray and praise God as they ought. The jews hed a rule to run to the synagogue, but to walk slowly back; I wish that 135 when folks git haame, they wad turn oor their bibles.<sup>2</sup> Bibles and testaments were formerly seen on the sconce or lang-settle end; they may naw be oftener met with on a seaty shelf cover'd with dust, or mauseitten; wad there was a leaf turn'd dawn, where a feal ex'd Wha is my neighbour! But again, I heve net done with kirk business, I 140 mean the spiritual business which shoul thare employ weel disposed christians. Hes name of ye seen a young thing, giggling and laughing at a firley farley? she quite forgat what the clark was saying, Lord have mercy upon us! dizend fra head to foot, she coud think of nought but her bran new bonnet. Her sawcy een were ticing 145 fools, whilst the parson was converting sinners. Can ye think that her virginity was "donn'd with the helmet of faith." It is bad nebbourhood,4 when a body is not suffered to say his prayers 148

Archbishop Laud's expression.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Let me beg of parents to make their children and servants read the scriptures at home. "The scriptures are the two paps of the church from which we suck the sincere milk of the word, and one pap is not more like another than these two for substance." Leigh's Crit. Sacra.

<sup>3</sup> A line in Fairfax's Tasso.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> "He that dwelleth in a city where there is a synagogue and prayeth not there with the congregation, this is he that is called a bad neighbour," *Rabbi Main.* On which words Mr. Thomdike observes, "well may he be called a bad neighbour, who will not lend his neighbour's prayers the strength of his own."

quietly.1 Yan ell be winking and prating, another glopping and 150 makking remarks, a third nodding his head in an easy slome. Waa betide thee! and yet let me net wish ought ats bad! haw fast hes ald nick2 sic folk in his clutches? Good friends. these er sad duings, efectings. My saal is vexed within me. <sup>3</sup>Hoa fellow thare! sweetly sleepest ta naw, when the devil 155 rocks thy cradle. Pardon my zeal, mappen it may rise heigh in a good cause. In some churches the sidesmen gang abaut with staaves, and give ivvery sleeper 4 a good nope. Is this reet or wrang? our Lord, when he fand his disciples fast and saund asleep, only just chided them, What! cannot ye watch one hour? 160 Let us bear with van another's infirmities, let us persuade net drive men into Christ's faald? Oh! may that heat[h]en monster, persecution, that curst dodt cow 5 never maar plague this country! they say she vance hed horns and put furiously, God be praised her bulls beal and bellow naa langer. Good father of mercies! that 165 folks can co themsells christians efter frying and roasting, and braying to mummy ought of their awn likeness; and apreia for what? for difference of opinion, or for net allowing that a thing can be in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I love to hear myself say, The Lord be with you, and my neighbours answer, And with thy spirit.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From Nikur an idol worshipp'd by the northern nations.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Mr. Farmer, vicar of Heversham, spoke thus from the pulpit, to a sleeper, I am told with success. Another time observing, as he took his text, some company talking in Lord Berkshire's pew, he stopp'd, they star'd, Gentlefolks, says he, when you have done, I'll begin. Another time the people being in a hurry to get their hats ready for going out, Stay, cry'd he, and take the peace of God with ye. One sunday, observing some ladies laughing and talking in Lord Berkshire's pew in the lesson which was taken out of proverbs, when he came to the following verse he looked passionately at the ladies and thus delivered himself as if to them solely, as a jewel in a swine's snout so is a fair woman without discretion, ladies! flyer and laugh at that if you please. At Kendal church, hearing some officers talking aloud, he stopped, When you have done I'll go on.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Bishop *Babbington* says, "if the fervent spirit of the preacher should break and tear his inwards in pieces, all is one, men snort and sleep, and go on in a damnable dulness of mind." Really, my Lord, if this would not waken them, I do not know what would.

 $<sup>^5</sup>$   $\it Chillingworth$  speaks of this curst cow; he was her great enemy, and baited her purely.

two places at yance,¹ that black is white. God gave us our senses to feel with, to handle with, and when St. John was faithless, aur Saviour appealed to them. Zleads! he nivver played hocus pocus,² 170 or offered to drag men like dogs with a raap.³ What can be said of juggling, and gulling, and knocking on the head? Cruel bad nebbourhood! Coud Beelzebub and his comrades put on flesh and dwell amang us, they wad play just sic tricks.

Turn we to maar pleasing views, to meditate on the prince of 175 peace, the meek, the mild, the loving Jesus. Hear him! hear him! love one another as I have loved you; again and again he repeats it, which made St. Paul observe to the Thessalonians, as touching brotherly love, ye need not that I write unto you, for ye yourselves are taught of God to love one another. I infer from hence that 180 Christ will love good nebbours, his father will love them, and the Holy Ghost will dwell in their hearts. The jews expected that Christ wad heve appeared a helter-skelter Heroe, treading on the necks of kings and emperors. Mad thoughts! he meant naa harm to the persons or property of men: net to craw our the poor creatures 185

This made Averroes resolve, quando quidem christiani adorant quod commedunt, [sic], sit anima mea cum philosophis? When Mrs Ann Askew the martyr was examined, they asked her whether a mouse eating the host received God or not? she smiled but returned no answer. Gardiner in one place says "a mouse cannot devour God; but soon after the wily prelate thinks that Christ's body may as well dwell in a mouse as it did in Judas." To what difficulties learned men are driven in support of falsehood! Old Bale after quoting a page of such nonsense, concludes, "mark this gear for your lernyng, oyled divynes!" Archbishop Tillotson declared of transubstantiation "that it was a millstone hung about the neck of popery, which would sink it at the last. It will, says he, make the very pillars of St. Peter's crack."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Supposed to mean, hoc est corpus.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> I shall here briefly remark, that our Lord's legacy to us was this, my peace I give unto you, my peace I leave with you. "He therefore who fosters within his breast, malice, envy, or an unforgiving temper, is in a very dangerous state with respect to salvation. Heaven can have no relish without love. To meet there, if possible, a person we have not lov'd, and from the bottom of our hearts forgiven, would distract and make us miserable. Let then love work by faith, that is, be the fruit of our faith, and not mingle mangle righteousness." This is the language of a martyr for the truth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Hileriter [sic] and celeriter, merrily and quickly. I might have used a better epithet harem skarem, rash, mad, who turns all into confusion.

- 186 of his hand, net to destroy them, but their vices: ner did he design to govern any kingdom on earth. He com to break in pieces the ald kingdom of darkness. This he did, my beloved, withaut wrath or anger, withaut the murdering instruments of war, for he conquer'd
- 190 by suffering. His patience and his mercy were as infinite as his love, or else he hed blawn away his enemies with the blast of the breath of his displeasure. God drawned the praud children of Adam; the rainbow is a witness; Raven-scout<sup>2</sup> and Beetham-fell to this day shew us the marks of the flead. Folks, it seems were grown
- 195 cock-a-hoop; (but the heegh leaks of the meety were sean brought laa) they were swept away like the peatstacks in *Faulshaw*, which yesterday tawer'd aloft with their black heads, but to day er scal'd<sup>3</sup> oor the marsh of *Milnthrop*. Good Lord! when I consider thy kindness shewn to the jews by neet and by day; thy sending them
- 200 Moses and Joshua, and prophet efter prophet, I am lost in devout amazement; astonished at their conduct. Thou didst bring them up as thy awn family, thou declarest it in Esaiah i. 2. and yet they rebelled against thee. They judged net the fatherless, nor did the cause of the widow come before 'em. Their great men were pelsy
- 205 and praud; their women were haughty, with stretched aut necks and wanton een, mincing as they walked and tinkling with their feet. Their nation were continually provoking God to anger; and yet his lang suffering and his mercy endured for many ages. At 209 length he even sent his son amang them, yet they refused salvation

nostrils." The blast of a furnace, the blasting of rocks give fine ideas.

<sup>3</sup> Scaled, scattered, levelled, so to scale muck, or molehills, to scale hay, and vet this word puzzled most of the editors of *Shakespeare*.

Who would imagine that christians in aftertime should be able to copy this fine figure so literally. In 1655 the Portuguese governor of *Solvaterra* tied a *Castilian* officer to a great gun and blew him away. In 1683, the Algerines blew away a French consul from a mortarpiece. In the *East Indies* this is the common punishment of desertion. In 1760 there were twenty four persons blown away. 2. Sam. xxii. 16. "at the blast of the breath of his

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I dont know the derivation of this word, which is a common name for a great precipice. Our waterfall in the river is called, sometimes the force, sometimes the scout. The steep ridges of rocks on Beetham-fell, are called scouts, the fell beneath them Underlaade, that is Underload. Raven-scout is the highest point of a ridge of rocks in Holme-park, adjoining to Farleton-knot, frequented by ravens, and sometimes visited by eagles on their passage.

fra his son, and compleated their awn destruction. Methinks I hear 210 ye, my beloved, cry aut, fie upon! fie upon this worthless people! God sent his son to save us tea, wha at that time were daws'd¹ in sin and concupiscence. What mun we du? I'll tell ye, Craw net oor the obstinate jew; but in your day repent, believe, and love; yea love yan another without dissimulation.

I haasten hawever to ask a mast important question. Suppose this efternean you were to see Jeremiah, Obadiah, or Jona, standing on Windscar, with a voice that wad carry a league. Ye hear him co, repent! repent! or the earth will swallow ye up: The saund is redoubled fra crag to crag; Whitbarrow and Brigsteer echoe back 220 repent! My brethren, if ye believed the sarmon of the prophet, haw wad ye tremble in your skins? Soa when the Israelites saw the leetnings and the burning Maunt, they were saare freetned, but fear is net repentance, and the danger gaane, the testrels leev'd and lusted as usual, were bad nebbours, and in their good days hated o 225 the ward but their sells. Ye think mayhap, that ye wad surely listen to a prophet; naa sic thing; net to an angel fra heaven, if ye will net mind the still small voice of the gospel. Your minister begs of ye to consider the four last things, death and judgment, heaven and hell; as the tree falls, so mun it lig. Life is short, and he wad 230 rouse ye fra the lethargy of inconsideration. He wad heve ye prepared to meet your God.

Suppose then again, and we have a reet to suppose it, that this varra neet the trumpet shoud wakken ye? in the twinkling of an eye ye jump aut o bed; th' hause totters, th' earth trembles, th' 235 element opens, th' dead er rising, angels fleeing in the air, devils roaring, bad nebbours screaming, shrieking, swooning. Your families cling abaut ye, help! help! Ye leak up, heaven shines breet as chrystal; ye leak dawn, hell flames blue, a tarn of melted brimstone.<sup>2</sup> On the reet hand ye behold your judge, terrible in majesty, 240

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> "Dause thyself in jordan seven times, the leprosy of sin will not off." Archdeacon Nicholson of Brecon.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> "Oh! said a divine of our church, that a body might take a peep into hell!" This scene is introduced with a like design to urge faith, love and charity, as preservatives against falling into that horrid chasm.

- 241 in justice: The register of your faats lies before him. 1 O Jesu, ye wad say, let us alaan yaw wee bit! we er net ready with aur accaunts; we hev net lov'd nor fear'd thee as we ought; we hev net lov'd aur nebbours. Hah! he wad answer, the prayer of your dis-
- 245 traction is vain; the hour of mercy is past, long have I been your mediator and intercessor with my father. The universe now requires the rigour of my justice. My dearly beloved! haw feel ve abaut your breasts? This is serious talk; it maks me whither; may it bring forth in you quiet and peaceable leeving! Ye hev nought to
- 250 lig white<sup>2</sup> on, but your awn frowardness.<sup>3</sup> Think naa warse of me for giving you Godly advise! Eternal life,4 who can help repeating

<sup>2</sup> White. This local word signifying the mark at which an arrow is shot.

may not the sense here, nought to blame, be borrowed from thence.

<sup>3</sup> Frequent thoughts on the shortness of temporal life and the day of judgment are excellent means to call our ways to rememberance to set the Lord still in our sight. Bishop Babbington makes the following comparison, but it is the fancy of an elder writer. "Life is like a tree, at the root whereof two lile mice lig gnawing and nibbling without mercy; a black an and a white an. The white mouse nibbles o the lang day, the black an o the neet; who can tell how far these two mice have eaten through him?" His lordship I must confess, does not edify me very much.

This is a translation by the great Camden in his remains, from venerable Reda.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> That elegant writer bishop *Hall* thus describes the giving of the law. "Here was nothing but a majestical terror in the eyes, in the ears of the Israelites; the lightning darted in their eyes, the thunders roaring in their ears, the trumpet of God drowning the thunderclaps, the voice of God outspeaking the trumpet of the angel: The cloud enwrapping, the smoke ascending, the fire flaming, the mount trembling. If such were the proclamation of God's statutes, what shall the sessions be?"

<sup>4</sup> I am better pleased with the speech of one of the courtiers of Ina King of Northumberland, concerning Paulinus who was then preaching the gospel in that little kingdom. "We may, says he, addressing himself to the king, aptly compare man's state unto this little robinredbreast that is now in this cold weather, here in the warm room, chirping and singing merrily, and as long as she shall remain here, we shall see and understand how she doth; but anon, when she shall be flown hence, abroad into the wide world; and shall be forced to feel the bitter storms of hard winter, we shall not know what will become of her; so likewise we see how men fare, as long as they live among us, but after they be dead neither we nor our religion have any knowledge what becomes of them; wherefore I do think it wisdom to give ear unto this man, who seemeth to shew us not only what shall become of us but also how we may obtain everlasting life."

it, is the prize, and remember! that you receive it by Christ Jesus 252 your Lord; wrestle then for it with an active faith; leeve fouzanably and kindheartedly for a year and a day; and then if your conscience rue, co me a lear, and divide my tithes amang ye! The truths which 255 my divine mester gave to the ward, I deliver unto you, a truth with which St. John when near a hundred years ald, spreading aut his arms, thus accosted those about him, Little children, love yan another.

Without this binding quality o aur righteousness is as filthy rags; dea I say filthy? yea the Holy Spirit in abhorrence of sie sort 260 of conduct, seems to mak use of words purposely braade.

My fellow christians, I heve oready noticed pride and earnestness, as unfriendly to social life; 'tis lang' o these that good nebbourhood fails in part, but there er other enemies which I munnet pass over sleightly.

And again

"Christ spake himself full braade in holy writ, And weel I wat, no villainy is it."

This is no way satisfactory but at length I find myself extremely obliged to the learned bishop Lowth, for his excellent comment on this subject, which I beg leave in this place to lie before my readers. "The Hebrew religion regulated the common conduct of social life. Many of those images which the Hebrew poets made use of with the greatest effect on their cotemporaries, are lost on us, and even appear low and sordid. The Jewish laws have for one of their chief objects the discrimination of things pure from those that are impure. Amongst the various subjects of purification, we find certain diseases and bodily infirmities, and indeed habits of body, which cannot by any human means be conquered or removed, wherefore it is not to be wondered at, that the sacred poets call in the use of those images in their descriptions of the most important objects, when they either lay open the corruption and depravity of human nature, or arraign the wickedness of the times in which they liv'd, or when of the virgin daughter of Sion, stripped and naked they lament the forlorn and abject condition. Figures these, which if considered only in themselves, seem odious and disgusting, but which, when they are traced to their sacred source, will appear to be full of energy and dignity."

<sup>2</sup> The great *Bacon* has this expression in his life of *Henry* 7th, "It was not long of himself," (through his own fault.) Who could have thought of finding

his in Bacon?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Esaith 6. 5. Qu. Might not the translator have conveyed to us the sense of the sacred writer by a more delicate expression? I have often asked myself this, on reading other parts of scripture; I know with Chaucer that

<sup>&</sup>quot;Braade words er good, whilst good folks use them They er only bad, when bad folks abuse them,"

## PART THE SECOND.

Plain address needs naa apology; it begins with simplicity, and ends with common sense; it is delivered in the language of aur hills and dales, a language which sarves o the purposes of life. Ivvery trumpet is good which gives a fixed steady saund, there er 270 manny kinds of voices in the world, and none without signification. There er manny huge big books also, but a great book is a great evil, wearing aut the eyes and tearing the patience. We er somat maar merciful hawivver to aur fellow creatures than formerly, and yet net tender enough. Times hev thar vices as weel as diseases. 275 Inhumanity lessens, and before the end I expect parfect good nebbourhood; my reason is, folks dunnet burn their barns to please that cruel devil Molock; ner drag their prisoners at chariot wheels; ner throw them to be worried by lions and tigers; ner feed their eels with em. Religion or wrang conceptions about it dunnet make 280 folks leeve in caves and holes of the rocks by their sells, to shun mankind; ner git upon pillars and posts twenty feet heegh, and thare spend their days; they forgat that love is the fulfilling of the God be thank'd that christians naw knaw better, practise law. better. Barbarous customs are banish'd the land. Formerly great 285 people kept monkeys to grin, and mock at human actions, kings hed fools tu, to shew the weakness of aur nature; these fools durst speak

Christians dunnet naw wrangle fra morning to neet in porches and piazzas abaut and abaut the truth, striving wha can speak maast against it, that is wha can be the cleverest blockhead. They dunnet form a meety contest abaut what nivver can be determined, haw many millions of angels may sit upon a pin point. They dunnet twist and twine probabilities and intentions in a manner either to hull their consciences, or quibble with their God. See the provincial letters.

truth when noblemen wad net. Drolls and buffoons were kept to 287 mak mirth at feasts, they leev'd by their wits and laugh'd at their mesters. These merriments and greater fun still was reserved for Christmas holidays.¹ Envy net, my parishioners, the pleasures of 290 your forefathers, ner say the present times er warse; it is a mistak, and I am only sorry that with their coarser diversions, English hospitality hes taan its flight. To rougher manners were joined great virtues, great vices: May we copy efter the first, and banish the latter from aur gentler bosoms; May we think fra morning to 295 neet of this conny pithy sentence, this motto which I wish was written aloft at ivvery loanin end of the parish,

### Love thy neighbour as thyself!

What yet hinders! I will tell ye freely. The enemies to aur peace spring fra aur passions, and corrupt inclinations. Knavery 300 flees directly in the face of this great command; adultery robs us, eigh, within aur varra bedstocks; fornication is a lawless liberty takken in a dark corner, and drunkeness commonly ends in frandish riot, or in madness. Wee'l handle 'em singly. Wha is a knave? He that gaas creeping in the dark, nimming and nifting whativver he 305 can lig his fists on. Bold villainy I meddle net with, it tells its awn story; but shifting of mere-stanes and bending young trees wrang side oth hedge, to make Jammy's twig become Roger's tree this is a sad and an evil coveting of aur nebbour's property, and desarves hanging. If seven aut of ten in a lile tawnship were to be 310 dishonest, what mud become of tother three? why! they wad be cheated aut of hause and harbour: There wad be an end of nebbourhood truly. Weel may I say, good father in heaven forgive a manny poor wretches, wha hardly knaw what they du. Knavery is the sin of poverty, it deals in dirty wark, and nivver ends in ought 315 thats good. Whativver is gitten is like a swallow's nest made up of a little dirt and a few streams, which in a frosty winter drop dawn

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Baldwin le Petteure had his name and held his land in Suffolk per saltum sufflum and pettum, for dancing pout-puffing, and doing that before the King of England in christmas holidays, which the word pet signifyeth in French. Cambden's remains.

of themselves. To rob a roost, to break an orchard, to filch pows, withys, spelks, to cut dawn saplings, and carry off rotten ring-fences 320 er reckoned leeny tricks, but fitter for heathen Sparta, than the barony of Kendal. And yet methinks, my brethren, he that sell'd me 'tother day a barren cow and a calf, for a calver, outbang'd 'em o for wardly cunning. But what said the good bishop Latimer, "Thou that doest this; do it if thou lust, shalt go to the devil, and be 325 hang'd on a fiery gallows world without end." The holy martyr shall tell the story at the bottom of the page, whilst I gang on with another of my awn.

#### THE PARSON'S TALE.

Last saturday sennet,<sup>4</sup> about seun in the evening, (twas lownd 330 and fraaze hard) the stars twinkled and the setting moon cast gigantic shadows. I was stalking hameward across Bluckwatermosses, and whistling as I tramp'd for want of thought, when a noise struck my ear, like the crumpling of frosty murgeon; it made me stop short, and I thought I saw a strange form before me: It 335 vanished behint a windraw; and again there was nought in view but dreary dykes, and dusky ling. An awful silence reigned araund; this was sean brokken by a skirling hullet; sure nivver did hullet, herrensue, or miredrum, mak sic a noise before. Your minister was freetned, the hairs of his head stood an end, his blead storkened, and 340 the haggard creature moving slawly nearer, the mirkness of the neet

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This simile I have from Archdeacon *Nicholson* of *Brecon*. I believe he had it from St. *Chrysostom*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> At Sparta robbing made a part of the education of their youth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> "They go (says his lordship in one of his sermons) and take a calf of another cow and put it to a barren cow, and so come to the market and sell the barren cow six or eight shillings dearer than they should have done else. The man which bought the cow, cometh home, hath many children, and no more cattle than this cow, and thinketh he shall have some milk for 'em, but he findeth it a barren cow, and the poor man is deceived. The other is a jolly fellow, and called one that can shift; sie folks can speak soa finely that a man would think butter would scant melt in their mouths." Excellent old man! I love thy simplicity, thy boldness in the worst of times, thy apostolic zeal. May I be found like thee at the last, a good, if not a great man!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> A week or seven nights, so fortnight, fourteen nights.

shew'd her as big again as she was. Scarcely did a rag cover her 341 naakedness. She stoup'd and drop'd a poak and thus began with a whining tone. Deary me! deary me! forgive me good Sir, but this yance, I'll steal naa maar. This seck is elding to keep us fra starving. My mother, my brothers and sisters, and my ald neam, 345 O deary me! Whilst she spaake these words, her knocking knees, and diddering teeth melted my heart. Ah! said I to mysell, did net king David, when hungred, eat the holy bread? Did net Jesus and his disciples crop the ears of their nebbour's corn! Hunger will break through stane-walls. Necessity will disturb the laws of moral 350 obligation; get thee haame my lass, and sin naa maar. I judge thee net, oready thy conscience condemns thee. The Almeety bless ye, Sir, said she, aur wooning is net aboon a dozen stanethraws fra this spot, preia gang with me, and see with your awn een, aur pitiful plight. 355

We nivver feel greater pleasure than when we relieve distress, than when we du good; it is more blessed to give than to receive: Nivvertheless, sometimes there is danger and temptation even in the godly deed. Theres a thin partition 'tween good and evil; this minute I feel mysell a saint, the next a dannet. Whence spring 360 aur thoughts? what first mover starts them fra their secret lodgement? mickle talk hes thare been about it; I confess I cannot fathom this; somat like a flint with gunpowder, strikes fire and springs a mine, when we the least expect it. We passed by the rocking stane oor a bed of scars, they were slippy, and she stottered, 365 she fell: I had liked to have tumbled a top of her snocksnarles. I believe it was pity maade me lift her or help to lift her up. Be it what it wad, up as she raaise, a star fell directly athwart, and shining full in her face, discovered to me the finest flesh and blead that ivver was cumpassed by mortal man. My pulse bet quick, my quicker 370 thoughts ran oor aur father's prayer, and I fund mysel safe. Luckily we were come near the hovel; the girl unsneck'd the raddle heck. Wretched scene! the hovel or hut belang'd to a widow in a peck of troubles. Tis just aleun weeks sen I buried her husband. Poor Geordie! he was a graadly bain fellow, and wrought his sell to 375 death: What coud a body dea maar for his family? She followed

- 377 his coffin with neen barns crying efter her, and a tenth sawking at her breast. When she saw me she wept; I wept ano. She sat on a three legg'd steal, and a dim coal smook'd within the rim of a
- 380 brandreth, oor which a seaty rattenereak hung dangling fra a black randletree. The walls were plaister'd with dirt, and a stee, with hardly a rung, was rear'd into a loft. Around the woman her lile ans sprawl'd on the hearth, some, whiting speals, some, snottering and crying, and ya ruddy cheek'd lad threw on a bullen to make a
- 385 loww, for its mother to find her loup. By this sweal I beheld this family's poverty. She was confaunded; I was motionless; at length, Maggy,<sup>2</sup> said I, Maggy, I am thy teacher, thy friend, tak comfort! God's about still, the' the ward awns the net; he will net forsake thee. Afflictions and troubles dunnet spring fra the dust; they er
- 390 sent for wise purposes, and it is aur part to bow dawn like the bulrush, to be humble and resigned, the mebby, with saar troubled hearts. It is said, The trust of the evil-doer shall be an attercobweb, but a perfect man God will net cast away. Trust than then, Maggy, in the great Father of mercies, and wait for better days!
- 395 the poor will net oways be forgitten. But let me ask thee; Haw durst ta wink at thy children, whilst they laad theirsells with burthens of iniquity? Thinks ta, God sees these bad tricks and will 398 net punish? Whether they were peats or flushcocks, or prickins

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ano means and all, that is also.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> After writing this interview, I was much pleased with reading a letter from Mr Bradford, the martyr, in Queen Mary's reign, to a person under affliction. "Ah my joy! if you were a market sheep, you shoud go in more fat and grassy pasture. If you were for the fair, you shoud be stall-fed and want no weal; but because you are of God's own occupying, therefore you must pasture on the bare common.¹ Happy and twice happy are you, my dear sister, that God now haleth you whither you would not, that you may come where you would. Suffer a little and be still!"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Which says the excellent old Sanderson, the light touch of a besom striketh away in a moment. Esaiah xiv, in the finest ode extant, is made to say by the translator, concerning Babylon, I will sweep it with the beesom of destruction, saith the Lord of Hosts.

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  A professor of *Aberdeen* about 1660, gives a caution, lest teachers in driving their flocks to green meadows, should overdrive them. Not a bad hint to some at this day.

that thy daughter hes stown, whether of lile or greater value, she is guilty of filching; she fand 'em before they were lost. My brethren! 400 ye knaw the woman and her circumstances; I speak to ye overseers, relieve the poor, and tempt them net to be dishonest, by scanty relief. A piece of a mouldy jannock, a dubbler of haver-meal, and a pan-full of cockle-broth were o that these poor wretches hed to keep life and soul togither. Let us dea what mense we can, and prevent 405 what evil. This is true charity, and they that think otherwise, seaner or later, a hagworm will bite fra the clint, a slaaworm will wrap raund the ancles.

I come, secondly, to that warst sort of theft, that cruel unnebbourly action ADULTERY: Next to murther this is the blackest faat; 410 yet they tell us, 'tis common amang great folks, stars and garters gentlemen! or rether gentle-sinners! ye that er careful for nought but progging for belly-timber,2 I beg you to love your awn wives, otherwise as sure as a gun, dawn yee'l gang to the bottomless pit: There ye may ring, knock, and hallow, thro' eternity for a drop of 415 cald water, but naa servant waits to give it. Abram will be deaf, and your hell-fire thirst mun be bidden. Instead of goulden cups, ye wad then be fain to lap it aut of your neaves. The rich man in the gospel "laid it on thick only in purple and fine linen, in vanity and pomp." We read net that he was an adulterer. Yan of this 420 stamp, soa far fra loving the man of his next dure, studies ivvery nick of time to rob him, to give him a feastering waund. destroys the peace of a family, confaunds kinship, and when he hes hed his will of a silly woman, leaves her to blush at her guilt, and to bear the resentment of an injured bedfellow. Thus is adultery the 425 greatest sin against good nebbourhood, under the cope of heaven; yan excepted, and indeed a body mud nearly as weel lose his life, as his peace of mind.

I come next to simple whoredom, God hes said, this he will likewise judge. Young tykes oft buy pleasure dearly. Solomon 430

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$   $\it Mense$  from  $\it mensa$  , a table, alluding to the tables in the old monasteries spread for the poor.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sir Thomas More uses this expression.

<sup>3</sup> Dr. Stanhope.

- 431 gives 'em good advice, but they turn the deaf ear. Oh! that folks wad but lust when and whare they mud lust lawfully. Oh! that they wad leak forward to what in the end follows unhallowed liberties. Unchastity in man or woman teems with misfortunes,
- 435 with wretchedness; he suffers often in his health, maastly in his pocket, oways in his mind; restless and unsettled, he is lead (sic) like the ox to the slaughter. Nor is her case mickle better; with the loss of her maidenhead, she loses all that is valuable, her honour, her dignity, her purity, her innocence, nay that awful respect which
- 440 even bad men pay to virtue and chastity. The good ald word head means oft a place of command, naw dea fond silly girls give up their only place of command for a minute's gratification; maar the pity. We hev another word of special import, maiden-hood. Hood is hod or possession, a hod-fast; and may o the virgins in the nation defend
- 445 it lustily [!] They that yield to the perfidious enemy, sean find their ruin, er shun (sic) by the modest, despised by the villainous. Efter ya slip 'tis difficult to fetch back lost reputation, and her barn tea, bears the reproach of the cruel: But if she fo a second time, her ways then lead dawn to misery, to rotteness, to death, to everlasting
- 450 destruction. Haw lile is this thought on? when youth giving up the reins to appetite, rush headlong into unlawful pleasure.<sup>3</sup>

¹ A king of France more averse to fornication than Solomon, once travelled into the Holy-Land, and was long absent; but a good bishop shall tell the story. "Upon this he sickened, and the physicians did agree it was for the want of a woman, and did consult with the bishops of the country, who did conclude, that because of the distance of his wife, he should take a wench. This good king hearing their conclusion, would not assent thereunto, but said, he had rather be sick even unto death, than break his espousals." In 1303, the rector of Orton, Cumberland, gave a bond of ten marks to bishop Halton, to be forfeited whenever it should appear he was guilty of incontinency.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Deuteronomy xii, 20, 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Mispent youth leaves a spent body to old age. This was the true saying of Dr *Boyce*, a translator of our bible. It is said of him that he could read Hebrew at five years of age.

Old William Perkins says, St. Paul offers six reasons for fleeing fornication; one of them thus, "The body is the temple of the Holy Gost, these swine make it the devil's stye." How strangely do old divines paint the devil. The translator of Luther to the Gallatians thinks the white devil that forceth men to spiritual sins, is far more dangerous than the black devil which maketh them to commit fleshly ones.

Tis time here to bring forward the boon companion of the dis-452 honest and the wanton, the DRUNKARD. He, poor fellow is never quiet till ligging in a hedge-bottom. He gaas net to kirk or market without stopping at the ale-house. 'Tis a burning sham to see him 455 like a mafflin bezzling dawn strang liquors. His blead whirls fast thro' his veins, he becomes a rattlehorn, leaks wild, loses his limbs, his senses: A drunken man shoud be teed like a wild beast, till his reason returns. He can be naa nebbour at dow, that tipples and swattles, and idles fra morning to neet. Naa maar can the idleman 460 be; he leeves on the industry of other folks; maunders about fra hause to hause, haking and slinging, with a tongue as glib as a bellclapper: What has been said at Robert's flees to Josee's next minute; the story spreads but naa body knaws where it began. Tittle tattle begits scandal; scandal, like a cur-dog, bites into' the heels; besides 465 it is weel knawn, "Thro' idleness of the hands the house droppeth." Eccles. x, 18. Weel indeed may it du soa when the awner will net fend for his sell. Honesty and industry maks a poor man thrive. Its a pleasing seet when fathers and mothers, brothers and sisters work the day lang, without quarrelling. When sarvents er bund 470 by love and duty, as mitch as by wage, when naa brawling or threaping is heard, naa noise but the goodnatur'd laugh, the thoughtless whistle, and the sang of hearts at ease. Lang may my parishoners leeve merry and wise, share and share alike, helping each other at ivvery lift. We cannot du withaut this; he is the praudest of men 475 that thinks otherwise. If aur nebbour's stot or stirk break into' th fog, let us net pinfald it, rather settle the matter with soft words.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bishop Latimer in one of his sermons, gives the following little history of his own family. "My father had no lands of his own, only he had a farm of three or four pounds a year at the uttermost, and hereupon he tilled so much as kept half a dozen men. He had walks for one hundred sheep, and my mother milked thirty kine. He was able and did find the king a harness, with himself and his horse. I can remember that I buckled his harness when he went to Blackheath-field, (1497) He kept me to school, or else I had not been able to preach before the king's majesty now. He married my sisters with twenty nobles a piece, so that he brought them up with godliness. He kept hospitality for his poor neighbours, and some alms he gave to the poor, and all this he did of the same farm."

removed."

heap coals on his head. My brethren, ye mappen dea net understand 480 this verse of St. Paul's, which he repeats from King Solomon, in the Proverbs. He does not mean by heaping coals to consume a nebbour. but either that by thy doing thy duty to him, thou exposest the man to the will of God, who will be thy avenger, as Mr. Locke explains the passage; or as Dr. Doddridge and others think, thou 485 wilt mak him ashamed of his awn conduct, and he will in future seek thy friendship. Hawivver, to be reet in case of quarrelling,1 oways obey the laws of God; as for human laws, keep aut of the brears, to save your breeches. Whareivver ye woon, whativver is your station, be eminent in goodness. Good peaceable believers er 490 scarce, they er, in the words of bishop Hall, "like stakes in a hedge, pull them up, all the rest are but loose and rotten sticks easily

And naw I hev nearly done, I commit my parishoners to God's providence, to his mercy. Remember, the all just, the all seeing 495 judge of human actions is not like a whamp, which when vance it hes stung, cannot sting again; 2 nor will Christ clock like a hen, he hes shewed mercy, judgment will come. Ye are the flock allotted to 498 me in my humble walk of life; I will love ye whilst the breath is in

Vive diu felix arbor, semperque: vireto Frondibus, ut nobis talia poma feras?

The cruel wit wishes that the tree may long flourish to bear such glorious fruit. Such indeed [is] the fruit of rebellion!

This puts me in mind of an enigma in Pope's Pastorals, which is blamed by a critic as a puerile conceit.

> Say, Daphnis, say in what glad soil appears A wondrous tree, that sacred monarchs bears?

This is far fetched, because Charles 2d. only stood within the shade of the boughs. Ou. Had not Pone thought of the above latin verse?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Wharting begits quarrels, in families, in nations; quarrels often end in war, in rebellion; either is dreadful, the last particularly. Once an archbishop of St. Andrews was taken by his enemies, and directly hung upon a live thorn, upon which a wit wrote the following verse,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These allusions, odd as they appear, are taken out of the sermons of eminent divines, who wrote in the sixteenth century.

me, and may I, oh may I be able at the last day thus to address my Lord and Master! These are they that thou gavest me, they are 500 washed, they are sanctified, they have believed, have trusted in thee, and hope for thy salvation. Amen, Amen.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Job xxvii, 3. Dr. Cheney bishop of Gloucester writing against the reformers, has this curious piece of advice. "In reading the scriptures, be you like a snail; for when he feels a hard thing against his horns, he pulls them in: So in points of controversy, do ye pull in your horns." The advice may be good but not as the doctor meant it.

#### THE

## EPILOGUE

### BY WILLIAM DE WORFAT.

My pen is net yet worn to the stump; my candle is net burnt to the socket; but hasten, William, hasten, if thou hes ought to add. 505 To love my nebbour was and is my subject. I hev oready shew'd manny lets and bars in the way; manny hev escaped my memory. Mistakken zeal hes murdered its thausands of christians; ignorance its ten thausands: Nay, sometimes we destroy aur friends unwittingly. several good folks hev been buried alive, besides Duns Scotus, poor 510 fellow, he dash'd aut his brains against his coffin-lid. I beg of ye. nivver carry aut a nebbour to the grave before he be stark dead, a body may be in bad fettle in a fit, a trance and yet whick at heart. There was another great faat formerly in this country, ald women were in constant fear of net leeving aut their time. A bow'd back, 515 a blear eye, or a comical leak, was sure to mak an ald woman pass for a witch, and then she was as sure to be condemn'd and burnt. Sham to the times! to the men of the times, that coud judge so poorly! In 1697, twenty miserable creatures were condemn'd in Scotland on this supposition, and five really suffered death. Dea I 520 mention Scotland! for hundreds of years what debateable wark. what rhaading, and watching, and warding! what dakering and cruel nebbourhood alang the Border Service. Need I mention the red and white roses of England. Was net the religion of Christ oways forgitten, as weel as his legacy? My peace I give unto you, 525 my peace I leave with you. But on, William, on! These fewds and evils hev lang ceas'd fra troubling us. I start them up in memory, to shew aur happier condition. My beloved, we were a happy people indeed till lately, till grown cobby: aur family fell to wrangling, to blaws, till the west gable-end shrinking dawn, hed like 530 to hev laid aur hause in ruins. Ye brethren that er gaan aut fra us,

God speed ye weel; ye will not sean git sic another built up; before 531 that can be, father will be set against the son, and the son against the father; eigh and millions of your barns, yet unborn, will only break forth from the womb, to welter in their blead. Heigh ho! heigh ho! struggle we must with a bad ward, before we can enter 535 the joy of aur Lord. Wha! wha! wha is my nebbour? he of the next dure? it may, er may net be. My relation? seldom. Is it the rich and pawerful? they hev the means, if they hev the inclination. Is it the parsons? they hev leet and knowledge, may they hev feeling hearts. The story of the good Samaritan sets the priest in a bad 540 view: He was blind to distress; he passed by on the other side. We er come then at last to the single body, that may be esteemed aur nebbour, he that is merciful. The compassionate, the loving, the humane, the charitable, these answer the end of the commandment. And we knaw that concerning these qualities, enquiry will be maad 545 at the last day. Beloved, I hev nearly done, my address to you is an address to my awn conscience; I am a sarvent of Jesus Christ, tho' net in soa gaudy a livery as some of my school-fellows, wha hev jump'd into better places. I envy 'em net; my sarvice is amaast oor, and I think I cannot du maar good elsewhare. I love ye, my 550 parishioners, and nought can maak a miff amang us, but ya thing. When the devil wants mischief, he rolls a tithe-egg before us, we stoup to tak it up, and tea often it bursts in aur hands. Tithe maintenance is a tryal to bath ye and me; it trys my patience, and your honesty. Ye consider net that the dues ye grudge me, er part 555 of your estates; that for seven hundred years togither, your estates hev been bought and heired with them. Let us then shak fist and neaf in love and friendship; if I hev the white, ye hev the yolk. And naw, fare ye well, ivvery saal of ye! when my flesh is consum'd, and my banes dry as kiln-sticks, may Woodland continue to flourish 560 in o virtue and godliness of leeving. This is the prayer of your vicar for Arnside and Storth, for Hale and Whasset, for Beetham and Haverbrack, for Farlton, for Oakbank, and Worfat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Since writing the above, my school-follow, formerly of *Hincaster*, is made an Irish bishop. I therefore should have named him in the prologue.

He author begs, that those gentlemen who have forgot their mother tongue, will remember that

Abaut means about, amang among, amaast almost, ano also, awn own.

Bane bone, braw brow, bath both.

Co call, craw crow.

570 Dawn down, dunnet do not, du or dea do.

Eigh yes, efter after, er are.

Fra from.

Gitten gotten, git get, ga or gang go, gaan gone.

Haw how, hes has, hev have.

575 Ivver ever.

Lang long.

Mare more, mebby may be, mud might.

Naa no, naw now, nivver never, net not, ner nor.

O of, o all.

580 Preia pray you.

Raund round, reet right, raw row.

Saund sound, saal soul, sic such.

Ta to, ta thou, tea too.

Waund wound, wark work, warse worse, wad would.

585 Varra very.

Ya or yan one, yance once.

The derivation of the old words from the Saxon roots, is left to the knowledge and ingenuity of the reader.

FINIS.

# VARIOUS READINGS.

THE following is a list of the variations in what I think is plainly the later edition, viz. the one printed in London.

In the heading, for estate the London edition has esteate; for with, it has wi; and for amaast, ameast.

2. muther's. 4. peavement; cakert. 7. foemerts. 9. neaked. 13. o'th week. 15. heamely. 18. leate. 21. tended; nea [thrice]. 26, 27. mear. 28. pleace. 31. nea. 33. harth. 40. o'th ward haw. 43. mear sunney. 48. deales; muther's. 60. areas (sic). 63, 66. aur. 76. it is nivver. 78. tears. 79. nea. 84, 85, mear. 86, feace. 87, reace-horse. 88, peate. 90, teadpoles. 92. inhabitants; the t being dropped in the earlier edition. 97. beane; grisle. 103. mich. 105, 106. mear. 113. beath; bretheren. 120. thear. 121. meakers. P. 12, note 1; and omitted before roll. 124. his awn [for is awn]; heame. 136. heame. 142. neane. 148. nebberhood. 158. aur. 161. For heathen, both edd. have heaten. 162. mear. 163. the, misprinted for she. 164. nea. P. 14, note 3. stop'd for stopp'd; of omitted in out of proverbs. 170. appeal'd. 171. reap. 175. mear. 183. Hero. 184. nea. P. 16, note 2. I do not know. 216. heasten; meast. 223. sear. 224. gane; testrils. 227. nea; heven. 231. lithargy. 236. the dead. 243. heve [1st time]. 248. makes. 250. nea. 260. yea, misprinted for dea. 261. breade. P. 19, note 1. Bread words; full bread; villany; contemporaries. 270. many. P. 20, note 1; meast. 292. an I. 293. tean. 305. geas; whatever. P. 21, note 1. Both edd. wrong; the first has pont-puffing, the second point-puffing (see note); signifieth; Camden's. 324. shall. 330. freaze. 339. hears. 340. slowly. 342. 344. nea. 346. speake. 348. hungered. 351. heame; nea. neakedness. 354. apreia. 361. lodgment. 367. meade. 368. rease; shined. 370. compassed. 371. mysell. 372. Here the later ed. correctly has unsneck'd, which in the earlier one is misprinted unsnec'k. 375. greadly. 376. mear. 391. sear. 396. lead. P. 24, note 2, l. 4. should go. 403. piece of mouldy. 416. sarvant. 449. rottoness. P. 26, note 1, l. 7. espousal; l. 9. prove that [for appearl. 459. nea. 470. land (a misprint); sarvants. 486. quarreling. 488. seave. P. 28, note 1, l. 5. virto (a misprint); l. 8. both edd. omit is; l. 12. wonderous; note 2. allutions. P. 29, note 1, l. 5. means it. 513. the [for this]. 524, forgotton. 537, er it may net be; relations. 545, mead. 547. sarvant.

The most noticeable point about these variations is the systematic substitution of ea for aa; as in peavement, neaked, nea, mear, peate, tead-poles, heame, &c., for paavement, naaked, naa, maar, paate, taad-poles, haam. So also, instead of late, place, dales, face, race-horse, &c., we have leate, pleace, deales, face, reace-horse; evidently with the idea of giving a more exact notion of the sounds. It is strange that grisle is put in place of girsle; not impossibly this is a misprint, as some fresh misprints have crept in, whilst others have been corrected.

# NOTES.

10. Ea simply means water or river, A.S. ea, and is the E. representative of the Lat. aqua. Hence Ea, Ea-mont, Roth-ay, Brath-ay, and other rivernames. In Gloss. B. 1, we find—"Ea, a river along the sands on the sea-shore."

41 (footnote). His 'predecessor' was the Rev. Daniel Wilson. Hence, probably, the reason for his presenting a copy of his book to 'Master Henry

Wilson.

53. The 'venerable prelate' is perhaps the schoolfellow who is alluded to in

the footnote to l. 549; see also l. 62, and the note to l. 549.

56 (footnote). "Doctor Nico. Medcalfe, that honorable father, was Master of S. Iohnes Colledge, when I came thether. He found that Colledge spending scarse two hundred markes by the yeare; he left it spending a thousand markes and more... And that which is worthy of memorie, all thies giners [donors to the College] were almost Northenmen; who being liberallie rewarded in the seruice of their Prince, bestowed it as liberallie for the good of their Contrie. Some men thought therefore, that D. Medcalfe was parciall to Northrenmen, but sure I am of this, that Northrenmen reparciall, in doing more good, and gening more landes to ye forderance of learning, than any other contrie men, in those dayes, did."—R. Ascham, The Scholemaster, b. ii; ed. Arber, p. 133.

61. By a crucible we must surely understand a crosier.

81. "The philosophers of king Charles his reign were busy in finding out the art of flying. The famous bishop Wilkins was so confident of success in it, that he says he does not question but in the next age it will be as usual to hear a man call for his wings when he is going a journey, as it is now to call for his boots. The humour so prevailed among the virtuosos of this reign, that they were actually making parties to go up to the moon together, and were more put to it in their thoughts how to meet with accommodations by the way, than how to get thither . . . . The duchess of Newcastle objected to bishop Wilkins the want of baiting-places in the way to his new world; the bishop expressed his surprise that this objection should be made by a lady who had been all her life employed in building castles in the air."—The Guardian, no. 112; Monday, July 20, 1713.

127. Hosea, vi. 3. So follow after in Prov. xv. 9.

133. "A moon belief;" i. e. fickle, changeable, unsettled.

147 (footnote). I do not find this line. "Her helm the virgin dom'd', occurs in b. i. st. 48. However, the idea is merely taken from Eph. vi. 14—17.

168 (footnote). In the Select Works of Bp. Bale, printed by the Parker Society, p. 154, will be found the story of Anne Askew and the mouse. Following it are Bp. Bale's remarks; he says—"Mark this geer for your learning;" and, a little further on, at p. 155, he says—"let these oiled divines dispute among old gossips." William de Worfat puts the two expressions together into one sentence.

169. Surely St. Thomas must be meant.

193 (footnote). Scout is a mere variant of shoot; either applied to a projecting or jutting rock (one that shoots out), or to a waterfall, or shoot of water. "Scout, a high rock or large projecting ridge. Sax. sceotan, to shoot out;" Brockett's Glossary. But the form of the word is rather Scandinavian than Anglo-Saxon; cf. Icel. skata, to jut out. Force is the Icel. fors, foss, a water-fall.

197. Scal'd; allied to Icel. skilja, to part, separate, divide, disperse. The remark that "this word puzzled most of the editors of Shakespeare" is one of those which men acquainted with provincial dialects are rather too fond of making, quite forgetting that, but for the editors, they would themselves be greatly puzzled by words which are utterly unknown to speakers of dialects, and yet are very familiar to scholars. In the present instance, for example, the remark is quite uncalled for. There is no passage in Shakespeare where the explanation suggested is of any value whatever. It is, indeed, difficult to imagine what can be meant; but perhaps the allusion is to Cor. i. 1. 95, where the right reading is probably stale, i.e. render it stale, tell it over again. See note to 1. 250.

240 (footnote). "Oh that a man myghte haue the contemplation of hell!"

-Latimer, Seven Sermons before Edward VI., ed. Arber, p. 113.

241 (footnote). The quotation is somewhat abridged from Hall's Contem-

plations, b. v. contemp. v.

250. Here the author is utterly wrong in every way, both in the word he uses and in his explanation of it. The word is not white, but wite, and consequently has nothing to do with "the mark at which an arrow is shot." Wite is 'blame' simply, from A.S. wite, punishment, fine, later used in the sense of blame, as in Chaucer—"And but I do, sirs, lat me han the wyte;" Cant. Tales, Group G, l. 953. But a 'white' is the white centre of an archery-butt, as in the Taming of the Shew, v. 2. 186. It is only one of the thousand instances in which men who have no philological knowledge first guess wrongly at an etymology, and then misspell, misapply, or pervert the word they use in order to support the guess. One great difficulty in the study of English dialects has always been this, viz. the eager desire, too often displayed, of corrupting the evidence itself.

250 (footnote 3). The fable here alluded to is a very old one. It occurs in the Legend of Barlam and Josaphat, ed. Horstmann (in his Altenglische Legenden), ll. 459—462, &c.

"Vppon be rote of be tre twey mees he sey;
but hadde al be rote frete wel ny;;
but o mous was whit, but ober blak was;
Me binkeb bis mon was in a wondir cas."

This again is borrowed from the Latin version of the Gesta Romanorum, c. 168, and has been traced to an Eastern source. See the English version

of the Gesta, ed. Herrtage, Introd., p. ix.

251 (footnote). The story belongs to the reign, not of *Ina*, but of *Edwin*, king of Northumbria. See Beda, Eccles. Hist. b. ii. c. 13; and the version of it in one of Wordsworth's sonnets. Our author copies it, as he says, from Camden's Remains, ed. 1657, p. 235; but Camden says *Edwin*, correctly.

260 (footnote). Of the two quotations here said to be from Chaucer, the latter is from his Prologue to the Cant. Tales, ll. 741, 742, and runs, correctly, thus:--

"Crist spak himself ful brode in holy writ, And wel, ye wite, no vilanye is it."

But the former quotation is plainly nothing but a poor paraphrase of the same two lines, and can hardly (I think) be found in Chaucer himself. In l. 11 of this footnote, the phrase "to *lie* before my readers" is a remarkably awkward instance of bad grammar, as it is capable of a wrong interpretation.

263 (footnote). "To conclude, if this king did no greater matters, it was long of himself; for what he minded, he compassed."—Bacon, Life of Hen. VII., ed. Lumby, p. 220, l. 13. The author's remark is a queer one; it is precisely the sort of expression to be found in an early author. Long of, followed by a personal pronoun, occurs six times in Shakespeare.

281. Alluding to St. Simeon Stylites, and others who similarly so strangely afflicted themselves. The reference in the footnote is to the Provincial Letters of Pascal, in which he so wittily and skilfully attacked the morality of the

Jesuits.

290. The footnote is from Camden's Remains, ed. 1657, p. 135. "So Balwin le Pettour, who had his name, and held his land in Suffolk, per sultum, suffum, et pettum sive bumbulum, for dancing, pout-puffing, and doing that before the king of England in Christmas holy-days, which the word pet signifieth in French." Here 'pout-puffing' means pouting and putting out the cheeks, so common an action of the old buffoons. The Latin sufflum expresses the same thing. The word is misprinted 'pont-puffing' in the Kendal edition, and 'point-puffing' in the London one; but I have corrected it. Pettum is a made up word from French; the Lat. verb is pedere. There is no doubt as to the truth of this strange statement; see my note to P. Plowman, C. xvi. 206; Warton, Hist. English Poetry, ed. 1871, iii, 162, note 3.

332. "And whistled as he went, for want of thought."—Dryden, Cymon, 85.

404. Compare P. Plowman, C. x. 92-

"Ther is payn and peny-ale as for a pytaunce ytake, Colde flessh and cold fyssh, for veneson ybake; Frydayes and fastyng-daies, a ferthyng-worth of muscles Were a feste for suche folke, oper so fele cockes."

That is, "there [among the poor] bread and penny-a-gallon ale is considered as a good pittance, and cold meat and cold fish is in place of roast venison, and, on Fridays and fasting-days, a farthing's worth of muscle-fish or as many cockles would be a feast for such people." Cockles are plentiful in the head of Morecambe bay, at no great distance from Overthwaite.

405 (footnote). This comical etymology of *mense* is, of course, quite wrong. It is a well-known Lowland Scotch word, of which the older form is *mensk*, as in Jamieson. It is derived from O.Icel. *mannr* (usually  $m\sigma\delta r$ ), a man; hence (with the usual vowel-change) Icel. *mennskr*, adj. manlike, *mennskr*, humanity, kindness; and Scotch *mensk*, *mense* (1) dignity (2) good manners, kindness.

431 (footnote). The 'good bishop' alluded to in the note is Latimer. The quotation is from the first of his Seven Sermons before king Edward VI., ed.

Arber, p. 35. Latimer probably obtained the story from Fabyan's Chronicles, or some such book. The king was Louis VII. (mis-called by Fabyan Louis VIII.). "Howe be it, that to some persones suche fablys ben full pleasaunt to here, wherefore all suche I remytte [refer] vnto the sayd Frenshe Cronycle, & somwhat I shall folowe the auctour Gyraldus, the whiche with other, testyfyen, that Lewys, in his returne towarde Fraunce, waxed syke for the longe forherynge of his wyfe; wherefore by thaduyce of physycions, and also of bisshoppys [!], he was counceyled to take a wenche, because his wyfe was so farre from hym; but the kynge withstode that counceyll, & sayd that hym had ben leuer to be syke & dye of Goddys honde, than to lyue in spouse-brekyng, & offende his lawes. And so the kyng put hymselfe to the mercy of God & receyued helth shortly after."—Fabyan's Chronicle, ed. Ellis, p. 270.

440. This explanation of head is wrong. Maidenhead is only another spelling of maidenhood; compare Godhead with manhood. The words are not different, as said in the text, but the same. The explanation of hood is also quite wrong. The suffix -hood is A.S. -hád, meaning office, station, condition, state, &c. In l. 445, I have inserted a note of admiration at the end of the sentence, to shew that may o (i. e. may all) expresses a wish; without this hint,

the sentence is obscure.

470. The quotation in the footnote is almost *verbatim* from Latimer's "First Sermon" before king Edw. VI. See Latimer's Seven Sermons before Edward

VI., ed. Arber, pp. 40, 41.

481. "There can be little doubt that the metaphor is taken from the melting of metals. It is obvious that thou shalt heap coals of fire on his head could never have meant thou shalt destroy him; because to feed an enemy could in no sense destroy him."—Conybeare and Howson, Life and Epistles of St. Paul; note on the passage.

486 (footnote). The reference is, I suppose, to the murder of James Sharp, archbishop of St. Andrews, on Saturday, May 3, 1679, at a spot about three miles from St. Andrews. The quotation below is from Pope's First Pastoral, or Damon. The critic who blamed the conceit as 'puerile' was not very far

wrong: for this poem was written by Pope at the age of sixteen.

510. "Paulus Jovius relates that Duns Scotus was buried before he was dead, and that it was afterwards found, upon inspection of the grave, that in his misery he had knocked out his brains against his coffin. Another version of the story is, that he was found to have gnawed off the flesh from his arms;"

English Cyclopædia, art. Duns Scotus.

549. "Wm. Preston was educated at Heversham School by Thomas Watson, the bishop of Llandaff's father; he was born at Endmoor in the parish of Preston Patrick, near Betham. He was consecrated Bishop of Killala in 1784, and in June, 1788, was translated to Ferns and Leighlin. I possess a copy of the engraved portrait of him, and a very amiable-looking man he is. There is a notice of him in Atkinson's Worthies of Westmoreland." The above note was communicated to me by William Jackson, Esq., of Fleatham House, Saint Bees; who has kindly helped me in several points, and to whom I wish to express my thanks.

# GLOSSARIAL INDEX.

I VENTURE to call attention to the remarkable facts (1) that our author only explains very easy words in his very brief glossary; and (2) that, of the harder words, a large number are given in the glossary printed as 'Gloss. B. 1' by the E. D. S., which was written by the Rev. John Hutton, and printed for W. Pennington, of Kendal, in 1781. When we consider that the 'Bran New Wark' was also written by one of the Hutton family in 1784, and printed for the same W. Pennington, I think we may conclude that our author must have been well acquainted with the glossary abovementioned. My theory is that he probably himself contributed to that glossary, and thought it unnecessary to explain over again words which had already been explained there. The remarkable coincidences in spelling and vocabulary between the 'Bran New Wark' and this glossary are very striking, as will be apparent to any one who will be at the pains to compare the two. Such an odd spelling as dodt can hardly have been independently adopted by two authors; nor is it likely that they would independently write lay the white on instead of lay the wite on. Compare also the words bain, bang, barrow. beesom, cock-a-hoop (given under bobberous in the Glossary), brandreth, bran-new, brock, bunnel, cakerd, clints, clogs, cobby, conny, daker, dannat, didder, dubler, ea, elden, fidge, frandish, hagworm, haiking, harermeal, hullet, jannacks, knott, leeny, lound, marrows, maunder, mense, merestone, meterly, nifle, nope, prog, put, rannle-balk and racken-crook, rungs, scarrs, sconce, scout, scroggs, skale, skirl, slench or slinch, sloum or slome, snocksnarles, snod, snotter, speals, spelks, stee, stirk, storken, stoter or stotter, swail, swattle, teata, tent, threap,

tike, ward, whamp, white (to whittle sticks), &c. Some of these words are, of course, common enough; but I think I have at any rate shewn cause why, in interpreting any particular word in the 'Bran New Wark,' the Glossary to the 'Tour to the Caves' should be particularly consulted. The references are to the lines, as numbered.

## A

Aaiming, endeavouring, striving, 24.

Abaut, about, 19.

Aboon, above, 20.

Addle, weak (used of intellect), 88.

Aleun, eleven, 374.

Alligar, alegar (= ale eager), ale which has fermented, and is used for vinegar, 92.

Amaast, almost, 549.

Amang, among, 209.

Ano, and all, i. e. also, 378.

Apreia, I pray thee, 166. See Preia.

At, to (sign of the infinitive), 459.

Athwart, across, 368.

Ats, that is, 151.

Aur, our, 13.

Autlands, i. e. outlands, foreign parts, heading, line 2.

Awn, own, 202.

#### В

Bain, willing, ready, 375.

Bane, bone, 97.

Bang. See Outbanged.

Barn, child, 2.

Barrows, hillocks, tumuli, 70.

"Barrow, the side of a rocky hill; or a large heap of stones;" Glos. B. 1.

Bath, both, 113.

Bauk, wash, 38. Applied to buck - washing; see Buck in Halliwell.

Beal, bellow, roar, 164.

Bedstocks, bedsteads, 302.

Belly-timber, food, 413.

Berring, burial, 12.

Besom, a broom, 393 (footnote).

Bet, beat, 370.

Bezzling, swilling, 456.

Bidden, endured, 417.

Blead, blood, 339.

Brandreth, an iron frame over the fire, 380. See Gloss. B. 1.

Bran-new, quite new, 145.

Braw, brow of a hill, 50.

Braying, pounding, 165.

Brears, briars, 488.

Bree, strong agitation, 104. (So explained by our author himself.)

Breet, bright, 238.

Brocks, badgers, 7.

Bullen, a stalk of hemp, 384.

The same as bunnel in Glos.
B. 1.

Butter-flee, butterfly, 77. Butter-flee-mad, mad after butterflies.

#### C

Cakered, "bound with iron as are clog-shoes," 4. Brockett gives—"Cawher, an iron plate put upon a clog."

Calver, a cow that is not barren, 322.

Chitterwren, wren (that chitters, i.e. chirps), 95. M.E. chiteren, to chirp as a bird.

Clauted, patched (lit. clouted); hence, homely, plain, 15.

Clint, a crevice in a rock, 407. "Clints, crevices amongst bare limestone rocks;" Glos. B. 1.

Clock, cluck, 496.

Clogs, shoes with wooden soles
plated with iron, 4. See Glos.
B. 1.

Co, call, 83, 165.

Cobby, proud, 528. Also "in good spirits;" Glos. B. 1.

Cock-a-hoop, pretentious, vainglorious, 195. "Bobberous, all a cock-a-hoop;" Glos. B. 1.

Cockle-broth, broth made of cockles, 404.

Cocksure, exceeding sure, 82.

Condor, condor, 96.

Conn'd, studied, 18.

Conny, pretty, good, excellent, 119, 296. See Glos. B. 1; cf. Sc. canny.

Craw, crow, 185.

Croft, a field next the dwelling-house, 44.

Crumpling, crumbling with a low crackling noise, 333.

Cumpassed, embraced, 370.

Curst, shrewish, ill-tempered, 162.

#### D

Dakering, disputing, 521. "Daker, a dispute;" Glos. B. 1.

Dannet, a worthless fellow, 360. One who dows not, i. e. is of no value; like G. taugenichts. See Dow.

Dawn, down, 50.

Daws'd, dowsed, sunk, 212.

**Dea**, do, 376. See **Du**.

Dearyme! an interjection, 343.

Diddering, shaking, shivering; hence, chattering (said of teeth), 347.

Dizend, bedizened, decked out, 144. [Hence E. be-dizen.]

Dodt, docked, i. e. without horns, 162. This remarkable spelling occurs also in Glos. B. 1. See Dodded in Atkinson's Cleveland Glossary.

Doffs, puts off, 130.

Dons, masters, clever fellows, 84. Used in Cambridge.

**Dow**, to avail, profit; at dow = to be useful to others, 459. Cognate with G. taugen.

Du, do, 213, 357. See Dea.

Dubbler, a large plate, a plateful, 403.

Dunnet, do not, 103.

Dykes, ditches, 336.

#### $\mathbf{E}$

Ea, river, 10. See the note.

**Een**, eyes, 145.

Efeclings, by my faith, 153. A dimin. of i'fegs.

Efter, after, 377.

Efternean, afternoon, 217.

Eigh, aye, yes, 11, 302.

Elding, fuel, 344. This seck is elding = the contents of this sack is fuel.

**Element**, sky, 236. So in Essex; and so in Shakespeare.

Emess, by the mass, 123. See Amess in Dickinson's Cumb. Glos.

Er, are, 94, 95, 320.

#### $\mathbf{F}$

Faat, fault, misdeed, 410, 513; pl. Faats, 241.

Fald-yeat, foldgate, 31.

Feal, fool, 139.

Fend, provide (for), 468.

Fettle, condition, state of health, 512. Common as far S. as Shropshire; and perhaps farther.

Fidge, perform busily, 36. To fidge is to be restless, to be busy about trifles; also "to kick with the feet," as in Glos. B. 1.

Filch, pilfer, 318.

Firley-farley, wonderful thing, bit of nonsense (used in contempt), 143. A reduplication of M.E. ferly, a wonder; P. Plowman; B. prol. 6.

Flackers, flits about, beats about, 75.

Flounces, jumps about, 75.

Flushcocks, 398. "Flushcocks are 'sieves' growing in damp places on the fells, shorter and flatter than the ordinary 'sieve;' they are cut, dried, stacked, and often used as bedding for horses."—W. Jackson. "Seeve, a rush;" Dickinson. The flushcock is Juncus lamprocarpus; the sieve is Juncus effusus; Britten.

Fog, aftermath, 477.

Followed on, followed, continued, 127. See Hosea, vi. 3; and Eastwood and Wright's Bible Wordbook, Fond, silly, 441.

Foumarts, polecats, 7.

Fra, from, 91.

Fraaze, froze, 330.

Frandish, mad, passionate, frenzied, 303.

Freetned, frightened, 223.

#### G

Gaan, gone, 530; Gaane, 224.

Gaas, goes, 305, 454.

Gang, go, 115.

Giggling, laughing sillily, 142.

Girsle, gristle, 97.

Git, get, 531.

Gitten, gotten, got, 16.

Glopping, staring about, 149.

**Graadly**, well-meaning, 375. Spelt greidly in Glos. B. 1.

Gun; as sure as a gun = certainly, 414.

#### H

Hagworm, lit. hedge-snake, a viper, 407.

Haking, loitering, 462.

Hallow, halloo, shout, 415.

Hamely, homely, 15.

Harbour, shelter, 312.

Havermeal, oatmeal, 403.

**Haw**, how, 75.

Haughs, river-side pastures, 43. See *Haugh* in Ferguson's Cumb. Glossary.

Heck, half-door. See Raddle-heck.

Helter-skelter, wild, 183. (The suggestion hilariter-celeriter, in the note, is a specimen of learned rubbish).

Herrensue, heron, 338.

Hes, has, 85.

Hev, have, 18, 20.

Hocus-pocus, trickery, 170. Unmeaning words used by jugglers; the suggestion (hoc est corpus) is ridiculous.

Hod-fast, holdfast, a sure possession, 444.

Hullet, owlet, owl, 337.

Hunx, a miser, 122. "Haspin, an hunx;" Glos. B. 1. "Hunniel, an hunx, or covetous person;" id.

#### 1

Inkhorn words, literary words, 18.

Intacks, enclosures taken in from a common (lit. in-takes), 44.

Iver, ever, 22.

Ivery, every, 25.

#### J

Jannock, a coarse loaf of oaten bread, 403.

# K

Kirk, church, 133. Kirk-garth, churchyard, 128. Knots, rocky-peaked hills, 70. Kraken, a sea-snake, 99.

#### L

Laa, low, 196.

Laad, load, 396.

Laaking, playing, amusing himself, 50.

Lang o, along of, owing to, 263.

Lang-settle, long seat, 137. A wooden form with a high back; "a bench like a settle;" Glos. B. 1.

Leak, look, appearance, 515.

Leak, look, 96.

Lear, liar, 255.

Leeny, clever, smart, 320. "Leeny, alert, active;" Glos. B. 1.

Leetnings, lightnings, 223.

Leeves, lives, 41.

Leeving, s. living, 29.

Lets, hindrances, 506.

Lig, lie, 230.

Lig, lay, 306; Lig wite on, lay blame upon, 250. (Misspelt white; see the note.)

Ligging, lying, 454.

Lile, little, 19; Lile aans, little ones, 383.

Ling, a kind of heather, 336.

Lingua, lingo, 58.

Loanin, lane, 297. (Also lonnin.)

Loup, a stitch in knitting (lit. a loop), 385. See Glos. B. 2..

Lownd, still, quiet, calm, 329.

Loww, blaze, light, 385.

## M

Mafflin, a stupid fellow, 456.

Mappen (may happen), possibly, 130, 155.

Mare, more, 26, 27.

Marrows, matches, is like, 14.

Maunders, lounges, wanders idly, 461.

Mause-itten, mouse-eaten, 138

Mebby, may be, perhaps, 391.

Meeterly, moderately, tolerably, 24. (From the verb to mete.)

Meety, mighty, 195.

Mense, kindness, 405. See the note.

Mere-stanes, boundary - stones, 307. "Cursed, saith the law, is hee that removeth the landmarke. The mislaier of a meere-stone is to blame;" Bacon, Essay 56.

Mickle, much, 84.

Miff, quarrel, 551.

Miredrum, bittern, 338.

Mirkness, darkness, 340.

Moon belief, fickle belief, fickle faith, 133.

Mucking, cleaning muck out of a 'byre' or cowhouse, 39.

Mud, might, 100; would, 311.

Mummy, a soft pounded mass, 166.

Mun, must, 119; must, will, 14; must, shall, 212.

Munnet, must not, 264.

Murgeon, "rubbish-earth cut up and thrown aside in order to get turf," 333; see Glos. B. 1.

# N

Naa, no, 21, 22.

Naw, now, 36, 37.

Neaf, fist, 558; pl. Neaves, 418.

Neak, nook, corner, 120.

Nebber-raw, neighbouring row of houses, 35.

Neen, nine, 377.

Neet, night, 199.

Ner, nor, 76.

Net, not, 15, 19.

Nifting, pilfering, 305. [Perhaps a misprint for nifling, which is the spelling in Glos. B. 1.] Cf. "Nip up, to pilfer, pick up quickly;" Dickinson, Cumb. Glossary.

Nimming, purloining, 305.

Nivver, never, 76, 81.

Nope, a rap, 157. "Nope, a small blow or stroke," Glos. B. 1.

0

**0**, of, 91.

**0**, all, 112. And see **Ano**.

**Oor**, over, 4, 76.

Oorun, over-run, 7.

**0th**, of the, 308.

Outbanged, surpassed, 322. "Bang, to beat or overcome;" Glos. B. 1.

Oways, always, 436.

## P

Paate, pate, head, 88.

Parlish, wonderful (lit. perilous), 79.

Peats, pieces of peat, 398. "Peat, turf for the fire;" Glos. B. 1.

Peck of troubles, i. e. a quantity of them, 373.

Pelsy, perverse, 204. "Pelsey, obstinate, cross, mischievous, bad, wicked, evil;" Halliwell.

Pinfald, v. impound, 477.

Poak, bag, 342.

Popple up, pop up (through water), 51.

Pows, poles, stout sticks, 318.

Preia, I pray thee, 354. See Apreia.

Prickins, 398. "When the thorn-hedge, cut down so that it may grow afresh, forms an insecure barrier, the stronger stems are cut into short pieces (prickings) and thrust in close rows along the top of the hedge on each side, thus making the separation between the fields safe, and protecting the young shoots till they grow up again;" W. Jackson.

Progging, getting food, 413. | "Prog, food, provisions;" Glos. | B. 1.

Pumps, thin shoes, 3.

Put, pushed (with the horns), butted, 163.

#### R

Raans, roes (of a fish), 85.

Raap, rope, 171.

Raddle-heck, wattled half-door, 372. "Radling, watling;" Glos. B. 1.

Randletree, a 'randle-bauk,' a piece of wood in a chimney from which is hung the pot-crook or racken-crook, or ratten-crook, 381. See Rannle-bauk in Glos. B. 1.

Rattencreak, pot-crook, pot-hook, 380. See above. [Corruption of rakken-creak.]

Rattlehorn, a giddy, thoughtless person, 457. So also Rattle-pate, in Halliwell.

Raund, round, 33.

Raund, rown, i. e. whisper, 125.

Raw, row. See Nebber-raw.

Reet, right, 157.

Rhaading, raiding, foraying, 521.

Rue, repent, be sorry, 255.

Rung, round or stave, i. e. step of a ladder, 382.

#### S

Saal, soul, 559.

Sauked, sucked, 48.

Saunds, sounds, 48.

Scaled, scattered, 198. Spelt skale in Glos. B. 1.

Scarrs, bare rocks, especially on a mountain side, 7; Scars, 365.

Sconce, "a fixed seat by the side ]

of a fire-place" (Glos. B. 1), 137. Brockett gives: "Sconce, a fixed seat at one side of the fire-place in the old large open chimney; a short partition near the fire, upon which all the bright utensils in a cottage are suspended."

Scout. See note to 1. 193.

Scrogs, stunted bushes, brushwood, 9.

Sean, soon, 531.

Seaty, sooty, 138, 380.

Seck, sack, 344.

Seet, sight, 91.

Sell'd, sold, 321.

Sells, selves, 226.

Sennet, week (seven nights), 329.

Seun, seven o'eloek, 329.

Shaws, copses, woods, 44.

Sic, such, 15.

Sidesmen, assistants to church-wardens, 156.

Skirling, shricking, screaming, 337.

Slaaworm, slow-worm, 407.

Slinging, slinking, sneaking, 462. See Stench in Glos. B. 1.

Slome, slumber, 150.

Snaw, snow, 17.

Snocksnarles, all of a heap, 366. Generally used of entangled thread; see Glos. B. 1 and B. 2.

Snod, smooth, 3.

Snottering, sobbing, 383.

Somat, somewhat, 363.

Speals, small sticks, 383.

Spelks, "small sticks to fix on thatch with," pegs, 319. Also used to mean "slips of hazel used to form the bottoms of flat baskets such as clothes-baskets or swills, as such baskets are called when used in farm-yards to carry cut turnips in," &c.; W. Jackson. In fact, spells and speals are general terms for any thin slips or splinters of wood; the diminutive form is spelicans.

Sprauting, rebellious, 25. "Sprant, to kick and struggle;" Halliwell.

Squats, sits, 131. See Swat in Glos. B. 1.

Stanethraws, stone-throws, 353.

Steal, stool, 379.

Stee, ladder, 381.

Stirk, heifer, 476. "Stirk, a steer;" Glos. B. 1.

Stark-dead, quite dead and stiff, 511.

Stars and garters, an exclamation, 411.

Storkened, lit. stiffened, hence, congealed, 339. See Glos. B. 1.

Stot, young ox, 476.

Stottered, stumbled, 365.

Swattles, swills, 460. "Swattle, to guzzle;" Glos. B. 1.

Sweal, flame, blaze, 385. Spelt swaile in Glos. B. 1.

#### $\mathbf{T}$

**Ta**, to, 112.

Ta, thou, 396, 397.

Taad-poles, tadpoles, 90.

Taan, taken, 293.

Tarn, pool, 239.

Tau; hes tau = hastou = hastthou, 126, 127. See Ta.

Tea, too, 11, 212.

Tearing, tiring, 272. See Teered.

Teata, very, 119. (Teata = tootoo, as in Shakespeare; see Toota in Glos. B. 17.)

Teed, tied, 458.

Teered, tired, 104. See Tearing.

Teers, tires, 78.

Tented (later ed. tended), guarded, tended, 21. "Tent, to watch or guard from doing a thing;" Glos. B. 1.

Testrels (later ed. testrils), worthless fellows, 224. See Taistrel, Taystrail, and Testril, in Glos. B. 1, B. 2, and B. 7.

Threaping, chiding, arguing, 471.

Ticing, enticing, alluring, 145.

Tramp'd, trudged along, 332.

Trapes, saunters, 128.

Tykes, headstrong striplings, 430. Spelt *tike* in Glos. B. 1.

#### U

Unsneck'd, undid, unfastened, 372. "Sneck, a door-latch;" Glos. B. 1.

#### V

Varra, very, 234.

### W

Waat, (ye) know, 8.

**Wad,** would, 19, 132.

Ward, world, 388, 535.

Warding, guarding, 521.

Wardly, worldly, 323.

Wark, work, 520.

Warse, worse, 291.

Waund, wound, 422.

Weezels, weasels, 7.

Welter, roll, tumble about, 99.

Weshed, washed, 17.

Whamp, wasp, 495.

Wharting, teasing, lit. thwart-

ing, note to l. 486. Cf. whart-whartle, to cross, tease; Forby.

Whick, quick, i. e. alive, 512.

White. See Wite.

Whither, to shiver, shudder, 248. Originally to whirr, quiver, whiz; see Barbour's Bruce, xvii. 684.

Whiting, whittling, shaving with a knife, 383.

Windraw, heap of dug earth, 335. See Glos. B. 16.

Wite, blame, 250. Misspelt white both here and in Glos. B. 1, where it is entered under Wite.

Withys, bentosiers, 319. "Withy, a round hoop of osier;" Glos. B. 1.

Woon, (ye) dwell, 488.

Wooning, dwelling, abode, 353.

#### Y

Ya, one, 13, 91; Yan, one (of them), 92; Yans, one's, 106; Yaw, one, 242.

Yance, once, 163, 495.

Yaw, one, 242. See Ya.

Yearned, felt grief, or pity, 126. Cf. ermen, to grieve; Chaucer.

Yule-clog, yule-log, Christmas log, 33.

 $\mathbf{z}$ 

**Zleads**, no doubt the same as 's lids = by God's lids or eyelids, fou d in old plays, 170.



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