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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.

BY

## HENRY SWEET, ESQ.,

Member of Council of the Philological and Early English Text Societies, Editor of the Old English Version of Gregory's Cuba Pasroralis.

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

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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. Upou 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
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 humau 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: Trïbner \& 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 palcootype, 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 shew 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.

[^0]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 nitmber only, and include the Glossic symbol within square brackets, in the usual manner.

| 1. [uu']. | 4. [ea]. | 7. [ER]. | 10. [U']. | 13. [ $\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$ ]. | 16. [1]. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. [UU]. | 5. โU]. | 8. [ AI$]$. | 11. [ AA ]. | 14. [ $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ ]. | 17. [E]. |
| 3. [ua]. | 6. [ua']. | 9. [ AE ]. | 12. [AH]. | 15. [E']. | 18. [ A$]$. |
| 19. [ 0 ]. | 22. [ui']. | 25. [ui]. | 28. [vo]. | 31. [uo']. | 34. [UE]. |
| 20. [ OA ]. | 23. [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ ]. | 26. [EO]. | 29. [AO]. | 32. [ $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$ ]. | 35. [OE]. |
| 21. [ Au ]. | 24. [au']. | 27. [eo']. | 30. [o]. | 33. [0']. | 36. [oe']. |

Now it should be clearly understood that these tro 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].
$\mathfrak{æ}$, as $a$ in $\mathrm{m} \alpha \mathrm{n}$; 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].
$\partial$, as $u$ in but; Glossic [u], as in [but].
i , as in bit; Glossic [i], as in [bit].
$\grave{o}$, as in not; ò̀ as in naught; Glossic [ 0 ] 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. $\ddot{u} \mathrm{bel}$; Glossic [ue], as in Germ. [uebu'1].
ai, a diphthong of a and i , as $y$ in $\mathrm{m} y$; Glossic [ei], as in [mei].
au , a diphthong of a and u , as $o u$ 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 $u ;{ }^{1}$ Glossic [oaw], as in [noaw].
oi, as oy in boy; Glossic [oi], as in [boi].
It may be added, that $b$ is used to represent the sound of th in thin, Glossic [thin]; and $\gamma$ to represent the th in this, Glossic [dhis].

According, then, to Mr. Sweet's notation, the word father is written faaßor; 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, ybol; my, mai ; house, haus; tale, téil; no, nóu; boy, boi.

The long vowels are expressed by doubling the symbol employed for the shorter vowels. The following are examples, viz. father, faarer (the short sound of which is found in the Anglo-Saxon man, in modern English changed to mann); earn, wor'se, əən, wəəs ; sau, faught, sòò, fò̀̀t; 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

[^1]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 $u u$ before $r$, as shown in the almost universal yò̀ $(r)$ for yuur (possessive of $y u(t)$. In the vulgar pronunciation this is carried out in all words, so that the combination uur is entirely lost. Thus we have pò̀o for puur, shòò for shuur, etc.
Word Lists: dele bycce (No. 797).
for cleev, read clèèv (1327).
quean (1741) seems to come from cwéne with a short vowel $=$ Gothic kwinō.

## HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS.

## By HENRY SWEET, Esq.

## INTRODUCTION.

Is 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 phono$\log y$ 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 seanty 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. Mr. 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. The result of 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 $a a$ is the type, front (palatal), typified by $i i$, 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 lox. Each of these nine positions may be rounded (labialized). Each of the resulting eighteen vowels must, lastly, be either narrow ${ }^{1}$ 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 $e(\partial)$. The English vowel in man is written $a$, and $\propto$ is used

[^2]GENERAL VOWEL SCALE.

| NARROW. |  |  | wide. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 high-back. | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \text { high-mixed. } \\ & \text { Sw. upp } \end{aligned}$ | 7 high-front. Scotch and occ. Engl. feel | 10 high-back. <br> occ. Engl. but Engl. eye | 13 high-mixed. | 16 high-front. Engl. bit |
| 2 mid-back. occ. Eng. but | 5 mid-mixed. <br> German unacc. | 8 mid-front. <br> Dan. ste n Scotch take | 11 mid-back. Engl. father | 14 mid-mixed. Engl. father | 17 mid-front. occ. Engl. men Dar. lase |
| 3 low-back. occ. Scotch but | 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 err | 18 low-front. <br> - Engl. man |


| narrow-round. |  |  | WIDE-ROUND. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 19 high-back, Scotch and occ. Engl. fool | $\begin{aligned} & 22 \text { high-mixed. } \\ & S w . \text { h } u s \end{aligned}$ | 25 high-front. Germ. ïbel Dan, lys | 28 high-back. | 31 high-mixed. | 34 high-front, <br> 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. <br> 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 $\ddot{o}$. Long vowels are doubled, and diphthongs indicated by combining their elements. ${ }^{1}$


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 palmotype 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.

## Geveral 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,

[^3]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. beer (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 $i i$, $u u$, into $a i$, $a u$, 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 withont 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. ${ }^{1}$
3) Changes of position. The most general feature of

[^4]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 $v a c h=v a k$; English men, fè̀ $\partial r$, 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 =liankan, 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 $t s h$ from $k$ through an intermediate front position, as in the E. church from cyrice; the change of Sanskrit $c ̧$, as in çru, 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-mixednarrow, as in the German endd, geeban, from the older andi, giban.
There are many exceptions to these general tendencies. Thus, of the two $r$ s, 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 thinto

[^5]$k h$ (=German ch) in the Scotch (Lothian dialect) lihrii 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 makhon = E. méik, vasor = wòòtor; Modern Greek dhédhoka from dédooka.
b) unstopped to diphthongal vowel: Middle English dai, lau, from older dagh, laghu; English hiüa from kiiir.
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 Tentonic languages except English seem to find the $t h$ and $d h$ difficult, and convert them into the corresponding stopped $t$ and $d$. In Swedish the $g h$ of the oldest documents has, in like manner, become $g$. There seem to be cases of vowels developing into consomants, 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 $g h$, 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-elosed, whence the change of $a a$ into $\grave{\partial} \dot{0}$, 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 $e$ 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 $c$ 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 mònnum=mannum, sòòr=saaru ( $p l$. of saar).
i...a=é : O.E. stélan=Gothic stilan.
u...a=ó: O.E. óft=Gothic ufta.
$\mathrm{u} . . . \mathrm{i}=\mathrm{y}: O . E$. fyllan=fullian, myys=muusi.
ó...i=œ: O E. grœœne= gróóni.
There are also umlauts of diphthongs, such as èy in the Old Icelandic lèysa=lausian.

The change of ai into èi in Old Icelandic (vèit=rait), and the further change of $\grave{e} i$ into $e ́ i$ 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 skop $u \delta u=s k a p a \delta u$ 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-somnds 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 e ei in Early Modern English of vowel dissimilation, while the further change of $\dot{e} i$ into $\partial i$ and $a i$ 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 $\grave{o} o$, 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, i 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 $u$, 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 $\grave{o} \grave{o}$ is often the result of the simplification of au, but in Icelandic the process has been reversed-the Old Icelandic $\grave{o} \grave{o}$ (as in dòò from dear $\gamma$ ) has become au. In the same way the Middle English $y y$ has in the present English been resolved into $i u$. 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 meino for meniō. 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.
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 a instead of the front vowel, or else by rounding into the mid-front-round $\alpha$, the result being that $\alpha$ and $\partial$ 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-frontnarrow, and the $a$ in $b a t$ 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 $\propto$ and $\partial$ 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 $\varnothing, \notin, \partial$, whereas the imitative hypothesis makes the direct change of $\infty$ into $a$ 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 soundchange 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. The 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 carly 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 $c h$ ) the tongue was shifted forwards by imperceptible gradations. Such assumptions are quite unnecessary, besides being devoid of proof. To pcople 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. The 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 iouy: 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 sisteenth 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 $u e$ in later times written ${ }_{e}^{e}$. 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 $g h$ in Italian, $l$ and $l h$ in Portuguese, etc. The doubling of consonants to express new sounds is equally arbitrary, as in the Welsh $f f$ 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 $i u$ passes into the simple sound of $y y$, 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 respeet 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 buzte (modern bitte) being treated as metrically equivalent to a monosyllable, while rīte (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 rímur of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

All this is fully confirmed by the direct evidence of many German MSS. of the eleventli 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 stown 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 $a i$, 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.

$$
\mathrm{A}(\mathbb{E}, 0)
$$

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 at dreg, ceppel, craftig. Alternations of $a$ and $c$ according to these rules often occur
in various inflexions of the same word: deeg, deeges, dagas, dagum. a before nasals is liable to interchange with $0:$ 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 bome, on, of, which last is an exceptional case of o developing before $f$, also occurring in the proper name Offa (=original $A b a$ ).

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 $e x$ 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 $\infty$, 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 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 bne 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 $a 0$, 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 a had this narrow sound? Analogy is certainly in favour of this assumption, but a little consideration will show that it is untenable. If $a$ had been narrow, its weakening $c$, which is simply $a$ 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 $a$ is kept quite distinct: the $a$, therefore, cannot have been narrow, nor, consequently, its parent $a$. But if we suppose the $a$ to have had the sound of the Scotch manthat is the low-wide-the difficulty is cleared away, and we come to the very probable conclusion that the $c e$ had the exact sound of the modern English man-the low-frontwide.

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-roundnarrow, 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.

## 玉.

We must distinguish two kinds of $e s$ 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 bóroddr, 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 $i$ 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, ${ }^{1}$ there is unmistakable graphic evidence to prove that there was a distinction, the $e$ from $a$ being often written $a$, although this spelling was soon abandoned because of the confusion it caused with the regular $a$ of dceg, 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 $c e$ of clag, etc.-in short, at a period in which the $a$ was probably narrow in all the Teutonic languages.

[^6]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 $i$ ) is clear from boroddr's expressly adducing the second vowel of framer ( $=$ framir: nom. plur. masc. of framr) as an example of the close $e$ arising from $i$.

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.

$$
0 .
$$

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 $r$, 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 bóroddr says, "blended together of $i$ and $u$," and bóroddr 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 $o a$, 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 0 .

## 庣压.

There are two long $a s$ in Old English. The commonest is that which corresponds to original ai, as in $s \bar{a}, d \overline{\bar{e}} l=$ Gothic saiw, dail. The relation of this $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ to the $\bar{a}$ treated of above is not quite clear. In some words, such as clēne $=$ Old German kleini, the $a$ may be explained as an umlaut of $\bar{a}$, original claini first becoming clāni and then clēni. But such words as $s \bar{e}$ and $l \bar{c} l$ do not admit this explanation. It seems therefore simplest to assume that $\bar{e}$ 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 $d \bar{e} l d=$ Gothic $d \bar{e} l$, Old German tät. 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 $w e \bar{e} n$, and the proper name $\mathcal{E l f} \dot{\bar{c}} d=$ Old German $A l p r a \bar{t}$.

The only question about the sound of $\bar{e}$ 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 $\grave{e} \grave{e}$-umlaut of $\bar{a}$ (k $\grave{c} e ̀ z=k a a s i$ ) is always narrow, rather to narrowness. In fact the long sound of the $w$ in men is quite unknown in the Modern Teutonic languages. It must also be borne in mind that $\bar{e}$ is probably a much older formation than the short $\varepsilon$ e, and may very well have been developed at a time when all the vowels were still narrow. If so, long $e$ 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 $\bar{e}$ in the West-Saxon dialect. In many words it is a simplification of the diphthongs $e \bar{a}$ and $e \overline{0}$,
as in $n \bar{e} d, \bar{e} c=n e \bar{a} d, e \bar{a} c$ (both of which forms are also common), ge $\bar{n} g=g e \bar{o} n g$. The third and most common $\bar{e}$ is the $i$-umlaut of $\overline{0}$, written oe in the oldest documents, as in grēne (groene) $=$ original grōni. 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.

$$
\mathrm{II}, \mathrm{UU}
$$

Correspond to original $i i$ and $u u$, 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.

$$
\mathrm{OO}
$$

Corresponds to original $\overline{0}$, as in $g \bar{o} d, m \bar{o} d o r$. 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 óo of these languages. ${ }^{1}$

## YY

Is the umlaut of $\bar{u}$, as in $m \bar{y} s=m \bar{u} s i$, plural of $m \bar{u} s$. In some words, such as fitr (Old German viuwar), it is a simplification of $i 4$ by diphthongal convergence. Its pronunciation cannot well have been anything else than the high-front-narrow-round.

## Diphthongs. <br> 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 call, 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 $a e$ or $a$. The only question is whether the stress was

[^7]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 $e a$ is very often represented by $y a$, sometimes by yea, so that the Old English cald appears as eald, yald and yeald. Here we have the glide-vowel represented by the Middle English consonant y, showing clearly that the stress was on the $a$. As to the origin of the $e a$, the theory first propounded by Rapp (Physiologie der Sprache, ii. 145) seems the most probable, namely that $a$ first became $a$ before all consonants (except nasals), so that ald became ald, and that this $a$ was then diphthongized into $e a$ or rather cea.

## EO.

Similarly, when $\dot{e}$ comes before $r, l$ and $h$-combinations, it is diphthongized into eo, as in eor' $\delta$ e, meolc, feoh. In the Kentish and Northumbrian documents this eo is generally represented by ea, eor $\delta e$ being written earðe. In the word eart (from ért) eo never occurs in any of the dialects-the normal eort being unknown even in West-Saxon. When we consider that $\dot{e}$ in Icelandic also is changed into $i a$ ( $e a$ in the oldest MSS.), as in hiarta二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=a in the standard West-Saxon, we must suppose that the series of changes, $\dot{e}, c a, c o$, was already completed when $e a=a$ began to develope itself. The rounding of ea into $e o$ 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 $e a$ from $a$, there is another $c a$, 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 $e a=a u$ 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 ${ }^{\circ} r$ ( $=$ Jatvarir) for Eadweard: these examples show that ea=au had the stress on the same vowel as $e a=a$. We are driven, therefore, to the hypothesis that ea=au had its second element longIreaam. This view is confirmed by the Modern English form of the preterite ceās (Gothic kaus) which is chóoz-an anomaly which is quite inexplicable, except on the assumption of an original long $a a$. The development of the word is clearly ce-aas, ce-òos; chòòs, chóáz. This seems to be what Rask meant by his accentuating ed́, 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 $a a$, as in Frisian. This $a a$ followed the short $a$ and became cece. The rece was then resolved into eaa or caa. We must suppose that these changes took place before ai became $a a$ : otherwise there would have been a confusion between $a a=a u$ and $a a=a i$. 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
ace to take place, like that of short $a$, only before certain consonants. It is, however, quite possible that the diphthongization of longece was much earlier than that of short $\mathscr{E}$, and that the two phenomena are therefore independent. If so, cece may at first have developed into simple $e a$ and the lengthening of the $a$ may have been a secondary process.

## EOO

Answers to original iu, as in deop=Gothic diup. There can be no doubt that this $e o=i u$ was distinct from the $e o=e ́$, 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 ceóósan as chóós does to a ceaas. The Icelandic ióó, as in kiöósa (Modern lijousa), 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 $e o$ and eoo, which never happens with $e a$ and eaa: we often find such forms as ior $\delta e$ for cor $\delta e$, but never hiard for heard. The inference clearly is that in eó and $e 0 o$ the initial vowel was closer and higher than in $e a$, eaa, probably through the assimilative influence of the second element. The diphthongs are then strictly éó, éóo, èa, èaa (or possibly $\tau a$, ceaa).

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. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a............. | a, a ......... | $a$ | ] | $a c . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .$. | $a a$ |
| æ .......... | æ .............. | æ | E ............. | ææ .............. | EE |
| ò............. | 0 .............. | 0 | è .............. | ee................... | $e$ |
| i .............. | .............. | i | İ .............. | ii .................. | ii |
| è.............. | e ............. | E | $\overline{\text { o}}$.............. | 00.................. | oo |
| ć............. | e .... | $e$ | ̄̄ .............. | u1.................. | uu |
| U.............. | u, u? ..... | u | $\overline{\mathbf{y}} . . . . . . . . . . . . .$. | yy, ii .......... |  |
| ó............. | 0 | 0 | ea............. | ea, e $\dot{a}$......... | $\mathrm{E} a^{\prime}(æ a ?$ ) |
| y.............. | $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{i} \ldots . . . . . . .$. | I | co.............. | е0, ео́ .......... |  |
|  |  |  | eā............. | ea, eá .......... | Eáá |
|  |  |  | eō.............. | eo, eó .......... | eóó |

with my own, both in palæotype. 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 $e a, e o$, and $e \bar{a}, e \overline{0}$. 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 periodmost 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 uut. 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. $f$, so that $u$, 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 $y$ s were introduced in words taken from the French, which were all written with $u$ (nature, etc.). To remedy the consequent confusion between $u=y y$ and $u=u u$ (luus, 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 hows. 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 ortbography, 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 $e ́:$ where Old English has $a$, ea or co, Middle English has the unmodified $a$ and $e$. Compare gled, hearl, seofon, with the Middle English glad, hard, seven.

Such a change as that of gleed 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 soundchanges 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 $e$ and $a$ in such words as deg, 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 $c$ c-so liable to be confounded with $\grave{e}$-was discarded, and the clear sounding $a$ was made the sole representative of the older $a$ and $\varepsilon$.
When this process of levelling had once begun, it is easy to see how $e a$ and $e o$ 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 $u u$ and $i u$ ) were simplified into $\grave{e} e ̀$ and $e ́ e$ 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 $\grave{e}=e a$ was identical with that of the Old English a. hearl would, therefore, become herd, whose $e$ would naturally follow the other as, and become $a$, giving the Middle English hard. The three spellings heard, hard, and hard are to be found constantly interchanging in Lazamon and other writers of the period.

Whatever may be the explanation of the fact, there can be no doubt that the Old English $\not \subset$, ea, eo, were lost in the Middle period, and that the mysterious connection between the Old English $c a$ and the Modern sound in such a word as mon (written man) imagined by some philologists, must be given up: the two ces are quite independent developments, even when they occur in the same words, as in $\gamma$ ort, sett, sed, reppel. Mr. Ellis has shown that up to the seventeenth
century these words were pronounced $\delta a t$, 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 $o$ (the "mid" vowel).
2) Front-round to unrounded (page 11). Exemplified in the familiar German change of $x$ and $y$ into $\dot{e}$ and $i$, as in shéén and kiïn for shocon and kyyn. In Modern Icelandic ece became first unrounded, and the resulting ee ran

## II.

## TEUTONIC LONG VOWELS. ${ }^{1}$

|  | AA | II | 00 |  | UU |  | AI | AU | IU |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Gothic | $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ d e d \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 \\ \text { wein } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 3 \\ \text { god } \end{array}$ | 4 - | hus | 6 | $\begin{gathered} 7 \\ \text { stain } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} 8 \\ \text { drauin } \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 9 \\ \text { diup } \end{gathered}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & 2 \text { Old } \\ & \text { High } \\ & \text { German } \end{aligned}$ | tāt | win | guot | gruoni | $\hbar \bar{u} s$ | hūsir. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { stain } \\ & \text { stein } \end{aligned}$ | traum troum | tiuf |
| 3 Modern High German | taat | wain | guut | gryyn | haus | hayzer | shtain | traum | tiif |
| $\begin{aligned} & 4 \text { Old } \\ & \text { Saxon } \end{aligned}$ | dad | win | gold | groni | hus | - | sten | drom | diop |
| 5 Dutch | daat | wèin | ghut | ghrun | $\begin{aligned} & \text { heys } \\ & \text { zyyr } \end{aligned}$ | - | stéén | dróóm | dip |
| $\begin{aligned} & 6 \text { Old } \\ & \text { Icelandic } \end{aligned}$ | dà | win | 90 | grēn | hues | $k \bar{y} r$ | stèin | draum | $\begin{aligned} & \text { diup } \\ & \text { sion } \end{aligned}$ |
| 7 Modern Icelandic | dauS | viin | góừ | grain | huns | kiir | stéin | draim | $\begin{aligned} & \text { djuup } \\ & \text { sj6un } \end{aligned}$ |
| 8 Swedish | dò̀d | viin | góód | grocen | $\overline{\text { huus }}$ | lyyta | stéén | drom | $\begin{aligned} & \text { djuup } \\ & \text { syyn } \end{aligned}$ |
| 9 Danish | dòò ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | viin | gós | gren | huus | lyy ¢ | stéén | drem | $\begin{aligned} & \text { dyyb } \\ & \text { syyn } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & 10 \text { Old } \\ & \text { English } \end{aligned}$ | ded | win | god | grene | hus | $e \bar{y}$ | stan | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { drean } \\ & \text { (=ena) } \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { deop } \\ & (=\text { cóó }) \end{aligned}$ |
| 11 Middle English | $\begin{aligned} & \text { deed } \\ & (=\text { éé }) \end{aligned}$ | wiin | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { gond } \\ (=\text { óó }) \end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { green } \\ & (=\text { éé }) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { hous }(e) \\ (=\mathrm{uu}) \end{gathered}$ | kye | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{stgn}(e) \\ (=\dot{0} \dot{0}) \end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { drean } \\ & (=\text { èe }) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { decp } \\ & (=\text { éé }) \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{array}{r} 12 \text { Modern } \\ \quad \text { Enghish } \end{array}$ | ddii | wain | gud | griin | haus | kai | stóun | drim | diip |

${ }^{1}$ 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.
${ }^{2}$ The italics indicate the peculiar Swedish $u$-intermediate to $u$ and $y$.
together with the regular $\grave{e}$ e, and, like it, was diphthongized into ai, so that the Old Icelandic bocekr is now disguised under the form of baikr. The same change took place in Old English, only it was not carried so far: the boock (written boec or beoc, p. 23) of the oldest period appears in the later MSS. as bec (=béék). 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 óo 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 $e e$ 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 óó 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 $i i$ and $u u$ 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 $i u$ out of $y y$.
6) Besides these regular modifications of the two high vowels, there are isolated diphthongizations of other vowels.
a) óó to ou. In Icelandic gou' $\delta$ for the older góóð, 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 guot.
d) $\grave{o}$ to $a u$. In Icelandic, where original aa passed through the stage of simple rounding ( $\grave{\partial}$ ), and was then resolved into au, laata (let) becoming first lò̀ta and then lauta.
e) $\grave{e}$ è to $a i$. The $i$-umlaut of $a a$ has in the same way been resolved into $a i$ in Modern Icelandic, so that vèeri (written veri) 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 $x$ in German. In Modern English we have, lastly, a very anomalous case of unrounding of the back vowel $u$, but becoming bot.
2) Back to front. Short $u$ has in Icelandic and Dutch been changed into a front vowel-the kigh-front-wide-round in Icelandic, the low-front-narrow-round (or its imitation, the mid-mixed-narrow) in Dutch. The open $\grave{o}$ in Icelandic (the $u$-umlaut of $a$ ) has changed into $\propto$ (the mid-front-wideround), mònnum becoming meennym. Short a has, lastly, been changed into the low-front-wide ( $(x)$ in a few English dialects-including the literary English.
3) Mid to low. The two mid vowels $\dot{e}$ and $o$ have in all the Teutonic languages been brought down to the low position, so that the old distinction between $\grave{e}$ and $\dot{e}$ has been lost everywhere, except, perhaps, in some German dialects: compare Old English ènde, hélpan, with the Modern levellings ènd, hèlp.
4) 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 $o$ (the mid-narrow), thus taking the place of original short $o$, which, as in the other languages, has been lowered to $o$ (the low-wide) : compare stòk with bók (=buki). The peculiar Modern English $u$ in but (bat) seems also to be a case of lowering from high to mid.
III.
TEUTONIC SHORT VOWELS.

| A |  |  |  | - | I |  |  |  | U |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |  | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 1 Gothic | mam | namo wakan | andi- | nati <br> meti- | wimnan | witan | $\begin{aligned} & \text { arighan } \\ & \text { hilpan } \end{aligned}$ | stilan | sterino | sumru | ufta | hul | fulljan |
| 2 Old Icel. | mann <br> mذ́mmem | vaka | èndi | nèt | virna | vita | drékia | stéla | sunma | stbmar | opt | hól | fylla |
| 3 Mod. Tcel. | man mœimym | raaka | èndi | nèet | Vimal | vita | drèkka | stè̀ela | symma | syymar | oft | hòol | fidla <br> Sw. fylla |
| 4 Old Engl. | mann heard long lòng | name | ende | mète | eimnen | uitan | hélpan heofor | stéla | sumne | sumor | ift | hól | fyllan |
| 5 Mid. Engl. | man <br> hard <br> long $(=0)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { name } \\ & (=\text { naam }) \end{aligned}$ | end $(=\grave{e})$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { meat } \\ & (=\text { èè }) \end{aligned}$ | Uion | wit | $\begin{aligned} & \text { help } \\ & \text { hecen } \\ & (=\grave{e}) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { steal } \\ & (=\text { èè }) \end{aligned}$ | sun | $\begin{gathered} \text { summer } \\ (=\text { sumer }) \end{gathered}$ | oft $(=\mathrm{o})$ | hole $\text { ( }=\text { hòòl })$ | fill |
| $6 \text { Mod. Engl. }$ | mæun <br> hàd lòng | néim | ènd | miit | winn | wit | hèlp hèvən | stiil | San | səmər | òft | houl | fil |

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 $a a$, all originally long vowels are now narrow in the Teutonic languages. The cause of this exceptional widening of $a a$ 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 $\partial$ in bat (mid-back-narrow). The retention 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 kèrk and several other words, and also in the South Scotch dialect of Teviotdale, where the English distinction of mon, mèn, is represented by man, man.

The change of the low-narrow $\grave{e}$ 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 lownarrow 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 vina (written vinde) and English winar, wining, German gawinan. 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, lot, with the plurals vaatan, lóoton. 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 cam from cuman with ném 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), brech (beec), brec (bece), seed (seed), lot (hlot), god (god), uoz (wes). Examples of lengthening are géiv (geaf), céim (cam), éit (at), géit (geat), yóuc (geos). 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 néim, shéim, flóut, bréic. But there are exceptions: dropa becomes drop, and hafan (=hubban) becomes haev, contrasting with the regular behéiv (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
hemar (from hamor), betar (bèter), scedl (sadol), avan (ofen), botzm (botom). There are, however, several exceptions. In the first place, all the past participles in o (except trodn) lengthen their vowel: frouzon, chóuzan, clóuzn, etc. There are also others, such as ïron (efen), óuar (ofer), eicar (acer), 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 wittem, sume, how can we escape the conclusion that he said witten, suune? 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 $i i$ and $u u$ into $e i$ and $o u$; 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 $=$ O.E. gescēlig and clit=cēle. Examples of other vowels are $t e n=O . E$. ten, wet $=\| \bar{e} t$, let $=l \bar{e} t a n, l \bar{e} t . \quad$ In ever $=\bar{e} r e r$ $=a f r e$, 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 $e e s$ 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 óó: too, O.E. tóó (too),
2) to $a a$ : too, O.E. taa (toe),
3) to $o$ 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 $u u$, while oo from aa is now óó or ólu. 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 $a a$ is often spelt on, as in oa $\sigma e=$ O.E. aribe (Lazamon), 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 00 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 $o o$ from $a a$ : it is therefore highly probable that it had in Middle English the same sound as the 00 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: óo 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 $\grave{o} \dot{o}$ of tòo from taa, 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 $\grave{o}$ from $a a$ is narrow in all the living Teutonic languages which possess it. It is, therefore, not only possible, but extremely probable that the òò soon became narrow in Middle English also: tòo and hòol 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 ecs are levelled under $i u$, 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 $c e s$ being pronounced $e e$, some $i i$, those words which are now written with $e a$ (such as sca) having the $\epsilon e$-sound, while $e e$ (as in see) had the $i i$-sound. The analogy of the oos leads us to suppose that the sixteenth century ees correspond to Middle English è̀es, and the $\ddot{i}$ s to éés. I will now give an example of the different ces, with the original Old English forms, together with those of the sixteenth century and the Middle English forms indicated by them, adding the present Euglish 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. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| s效 $\qquad$ <br> d $\bar{æ} d$ $\qquad$ <br> dreām $\qquad$ <br> grēne $\qquad$ <br> deōp $\qquad$ <br> mète $\qquad$ <br> stélan $\qquad$ | sèè $\qquad$ <br> dééd. $\qquad$ <br> drè̀̀m $\qquad$ <br> gréén $\qquad$ <br> déép. $\qquad$ <br> (mète $\qquad$ <br> mèet <br> $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { stèlan } \\ \text { stè̀l }\end{array}\right\}$ $\qquad$ | séé $\qquad$ <br> diid $\qquad$ <br> dréém $\qquad$ <br> griin. $\qquad$ <br> diip $\qquad$ <br> méét $\qquad$ <br> stéél. $\qquad$ | sii ( $\because e a)$ <br> diid (deed) <br> driim (dream) <br> griin (green). <br> diip (deep) <br> miit (meat) <br> stiil (steal) |

Reserving for the present the apparently anomalous éé of déed, 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 $\bar{o}$. $\dot{e}$, following the usual tendencies of short vowels, is lowered, and the two short es are consequently levelled under the common form $\grave{e}$, which is afterwards lengthened. All the vowels either remain or become narrow.

An important class of apparent exceptions is exemplified in $d \bar{e} d$, whose $\bar{e}$ is represented in Middle English not by $\grave{e} e$, as would be expected, but by éé. An examination of these anomalous $\bar{\mu} \mathrm{s}$ soon reveals the fact that they correspond not to Gothic and general Teutonic ai, but to Gothic $\bar{e}$, general Teutonic $\bar{a}$ (Gothic dēds, Old High German tāt). This is clearly one of the many cases in which the explanation of later English forms must be sought not in the literary WestSaxon, but rather in the Mercian dialect, in which the distinction between $\dot{e} e ́=o r i g i n a l ~ a a$ and $\grave{e}=a i$ was still kept up. In short, the Middle English dééd is descended not from dēed, but from dèd. Traces of this older éé have been preserved in West-Saxon also, not only in such words as wēn and cwēn, but also in the red of the name Alfie $\bar{e} l$, which is never written red-the regular form of the substantive re $\bar{e} d$, 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 mid-mixed-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. Nor is 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 $a i, a u$, eu, and ou.
$a i$ arises from O.E. $a g(a g), \dot{e} g, \grave{e} g, \bar{e} g, \bar{e} g$ : dai (from dagg), wai (wég), sai (sècgan), hai (hēg), clai (cl"̄̄g).
$a u$ arises from O.E. $a w, a g$ : clau (clawu), drau (dragan).
$e u$ arises from O.E. $i u, \bar{\imath} u, \bar{e} w, ~ e \bar{u} u, ~ e \bar{o} w$ : neu (niuce), speu (spīwan), leud (l̄̄ewed), heu (heāwan), cneu (cneōw).
ou (òòu, óóu) arises from O.E. āw, $\bar{o} w$ : sòòu (sāuvan), blóóu (blōwan).

The development of $a i$ from $\grave{e} i(s a i=s e ̀ i=s e ̀ c g a n)$ is paralleled by the Danish pronunciation of $e i$ (as in $v e i=v e g$ ) as $a i$, 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 $e i$ even in the Modern period, in such words as eiht, eider=eahta, ceg欠er.

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

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

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

In the combinations $i g$ and $u g$ 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 $l d, n d, m b$ (often also before $r d$ and a few other $r$-combinations). Thus Old English wilde, findan, climban, become wiild, fiind, cliimb, 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 $l d$ is rounded into $\dot{o}$, and then, in accordance with the rule just stated, lengthened, so that the Old English sealde passes through salde into solde, and finally becomes sòolde, whence the Modern sóold.

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 $\dot{o}=a$ before nasals. Most of the cases of rounding are before $n g$, the general rule being that while verb preterites keep $a$, all other words have $\dot{o}$. 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, uóómb, còòmb.

Initial $w$ influences the following vowel in various ways. Sometimes it assimilates $i$ into $u$, which then absorbs the $w$ itself, as in $s u c h=$ swich $=$ O.E. swilc. Occasionally it draws up òo to the óó-position, as in tuóó for twòo, uóómb for uòmb, contrasting with the regular wòo, wò̀d (O.E. wā, wād). Hence, by the regular changes, the Modern twou, tuu, vuum (b), wóó, wóód.

We may now sum up briefly the changes of the Middle period. $a$ is preserved, except before $l d$, where it is rounded, and $a$ and $e a$ are levelled under it.
$\grave{e}$ and $e ́$, together with eo, are levelled under $\grave{e}$.
$y$ is confounded with $i$, which remains unchanged, except that it was probably widened.
$\dot{o}$ becomes $\dot{o}$, and $\dot{o}$ is kept unchanged.
$u$ remains, although probably widened.
$a, \grave{e}$, and $\grave{o}$ are often lengthened, giving $a a, ~ \grave{e ̀}$ and $\grave{o} \partial$. It will be observed that the Old English $\dot{e}$ and $o ́$ are not lengthened into éé and óó, but pass through è and $\grave{o}$ into $\grave{e ̀}$ and $\grave{o}$.

Of the long vowels $\bar{e}, \bar{e}, \bar{y}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}$ remain unchanged.
$\bar{y}$ becomes $i i$.
$a \dot{a}$ becomes òò.

Of the diphthongs $e \bar{a}$ becomes $\grave{e} e ̀, e \bar{o}$ becomes éé.
New diphthongs are developed by the weakening of $g$ and $w$.

Unaccented vowels are levelled under 2 .
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, $i i$ and $u u$, were preserved some way into the sixteenth century; others, such as the old $a i$ and $a u$, 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, $i \ddot{i}$ and $u u$ being diphthongized, and éé and óó moved up to the high positions of $i i$ and uu, èè and $o \partial$ 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 $a i$ and $a u$, the fronting of $a$ and $a a$ into $a$, $a x e$, and the development of the peculiarly English a from $u$.
4) the Late period ( 1700 onwards), in which the long vowels of the Transition period undergo a process of lingual narrowing, cece passing through èè into éé, while éé itself becomes $i i$.
5) the Latest period, remarkable for its excessive tendency
to diphthongization, especially in the case of éé and óó, which are in the present generation almost always éi and óu.

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 $c$ 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 $b w c k=b u c k$.
$y$. 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 $\dot{e}$ (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 high-front-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 $u$, 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

[^8]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:
burden (bəədn)...O.E. byrðen...................M.E. burpen, birpen, berpen
bury (beri) .....bebyrgan ...................burien, birien, berien
busy (bizi).......bysig ......... ...........busi, bisi, besi
church (chəəch)...cyrice (early 0.E. cirice)...churche, chirche, cherche
much (məch).....mycel (early 0.E. micel)...muche(1), michel, mechel, moche
shut (shət) ........scyttan ......................schntten, schitten, schetten

There are besides two interesting words in which the $y$ sound is expressed by the digraph $u i$, which are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { build (bild).........O.E. byldan ......................................................ild, bult, gilt, gelt, bild, beld } \\
& \text { guilt (gilt) ................. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The correspondence between the Old, Modern, and Middle forms, the latter (which are taken from Stratmann's Dictionary), with their constant alternation between $u$ and $i$, requires little comment. It is quite clear that the ambiguous $u$ and $i$ were considered unsatisfactory representations of the $y$ sound, and recourse was therefore had to the digraph $u i$, which, as we see, was employed both in the Middle and Modern periods. The forms in $e$ point to a previous lowering of the $y$ to one of the $x$-positions. The of moche seems to show that there was a spoken, and not merely written form muche in the Middle period, with an anomalous change of $y$ inte $u$.

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 $y y$ in $m y y z$ (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.
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The long $y y$ 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 $y y$ of byyld may, on the other hand, be correct, for $y$ may very well have been lengthened before $l d$, as $i$ is (wiild=O.E. wilde).

The $u$ s 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 jyst is still to be heard from all uneducated and many educated speakers in the form of $j i s t$. Yet we find the artificial $u$-pronunciation already insisted on in the sixteenth century.
$i i, u u$. Although long $i i$ and $w u$ were still preserved at the beginning of the Early Modern period, they soon began to be diphthongized. Salesbury writes $e i$ and ow, as in wein (=wïn), ddow (=ڭuu), probably meaning éi, óu. There seem also to be indications of a broader pronunciation, $\partial i, \partial u$, which, as we shall see, became general in the following period. It is, then, clear that $i i$ and $u u$ were first modified by partial lowering, $i-i, u-u$, becoming $\dot{e}-i, \delta-u$, and that the
resulting diphthongs were then exaggerated by divergencea not unfrequent phenomenon.
$\grave{e} e$ éé, dò ód. The history of these vowels in Modorn English affords a striking example of the Tentonic tendency to narrow long vowels, each of them being raised a step, so that éé and óo become $i \ddot{i}$ and uu, as in diiid=Middle E. déél and suun=sóon, while èè and òo become éé, óó, as in dréém= Middle E. drè̀m and bóón=böòn (O.E. bän).
In one word, the Middle E. $\grave{o}$ has been preserved up to the present day, and, we may therefore assume, in the Early Modern period also, namely, in the adj. bròod=O.E. brād.
$a i, c u, c u$, ò $u$, óoul. The Middle English diphthongs are generally preserved, although there are traces of the simplifieation of $a i$ and au, which was fully carried out in the following period. $e u$ was also simplified into $y y$ in some words, such as tryy, nyy, while in others, such as heu, sheu, it was preserved. óóu did not, as might be expected, beeome $u u$, but its first element was kept unchanged, so that blóou ( $=0$.E. blövan) has remained unchanged up to the present day. ò̀u seems to have changed regularly into óóu, cnòou (=0.E. cnävan) becoming cnóóu: the two oous were therefore levelled.

## Quantity.

Middle English $\grave{e} e ̀$ seems to have been shortened very early in the Modern period in some words which still preserve in writing the ea=Middle E. è̀. Sueh words are dè̀f, instèd, hèd, rèld (partic.), lèld (subst.), dè̀l, brèd, and several others. Nearly all the cases, it will be observed, oceur 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 óol (=Middle E. òo ), al, talk, óolld, becoming aul, taulk, óould. The form aul is the origin of our present $\grave{o} \partial$, tò̀ $k$.

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).

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 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) :
cæn kèn wil fòli ful $>\mathrm{p}$ mit fut cææst kèèn wéél fòòl fóól - niid fuul It is clear that, as Mr. Ellis remarks, Cooper was dissatisfied with the usual pairing of $i, i i$, and $u$, $u u$ ( $f i$, $f i l$ ), and therefore tried to find the true short-narrow $i$ and $u$ in mït and fuut, where the $i i$ 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. It
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 $u u$ 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 $\dot{\partial} \dot{o}$, 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 òo and óó quite minute enough, and may therefore have disregarded the further refinement of distinguishing narrow and wide $o$.
$a$. The present $x$-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 $e$ with the French $e$ ourert, which would certainly be the nearest equivalent.
$u$. The change of the old $u$ into $a$ 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 servitcur, 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 $\partial$.

Before going any further, it will be necessary to consider the present pronunciation, or rather pronunciations, of the $a$ more closely. There are two distinct sounds of the a-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 $\partial$ 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 $v u l f$, in which the $u$ has been exceptionally retained); unrounded, this vowel would naturally become the high-back-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 $\partial$, 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 òo, are distinctly recognized. Wallis states that " $e$ profertur sono acuto claroque ut Gallorum $\dot{e}$ 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 òo-sound.
$\dot{e} i, \dot{o} u$. The diphthongization of Middle English $\ddot{i}$ and $u u$ 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 a of bot. wïn and $\delta u u$ appear, therefore, in the Transition period as wain and ${ }^{\circ}$ ou-very nearly their present form.
$a i$, au. An important change of this period, although partially dèveloped, as Mr. Ellis has shown, much earlier, is the simplification of the old diphthongs $a i$ and $a u$ 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 $\grave{o} \dot{0}$, which latter is the sound still preserved in such words as lò̀, hòok=lau, hauk, although $\grave{e}$ e, as in d $\grave{e}=d a i$, has been moved up to $e ́ e ́$, probably because the Early Modern éé has become $i i$ 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.
$a a$. Long, like short, aa was changed to the front vowel e, naam becoming nerem. The are, being a long vowel, was soon narrowed into $\grave{e}$ è, as is shown by Cooper's pairing ken ( $=$ lièn) and cane ( $=$ liè̀n) as long and short.
$y y$. Long yy, both in English words such as myy, and French such as tyyn, was diphthongized into $i u$, nyy and tyyn becoming niu and tiun. The older $y y$ 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 $y y$ is "of laborious and difficult pronunciation," especially "to the English," while Wallis considered this very $y y$-sound to be the only English pronuaciation of long $u$.

It was probably the influence of this new $i u$ that changed the older $e u$ into iu, heu, etc., becoming $h i u$, whence by consonantization of the first element of the diphthong the present thyuu.
IV.

HISTORICAL VIEW OF ENGLISH SOUND-CHANGES.

| Old English. | Middle English. | Modern English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 mann ........................... | man .................................. | men |
| sxet ( = sat) .................... | sat ............... | sxt |
| heard ( $=$ hard) .............. | hard............................... | haad |
| nama ........................... | naam ............................ | néim |
| 5 ènde ( =andi) ................. | ènd ................................ | ènd |
| hélpan ( $=$ hilpan) ......... | hèlp............................... | hèlp |
| seoton .............................. | sevel | sevan |
| mète ( $=$ mati) ................ | mèèt ............................ | miit |
| stélan ( = stilan) .............. | stèèl........... | stiil |
| 10 s $\overline{\mathrm{x}}$ ( $=$ saiw) $\ldots$................. | sè̀e ................................ | sii |
| d $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ ( ${ }^{\text {d }}$ ( $=$ dad ) ................ | dééd................................... | diid |
| dreām ( $=$ draum) .......... | drèèm ............................... | driim |
| grēne ............................... | gréén ............................... | griin |
| seō ................................ | séé ................................. | sii |
| 15 witan ............................. | wit ................................ | wit |
| hyll .................................. | hil ................................. | hil |
| win ................................. | wiin ................................ | wain |
| fyr ................................ | fiir ................................ | fair |
| oft ( = ufta) .................... | òft ................................ | oft |
| 20 on ( $=\mathrm{an}$ ) ...................... | òn ................................ | òn |
| loól ................................... | hòòl................................. | hóul |
| tā ...................................... | tòò ................................ | tóó |
| tō................................... | tóó ................................. | tuu |
| sumu..... | sun ................................ | san |
| 25 hūs ............................... | huus................................ | haus |
| dxg .................................. | dai ................................... | déi |
| sècgan .............................. | sei, sai ............................... | séi̇ |
| lagu................................ | lau ................................ | 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 $\ddot{u}$, dréem becoming drïm, the result being that the Middle English èè and éé are both confused under ïi. The word gréét = M.E. grè̀̀t (O.E. greāt) is an example of exceptional retention of the older $\dot{e}$.
$\grave{e} e ̀$ from $a a$ and $a i$ is raised to the mid-position of $\dot{e} e$, left
vacant by the change of éé into $i i$, nèem from naam and sèè from sai becoming néém and séé.
$\dot{\partial o}$ and $\dot{o} \dot{o}$ 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 óo is often shortened before stops, almost always before $k$, frequently before other stops, and occasionally before other consonants. Examples are: luik (=Middle E. lóók), tuk (tóók), buk (bóók), stud (stóód), gud (góól), fut (fơót), huf (hóóf'), buzam (bóózom).

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 ................. | haaad (hard) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ir ................ | ir ...................... | әər .................. | paad (jird) |
| èr .................. | èr ....................... | әәr .................. | swazv (swerv) |
| ur .................. | ər ...................... | əər .................. | taəf (turf) |
| òr .................. | òr....................... | òòr ................... | nòòəp (norb) |
| aar .................. | éér .... | èèr .................. | fèèr (faar) |
| air ......... ......... | éér ................... | èèr .................. | fè̀er (fair) |
| éér .................. | iir................. .... | iior (èèr) ......... | diiər, Жèer (déér, 才éér) |
| èèr.................. | iir...................... | iiər (èèr) ......... | iiər, bèèr (èer, bèèr) |
| óór $\qquad$ òòr | unor . | uuər, òòr.......... | muuər, flòor (móor, flóor) |
| òòr .................... | óór .................. | òòr ................... | mòòr (mòor) |
| ilr | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { air ..................... } \\ \text { aur ................ } \end{array}$ | aior $\qquad$ <br> aupr | faiər (tim) <br> saurr (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 fèèr the seventeenth-century sound of long $a a$ has been preserved almost unchanged, while in floorr the $r$ has not only prevented the regular change into uu, but has even lowered the vowel from the $\dot{o} \dot{o}$ - to the $\dot{o} \dot{\sigma}$-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 $e$ 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 $i r, e r$, and $u r$, 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 a in bat, and it seems most probable that the first change was to level $i r$, $e r$, and $\partial r$ under $\partial r$ (mid-back-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 $a u$, but the present forms cannot have arisen from $a u$, except, perhaps, haam from halm, which is often pronounced hòm, pointing clearly to an older haulm.

Besides $r$ and $l$, there are other consonants which tend to preserve the quality of short $a$, namely, $\mathfrak{f}, \mathrm{b}, s$ and $f$, although the $a$ is generally lengthened: faa ${ }^{\circ} \not \partial r$, paaj, graas, aask, laaf, craaft. The refined Transition pronunciation pceb, cesk, 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 scelou, felou, not sòlou, folou, neerou not narou, and gee ${ }^{\circ}$ ar


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 $\dot{\delta}$, what, swan, becoming whòt, swòn; also in dissyllables, such as swòlóu, wòlóu. The Transition forms wal, walf, wheet, were probably artificial refinements, which were never accepted by the mass of the people. ${ }^{1}$

## 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-

[^9]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 pretensious either to complete fullness or perfect accuracy. They are mere first attempts, and will require much revision.

## Diphithongization.

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 éi, éu, but I find, as regards my own pronunciation, that the second elements are not fully developed $i$ and $u$. In pronouncing óu 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 éi the tongue seems to be raised to a position half way between $\dot{e}$ and $i$ in forming the second element, not to the full bigh position of $i$.

This indistinctness of the second elements of our $\dot{e} i$ and $o u$ 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 $e e$ and $o o$ 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 $i i$ and $u u$ 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 $w=i y$, 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 $\ddot{i}$ (or rather $i y$ ) is therefore unessential, and we find, accordingly, that the first element of both iy and $u w$ is generally made wide. These curious developments are probably the result of sympathetic imitation of $e ́ i$ and $o ́ u$; 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 $a \alpha$ and $\grave{o} 0$. 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-aaz, òor. I find that $a a$ and $\grave{o} 0$, if prolonged ever so much, still have an abrupt unfinished character if this vocal murmur is omitted. The difference between lòo (written law) and lòoz (lore) is that in the former word the final $a$ is strictly diphthongic and half evanescent, while the $a$ of the second word is so clearly pronounced as almost to amount to a separate syllable. The distinction between the words written father and farther is purely imaginary.

In popular speech these diphthongs undergo many modifications. The first elements of $\dot{e} i$ and $\dot{o} u$ 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 $\ddot{e}$, and those who employ it are reproached with saying "high" instead of "hay." I find, however, that those who say hèi for héi never confuse it with hai, which many of them pronounce very broadly, giving the $a$ the low-back sound of the Scotch man.

The $\delta$ of $\dot{o} u$ 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 nóu becomes neu.

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

The two diphthongs corresponding to Middle E. ii and ut show strongly divergent tendencies in the present pronumciation. The first element of our ai is, I believe, the high-back-wide (which is also the commonest sound of the $a$ in $b \not t$ ), that of au the low-mixed-wide. In vulgar speech the distinction is still more marked, the $a$ of $a i$ being gradually lowered to the full low position, whilst the $a$ of aut is moved forward to the low-front-wide position, giving the familiar cus for haus. These exaggerations may be partly attributable to the desire to prevent confusion with the $\grave{e} i$ and $\dot{o} u$ arising. from éé and óó.

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 language. When we once know that our supposed long vowels are all diphthongs, we are forced to acknowledge that the genuine $i$ is 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. A 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 $c$ among the vulgar. It is modified by raising the tongue into the mid-front-wide, resulting in the familiar ceb for $c e b$. 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 thenc is hardly ever pronounced with $c e$, 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 $c$, original $e$ often has the thinner mid-frontwide 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 consouant 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, tell, or tè̀l, 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 hoedd and heett with the Danish hat, in which the $t$ is really short, giving a peculiarly abrupt effect to English ears.

Among the educated the form tèll is more frequent, but among the vulgar the lengthened tè̀l 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 fill 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 luaz with luus, paa $\delta$ 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 $l t$, which is really $l h t$, 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 childran and mill, 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 $y u$, giving chuldron and myulc. The diphthong in myulc is somewhat puzzling. It is not im-
possible that the older forms were chyyldron and myylc, which were then diphthongized into $y u$, which in the former word lost its $y$-consonant; or chyldron may have developed direct into chuldron.

## Notes on the Consonants. ${ }^{1}$

## H.

That initial $k$ in Old English had the same sound as it has now, and not that of the German $c h(k / h)$, 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 $k h$, 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 $k h$ was abandoned in favour of $g h$, whence the present spellings night, laugh, for the O.E. niht, hleahhan. The spelling $c h$, as in German, also occurs, and it is, at first sight, difficult to see why it was not universally adopted instead of $g h$, which ought to express, not the breath sound $k l$, but rather the corresponding voice (as in German sagen). The simplest explanation seems to be that the $c h$ was discarded in order to prevent confusion with the $c h$ 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 $r h, l h, w h, n h$, 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 $w h$.

[^10]The fact that $h r, h l$, and $h n$ drop their $h$ very early in the Transition period, seems to show that the change from the compound $h-r$, etc., to the simplified $r h$, must have already begun in the Old English period. That they did pass through the stage of simplification is clear from the spellings $r$ h, etc., as in rhof (Ormulum), lhorl (Ayenbite), and the uh still preserved.
The change from $k l$ 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 $l l$ under the voiced $l$-a change which is at the present moment being carried out with the only remaining sound of this group, the $v h$.

$$
\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{~F} .
$$

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


The German $a i t$, which is still written cid, 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 vowel.
The inferences suggested by this table are clear enough.
The English final $b$ for $\gamma$ is evidently an exceptional change, which does not appear in any of the other languages. So also is the Icelandic b in part. The majority, then, of the living Teutonic languages agree in showing $\gamma$ medially and finally and $b$ 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, bing? If the initial breath forms are the original ones, the voiced $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text {, }\end{array}$, etc., must be later modifications ; if the $\gtrdot$ of $\gamma$ at is the older, the $t$ and $b$ of ting and bing must be the later developments-in short, there must have been a period in which $b$ did not exist at all.

If we go back to the Oldest English, we find no trace of any distinction between $p$ and $\gamma$. Many of the oldest MSS. write the $\gamma$ in all eases- $\gamma$ ing, $\delta$ 'ret, bro oor, $a \delta$, while others write $b$ with equal exclusiveness. When we consider that $\gamma$ 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 $t h$ 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 $t h$, as an approximate symbol of the voiced $d l h$, but it is clear that it was considered an inaccurate representation of a voiced consonant, and was therefore abandoned in favour of $b$ or $\gamma$, which were at first employed indiscriminately.

Afterwards, when the breath sound developed itself, the two letters were utilized to express the difference, and $b$, 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 b and $\gamma$ together, often rather loosely, but always with the evident intention of writing $b$ initially, $\Varangle$ medially and finally. None of them seem to make any distinction between bing and $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { cet , etc. It is, however, clear that these }\end{aligned}$ words must have had the same voice pronunciation as they have now.

We may therefore assume three stages in the history of the English $t h$-sounds:
Early Old English ... Xing...... ðæt...... brōðor...... āð
Late Old English ... jing...... ðæt...... brōðor...... āð
Modern English ...... Jing...... ðæt...... brəðər...... óuß
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 uole, 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 $\gamma$ 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 veïn (from fana), wet 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 $\gamma$, in the present English. The words are or, tweelv, and $u$ ið, all three evidently preserved, like $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { ret, etc., }\end{aligned}$ by their excessive frequency. The pronunciations of and wib, given by some of the Early Modern authorities, are made doubtful by their recognition of ov and wix 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 $z a y$, ala, 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 $\gamma$ and $v$.

## G.

The use of $g$ for the $y$-consonant ( $j$ ) 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 $j \bar{e} r), g e$ $(=j u s)$, and the ge of geoc $(=j u k)$, geā $(=j \bar{a})$, are merely orthographical expedients for indicating this $y$-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 Tubytte (in the Chronicle), Iuliana, etc. And not only do such words as geoc alliterate with undoubted hard $g$ s in the poetry, but we even find such pairs as Juliana, gocl, showing clearly that even in foreign words $y$-consonant was liable to be changed into a sound which, if not identical with the $g$ of god, 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 ज). 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 $c g$ for $g g$, as in licgan, $c c g$, is curious. We can hardly suppose that the combination is to be understood literally as $c$ foilowed by $g$. Such a change would, at least, be entircly 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 $g g$.

Final $g$ after long vowels or consonants often becomes $h$ in Old English, which, to judge from the spelling $b \circ g h=b \bar{o} h=b \bar{o} g$, was originally vocal $(=g h)$, although it was soon devocalized. In the Transition period all medial and final $g$ s became open ( $g h$ ), as in German, Danish, and Icelandic. This $g h$ after-
wards became palatalized after front, and labialized after back vowels ( $g / w w$ ), and in many cases the palatal and labial $g h$ became still further weakened into $i$ and $u$, forming the second elements of diphthongs. After a consonant the labial $g h$ 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 óu in folóu, for which there is sixteenth century authority, as well as for folu, is anomalous. It is possible that the ól 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 $g(\zeta)$ 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 $g h$, gifan becoming glicen, as in the Dutch ghéevan, which soon became palatalized, till at last it became simple $y$-consonant, as is clearly proved by such spellings as icef=O.E. geaf (Peterborough Chronicle), yelt $=$ gylt (Ayenbite), etc.

The $g$ or $g e$, which represents original $y$-consonant in Old English, always undergoes this weakening, geoc, gé, becoming yòoc, yéé. Even when initial ge is merely the result of the diphthongization of $a$ into $e a$, it is often weakened into $y a$, as in $y a r d=$ geard $=$ gard.

The result of all these changes was, that by the beginning of the sixteenth century $g h$ was entirely lost, being either weakened into a vowel ( $i$ or $u$ ), or converted into the corresponding breath sound $k i h$, but only finally, as in dóóuh (O.E. däg), enuuh (genōg). In most cases final $g$ h (when not vowelized) was dropped entirely, as in fóou (fäg), lóóu (läg), fii (fcoh). ${ }^{1}$

In the present English lih-whether answering to O.E. $g$ or $h$-has been entirely lost. It appears from Mr. Ellis's investigations that the full $k i / h$ first became weakened to a

[^11]mere aspiration, which was soon dropped. In such words as nikt the $i$ was lengthened, niht becoming nït, whence our present nait. Final $k i /$ preceded by a rounded vowel as in lauh, emuuh, was itself naturally rounded into $k / k w$, like the $k / h$ in the German auch; hence the present laaf, enaf-laukh, lakikw, lawh, laf. For fuller details the reader must be referred to Mr. Ellis's great work.

## CH, J.

The change of $c$ into $c h$ before and after front vowels, as in chïld, tèech, from cild, t̄̄ecan, offers considerable difficulties, on account of the many intermediate stages there must have been between the back stop $c$ and the present $t s h$-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 ciild to change simply into tiild, just as gemaca becomes maat. I believe that the change from the intermediate front-stop to $t s h$ 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 $y h$ (as in huc), which is very like $s h$ in sound-hence the substitution of the easier $t s h$.

The same remarks apply also to the $d \approx h$-sound in $v e j, e j$, $r i j$, etc., from $v e c g$, ecg, hrycg.

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 ( $y h$ ). The sound is certainly not the Euglish $c h$, which the Swedes consider an unfamiliar sound. In

Norwegian the stopped element is dropped entirely, and nothing remains but a forward $y k$, 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 $c h$, as it takes place after back as well as front vowels-not only in such words as ship (=scip), but also in slum (āscunian), etc. It is therefore possible that se may have passed through the stage of skik, as in Dutch, a change which seems to be the result of the influence of the $s$, the $k i k$ instead of $k$ being, like $s$, a sibilant unstopped consonant. The Old English spellings sceacan, sceoc, etc., for scacan, scōc, 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 $s s$ in the Early Middle period.

In Swedish the sound of sh is fully developed, but only before front vowels. In Norwegian ski before front vowels changes its $k$ into $y k$ (voiceless $y$-consonant), which, as we have already seen, is the regular change, giving the combination $s-y / h$, which is generally confounded with simple sh by foreigners. These facts tend strongly to confirm the view that the change of sli 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), $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{i}, \bar{i}, y, \bar{y}$, é (eo), è, $\bar{e}, \bar{æ}=$ éé, $\bar{æ}=$ èè, e $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, ~ e \overline{0}, ~ u, \bar{u}, o, \bar{o}$. Then according to the consonant that follows the vowel in this order: $h, r, l, \gamma$, $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$; 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. The 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 romd 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 =bore) have been included in the present lists: they are all marked with a dagger.

## a, ве, ea, і̀.

oLD.
midde.
modern.

| hleahhan geseah | $\begin{aligned} & \text { lauh } \\ & \text { sau } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { laugh } \\ & \text { saw } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { laaf } \\ & \text { sòò } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eahta | eiht (ai) |  | eight | éit |
| hleahtor | lauhter | 4 | laughter | laaftor |
| sleaht | slauhter |  | slaughter | slòòtar |
| feaht | fauht |  | fought | fò̀t |
| texhte | tauht |  | taught | tòòt |
| aron | ar | 8 | are | aar |
| hara | haar |  | hare | hèrr |
| scearu | shaar |  | share | shèrr |
| starian | staar |  | stare | stèər |
| sparian | spaar | 12 | spare | spèr |
| wær | waar |  | ware (wary) | wèər |
| faran | faar |  | fare | fè̀r |
| nearu (nearw-) | naru |  | narrow | næróu |
| caru | caar | 16 | care | cè̀r |
| dear | daar |  | dare | dèər |
| tær | $\dagger$ tòor |  | tore | tòr |
| bær (adj.) | baar |  | bare | bè̀r |
| bær (pret.) $\{$ | baar | 20 | bare | bèar |
|  | $\dagger$ boòr |  | bore | bòor |
| ears | ars |  | arse | aวs |
| $\operatorname{ar}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{we}$ | aru |  | arrow | æróu |
| spearwa | sparu | 24 | sparrow | spæróu |
| gearwa | gè̀r |  | gear | gior |
| hærfest | harvest |  | harvest | haəvest |
| (ge)earnian | è̀rn |  | earn | әən |
| wearnian | warn | 28 | warn | wòzn |
| fearn | fern |  | fern | fəən |
| gearn | yarn |  | yarn | уаәп |
| earm | arm |  | arm | аəm |
| hearm | harm | 32 | harm | haəm |
| wearm | warm |  | warm | wòวm |
| swearm | swarm |  | swarm | swòzm |
| earc | arc |  | ark | аә¢ |
| ærce- | arch- | 36 | $\operatorname{arch}($ bishop $)$ | aəch- |



## $\mathbf{a}, \mathfrak{e}, \mathbf{e a}, \dot{\text { o }}$ (continued).

OLD.

| lāwerce | larc |
| :--- | :--- |
| stearc | stare |
| spearca | spare |
| mearc | mare |
| bare, N. (börkr) | barc |
| pearruc | parc |


| heard | hard |
| :--- | :--- |
| weard | ward |
| geard | yard |
| beard | bèèrd |


| $(\gamma \bar{u})$ eart | art |
| :--- | :--- |
| sweart | swart |
| cræt | cart |
| teart | tart |


| hearpe | harp |
| :--- | :--- |
| scearp | sharp |


| aal | ale | êil |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| al | all | ò̀̀l |
| hal | hall | hò̀l |
| salu | 56 | sallow |
| smal |  | small |

shal shall shæl
scaal, shaal scale, shale
stal
wal
whaal
falu
fal
nihtingaal
gal
calu
cal
daal
taal
baal

| swealwe | swalu |
| :--- | :--- |
| wealwian | walu |
| mealwe | malu |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.

| a, æ, ea, is (continued). |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ælf | elf |  | elf | elf |
| healf | half | 76 | half | haaf |
| sealfion | salv |  | salve | sælv |
| cealf | calf |  | calf | caaf |
| ælmesse | alms |  | alms | aamz |
| healm | halm | 80 | halm | hòom |
| sealm | salm |  | psalm | saam |
| hālgian | halu |  | hallow | hælóu |
| gealga | galuz |  | gallows | gælóuz |
| tælg | talu | 8.4 | tallow | tælúu |
| stealcian | stalc |  | stalk | stòòc |
| wealcan | walc |  | walk | wò̀oc |
| bealca | balc |  | balk | bò̀c |
| bealcettan | belch | 88 | belch | belch |
| alor | alder |  | alder | oòldor |
| eald | òold |  | old | ould |
| ealdormann | alderman |  | alderman | òoldəmən |
| healdan | hòold | 92 | hold | hóuld |
| sealde | sòold |  | sold | sóuld |
| fealdan | fòold |  | fold | fould |
| ceald | còold |  | cold | cóuld |
| tealde | tòold | 96 | told | tóuld |
| beald | boòld |  | bold | bóuld |
| healt | halt |  | halt | holt |
| sealt | salt |  | salt | solt |
| mealt | malt | 100 | malt | molt |
| hæ(f) ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | hap |  | hath | hæp |
| hraðor | ra才er |  | rather | raa ${ }^{\text {rar }}$ |
| hwæð ${ }^{\text {ch }}$ | whe ${ }^{\text {er }}$ |  | whether | whe ${ }^{\text {or }}$ |
| bæ૪ | bap | 104 | bath | baap |
| barian | baar |  | bathe | béir |
| рæ૪ | pap |  | path | paap |
| fæ>m | faðom |  | fathom | fæðəm |
| ea(l)swā | az | 108 | as | æz |
| assa | as |  | ass | aas |
| *hæ(f)s | haz |  | has | hæz |

$\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{e}, \mathbf{e} \mathbf{i}$ (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| læssa | les |  | less | les |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\chi_{\bar{y}} \mathrm{l}$ æs $\gamma_{\mathrm{e}}$ | lest | 112 | lest | lest |
| wæs | waz |  | was | woz |
| næs | nes |  | ness | nes |
| græs | gras |  | grass | graas |
| glæs | glas | 116 | glass | glaas |
| bræs | bras |  | brass | braas |
| æsc | ash |  | ash | æsh |
| asscian | asc |  | ask | aasc |
| ascan | ashez | 120 | ashes | æshez |
| rase N . | rash |  | rash | resh |
| wascan | wash |  | wash | wosh |
| flasce | flase |  | flask | flaasc |
| bała sic N . | basc | 124 | bask | baase |
| $\mathrm{la}(\mathrm{to}) \mathrm{st}$ | last |  | last | laast |
| læst (superl.) | lèèst |  | least | liist |
| $1 \bar{æ}$ stan | 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 |
| blǣst | blast |  | blast | blaast |
| æsp | aspen |  | aspen | æspen |
| awel | aul |  | awl | òòl |
| clawu | clau | 136 | claw | cloò |
| hafa (imper.) | hav |  | have | hæv |
| behafa | behaav |  | behave | behéiv |
| hæfen | haaven |  | haven | héiven |
| hafoc | hauc | 140 | hawk | hòò |
| stæf | staf |  | staff | staaf |
| stafas | staarz |  | staves | stéivz |
| scafan | shaav |  | shave | shéiv |
| nafu | naav | 144 | nave | néiv |
| geaf | gaav |  | gave | géiv |
| græf | graav |  | grave | gréiv |
| grafan | graav |  | grave | greiv |
| ceaf | chaf |  | chaff | chaaf |
| ceafor | chaater | 148 | (cock)chafer | cheifor |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{h} w, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.

a, ae, ea, ̀̀ (continued).

old.
middle.
modern.

| crafian | craav | crave | créiv |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| clafer | clòòver | clover | clóuvor |

hæf' (under $\gamma$ )
hræfn
raaven
raven
réivən
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { hæfde } \\ \text { hlæ̈fdige }\end{array}\right\}($ under d)

| æfter | after | 152 after | aaftor |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- |
| sceaft | shaft |  | shaft |
| cræft | craft | craft | shaaft |
|  | craaft |  |  |


| angel (hook) | angl | to angle | ængl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hangan | hang 156 | hang | hæng |
| hrang | rang | rang | ræng |
| lang | long | long | long |
| prang | prong | throng | prong |
| pwang | jong 160 | thong | jong |
| sang (pret.) | sang | sang | sæng |
| sang (subst.) | song | song | song |
| strang | strong | strong | strong |
| sprang | sprang 164 | sprany | spræng |
| wrang (pret.) | wrang | wrang | reng |
| wrang (adj.) | wrong | wrong | rong |
| fang | fang 167 | fang | frong |
| mangere | ? monger (u) | monger | məngər |
| òn gemang | ? among (u) | among | əməng |
| gang | gang | gang | gæng |
| tange | tongs | tongs | tongz |
| banga N . | bang 172 | bang | bæng |


| ancleow | ancl | ankle | æncl |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ranc | ranc | rank | rænc |
| hlanc | lanc | lank | lænc |
| bancian | panc | 176 thank | bænc |
| sanc | sanc | sank | sæne |
| scranc | shranc | shrank | shrænc |
| stanc | stanc | stank | stænc |
| dranc | dranc | 180 drank | drænc |
| Bnig | aani (a) | any | eni |
| hanep | hemp | hemp | hemp |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), ̀̀, $\bar{e}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{e} \overline{0}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o}$.

## $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{e} \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{\text { o }}$（continued）．

old．middle．moderv．

| rann | ran |  | ran | ræn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rannsaca N ． | ransac | 184 | ransack | rænsæc |
| lane | laan |  | lane | léin |
| ¢anne | $\gamma$ an |  | than | ૪æn |
| 万anne | 犭en |  | then | 〇en |
| swan | swan | 188 | swan | swon |
| gespann | span |  | span | spæn |
| wann（pret．） | †wun |  | won | won |
| wann（adj．） | wan |  | wan | won |
| wanian | waan | 192 | wane | wéin |
| hwanne | when |  | when | when |
| fana | vaan |  | vane | véin |
| mann | man |  | man | mæn |
| mane | maan | 196 | mane | méin |
| manig | maani（a） |  | many | meni |
| begann | began |  | began | begæn |
| ganot | ganet |  | ganet | gænet |
| cann | can | 200 | can | cæn． |
| crana | craan |  | crane | créin |
| bana | baan |  | bane | béin |
| gebann | ban． |  | ban | bæn |
| panne | pan | 204 | pan | pæn |
| an（d）swarian | answer |  | answer | aansər |
| anfilt | anvil |  | anvil | ænvil |
| and | and |  | and | ænd |
| hand | hand | 208 | hand | hænd |
| land | land |  | land | lænd |
| sand | sand |  | sand | sænd |
| standan | stand |  | stand | stænd |
| strand | strand | 212 | strand | strænd |
| wand N．（vöndr） | wand |  | wand | wond |
| wand（pret．） | $\dagger$ wound |  | wound | waund |
| wandrian | wander |  | wander | wondər |
| candel | candl | 216 | candle | cændl |
| band（pret．） | $\dagger$ buund |  | bound | baund |
| band（subst．）\｛ | band |  | band | bænd |
| and（subst．） | bond |  | bond | bond |
| brand | brand | 220 | brand | brænd |
| wanta， N ． | want |  | want | wont |
| plantian | plant |  | plant | plaant |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
$\boldsymbol{a}, \mathfrak{\text { e }}$, (continued).
OLD.

| ic eam | am |  | am | æm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\text { exmette }}$ | emet | 224 | emmet, ant | emet, aant |
| hamor | hamer |  | hammer | hæmor |
| ramm | ram |  | ram | ræm |
| lama (adj.) | laam |  | lame | léim |
| same | saam | 228 | same | séim |
| swamm | swam |  | swam | swæm |
| scamu | shaam |  | shame | shéim |
| fram | from |  | from | from |
| nama | naam | 232 | name | néim |
| gamen | gaam |  | game | géim |
| crammian | cram |  | cram | cræm |
| cwam | caam |  | came | céim |
| damm | dam | 236 | dam | dæm |
| tama (adj.) | taam |  | tame | téim |
| lamb | lamb |  | lamb | Iæm |
| wamb | wóómb |  | womb | wuum |
| camb | còòmb | 240 | comb | cóum |
| damp (subst.) N. | damp |  | damp (adj.) | dæmp |
| haga | hau |  | haw | hòò |
| læg | lai |  | lay | léi |
| lagu | lau | 244 | lawo | loò |
| sage | sau |  | saw | sòò |
| sagu | sau |  | saw | soo |
| slagan | slai |  | slay | sléi |
| wagian | wag |  | wag | wæg |
| fleagan | flai | 248 | flay | fléi |
| mæg | mai |  | may | méi |
| maga | mau |  | maw | mòò |
| gnagan | gnau |  | gnaw | nòò |
| dæg | dai | 252 | day | déi |
| *dagenian | daun |  | dawn | dòon |
|  | drag |  | drag | dræg |
|  | drau |  | draw | dròo |
| $f æ g(e) r$ | fair | 256 | fair | fèr |
| h ¢g(e) 1 | hail |  | hail | hél |
| snæg(e)l | snail |  | snail | snéil |
| n ¢g(e) 1 | nail |  | nail | néil |
| $t æ g(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{l}$ | tail | 260 | tail | téil |

$\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{æ}, \mathbf{e} \mathbf{a}$, ò (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| æg「er | eiðer |  | either | ii ${ }^{2}$ or <br> ai 万or |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| slæg(e)n | slain |  | slain | sléin |
| fæg(e) n | fain |  | fain | fein |
| $m æ g(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{n}$ | main | 264 | main | méin |
| ongæg(e)n | again |  | again | ogéin |
| bræg(e)n | brain |  | brain | bréin |
| sægde | said |  | said | sed |
| mægd | maid | 268 | maid | méid |
| æcer | aacr |  | acre | éicor |
| æcern | aacorn |  | acorn | éicòon |
| race | raac |  | rake | réic |
| рæс | jach | 272 | thatch | bæch |
| rannsaca N . | ransac |  | ransack | rænsæc |
| sacu | saac |  | sale | séic |
| snaca | snaac |  | snake | snéic |
| scacan | shaac | 276 | shake | shéic |
| stacu | staac |  | stalie | stéic |
| spræc | spaac |  | spake | spéic |
| spæ | $\dagger$ ¢poòc |  | spoke | spouc |
| wacan | waac | 280 | wake | weic |
| wræc | wrec |  | wreck | rec |
| nacod | naaced |  | naked | néiced |
| macian | maac |  | make | méic |
| caca N. | caac | 284 | cake | céic |
| cwacian | cwaac |  | cwake | cwéic |
| taca N . | taac |  | take | téic |
| bæc | bac |  | back | bæc |
| bacan | baac | 288 | bake | béic |
| bræc | braac |  | brake | bréc |
| bræc | $\dagger$ bròoc |  | broke | bróuc |
| blæc | blac |  | black | blæc |
| eax | $a x$ | 292 | axe | $æ x$ |
| $\underset{\bar{a} x i a n}{\operatorname{axan}}\}(\text { under } \mathrm{sc})$ |  |  |  |  |
| weax weaxan | wax |  | wax | WæX |
| fleax | flax |  | flax | flæx |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
$\mathbf{a}, \mathfrak{\text { ® }}$, ea, $\mathbf{\text { o }}$ (continued).
old.
middie.
modern.

| ædese | adis |  | addice, adze | ædz |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hæ(f)de | had | 296 | had | hed |
| hladan | laad |  | lade | lêid |
| hladan | lòd |  | load | lóud |
| hleder | lader |  | ladder | lædər |
| hlī(f)dige | laadi | 300 | lady | léidi |
| sæd | sad |  | sad | sæd |
| sadol | sadl |  | saddle | sædl |
| sceadu | shadu |  | shadow, shade | shædóu, shéid |
| wadan | waad | 304 | wade | wéid |
| fæder | fałer |  | father | faa ər $^{\text {r }}$ |
| gema(e)od | maad |  | made | méid |
| gegadorian | gaðer |  | gather | gæðər |
| tögædere | toge 欠er | 308 | together | tuge ¢ $^{\text {r }}$ |
| glæd | glad |  | glad | glæd |
| cradol | craadl |  | cradle | créidl |
| *geclǣ〕ed | elad |  | clad | clæd |
| tred | $\dagger$ trod | 312 | trod | ttrod |
| nædre | ader |  | adder | ædər |
| blæd | blaad |  | blade | bléid |
| blædre | blader |  | bladder | blædər |


| æt (prep.) | at | 316 | at | æt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| æt (pret.) | aat |  | ate | éit, et |
| hatian | hat |  | hate | héit |
| hrett | hat |  | hat | hæt |
| læt (lata) | laat | 320 | late | léit |
| bæt | $\gamma_{\text {at }}$ |  | that | $\chi_{\text {æt }}$ |
| sæt | sat |  | sat | sæt |
| sæterdæg | saturdai |  | saturday | sætedi |
| wreter | water | 324 | water | wòòtor |
| hwæt | what |  | what | whot |
| spē̄tte (pret.) | spat |  | spat | spæt |
| fret | vat |  | rat | væt |
| fīett (adj.) | fat | 328 | fat | fæt |
| flat N . | flat |  | flat | flxt |
| geat (subst.) | gaat |  | gate | géit |
| begeat (pret.) | got |  | got | got |
| gnætt | gnat | 332 | gnat | net |
| catt | eat |  | cat | eæt |
| crabba | crab |  | crab | cræb |

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

## $\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\text { e }}$, $\mathbf{0}$ (continued).

oLD.
MIDDLE.
modern.

| apa | aap | ape | éip |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- |
| happ N. | hapi | 336 happy | hæpi |
| scapan | shaap |  | shape |
| æppel | apl |  | apple |
| sæp | sap | sap | spl |
| hnæppian | nap | 340 | nap |
| geapian | gaap |  | gape |
| cnapa | cnaar |  | snave |
| papol(stān) | pebl | pebble | næp |
| géip |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

ei (ey). (All Norse.)

| ei | ai | 344 | aye | ai, éi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pei(r) N . | 万ai (ei) |  | they | réi |
| nei | nai |  | nay | néi |
| peirra N. | Xeir |  | their | 犭èr |
| heil | hail | 348 | hail! | héil |
| reisa | raiz |  | raise | réiz |
| hrein N. <br> swein | $\begin{aligned} & \text { rain(déér) } \\ & \text { swain } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { rein(deer) } \\ & \text { swain } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { réin(dior) } \\ & \text { swéin } \end{aligned}$ |
| steic weic | stèèc wèèc | 352 | steak <br> weak | stéic wiic |
| beita | bait |  | bait | béit |
| deyja | dii |  | die | dai |

rā
lā
slā
swā
wā
hwā
ròò
lò̀
slòo
sòò
wòò
hwóó
ròò
lòò
slòo
sòò
wòò
hwóó
$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$.
$h ; r, h r, l, h l ; \gamma, s, w, h w, f ; n g, n, m ; g, c, d, t, b, p$.
in (continued).

| old. | middie. |  | MODERN. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| frā N . | fròo |  | (to and) fro | fról |
| nā | nòò |  | no | nóu |
| (ic) ga | gòo | 364 | go | góu |
| dà | dơò |  | doe | dón |
| tā | toò |  | toe | tou |
| twã | twóó |  | two | tuu |
| ähte | òouht | 368 | ought |  |
| (n)āht | (n)auht |  | (n) anght | (n)òot |
| (n)aht |  |  | not | not |
| hāl $\quad$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { hoòl } \\ \text { hwòl }\end{array}\right.$ |  | whole | hóul |
| ( | haal | 372 | hale | heil |
| hālgian (under a) māl | mòòl |  | mole | móul |
| gedā] | dòol |  | dole | dóul |
| $\overline{\mathrm{ar}}$ | òòr |  | oar | òar |
| hār | hoòr | 376 | hoar | hòrr |
| rārian | ròor |  | roar | ròzr |
| lār | lòr |  | lore | lòr |
| sār | soòr |  | sore | sòər |
| māre | môor | 380 | more | mòzr |
| gāre | goòr |  | gore | gòər |
| geāra | yòor |  | yore | yòr |
| bār | boòr |  | boar | bòar |
| hlā(f)ord | lord | 384 | lord | lòad |
| a ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | òò |  | oath | óņ |
| wrā | wrap |  | wrath | raap |
| ma. | wròo ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | wroth | rò $(\hat{o})$ b |
| lāXian | loor | 388 | loathe. | lóur |
| nā(n) piog | noping |  | nothing | noping |
| clāð | clop |  | cloth | clóo ${ }^{\text {o }}$ ) b |
| clāłian | cloò ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  | clothe | clón欠 |
| bāłir, N. | bòo ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 392 | both | bóņ |
| hās | hòòrs |  | hoarse | hòozs |
| ārās | aròoz |  | arose | อróuz |
| păs | ૪òòz |  | those | ¢óuz |
| *hwās | whòzz | 396 | $u$ hoose | huuz |

[^12]| $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ (continued). |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| old. | middle. |  | modern. |
| āscian (under a) |  |  |  |
| *māst | mòost | most | móust |
| gāst | goòst | ghost | góust |


| lāwerce (under a) |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pāwan | bau | 400 | thaw |
| brāwan | jrò̀u | throw | bòò |
| sāwan | sò̀u | sow | bróu |
| snāw | snòòu | snow | sóu |
| māwan | mòòu | 404 mow | snóu |
| crāwan | cròòu | crow | móu |
| cnāwan | cnòou | hinow | cróu |
| blāwan | blòòu | blow | nóu |
|  |  |  | blóu |

sāwl sòòul 408 soul̃ sóul

| $\overline{\text { anw }}$ ¢er $(=\bar{a} h$ | ) or |  | or | òər |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gesãw(e)n | soòun |  | sown | sóun |
| gefrāw(e)n | proooun |  | thrown | próun |
| gecnāw(e)n | cnoòun | 412 | known | nóun |


| ```hlāf hläford (under r) dräf``` | loof |  | loaf | lónf |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | drove | drouv |
| ān | òòn, an, a |  | one, an, a | won, on, ə |
|  |  | 416 | only |  |
| $\operatorname{lan} \mathrm{N}$. | loòn |  | loan | lóun |
| nān | nòon |  | none | nən |
| scān | shòon |  | shone | shon |
| stān | stòon | 420 | stone | stóun |
| ? mānian | mòon |  | moan | móun |
| gegān (part.) | goòn |  | gone | gon |
| grānian | gròòn |  | groan | groun |
| bān | boòn | 424 | bone | bóun |
| hām | hòòm |  | home | hóum |
| lām | lòom |  | loam | lóum |
| hwām | whóom |  | whom | huum |
| fām | foom | 428 | foam | foum |
| clām | clami |  | clammy | clemi |

$h ; r, h r, l, h l ; \gamma, s, w, ~ h r s, f ; n g, n, m ; g, c, d, t, b, p$.
$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ (continued).

| OLD. | middle. |  | modern. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| àgan | òòu |  | owe | óu |
| lāg | lòou |  | low | lóu |
| fāg | fòo | 432 | foe | fóu |
| dāg | dòouh |  | dough | dóu |
| $\bar{a} g(e) n$ | òoun |  | own | óun |
| àc | òòc |  | oak | óuc |
| (wed)lāc | (wed)loc | 436 | (wed)lock | (wed)loc |
| strācian | stròoc |  | strole | stróuc |
| spāca | spôòc |  | spoke | spóuc |
| tācen | tôacen |  | token | tóucan |
| -hād | -hóód | 440 | (man)hood | -hud |
| rād | ròod |  | rode, road | róud |
| lād | lòod(stoòn) |  | load(stone) | lóud(stóun) |
| wād | wòod |  | woad | wóud |
| gād | gòod | 444 | goad | goud |
| tāde | tood |  | toad | tóud |
| ābād | aboòd |  | abode | ebóud |
| brād | broòd |  | broad | brood |
| ? $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{dl}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\bar{a}$ te | oòts | 448 | oats | ónts |
| hāt | hot |  | hot | hot |
| swāt (under $\overline{\text { ¢ }}=$ èè $)$ |  |  |  |  |
| wät | wot |  | wot | wot |
| wrāt | wròot |  | wrote | róut |
| gāt | gòot | 452 | goat | gout |
| bāt | bòot |  | boat | bout |
| rãp | ròop |  | rope | róup |
| sāpe | sòop |  | soap | sóup |
| swāpan (under $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=$ éé) |  |  |  |  |
| grāpian | groop | 456 | grope | gróup |
| pāpa | poòp |  | pope | póup |

## i.

| riht | riht | right | rait |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gelīhtan | liht | (a)light | lait |


i (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| gesih $\gamma$ | siht | 460 | sight | sait |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wiht | wiht |  | wight | wait |
| wint \{ | whit |  | whit | whit |
| niht | niht |  | night | nait |
| miht | miht | 464 | might | mait |
| cniht | cniht |  | knight | nait |
| briht | briht |  | bright | brait |
| pliht | pliht |  | plight | plait |
| hire | hir (e) | 468 | her | həər |
| scire | shiir |  | shire | shiiər, shaiər |
| stīgrāp <br> cirice (under y) | stirup |  | stirrup | stirop |
| mirh $\gamma$ | mir $\}$ |  | mirth | тәә |
| wirsa (under y) |  |  |  |  |
| hirde | herd | 472 | (shep)herd | (shep) $\mathrm{O}^{\text {d }}$ |
| *pirda (= pridda) | pird |  | third | pəəd |
| *bird( $=$ bridd $)$ | bird |  | bird | bəəd |
| ill N. | il |  | ill | il |
| scilling | shiling | 476 | shilling | shiling |
| scil N. | scil |  | skill | scil |
| stille | stil |  | still | stil |
| spillan | spil |  | spill | spil |
| willa | wil | 480 | will | wil |
| wilig | wilu |  | willow | wilóu |
| gillan | yel |  | yell | jel |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { til N. } \\ \text { tilian } \end{array}(\text { prep } .)\right\}$ | til |  | till | til |
| bill | bil | 484 | bill | bil |
| film(en) | film |  | fim | film |
| seoloc | silc |  | silk | silc |
| swilc (under c) |  |  |  |  |
| hwile (under c) meolc | mile |  | milk | milc |
| scild | shiild | 488 | shield | shiild |
| wilde | wiild |  | wild | waild |
| milde | miild |  | mild | maild |

$$
\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{~m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{p} .
$$

i (continued).
OLD.
MIDDLE.
MODERN.

$a(x$ ea ei $), i, e(e 0), \dot{̀}, \bar{e}, \overline{x^{\prime}}, e \bar{a}, e \overline{0}, u, 0$.
i (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| cliwe <br> tiwes dæg | cleu teuzdai | 528 | clew Tuesilay | cluu <br> tyuuzdi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ifig | iivi |  | $i v y$ | aivi |
| lifian | liv |  | live | liv |
| lifer | liver |  | liver | livor |
| sife | siv | 532 | sieve | siv |
| stif | stif |  | stiff | stif |
| wifel | wiivil |  | weevil | wiival |
| gif | if |  | if | if |
| gifan | giv | 536 | give | giv |
| clif | clif |  | cliff | clif |
| drifen | driven |  | driven | drivan |
| 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 |
| ping | fing |  | thing | jing |
| singan | sing |  | sing | sing |
| swingan | swing | 548 | swing | swing |
| stingan | sting |  | sting | sting |
| springan | spring |  | spring | spring |
| wēng N. ( $\overline{\text { EXngr }}$ ) | wing |  | wing | wing |
| finger | finger | 552 | finger | fingor |
| cringan | crinj |  | cringe | crinj |
| clingan | cling |  | cling | cling |
| bringan | bring |  | bring | bring |
| sincan | sine | 556 | $\sin k$ | sinc |
| slincan | sline |  | $\operatorname{slink}$ | slinc |
| scrincan | shrine |  | shrink | shrine |
| stincan | stinc |  | stink | stine |
| wincian | winc | 560 | wink | wine |
| drincan | drinc |  | drink | drinc |
| twinclian | twincl |  | twinkle | twincl |
| in(n) | in |  | $i n(n)$ | in |
| rinnan | run | 564 | run | ron |
| linn | linen |  | linen | linen |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \Varangle, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
i (continued).
OLD. Midle. modern.

| scin(bān) | shin |  | shin | shin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| scinn N . | scin |  | skin | scin |
| spinnan | spin | 568 | spin | spin |
| gewinnan | win |  | win | win |
| windwian | winu |  | winnow | winóu |
| finn | fin |  | fin | fin |
| beginnan | begin | 572 | begin | begin |
| cinne | chin |  | chin | chin |
| tinn | tin |  | tin | tin |
| getwinnan | twinz |  | twins | twinz |
| binn | bin | 576 | bin | bin |
| hinde | hiind |  | hind | haind |
| hindema | hindermòost |  | hindermost | hindermóust |
| rind | riind |  | rind | raind |
| lind | linden | 580 | linden | lindon |
| sinder | sinder |  | cinder | sindar |
| spindel | spindl |  | spindle | spindl |
| wind | wind |  | wind | wind |
| windan | wiind | 584 | wind | waind |
| windauga N . | windu |  | window | windóu |
| windwian (under | n). |  |  |  |
| findan | find |  | find | faind |
| grindan | griind |  | grind | graind |
| bindan | biind | 588 | bind | baind |
| blind | bliind |  | blind | blaind |
| stintan | stint |  | stint | stint |
| winter | winter |  | winter | wintor |
| flint | flint | 592 | fint | flint |
| minte | mint |  | mint | mint |
| him | him |  | him | him |
| rima | rim |  | rim | rim |
| $\lim$ | limb | 596 | limb | lim |
| swimman | swim |  | swim | swim |
| wifman | wuman |  | woman | wumən |
| wifmen | wumen (i) |  | women | wimen |
| grimm | grim | 600 | grim | grim |
| dimm | $\operatorname{dim}$ |  | dim | dim |
| climban | cliimb |  | climb | claim |
| timber | timber |  | timber | timbər |



OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| icgland | iiland | 604 | island <br> hie | ailond hai |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| higian | hii |  |  |  |
| licgan | lii |  | lie | lai |
| frigedæg | friidai |  | Friday | fraidi |
| nigon | niin | 608 | nine | nain |
| tigel | tiil |  | tile | tail |
| twig | twig |  | twig | twig |
| ic | ich, ii |  | $I$ | ai |
| -lic | -li | 612 | (like)ly | -li |
| liccian | lic |  | lick | lic |
| picce | pic |  | thick | bic |
| stician | stic |  | stick | stic |
| gestricen | stricen | 616 | stricken | stricon |
| swi(l)c | such |  | such | soch |
| wicu | wiic |  | week | wiic |
| wicce | wich |  | witch | wich |
| hwi(l)c | which | 620 | which | which |
| ficol | ficl |  | fickle | ficl |
| flicce | flich |  | flitch | flich |
| micel | much |  | much | mach |
| gicel | (iis)icl | 624 | (ic)icle | (ais)icl |
| cwic | cwic |  | quick | cwic |
| bicce | bich |  | bitch | bich |
| pic | pich |  | pitch | pich |
| prician | pric | 628 | prick | pric |
| six | six |  | six | six |
| betwix | betwixt |  | betwixt | betwixt |
| hider | hiðer |  | hither | hiłəər |
| riden | riden | 632 | ridden | ridn |
| hlid | ${ }^{\circ}$ lid |  | lid | lid |
| pider | ¢iłer |  | thither | Xiłar |
| pridda (under r) |  |  |  |  |
| widuwe | widu |  | widow | widóu |
| hwider | whiser | 636 | whither | whi'or |
| biden | biden |  | bidden | bidn |
| bridd (under r) |  |  |  |  |
| *wid <br> tōmiddes | wid $\}$ |  | width | width |
| tōmiddes | midst |  | midst | midst |
| hit | it | 640 | it | it |
| hitta N . | hit |  | hit | hit |

$$
\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{~m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{p} .
$$

i (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| sittan | sit |  | bit | sit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sliten | slit |  | slit | slit |
| slìtan |  |  | stit | slit |
| smiten | smiten | 644 | smitten | smitn |
| gewitt | wit |  | wit | wit |
| witan | wit |  | wit | wit |
| writen | writen |  | written | ritn |
| git | yit (e) |  | yet | yet |
| begitan | get | 648 | get | get |
| edwītan | twit |  | twit | twit |
| bite | bit |  | bit | bit |
| biter | biter |  | bitter | bitor |
| ribb | rib | 652 | rib | rib |
| sibb | (go)sip |  | (gos) sip | (go)sip |
| cribb | crib |  | crib | crib |
| lippa | $\operatorname{lip}$ |  | $l i p$ | $\operatorname{lip}^{1}$ |
| slīpan | slip | 656 | slip | slip |
| scip | ship |  | ship | ship |
| -scipe | -ship |  | (wor)ship | -ship |
| gripe | grip |  | grip | grip |
| clippa N . | clip | 660 | clip | clip |

E.
bī bii by bai
gelīhtan (under i )

| irland | iirland |  | Ireland | aiələnd |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| iren | iiron |  | iron | aion |
| scïr | (shiir) | 664 | sheer | shior |
| wir | wiir |  | wire | waior |
| smīla N . | smiil |  | smile | smail |
| wîle | wiil |  | wile | wail |
| hwīl | whiil | 668 | while | whail |
| fīl | fil |  | file | fail |
| mīl | miil |  | mile | mail |
| lī l | liið |  | lithe | laił |
| strī ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | striif | 672 | strife | straif |

$a(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, è, $\bar{x}$, eā, eō, u, o.
i (continued).
old. Middle. modern.

| wrīban blỉe | wrii $>$ <br> blii ${ }^{\gamma}$ |  | writhe blithe | rai> <br> blai§ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| is arīsan <br> wīs wīsdōm | iis <br> ariiz <br> wiiz <br> wizdom | 676 | ice <br> arise <br> wise <br> wisdom | ais <br> əraiz <br> waiz wizdəm |
| stīweard <br> spīwan | steuard speu | 680 | stcward spew | styuuəd <br> spyuu |
| lif <br> prīfan <br> scrīfan <br> stīf <br> wif <br> fīf <br> cnif <br> drīfan | liif <br> priiv <br> shriiv <br> stif <br> wiif <br> fiiv <br> cniif <br> driiv | 684 | life thrive strive stiff wife five knife drive | laif <br> praiv <br> shrair <br> stif <br> waif <br> faiv <br> naif <br> drair |

wïfman (under im)


$$
\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{~m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{p} .
$$

$\overline{1}$ (continued).
old. middle. modern.

| mīgan | mii | mie | mii |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rîce <br> gelīc | rich <br> liic | 708 | rich |
| like | rich |  |  |
| laic |  |  |  |


| -līe (und |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sīcan | siih |  | sigh | sai |
| snīcan | snè̀k |  | sneali | sniic |
| strican | striic |  | strike | straic |
| die | diic | 712 | dyke | daic |
|  | dich |  | ditch | dich |
| idel | iidl |  | idle | aidl |
| rīdan | riid |  | ride | raid |
| side | siid | 716 | side | said |
| slìdan | sliid |  | slide | slaid |
| wid | wiid |  | wide | waid |
| glīdan | gliid |  | glide | glaid |
| cīdan | chiid | 720 | chide | chaid |
| tīd | tiid |  | tide | taid |
| bidan | biid |  | bide | baid |
| brīdels | briidl |  | bridle | braidl |

slitan (under i)

| smitan | smiit | 724 | smite | smait |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| writan | wriit |  | writc | rait |
| hwit | whiit |  | white | whait |
| bītan | biit |  | bite | bait |
| rīpe | riip | 728 | ripe | raip |
| ripan | rèèp |  | reap | riip |
| slipan | slip |  | slip | slip |
| grīpan | grip |  | gripe | graip |

v.

| flyht byht | $\begin{aligned} & \text { fliht } \\ & \text { biht } \end{aligned}$ | 732 | fight bight | $\begin{aligned} & \text { flait } \\ & \text { bait } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| styrian cyrice | stir chur |  | stir church | stəər chəəch |


|  |  | (cont | inued). |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| old. | Midd |  |  | Rn. |
| byrig | -byri | 736 | (Canter)bury | -bori |
| wyrhta | wriht |  | wright | rait |
| byrlian (under |  |  |  |  |
| byr 欠en | burden |  | burden | bәәdn |
| wyrsa | wurs |  | vorse | wวəs |
| fyrs | furz | 740 | furze | fəəz |
| pyrstan | pirst |  | thirst | poost |
| fyrsta | first |  | first | foost |
| wgrm | wurm |  | worm | พววm |
| bebyrgan | byri | 744 | bury | beri |
| wyrcan | wure |  | work | wәว¢ |
| myrc | mirci |  | mirky | məəсі |
| wyrd (subs.) | wiird |  | wierd (adj.) | wiad |
| gebyrd | birp | 748 | birth | Вәәр |
| scyrta N. $\{$ | skirt |  | skirt | skəat |
| yra N . | shirt |  | shirt | shəot |
| wyrt | wurt |  | wort | wəət |
| ? yfel (see ill) | il | 752 | ill | il |
| hyll | hil |  | hill | hil |
| pyrlian | pril |  | thrill | pril |
| syll | sil |  | sill | sil |
| mylen | mil | 756 | mill | mil |
| fyllan | fil |  | fill | fil |
| bylgja N. | bilu |  | billow | bilóu |
| fȳl $¢$ | fill |  | filth | filb |
| gyldan | gild | 760 | gild | gild |
| byldan | byld (i) |  | build | bild |
| gylt | gilt |  | guilt | gilt |
| cy $¢ \gamma$ | cib |  | kith (and kin) | cij |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \underset{\mathrm{f}}{\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p} .}$
$\mathbf{y}$ (continued).

| old. | middle. |  | modern. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cyssan | cis | 764 | kiss | cis |
| bysig | byzi |  | busy | bizi |
| wȳscan | wish |  | wish | wish |
| lystan | list |  | list(less) | list |
| fyst | fist | 768 | fist | fist |
| clyster | cluster |  | cluster | clastor |
| treysta N . | tryst (u) |  | trust | trost |
| yfel | ? èèvel |  | evil | iivl |
| lyftan | lift | 772 | lift | lift |
| cyng | cing |  | king | cing |
| ynce | inch |  | inch | inch |
| byncan | binc |  | think | jinc |
| bynne | bin | 776 | thin | bin |
| synn | $\sin$ |  | $\sin$ | $\sin$ |
| cynn | cin |  | kin | cin |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { cyning (under } n g \text { ) } \\ & \text { dyne } \end{aligned}$ | din |  | din | din |
| mynster | minster | 780 | minster | minstor |
| gemynd | miind |  | mind | maind |
| gecynde | ciind |  | kind | caind |
| tynder | tinder |  | tinder | tindər |
| byndel | bundl | 784 | bundle | bəndl |
| mynet | $\min t$ |  | $\min t$ | mint |
| dynt | dint |  | dint | dint |
| trymman | trim |  | trin | trim |
| cymlic | cumli | 788 | comely | camli |
| hrycg | rij |  | ridge | rij |
| lyge | lii |  | lie | lai |
| flycge (adj.) | flejd |  | fledged | flejd |
| myeg | mij | 792 | $m i j$ | mij |

$$
\mathrm{a}(æ \text { ea ei), i, é(eo), ̀̀, } \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \bar{x}, \text { eā, e } \overline{0}, \mathrm{u}, \text { o. }
$$

$\mathbf{y}$ (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| dryge | drii |  | $d r y$ | drai |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bycgan | byy |  | buy | bai |
| bryeg | brij |  | bridge | brij |
| ?lycei N. | luc | 796 | luck | loc |
| bycce | pic |  | thick | pic |
| mycel | much (i) |  | much | məch |
| cycen | chicen |  | chickens | chicen |
| cycene | cichen | 800 | kitchen | cichen |
| cryce | cruch |  | crutch | croch |
| fyxen | vixen |  | eixen | vixən |
| gehy ${ }^{\text {y }}$ ded | hid |  | hid | hid |
| dyde | did | 804 | did | did |
| lytel | litl |  | little | litl |
| scytel | shutl |  | shuttle | shotl |
| scyttan | shut (i) |  | shut | shat |
| spyttan | spit | 808 | spit | spit |
| flytja N。 | flit |  | flit | flit |
| cnyttan | cnit |  | knit | nit |
| pytt | pit |  | pit | pit |
| clyppan | clip | 812 | clip | clip |
| dyppan | dip |  | dip | dip |

$$
\overline{\mathbf{y}}
$$


fȳlð (under $\mathbf{y}$ )
hȳð hiið 820 hithe haið
$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.

OLD.
Middle.
MODERN.
c $\overline{\mathbf{y}} \gamma$ (under $\bar{y}$ )

| lýs | liis | lice | lais |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| my̆s | miis | mice | mais |
| fy̆st (under $\bar{y})$ |  |  |  |

wŷscan (znder 5 )

| hīd | hiid |  | hide | haid |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hȳdan | hiid | 824 | hide | haid |
| brỳd | briid |  | bride | braid |
| prȳte | priid |  | pride | praid |

## é, e©.

| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{ke}(=\mathrm{se}) \\ & ? \mathrm{bleoh}(=b l u e) \end{aligned}$ | re |  | the | $\chi_{\text {e, }} \chi_{\text {д }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| leōht | liht | 828 | light | lait |
| feohtan | fiht |  | fight | fait |
| smerian | smèèr |  | smear | smiar |
| sceran | shèèr |  | shear | shiər |
| steorra | star | 832 | star | star |
| spere | spèer |  | spear | spior |
| feorr | far |  | far |  |
| merg ( $a d j$.) | meri |  | merry | meri |
| teran | tè̀r | 836 | tear | tèr |
| teru | tar |  | tar | tar |
| beran bera | bèer |  | bear | bè̀r |

beorht (see briht)

| merh $\gamma$ | mirb |  | mirth | məә弓 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eor' ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | èèr | 840 | earth | әә弓 |
| heor $\gamma$ | hèèr ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | hearth | haz |
| weor ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | wurb |  | worth | шәว! |
| feor ¢ling | far ¢ing |  | farthing | faə $\mathrm{xing}^{\text {g }}$ |
| *dēr ¢ | deèrs | 844 | dearth | дәәј |

é, eब (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. NODERN.

| eorl ceorl | èèrl churl |  | earl <br> churl | әəl <br> chəol |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cerse (under s) perscan fersc (under sc) | prash |  | thrash | præsh |
| berstan | burst | 848 | burst | boast |
| ceorfan | carv |  | carve | caər |
| sweorfan | swerv |  | swerve | swəəv |
| steorfan | starv |  | starve | staəv |
| eornan | run | 852 | run | rən |
| eornost | èernest |  | carnest | oənest |
| leornian | lè̀rn |  | learn | loan |
| speornan | spurn |  | spurn | spəәп |
| gernan | yè̀rn | 856 | yearn | yəəп |
| beornan | burı |  | burn | bəən |
| beorma | barm |  | barm | baəm |
| dweorg | dwarf |  | duarf | dwòzf |
| beorg | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ? (iis)berg } \\ & \text { baru } \end{aligned}$ | 860 | (ice)berg barrow | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (ais)bəog } \\ & \text { bæróu } \end{aligned}$ |
| weore | wure |  | work | wəəc |
| deorc | dare |  | dar\% | dаәс |
| beorce | birch | 864 | birch | bәəch |
| beorcan | bare |  | bark | baәe |
| hērcnian | hare |  | hark | haəc |
| hercnian | hèèrcen |  | hearken | haəcen |
| sweord | swurd | 868 | sword | sòòad |
| heort | hart |  | hart | hart |
| heorte | hèèrt |  | heart | hart |
| swellan | swel |  | swell | swel |
| smella N. | smel | 872 | smell | smel |
| stelan | stèèl |  | steal | stiil |
| spellian | spel |  | spell | spel |
| wel | wel |  | well | wel |
| wela | wèèl | 876 | weal | wiil |
| fell | fel |  | fell | fel |

$h ; r, h r, l, h l ; \gamma, s, w, h w, f ; n g, n, m ; g, c, d, t, b, p$.
é, eо (eontinued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| fēlagi N . | felu |  | fellow | felóu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| melu | mèèl |  | meal | miil |
| geolo | yelu | 880 | yellowo | yelóu |
| cwelan | ewail |  | quail | ewéil |
| belle | bel |  | bell | bel |
| seolh | sèel |  | seal | siil |
| self | self | 884 | self | self |
| seolfor | silver |  | silver | silver |
| delfan | delv |  | delve | delv |
| twelf | twelv |  | twelve | twelv |
| elm | elm | 888 | elm | elm |
| helm | helm |  | helm | helm |
| swelgan | swalu |  | swallow | swolóu |
| belgan | belu |  | bellow | belóu |
| seoloe | sile | 892 | silk | silc |
| weoloe | whele |  | whelk | whele |
| meolc | mile |  | milk | mile |
| geolca | yole |  | yolk | yóue |
| heōld (pret.) | held | 896 | held | held |
| seldon | seldom |  | seldom | seldom |
| feld | fiild |  | field | fiild |
| smeltan | smelt |  | smelt | smelt |
| gefèled | felt | 900 | felt | felt |
| meltan | melt |  | melt | melt |
| helpan | help |  | help | help |
| gelpan | selp |  | yelp | jelp |
| le Cer | lèèrer | 904 | leather | le 欠or |
| we ${ }^{\text {er }}$ | we Ser |  | wether | we'ter |
| beneo $\mathrm{ran}^{\text {a }}$ | bencèp |  | beneath | beniip |
| brȩ̄er | brełren |  | brethren | brexren |
| cerse | cres | 908 | cress | cres |
| blētsian | bles |  | bless | bles |
| wesle | wèèzəl |  | weasel | wiizl |
| besma | bezom. |  | besom | bezom |


é, eo (continued).
old.
middLe.
MODERN.

| prescan fersc | presh fresh |  | thresh fresh | præsh <br> fresh |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sweostor | sister |  | sister | sistor |
| nest | nest |  | nest | nest |
| cest | chest | 916 | chest | chest |
| efen | èèven |  | even | iivn |
| heofon | hèèven |  | heaven | hevn |
| seofan | seven |  | seven | sern |
| wefan | wèèv | 920 | weave | wiiv |
| fefer | fèever |  | fever | fiivor |
| $p \mathrm{e} \mathrm{f} \times$ | beft |  | theft | peft |
| hēng | hung |  | hung | hung |
| tēn | ten | 924 | ten | ten |
| begeondan | beyond |  | beyond | beyond |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { eom (see eam) } \\ & \text { brēmel } \end{aligned}$ | brambl |  | bramble | bræmbl |
| weg | wai |  | way | wéi |
| be(de)gian | beg | 928 | beg | beg. |
| plega | plai |  | play | pléi |
| $\operatorname{leg}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{r}$ | lair |  | lair | lèèr |
| $\operatorname{seg}(\mathrm{e}) 1$ | sail |  | sail | séil |
| reg(e)n | rain | 932 | rain | réin |
| geleg(e)n | lain |  | lain | léin |
| jeg(e)n | paan |  | thane | féin. |
| tweg(e)n | twain |  | twain | twéin |
| breg(e)n | brain | 936 | brain | bréin |
| ? blegen | blain |  | (chill)blain | bléin |
| bregdan | braid |  | braid | bréid |
| sprecan | spèèc |  | speak | spiic |
| wrecan | wrèèc | 940 | wreak | rec |
| brecan | breec |  | break | breic |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \underset{\mathrm{l}}{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
é, ео (continued).
OLD. MIDLLE. MODERN.

| nēxt | next |  | next | next |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bēenian | becon |  | beckion | becən |
| weder | wèèłer | 944 | weather | weðər |
| feded | fed |  | fed | fed |
| medu | mèèd |  | mead | miid |
| cnedan | cnèed |  | knead | niid |
| tredan | trèed | 948 | tread | tred |
| gebed | bèed |  | bead | biid |
| breded | bred |  | bred | bred |
| blèded | bled |  | bled | bled |
| etan | èèt | 952 | eat | iit |
| let (pret.) | let |  | let | let |
| fetor | feter |  | fetter | fetor |
| setlian | setl |  | settle | setl |
| nebb | nib | 956 | $n i b$ | nib |
| scāphirde | shepherd |  | shepherd | shepəd |
| *dēp ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | depp |  | depth | depp |
| pepor | peper |  | pepper | рерər |
| slāpte | slept | 960 | slept | slept |


| èrian | èèr |  | ear | iər |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| swèrian | swèèr |  | swear | swèər |
| wèrian | wè̀è |  | wear | wèor |
| mère ( sm. ) | mè̀r | 964 | mere | miar |
| mère ( $s f$. ) | maar |  | mare | mèər |
| mèrran | mar |  | mar | mar |
| bère | bar- |  | bar-ley | baoli |
| bèrige | beri | 968 | berry | beri |
| $\overline{\mathrm{Pr}} \mathrm{r}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{st}$ | erst |  | erst | əəst |
| merse | marsh |  | marsh | maosh |


è (continued).
OLD.
MIDDLE.
MODERN.

| hèrwe | haru |  | harrow | hærou |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bèrn( $=$ bère-wrn) | barn | 972 | barn | baən |
| smèrcian | smirc |  | smirk | sməә¢ |
| gèrd gèrdels | $\underset{\text { girdl }}{\text { yard }}$ |  | yard girdle | yaəd gəәdl |
| begèrded | girt | 976 | girt | gəət |
| è(nd)lufon | eleven |  | eleven | elevan |
| hèll | hel |  | hell | hel |
| sèllan | sel |  | sell | sel |
| gesälig | sili | 980 | silly | sili |
| scèll | shel |  | shell | shel |
| wèl | wel |  | well | wel |
| fèllan | fel |  | fell | fel |
| cwèllan \{ | cwel | 984 | quell | cwel |
| dwèlja N. | $\stackrel{\text { cil }}{\text { dwel }}$. |  | kill | ${ }^{\text {cil }}$ |
| tèllan | tel |  | tell | tel |
| èlles | els | 988 | else | els |
| wèlsc | welsh |  | Welsh | welsh |
| scèlfe | shelf |  | shelf | shelf |
| èln | el |  | ell | el |
| tèlg | talu | 992 | tallow | trlou |
| bèlg | beluz |  | bellows | belóuz |
| belg | beli |  | belly | beli |
| èldest | eldest |  | eldest | eldest |
| gewèldan | wiild | 996 | wield | wiild |
| gèlda N . | geld |  | geld | geld |
| bèlt | belt |  | belt | belt |
| hwèlp | whelp |  | whelp | whelp |
| flyse | flesh | 1000 | flesh | flesh |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \mathrm{\gamma}, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
e (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei$), \mathrm{i}$, é (eo $), \dot{e}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{x}}, \mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{o}}, \mathrm{u}, \mathbf{0}$.
e (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| pèning | peni |  | penny | peni |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| clæ̈nsian | ? clènz | 1036 | cleansc | clenz |
| ènde | end |  | end | end |
| gehènde | handi |  | †handy | hændi |
| hrèndan | rend |  | rend | rend |
| sèndan | send | 1040 | send | send |
| spèndan | spend |  | spend | spend |
| wèndan | wend |  | wend | wend |
| bèndan | bend |  | bend | bend |
| blèndan | blend | 1044 | blend | blend |
| hrènded | rent |  | rent | rent |
| lèn(c)ten | lent |  | lent | lent |
| sended | sent |  | sent | sent |
| spènded | spent | 1048 | spent | spent |
| wènded | went |  | went | went |
| bènded | bent |  | bent | bent |
| $\overline{\text { Exmyrie }}$ | emberz |  | embers | еmbəəz |
| tèmese | ( $\operatorname{temz}$ ) | 1052 | Thames | temz |
| èmtig | empti |  | empty | $\mathrm{em}(\mathrm{p}) \mathrm{ti}$ |
| ège | au |  | awe | òò |
| ècg | ej |  | edge | ej |
| ègg N. | eg | 1056 | egg | eg |
| hège | hej |  | hedge | hej |
| lècgan | lai |  | lay | léi |
| lègg N . | leg |  | leg | leg |
| sècgan | sai | 1060 | say | séi |
| sècg | sej |  | sedge | sej |
| wècg | wej |  | wedge | wej |
| èglan | ail |  | ail | éil |
| èce | aach | 1064 | ache | éic |
| rècenian | recon |  | reckon | recon |
| hlèce (adj.) | lèec |  | leak | liic |
| strèccan | strech |  | stretch | strech |
| wrècca | wrech | 1068 | wretch | rech |
| fèccan | fech |  | fetch | fech |
| hnècca | nee |  | neck | nee |

$h ; r, h r, l, h l ; \gamma, s, w, h w, f ; n g, n, m ; g, d, t, b, p$.
e (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| ahrèddan | rid |  | rid | rid |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gel̄̄ded | led | 1072 | led | led |
| stède | stèed |  | stead | sted |
| wèdd | wed |  | to wed | wed |
| bèdd | bed |  | bed | bed |
| lèttan | let | 1076 | let |  |
| l $\bar{x}$ tan | let | 1076 | let | let |
| sèttan | set |  | set | set |
| geseted |  |  |  |  |
| wāt (adj.) | wet |  | wet | wet |
| hwèttan | whet |  | whet | whet |
| nètt | net | 1080 | net | net |
| nètele | netl |  | nettle | netl |
| mète | mèet |  | meat | miit |
| cètel | cetl |  | kettle | cetl |
| bètera | beter | 1084 | better | betor |
| èbbian | eb |  | $e b b$ | eb |
| wèbb | web |  | web | web |
| nèbb | nib |  | nib | nib |
| stèppan | step | 1088 | step | step |

e.

| hē | hée | he | hii |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| je | 入任 | thee | $\chi_{\text {ii }}$ |
| wē | wée | we | wii |
| me | méé 1092 | me | mii |
| gē | yéé | ye | yii |
| hēh | hiih | high | hai |
| nēh | niih | nigh | nai |
| hēr | héer 1096 | here | hiər |
| gehēran | ? hèèr (ée) | hear | hior |
| werrig | ? wèèri (éé) | weary | wiəri |
| hērenian | hèèrcen | hearken | haəcən |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, $\overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{x}}$, eā, eō, u, o.
(contimued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| gehērde | hèèrd | 1100 | heard | həəd |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hēl | héél |  | heel | hiil |
| stēl | stéel |  | steel | stiil |
| felan | feél |  | feel | fil |
| cēle | chil | 1104 | chill | chil |
| ? cnēla N . | cnéél |  | kneel | niil |
|  | téej |  | teeth | tii] |
| gelēfan | beléev |  | believe | beliiv |
| slēfe | sléev | 1108 | sleeve | sliiv |
| dēfan | diiv |  | dive | daiv |
| pēf (under é) |  |  |  |  |

hēng (pret.) (under é)

| scēne | shéen |  | sheen | shiin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wēnan | weén | 1112 | ween | wiin |
| grēne | greén |  | green | griin |
| cēne | céen |  | keen | ciin |
| cwēn | cwéén |  | queen | cwion |
| tēn | ten | 1116 | ten | ten |
| preōtēne | pirtén |  | thirteen | pəətiin |
| bēn (under $\overline{0}$ ) |  |  |  |  |
| gesēman | séém |  | scem | siim |
| dēman | déém |  | deem | diim |
| tēman | teém | 1120 | teem | tiim |
| brēmel (under é) |  |  |  |  |
| ēge ( $=$ eā) | ei, ii |  | eye | ai |
| hēg | hai |  | hay | héi |
| slög N. | slii |  | sly | slai |
| tēgan | tii | 1124 | tie | tai |
| écan | ééc |  | eke | iic |
| rēc ( $=\mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) | rééc |  | reek | riic |
| hrēc ( $=$ eā) | ric |  | rick | ric |
| rēcan | rec | 1128 | reck | rec |
| $\operatorname{lec}(=\mathrm{ea})$ | leéc |  | leek | liic |

h; r, hr, l, hl; $\gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
$\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| sēcan | sééc | seek | siic |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cēc $(=$ ēa $)$ | chééc | cheek | chiie |
| bēce | bééch | 1132 | beeeh |
| brēc | brééch |  | breech |

nēxt (under é)
bëcnian(under é)

| hēdan | heéd |  | heed | hiid |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rēdan | rèèd (éé) |  | read | riid |
| steda | steéd | 1136 | steed | stiid |
| spēd | speéd |  | speed. | spiid |
| fedan | féed |  | feed | fiid |
| f'eded (under é) |  |  |  |  |
| nēd | néed |  | need | niid |
| méd | méed | 1140 | meed | miid |
| gled | gleéd |  | gleed | gliid |
| crēda | creéd |  | creed | criid |
| brēdan | bréed |  | breed | briid |
| blèdan | blééd | 1144 | bleed | bliid |

lēt (under é)

| swēte | swéét | sweet | swiit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| scēt $(=\mathrm{ea})$ | shéét | sheet | shiit |
| fēt | féét | feet | fiit |
| gemētan | méét | 1148 | meet |
| grētan | gréét | greet | miit |
| bētel | béétl | beetle | griit |
|  |  | biitl |  |

blētsian (under é)

| stēp $(=$ eā $)$ | stéép | steep | stiip |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| stēpel | stéepl | 1152 | steeple |
| wēpan | wéép |  | weep |
| cēpan | céép |  | keep |
| crēpel | cripl |  | wiip |
| dēpan(seedyppan) | dip | 1156 | dipple |

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

OLD.
middle.
moderv.

| hæ̈r | ? hair |  | hair | hèər |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| prer | ૪èèr |  | there | ૪èər |
| wǣron | wèèr |  | were | wèar |
| $\mathrm{hwær}$ | whèèr | 1160 | where | whèər |
| fār | fèèr |  | fear | fior |
| b̄̄r | ? beér |  | bier | bior |
| $\overline{\text { ¢ }}$ | éél |  | eel | iil |
| ? gesǣlig | sili | 1164 | silly | sili |
| $\mathrm{m} \overline{\mathrm{x}}$ | mèèl |  | meal | miil |
| brē $\gamma$ | brèèp |  | breath | brep |
| *bre¢ ${ }_{\text {an }}$ | brèe' |  | breathe | brii> |
| c̄̄se | chéez | 1168 | cheese | chiiz |
| $\overline{\text { ¢fen }}$ | èèven |  | even | iivn |

$\overline{\text { ®atmette (under a) }}$

| wēg | waav |  | wave | wéir |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wexgan | weih |  | weigh | wéi |
| hw̄̄¢ | whei | 1172 | whey | Whéi |
| hnāgan | neih |  | neigh | néi |
| grēg | grai, grei |  | gray, grey | gréi |
| cāge | cei |  | key | cii |
|  | weint | 1176 | weight | wéit |
| 1ace | léech |  | leech | liich |
| sprex | spééch |  | speech | spiich |
| prēd | prèed |  | thread | pred |
| w $\bar{x} d$ | wéedz | 1180 | weeds | wiidz |
| s $\bar{x} d$ | séed |  | seed | siid |
| grēdig | greédi |  | greedy | griidi |
| d $\overline{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{d}$ | déed |  | deed | diid |
| ondrǣedan | drèèd | 1184 | dread | dred |
| n®̄edl | néedl |  | needle | niidl |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { l̄̄̄tan (under è) } \\ & \text { strēt } \\ & \text { w̄̄t (under } \grave{\text { e }}) \end{aligned}$ | streét |  | street | striit |

$$
\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{~m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{p} .
$$

$$
\overline{\mathbf{x e}}(=\text { éé) (continued). }
$$

oLD.
middle.
modern.


$$
\mathfrak{F E}(=\grave{e} \dot{e})
$$

$5: \bar{e}$
sèè
sea
sii
tīhte (under a)

| $\overline{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{r}$ <br> riēran | èèr <br> rèèr |  | ere rear | èèrr <br> riər |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 戸̄rest (under è) |  |  |  |  |
| hǣlan | hèè | 1196 | heal | hiil |
| prāl N 。 | pral |  | thrall | proòl |
| d̄̄l | dèèl |  | deal | diil |
| hield | ?hèelld |  | health | help |
| celc (under c) |  |  |  |  |


| h $\overline{\mathfrak{e}}$ ¢en | hèren | 1200 | heathen | hii $\mathrm{O}_{\text {®n }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sce'r | shèèp |  | sheath | shii\} |
| wrā | wrèep |  | wreath | riib |
| ? brē | brèès |  | breath | brep |
| ? brax ${ }^{\text {an }}$ | breès | 1204 | breathe | brii> |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { behǣs (under è) } \\ & \text { t्َxsan } \end{aligned}$ | tèez |  | tease | tiiz |
| Haxsc (under i) |  |  |  |  |

$$
\mathrm{a}(æ \text { ea ei), i, é(eo), ̀̀, ē, } \overline{\mathrm{x}}, \text { en̄, e } \bar{o}, \mathrm{u}, \text { o. }
$$

$\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}(=$ èè) (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.
lāstan (under a)
wrēestan(under è)

| lixwed | leud | lewd | lyuud |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1:̄fan | lèèv | leave | liiv |
| hlēfdige (under a) |  |  |  |
| $\overline{\text { Ffre (under è) }}$ |  |  |  |
| gelǣfed |  |  |  |

$\overline{\text { ennig (under a) }}$
ľ̄nan (under è)

| hlāne | lèèn | 1208 | lean |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| clǣne | clèèn | clean | liin |
| mǣnan | mèèn | mean | cliin |
| gemǣne | mèèn | mean | miin |
|  |  | miin |  |

$\overline{\text { emprie (under è }}$ )
pǣm (under è)

| clǣg | clai | 1212 | clay | cléi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\mathrm{e}}(\mathrm{l}) \mathrm{C}$ | èèch |  | each | iich |
| recan | rèèch |  | reach | riich |
| tǣcan | tèèch |  | teach | tiich |
| blıéc $(=\bar{a})$ | blèes | 1216 | bleak | bliic |
| blācan | blèèch |  | bleach | bliich |
| rǣdan | rèed |  | read | riid |
| lǣdan | lè̀d |  | lead | liid |

gelǣded (under è)

| *brǣd ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | brèed ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 1220 | breadth | bredp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hǣto | hèèt |  | heat | hiit |
| sāti N. | sèet |  | seat | siit |
| swāt | swèèt |  | sweat | swet |
| sp̄̄tte (under a) |  |  |  |  |
| hwāte <br> wāt (under è) <br> fī̄tt (under a) | whèet | 1224 | wheat | whiit |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.

## еа̄.

OLD. Middle. modern.

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fleã \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{flèè} \& $f e a$ \& flii <br>
\hline geā \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{? ${ }_{\text {? }}$ chuuh}} \& yea \& yéi <br>
\hline ceā \& \& \& chough \& chof <br>
\hline jeāh \& ðòòuh \& 1228 \& though \& 「óu <br>
\hline eāre \& èèr \& \& ear \& ior <br>
\hline forseārian \& sè̀r \& \& sear \& sior <br>
\hline neār \& nèer \& \& near \& nior <br>
\hline geăr \& yè̀r \& 1232 \& year \& yior <br>
\hline teär \& tè̀r \& \& tear \& tior <br>
\hline deā̌ \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{dèès} \& death \& dep <br>
\hline ceās \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{chòòz} \& chose \& chóuz <br>
\hline eāst \& èèst \& 1236 \& east \& iist <br>
\hline eāstre \& èèster \& \& easter \& iistor <br>
\hline heāwan \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{heu} \& hew \& hyuu <br>
\hline hreāw \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{rau} \& saw \& \multirow[t]{2}{*}{roò ${ }_{\text {byuu }}$} <br>
\hline јеāw \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{beu
slòu

ded}} \& thew \& <br>
\hline sleāw \& \& \& slow \& byuu <br>
\hline sceāwian \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{shòòu (eu)} \& show (shew) \& shóu <br>

\hline screāwa \& \multirow[t]{2}{*}{| shreu |
| :--- |
| strau |} \& \& shrew \& shruu <br>

\hline streāw \& \& 1244 \& straw \& stròo <br>
\hline streāwian \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{streu
feu}} \& strew \& struu <br>
\hline feāwa \& \& \& few \& \multirow{3}{*}{dyuu} <br>
\hline deā \& \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{deu}} \& \multirow[t]{2}{*}{dew} \& <br>
\hline breāw (see brū) \& \& \& \& <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

| heāfod (under d) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bereäfian | berèèv | 1248 | bereave | beriiv |
| leāf | lè̀ef |  | leaf | liif |
| sceăf | shèèf |  | sheaf | shiif |
| deäf | dè̀f |  | deaf | def |
| beān | bè̀n | 1252 | bean | biin |
| seām | sè̀èm |  | seam | siim |
| steăm | stè̀m |  | steam | stiim |
| streām | strèèm |  | stream | striim |
| gleām | glè̀̀m | 1256 | gleam | gliim |
| dreām | drèèm |  | dream | driim |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(co), è, $\bar{e}, \bar{x}$, eā, eō, u, 0.
eà (continued).
old. midde. modern.

| teãm beām | tèèm bèèm | team <br> beam | tiim |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { eāge (under } \overline{\mathrm{e}}) \\ & \text { fleāg } \end{aligned}$ | fleu 1260 | flew | fluu |
| hreāc (under ē) <br> leāc (under ē) <br> ceāc (under è) <br> beăcen | bèècon | beacon | biicon |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { heā(fo)d } \\ & \text { rē̄̀ } \\ & \text { leād } \\ & \text { seeādan } \\ & \text { screādian } \\ & \text { neād (under } \overline{\text { én }} \text { ) } \\ & \text { dēad } \\ & \text { breād } \end{aligned}$ | hè̀d  <br> rè̀d  <br> lèed 1264 <br> shed  <br> shred  <br> dè̀d  <br> brèed 1268 | head red lead shed shred <br> dead bread | hed red led shed shred ded bred |
| ```sceāt (under è) sceāt (pret.) neāt greāt beātan``` | tshot <br> nè̀t <br> grè̀t <br> bèèt <br> 1272 | shot <br> neat <br> great <br> beat | shot niit gréit biit |
| heāp <br> hleāpan steāp (under ē) ceāp (subs.) ccāpman | hè̀̀p <br> hlèèp <br> chèèp (adj.) <br> chapman 1276 | heap <br> leap <br> cheap <br> chapman | hiip liip chiip chæршәп |
| creāp (pret.) | fcrept |  |  |

ē.

| preō | préé | three | brii |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| seōn $(v b)$. | seée | see | sii |
| seō | shéé | 1280 shee | shii |
| feō(h) | feée | fee | fii |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
ē (continued).
OLD. MidDLE. MODERN.

| freō | fréé |  | free | frii |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fleō | fleé |  | flee | flii |
| gleō | gleé | 1284 | glee | glii |
| beō (vb.) | béé |  | be | bii |
| beō (subs.) | béé |  | bee | bii |
| peōh | piih |  | thigh | pai |
| hreōh | ruwh | 1288 | rough | raf |

leōht (under é)

| hleōr | léer |  | leer | liar |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| deōr | déér |  | deer | diar |
| deōre | dè̀̀r (éé) |  | dear | diar |
| deōrling | darling | 1292 | darling | daaling |
| dreōrig | drèèri |  | dreary | driəri |
| beör | béer |  | beer | biar |
| feōr ¢ $_{\text {a }}$ | fourp |  | fourth | fò ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |
| hweōl | whéel | 1296 | wheel | whiil |
| ? geol | ? |  | yule | juul |
| ceōl | céél |  | kieel | ciil |

heōld (under é)

| seōðan | séér |  | seethe | siið |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| geō (g) ¢ $^{\text {¢ }}$ | juup | 1300 | youth | yuup |
| forleōsan | (lóóz) |  | lose | luuz |
| freōsau | fréez |  | freeze | friiz |
| fleōse | fleés |  | fleece | fliis |
| ceōsan | chóóz | 1304 | choose | chuuz |
| breōst | brèst |  | breast | brest |
| еढّ̄ (pron.) | juu |  | you | yuu |
| еōw | yeu |  | yew | juu |
| ео̄те | eu | 1308 | ewe | yuu |
| hreōwan | reu |  | rue (rew) | ruu |
| seōwian | seu |  | sew | sou |
| hleōw | lée |  | lee | lii |
| feōwer | four | 1312 | four | fò ${ }^{\text {r }}$ |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, è, $\overline{\mathrm{x}}$, eā, ē̄, u, o.
ē (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| feōwertig | forti |  | forty | fòrti |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| greōw (pret.) | greu |  | grew | gruu |
| ceōwan | cheu |  | chew | chuu |
| creōw (pret.) | creu | 1316 | crew | cruu |
| cneōw (pret.) | cneu |  | knew | nyuu |
| сneōw (subs.) | cnée |  | knee | nii |
| treōw | tréé |  | tree | trii |
| treōwe | treu | 1320 | true (trew) | truu |
| breōwan | breu |  | brew | bruu |
| bleōw (pret.) | bleu |  | blee | blua |
| hreōw ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | rysp |  | ruth | ruup |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| leōf | (1éef) |  | lief | liif |
| beōf | (pééf) |  | thief | jiif |
| cleōfan | cleev |  | cleave | cliiv |
| deōfol | devil | 1328 | devil | devl |
| geōng | yung |  | young | yong |
| betweōnan | betwéén |  | between | betwiin |
| *gebeŏn (partic.) | béén |  | been | biin |


| fē̄nd <br> freōnd | (féénd) <br> (fréend) | 1332fiend <br> friend | fiind <br> frend |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- |

miūc N. mééc meek miic

| leōgan fleōga geōguð | lii flii yuup | 1336 | lie fly youth | lai <br> flai <br> yuup |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hreōd | réed |  | reed | riid |
| weōd | wéed |  | weed | wiid |
| neōd | néed | 1340 | need | niid |
| beōdan | bid |  | bid | bid |
| sceōtan | shóót |  | shoot | shuut |
| flē̄t | fléet |  | fleet | fliit |
| beōt (part.) | beet | 1844 | beat | biit |
| heōp (rose) | hip |  | hip | hip |

$$
\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{~m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{p} .
$$

ē (continued).
old. Middle. modern.

| hleōp (pret.) | $\dagger$ lept |  | lept | lept |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sweōp (pret.) | tswept |  | swept | swept |
| weōp (pret.) | twept | 1348 | wept | wept |
| creōpan | créép |  | creep | crip |
| deöp | déep |  | deep | diip |

## $\mathbf{u}$.

| duru | (duur) |  | door | dòor |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| burh | pruuh | 1352 | through | prua |
| par | poruh |  | thorough | pror |
| furb | furu |  | furrow | faróu |
| crulla N . | curl |  | curl | cəəl |
| wur ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | wurb | 1356 | worth | พәə $\}$ |
| fur ${ }_{\text {ror }}$ | furser |  | further | fəəðər |
| punresdæg <br> curs | pursdai curs |  | Thursday curse | $\underset{\text { cəəəs }}{\text { pəazdi }}$ |
| turf | turf | 1360 | turf | təəf |
| murnian | muarn |  | mourn | mòən |
| wurm | wurm |  | worm | wววm |
| burg | ? boru |  | borough | bəro |
| wurcan | wure | 1364 | work | шәว¢ |
| swurd | swurd |  | sword | sòzd |
| wull | ? waul (u) |  | wool | wul |
| full (an | full |  | full | ful |
| bulluca | buloc | 1368 | bullock | bulac |

$$
\mathrm{a}(æ \text { ea ei), i, é éeo), è è e }, \bar{x}, \text { eā e e }, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o} .
$$

u (eontinued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| wulf sculdor | wulf <br> shuulder |  | wolf shoulder | wulf <br> shóuldar |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| us | us |  | us | əs |
| hūsbōnda | huzband | 1372 | husband | bozbond |
| tuse | tuse |  | tusk | tose |
| būa sic $N$. | buse |  | busk | basc |
| rust | rust |  | rust | rest |
| lust | lust | 1376 | lust | lost |
| gust N . | gust |  | gust | gast |
| dust | dust |  | dust | dost |
| lufu | luv |  | love | lav |
| èndlufon | eleven | 1380 | elevero | elevon |
| scüfan | shuv |  | shore | shəv |
| dūfe | duv |  | dove | dov |
| ònbüfan | abuv |  | above | abor |
| hungor | hunger | 1384 | hunger | həngər |
| sungen | sung |  | sung | sang |
| wrungen | wrung |  | wrung | rang |
| clungen | clung |  | clung | clong |
| tunge | tung | 1388 | tomgue | tong |
| munue | munc |  | monk | mone |
| druncen | drune |  | drunk | drone |
| hunig | huni |  | honey | həni |
| punor | punder | 1392 | thunder | pandər |
| sunu | sun |  | son | sən |
| sunne | sun |  | sun | sən |
| scūnian | shun |  | shun | shən |
| spunnen | spun | 1396 | spun | spən |
| gewunuen | wun |  | won | wən |
| nunne | nun |  | nun | nən |
| $\text { munuc (under } \mathrm{nc} \text { ) }$ |  |  |  |  |
| dunn | $\begin{aligned} & \text { cumng } \\ & \text { dun } \end{aligned}$ | 1400 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { cumn } \\ & \text { dun } \end{aligned}$ | dən |
| tunne | tun |  | tun |  |
| under | under |  | under | əndər |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.

11 (continued).
OLD. MiddLE MODERN.

| hund | huund |  | hound | haund |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hundred | hundred | 1404 | hundred | handred |
| sund (subs.) , | suund |  | sound | saund |
| gesund (adj.) |  |  |  |  |
| sundor | sunder |  | sunder | səndər |
| wund | wuund |  | wound | wuund |
| gewunden | wuund | 1408 | wound | waund |
| wundor | munder |  | wonder | wəndər |
| funden | fuund |  | found | faund |
| grund | gruund |  | ground | graund |
| grunden | gruund | 1412 | ground | graund |
| bunden | buund |  | bound | baund |
| pund | puund |  | pound | paund |


| huntian <br> stunt (adj.) <br> ? munt | hunt stunt muunt | 1416 | lunt to stunt mount | hənt stant maunt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fūma | jumb |  | thumb | pam |
| sum | sum |  | some | sэm |
| sumor | sumer | 1420 | summer | səmər |
| swummen | swum |  | scum | swəm |
| slumerian | slumber |  | slumber | slambar |
| guma | gruum |  | groom | gru( $)^{\text {a }}$ m |
| cuman | cum | 1424 | come | сәт |
|  | crumb |  |  |  |

dumb dumb dumb dam

| ugglig N. | ugli |  | ugly |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sugu | suu | 1428 | sow |
| fugol | fuul |  | fowl |


| cnucian | cnoc |  | knock | noc |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cnucel | cuucl | knuckle | nəcl |  |
| bucca | buc | 1432 | luck | bəc |
| pluccian | pluc |  | pluck | ploc |
| wudu | ? waud (u) | wood | wud |  |
| hnutu | nut |  | nut | nət |
| gutt | gut | $\mathbf{1 4 3 6}$ | gut | gət |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, ē, $\overline{\mathrm{x}}$, e $\overline{1}$, e $\overline{,}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o}$.

11 (continued).

| old. | middle. |  | modern. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| būton | but | but | bat |
| butere | buter | butter | bətor |
| ? putta N. | put | put | put |
| upp | up | 1440 | up |
| hup | hip | hip |  |
| supan | sup | sup | hip |
| cuppa | cup | cup | səp |
|  |  |  | cəp |


| hū | huu | 1444 | how | hau |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\gamma \bar{u}$ | ૪uu |  | thou | ૪au |
| nū | nuu |  | now | nau |
| cu | cuu |  | cow | cau |
| brū | bruu | 1448 | brow | brau |
| ūre | uur |  | our | auər |
| sūr | suur |  | sour | sauər |
| scūr | shuuer |  | shower | shauər |
| būr | buuer | 1452 | bower | bauər |
| gebür | (buur) |  | boor | buar |
| (neāh)gebūr | (neih) buur |  | (neigh)bour | (néi)bər |
| ūle | uul |  | owl | aul |
| fūl | fuul | 1456 | foul | faul |
| sū $\gamma$ | suup |  | south | saup |
| mū ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | muup |  | mouth | maup |
| uncū ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | uncuap |  | uncouth | oncuu |
| cū ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | cuu(l)d | 1460 | could | cud |
| $b \bar{u} \gamma \mathrm{~N}$. | (buap) |  | booth | buup |


| ūs (under u$)$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hūs | huus | house | haus |
| lūs | luus | louse | laus |
| pūsend | puazend | $\mathbf{1 4 6 4}$ | thousand |
| mūs | muus | mouse | pauzond |

## scūfan (under u)

dūfe (under u)
$h ; r, h r, l, h l ; \gamma, s, w, h w, f ; n g, n, m ; g, c, d, t, b, p$.
ī (continued).
old. midde. modern.
onbūfan (under u)

$\omega$.

| cohh(ett)an | couh | cough | cof |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |
| sōhte | souht | sought | sòòt |
| wrohte | wrouht | wrought | ròòt |
| dohtor | dauhter | $\mathbf{1 4 8 4}$ | daughter |
| bohte | bount | bought | dò̀̀tor |
| brohte | brouht | brought | bò̀t |
| bròot |  |  |  |

$$
\mathrm{a}(æ \text { ea ei), } \mathrm{i}, \text { é(eo), è, é, } \bar{x}, \text { eā, ē̄, u, o. }
$$

© (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| for | for |  | for | fòor |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| beforan | befòor | 1488 | before | befòor |
| borian | bòor |  | bore | bòor |
| woruld | wurld |  | world | woəld |
| for ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | forb |  | forth | fò ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| nor ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | norb | 1492 | north | nòə |
| morłor | mur'er |  | murder (th) | məədər |
| hors | hors |  | horse | hòas |
| forst (under st) | durst |  | durst | dәast |
| borsten | burst | 1496 | burst | bəast |
| horn | horn |  | horn | hòon |
| forlor(e)n | forlorn |  | forlorn | foolòon |
| porn | porn |  | thorn | bòən |
| swor(e)n | sworn | 1500 | sworn | swòən |
| $\operatorname{scor}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{n}$ | shorn |  | shorn. | shòon |
| mor(ge)ning | morning |  | morning | mòəning |
| corn | corn |  | corn | còən |
| tor(e)n | torn | 1504 | torn | tòən |
| $\operatorname{bor}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{n}$ | born |  | born (e) | bòən |
| storm | storm |  | storm | stòom |
| forma | former |  | former | fòəmər |
| sorg | soru | 1508 | sorrow | soróu |
| morgen | moru |  | morrow | moróu |
| borgian | boru |  | borrow | boróu |
| store | storc |  | siork | stòəc |
| hord | hoòrd | 1512 | hoard | hòəd |
| word | word |  | word | woəd |
| ford | ford |  | ford | fòad |
| bord | boòrd |  | board | bòzd |
| scort | short | 1516 | short | shòat |
| port | port |  | port | pòət |
| hol | hòol |  | hole | hóul |
| holh | holu |  | hollow | holou |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \mathrm{\gamma}, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
© (continued).
oLD.

| holegu | holi | 1520 | holly | holi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pol | jòol |  | thole (pin) | jóul |
| swollen | swolen |  | swollen | swóuln |
| scolu | shòòl |  | shoal | shóul |
| stolen | stòòlen | 1524 | stolen | stóuln |
| fola | fòol |  | foal | fóul |
| col | còol |  | coal | cóul |
| cnoll | cnol |  | knoll | nóul |
| dol | dul | 1528 | dull | dəl |
| toll | tol |  | toll | tóul |
| bolla | bóul |  | bowl | bóul |
| bolster | bolster |  | bolster | bóulstor |
| folgian | folu | 1532 | follow | folou |
| wolcen | welcin |  | welkin | welcin |
| folc | folc |  | folk | fouc |
| scolde | ? shuuld |  | should | shud |
| molde | mould | 1536 | mould | móuld |
| wolde | ? wuuld |  | would | wud |
| gold | gold |  | gold | góuld |
| bolt | bolt |  | bolt | bóult |
| fro $\mathrm{a}_{\text {a }} \mathrm{N}$. | frob | 1540 | froth | frò $(0)\}$ |
| morłe | mob |  | moth | mò(o) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| broð | brop |  | broth | bròob |
| hose | hòoz |  | hose | hóuz |
| *gefrosen | fròozzen | 1544 | frozen | fróuzn |
| nosu | nòoz |  | nose | nóuz |
| *gecosen | chòòzen |  | chosen | chóuzn |
| cross N. | cross |  | cross | cros |
| blōsma | blosom | 1548 | blossom | blosom |
| gōsling | gosling |  | gosting | gozling |
| frost | frost |  | frost | frost |
| òf ofen | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ov } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { ? òòven } \end{aligned}$ | 1552 | of off oven | $0 \nabla$ of วvn |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ ea ei), i, é(eo), è, $\overline{\mathrm{e}}, \bar{x}$, e $\bar{a}$, e $\overline{,}, \mathrm{u}$, o.
© (continued).
OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \gamma, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
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OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| coce | coc |  | cock | coc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| coccel | cocl | 1588 | cockle | cocl |
| croce | croc |  | crock(ery) | croc(ori) |
| cnocian | cnoc |  | knock | noc |
| brocen | bròocen |  | broken | broucən |
| oxa | ox | 1592 | $0 x$ | ox |
| fox | fox |  | for | fox |
| rōd | rod |  | rod | rod |
| soden | soden |  | sodden | sodn |
| gescōd | shod | 1596 | shod | shod |
| födor | foder |  | fodder | fodər |
| god | god |  | god | god |
| codd | cod |  | cod | cod |
| troden | troden | 1600 | trodden | trodn |
| bodian | bòod |  | bode | bóud |
| bodig | bodi |  | body | bodi |
| rotian | rot |  | rot | rot |
| hlot | lot | 1604 | lot | lot |
| protu | proòt |  | throat | próut |
| (ge)scot | shot |  | shot | shot |
| scotland | scotland |  | Scotland | scotloud |
| flotian | floòt | 1608 | float | flóut |
| mot | mòòt |  | mote | móut |
| cot | cot |  | cot | cot |
| cnotta | cnot |  | linot | not |
| botm | botom | 1612 | bottom | botam |
| loppestre | lobster |  | lobster | lobstor |
| open |  |  |  | óupan |
| hoppian | hop |  | hop | hop |
| hopa | hoop | 1616 | hope | hóup |
| sop | sop |  | sop | sop |
| stoppian | stop |  | stop | stop |
| (āttor)coppa | cob(web) |  | $\operatorname{cob}(w e b)$ | cob(web) |
| cropp | crop | 1620 | crop | crop |
| dropa | drop |  | drop | drop |
| topp | top |  | top | top |


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OLD. MIDDLE. MODERN.

| scō (shóó)  shoe <br> dō (dóó) 1624 do <br> tō tóó too, to shuu <br> duu <br> tuu <br> tōh <br> ? sōhte, etc. tuuh under 0 )  | tough | tof |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| hōr swōr fiōr mōr | (w)hòòr swò̀r flóór móór | 1628 | whore <br> swore <br> floor <br> moor | hòor <br> swòor <br> floòr <br> muər |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stōl | stoól |  | stool | stuul |
| cōl | cóól | 1632 | cool | cuul |
| tōl | tóol |  | tool | tuul |
| ōder | (óóðer) |  | other | əðər |
| sōð | sóóp |  | sooth | suup |
| *smō ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | smóó | 1636 | smooth | smuuð |
| *(hē) dō ${ }^{\text {col }}$ | dóóp |  | doth |  |
| tṑ | tóóp. |  | tooth | tuub |
| brō̌or | (bróó ${ }^{\text {er }}$ ) |  | brother | bradar |
| gōs | goós | 1640 | goose | guus |

gōsling (under o)
bōsm (bóózəm) bosom buzom
blōsma (under o)

| hrōst <br> mōste | róóst <br> must | roost <br> nusest | ruust <br> most |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rōwan | róu | 1644 | row |
| hlōwan | lóu | low | róu |
| flōwan | fóu | flow | lóu |
| grōwan | gróu | grow |  |
| blōwan | blóu | 1648 blow | gróu |
| hōf (pret.) | (hóóv) |  | hlove |

$\mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{hr}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{hl} ; \Varangle, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{hw}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{p}$.
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old. Middle. modern.
sōfte (under o)

| sōna | sóón |  | soon | suun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| spōn N.? | spóón |  | spoon | spuun |
| nōn | nóón | 1656 | noon | nuun |
| mōna | móón |  | moon | muun |
| mōna | (móóne\}) |  | moneth, month | monp |
| mōnandæg | (móóndai) |  | Monday | məndi |
| gedōn | (dóón) | 1660 | done | don |
| bōn N. | bóón |  | boon | buun |
| gōma | gum |  | gum | gəm |
| glōm | glóóm |  | gloom | gluum |
| dōm | dóóm | 1664 | doom | duum |
| brōm | broóm |  | broom | bruum |
| blōma | blóóm |  | bloom | bluam |
| slōg. | sleu |  | slew | sluu |
| wōgian | wóó | 1668 | woo | wuu |
| genōg | enuuh |  | enough | enəf |
| drōg | dreu |  | drew | druu |
| bōg | buuh |  | bough | bau |
| plogg N . | pluuh | 1672 | plough | plau |
| hōc | hóóc |  | hook | hue |
| hrōc | róóc |  | rook | ruc |
| lōcian | lóóc |  | look | luc |
| scōc | shoóc | 1676 | shook | shuc |
| wōc | (awóóc) |  | awoke | әwóuc |
| cōc | cóóc |  | cook | cuc |
| crōc N . | cróóc |  | erook | cruc |
| tōc | tóóc | 1680 | took | tue |
| bōc | bóóc. |  | book | buc |
| brōc | bróóc |  | brook | bruc |
| hōd | hoód |  | hood | hud |
| rōd | róod | 1684 | rood | ruud |
| gescōd (under o) | rod |  | rod | rod |
| stōd | stóód |  | stood | stud |
| fōda | fóod |  | food | fuud |
| fōdor (under 0)flodmod |  |  | Alod |  |
|  | flóod | 1688 | flood | flod |
|  | móód |  | mood | muud |



- (continued).

| oLd. | middle. |  | MODERN. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mödor | (móóðer) |  | mother | məðər |
| gōd | góód |  | good | gud |
| blōd | blóód | 1692 | blood | blad |
| brōd | bróód |  | brood | bruud |
| wōdnesdæg | wednesdai |  | Wednesday | we(d)nzdi |
| rōt N . | róót |  | root | ruat |
| fōt | fóót | 1696 | foot | fut |
| bōt | bóót |  | boot | buut |
| hwoppan | whoóp |  | whoop | huup |

Addenda.

| mearg | maru |  | marrow | mæróu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cealc | chalc | 1700 | chalk | chòò |
| hæsel | haazel |  | hazel | héizl |
| sceanc | shanc |  | shank | shænc |
| wæg(e)n | wagon |  | waggon | wægən |
| dragen | wain draun | 1704 | wain <br> drawn | wén <br> dròòn |
| ? gagn | gain |  | gain | géin |
| sæcc | sac |  | sack | sæc |
| sleac | slac | 1708 | slack | slæc |
| wæcce | wach |  | watch | woch |
| gemaca | maat |  | mate | méit |
| eaxl | axl |  | axle | æxl |
| lator | later | 1712 | latter | lætər |
| gabb N. | gab |  | gab |  |
| tapor | taaper |  | taper | téipor |
| $\overline{\text { an }}$ (metal $)$ | òr |  | ore | òòr |
| hālig dæg | ? hòolidaj | 1716 | holiday | holidi |
| rāw | rò̀u |  | row | róu |
| *cnāwlācan | cuòoulej |  | knowledge(sbst.) | nolej |
| òn ān | anon |  | anon | әnon |

Addenda (continued).
OLD. MIDLLE. MODERN.

| wrist | wrist | 1720 | wrist | rist |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hiw | heu |  | hue (hew) | hyuu |
| skipta N. | shift |  | shift | shift |
| wringan | wring |  | wring | ring |
| slipor | sliperi | 1724 | slippery | sliperi |
| hwinan | whiin |  | whine | whain |
| cyrnel | cernel |  | kernel | cəənəl |
| sȳpau | sip |  | sip | sip |
| fé>er | fèè ${ }^{\text {er }}$ | 1728 | feather | fe 万r $^{\text {r }}$ |
| becwéðan | becwèè子 |  | bequeathe | becwiið |
| wést | west |  | west | west |
| weocce | wic |  | wick | wic |
| rēdels | ridl | 1732 | riddle | ridl |
| gemēted | met |  | met | met |
| stèrne | stern |  | stern | stəən |
| rest | rest |  | rest | rest |
| wrèncan | wrench | 1736 | wrench | rench |
| wrēnna | wren |  | wren | ren |
| twèntig | twenti |  | twenti | twenti |
| hēhðo | heiht |  | height | hait |
| stēran | stéer | 1740 | steer | stiar |
| cwēn | cwèèn |  | quean | cwin |
| ? leās | loós |  | loose | luas |
| preātian | prèèt |  | threat | pret |
| preōst | (préést) | 1744 | priest | priist |
| seōc | sic |  | siok | sic |
|  | pònht |  | thought | pòot |
| colt | colt |  | colt | cóult |
| fōstor | foster | 1748 | foster | fostar |
| hrōf | róóf |  | roof | ruuf |
|  | ¢us |  | thus |  |
| húsping N . | hustingz |  | hustings | hastingz |
| suncen | sunc | 1752 | sunk | sənc |
| skūm | scum |  | skium | scom |

$\mathrm{a}(æ$ еа ei $), \mathrm{i}$, é(eo), è, $\overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{x}}, \mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{e} \bar{o}, \mathrm{u}$, о.

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## SUPPLEMENTARY LISTS OF IRREGULARITIES.

## Middle Period.

In the following words $c e$ and $e a$ have become $e$ instead of the regular $a$ : gèerr (gear), èern (earn), fern, lèèrd (beard); elf, belch; whèer, togèer; les, nes, lest, lè̀st (least), gest (guest); §en, when; emet, hemp; wrec, pell.

It is clear from these exceptional forms that the Old English $a$ was quite lost after the Transition period; as we see, it was either changed into $a$, or else mispronounced as $\grave{e}$, just as it would be in the mouth of a foreigner.

The lengthening before $r$ in gèer, èern and bèerld has many parallels, and in the case of bèerll is confirmed by the Modern biiad. The present form $\partial \partial n$, however, points rather to ern, with a short vowel. The lengthening in lèest, although anomalous, is supported by yèest from yest $=g$ ist, by the retention of $\grave{o} \dot{o}=\bar{a}$ in mòost, etc., and perhaps by criist (see note on 518, below).
a for ò in non-preterites (p. 54): angl, hang, fang, gang, bang. $\dot{o}$ for $a$ : on, bond, from, womb, comb.
ei preserved : ei (eye), خei (they), whei, grei, cei (key); weih (weigh), neih, neih(buur), eiht (eight), heiht; 'eir; cirer; rein(déér).

The Modern forms point mostly to ai. ai (eye) however comes not from $a i=e i$, but from ii. cii (key) is altogether anomalous; so also are the two pronunciations iiber and aitar (either), while the obsolete éivor is regular.
$i(y)$ has become $e, 1$ ) regularly after $y$-consonant: yel; yes, yè̀st, yesterdai; yet. 2) in other words: her, herd (shep(herd) ; neðer; §èèz (these); èèvil; flejl (fledged).

In snèèc and rè̀ep (sneak, reap) a highly anomalous change of $i i$ into $\grave{e} e ̀$ seems to have taken place.
$\dot{e}$, eo become $i$ : likt, fiht; mir $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ (but meri), lirch; chil, silver, silc, milc, filld; sister; ric, wic; cripl, hip (=berry), dip (?).
è becomes $i$ : smirc, gird(l); sill, cil, uiild; linc; rid; nib.
é becomes $a, 1$ ) before $r$ : star, far, tar, darling (from deörling), farbing, carv, starv, barm, dwarf, baru, darc, harc, hart. 2) in: swalu, brambl.
è becomes $a, 1$ ) before $r$ : mar, maar, larlei, marsh, haru, barn, yard. 2) in: talu (?) ; wasp; handi (?), aach.
é, co become u: churl, burst, run, spurn, burn; hung.
$\bar{e}$, eo become $\ddot{i}$ : $\ddot{i}$ (from eāgc), lii (from leōgan), slii, flii, tii ; liih, biih, niik; diiv (?).
$\bar{e}$ becomes èè before $r$ : hèèr, wè̀ri, hè̀rrn, hèèrd.
In the case of the first two words there is sixteenth century authority for the éé-sound also.
$\bar{e}=\dot{e} \dot{e}$ becomes $\grave{e} \grave{e}$, 1) before $r$ in all words except the doubtful béér. 2) in: mèèl; brè̀̀欠; èèven (evening); prè̀el, drè̀el ; blè̀et ; wè̀̀pon.

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.
eõ becomes è̀̀ : dè̀̀r, drè̀eri; brèèst, clè̀̀v (cleave).
There is Early Modern authority for déér as well as dè̀̀r. brèest, again, is uncertain on account of the Modern brest.
eō becomes óó: loóór, clıóóz; shóót.
Compare chòò from ceās (p.35), and خòouh from peāh (note to 1228, below).

ḕ becomes u(u): yuu; ruuth; yuup; yung. ${ }^{1}$
o becomes u: mur'לer; durst, burst (partic.); dul; amung, munger.
ò becomes u(u): yuu (you); tuuk (tough); yuut; yung.
The following remarks on the diphthongs are intended to supplement those on pp. 52, 53, above.

Diphthongs are formed not only by $g(g h)$, but also by medial and final $h(=k h)$, 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 $h=k h$ : the $h$ is consequently not absorbed, as is the case with $g$.

The following are examples of genuine $k$-diphthongs, in which $k$ is original, not a later modification of $g(\mathrm{p} .79)$ :

1) from ah: lauk, laulter, 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 saucon.
2) from $\bar{a} h$ : òouht (ought).
not points to nòouht=näht; nauht, however, to a shortened naht.
3) from oh: soulht, boult, bouht.

For dauliter see note to 1484.
In the following words $g$ has been anomalously preserved, instead of being diphthongized: wag, wagon (but also wain), dray (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 $e e$ and oo to denote the new sounds $i i$ and $u u$, while original $i i$ and $u u$ themselves changed in the direction of $a i$ and $a u$. The introduction of $e a$ and $o a$ to denote the true $e e$ and oo sound was, on the other hand, a strictly phonetic innovation.
ee and oo were partly phonetic, partly historical signs-

[^13]they denoted the sounds $i i$ and $u u$, 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 rim. 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 ó $u$ or $u$, into which the other old uns 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 wood. 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. I. 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 $\grave{b}$-sound, as in god. To avoid all possibility of this pronunciation, the $o$ was therefore doubled. This 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, coóm, corresponding to Middle English lòòv, còòm!

Similar fluctuation between the phonetic and historical principle is shown in many words written with the digraph $i e . i e$ is in itself nothing but a substitute for $i i$, which from purely graphic reasons was never doubled, as being liable to confusion with $u$. The sound of $i i$ was, of course, in most cases expressed by ee. There were, however, a few words which preserved their Middle English $i i$-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 foild, 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 $i e$. The following list of $i e$-words will show that, although ic was sometimes used finally to denote the diphthongized sound, it invariably denoted the simple $i i$ medially: hie, lie, die, tie; wierd; yield, shield, wield, field; priest; bclieve, sieve; lief, thieff; fiend, friend.

In siece 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 siue, 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 $c e z, h(c z, h e v$ contrasting with $a(a) s$, gras, asc, last, staf, after. The change to ce takes place, however, before $s h$, although voiceless : ash, resh. Also in cespen. ${ }^{1}$ In the same way $a$ followed by $n$ and a voice consonant becomes $a$, as in cend, hend, anvil; but if the consonant which comes after the $n$ is voiceless, there is no change, as in ansar, plant, ant. These laws do not apply to $a$ when followed by the other nasals, in which cases it is always changed: scenc, drcene; demp.
$i i$ has been preserved in the following words : mii : shiior, uiïd ; shiild, wiild, fild, yiild; wiival, wiic.

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

[^14]possible that these ees may be simply Early Modern phonetic spellings, like room=ruzm.
èè has become éi (instead of $i i$ ) : yéi (yea) ; bréic ; gréit. ${ }^{1}$
$u$ has been preserved, 1) after w: wuman, wul, wulf, sound, wud (not in wandar). 2) in other cases: ful, bul( $\partial c$ ); grum.
uu has been preserved (sometimes with shortening) : buur (boor) ; ancuup; cud (could) ; ruum (room) ; bruc (brook).
óó has been preserved: hóuv; awóuc.
óó has become a: aðer, məðer, dab, braðər; glav; mən\}, mandi, dan; flad, blad.

For $\partial v n$ and slovel see notes to 1553 and 1556.
The series of changes is clearly óo, uu, $u, ə$; 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 $u=0 \dot{o}$. To infer from it a Middle E. òo $\begin{gathered}\text {. } e r ~ w o u l d ~ b e ~\end{gathered}$ as unreasonable as in the case of love, come, etc., where the $u$ was certainly never lengthened or lowered to òo.

Under the head of consonant influence the loss of the initial element of the diphthong iun 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; byuu; fyuи; nуиu; dyıu; styuu; spyuu.

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

Also the change of $a$ into $\dot{o}$ before $l t$, 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.

[^15]6. fauht. Salesbury writes fauht, and the spelling fought seems merely due to confusion with the partic. fouthten from O.E. gefohter.
15. năru, etc. These words are not derived direct from the nom. nearu, but from the oblique cases, nearive 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. gèer from gearua 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. sheel, for shòol. An isolated exception to the development of $a u$ before $l$.
68. ceallian. This word occurs in the poem of Byrhtno ; 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. talg. The vowel is doubtful, and I have given the word again under è (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 wumd (p. 47).
132. castel. This word, although of French origin, was in familiar use in English many years before the Conquest.
140. hauc, from havoc through havec, haw(e)c. The converse change has taken place in waav (1170); the series was probably w $\bar{e} g$, waaw, wauv.
150. clòorer. The only parallel is lood 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. luenep (cp. 187).

187, 193. then, when. These clearly arise from the Late O.E. 'onne and whenne with abnormal modification of a before nasals (p. 26).
229. swcem for swom. $m$ seems to bar the retention of $a$ for $c e$ in the same way in the word dcemp (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. dances from dagas helped.
270. acorn. The $o$ is probably inorganic, the result of association with corn.
298. lòod. cp. clòver (150).
303. shaad for sceadio-. cp. baal, 71.
324. water. The Modern wò̀ter, with its long vowel, is anomalous.
331. got, inorganic, from the analogy of the partic. *begoten.
343. pebl, from pcepol or prebol (?).
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 stè̀c and its change into the Modern stéic are both anomalous.
353. weak may possibly come from the O.E. थcāc, through $u \bar{\epsilon} c$.
355. dii, from $d e y(j a)$; cp. $i i$ for $e i$ from eāge (1121).
357. lā. If the Modern lòo (written law) really corresponds to the O.E. $l \bar{a}$, we have a second instance (besides bròod) of the retention of òo. treysta (770) should have been referred to here.
372. haal. A solitary and dubious instance of the retention of O.E. $\bar{u}$.
389. nothing. The Modern $\partial$ is probably due to the analogy of $w a n$ (415) and $n \partial n$.
396. whòoz, read uhóóz. The Modern uu is better evidence than the spelling whose.
400. Jau, points seemingly to an O.E. bäwan.
415. wan. The most probable explanation is that wo is
simply the Early Modern óo with its labial and guttural elements pronounced successively instead of simultaneously (p. 14).
418. nən. Not a case of $\grave{o} \dot{o}$ becoming $a$ through $u u$ and $u$, but simply due to the analogy of wวn.
429. clami. The O.E. $\bar{a}$ in this word must have been shortened at a very early period, else we should have had clomi.
440. -hóód. A solitary instance of òò becoming óo in Middle English (except after $w$ ).
447. brò̀d. Retention of Middle English òò from $\bar{a}$.
491. gild. Exceptional retention of short $i$. cp. gild (from gyldan) and byld (760, 761).
518. criist. The $c h$ 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 simplification $y y$.
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 lukika 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. bresh may be a modification of bresh, as eni seems to be of ani (181).
860. iceberg. Probably foreign (Dutch ?).
868. swurd; or from $u$ (1365).
870. hèert and hart are both independent modifications of hèrt.
881. cwail. Compare hair (1157) from hēr. The history of these two spellings requires investigation: it is possible that the ai is merely a comparatively late representation of the sound $\grave{e}$, introduced after the simplification of the diphthong ai (p. 65).
934. baan for bain. Here, again, the spelling may be late. The Modern béin would correspond to either baan or bain.
956. nebb. The vowel is more probably $\grave{e}$ (1087).
1005. wasp points rather to wesp than wèsp; both forms may, however, have existed.
1017. w $\bar{e} n g$ ( 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 $a i$ ) is very anomalous. The most probable explanation is that ège was made into cege by the same confusion between the two vowels as in wèsp (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 $\grave{e}$ and $\propto-$ ècc, cece, ace, aach.
1105. cnēla. The Icelandic expression is knéfalla, but kncele is found in Danish.
1135. read. I have given the word again under $\grave{e}$ (1218), as it is quite uncertain whether it had $\bar{e}$ or $\bar{e}$ in O.E.: the assumed derivation from rödjan favours the former, the MSS. usage the latter.
1157. hair. cp. cwail (881).
1171. weih, etc. Anomalous retention of $g h$ in the form of $h$.
1228. Øòouh. The stages were probably $૪ e a a h, ~ ૪ a a h, ~ ð o ̀ o l h, ~$ ðòòuh.
1239. rau. Apparently from an intermediate hreăw; cp . bau (400).

1241, 1242. slòou, 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 $e a$, which naturally passed into $a$.
1292. darling. From shortened eo-deōr-, deor-, der-, dar-ling.
1295. fourl. Probably formed directly from the Middle English four itself.
1306. yut. Here the first element of the diphthong is consonantized, and the final $w$ thrown off, as in tréé, cnéé, etc.
1333. friend. The Modern frend points to a very early shortened form, which probably co-existed with the older fréend.

1353, 1363. thorough, borough. The Modern a points to furuh and buruh, and it is possible that the $o$ is a mere graphic substitute for $u$.
1370. shouldder for shaulder. The most probable explanation is that shuulder became shóulder in the Early Modern period, and the óu became óou before $l d$, and so was confounded with the óou in flóóu, etc.
1380. eleven. Agrees rather with the other form endleofon.
1460. cuuld. The $l$ is, of course, due to the analogy of ruuld and shuuld.
1470. ruth may possibly come from lueōh (1288).
1484. dauhter. The anomalous au may be due to Norse influence, as Danish has datter (Ieelandic dòttir): 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. suouln, 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 flóu from Middle E. flóóu, etc.
1530. bóul. Here, again, the sixteenth century authorities write booul. The spelling bowl is, of course, phonetic and unhistorical.
1533. welcin. ep. wednestlai (1694).
1540. frop, etc. The quantity of $o$ before $b, s$, 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 òveen.
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=scüfan.

1667, 1670. sleu, dreu. The most probable explanation is that sloóg first became slóóu, and then this was confused with the numerous preterites in cóów (greōw, cneõw, etc.), and followed the same change into er .
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 "AngloSaxon" 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 AngloSaxon 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 ${ }^{2}$ 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 $c h$, and initial $w l, w r$, 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-

[^16]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 $e n$, 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$h \bar{e}$ cwa $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text { to } \\ m e ́ ~ i s ~ m u c h ~ m o r e ~ l i k e ~ E n g l i s h ~ t h a n ~ L a t i n ~ o r ~ e v e n ~\end{array}$ 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.

[^17]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 SemiSaxon (a legitimate abbreviation of Semi-Anglo-Saxon), is characterized by many far-reaching changes. I propose, therefore to call the first the Tiansition 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 ces 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. These I 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 words. 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.

## SPECLILENS OF ENGLISH DIALECTS.

## I. DEVONSHIRE. <br> AN EXMFOOR SCOLDING AND COURTSHIP.

II. WESTMORELAND.<br>A BRAN NEW WARK.

## SPECIMENS

of

## ENGLISH DIALECTS.

# I. DEVONSHIRE. AN <br> EXIIOOR SCOLDING AND COURTSHIP, 

EDITED BY
F. T. ELWORTHY, ESQ.

# II. WESTMORELAND. <br> A BRAN NEW WARK. <br> EDITED BY 

THE REV. PROFESSOR SKEAT.
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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. The 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. Wr. 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 continuel. 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.

## I. <br> DEVONSHIRE.

## THE EXM00R SCOLDING

AND

## C0URTSHIP

(two dialogues of the beginning of the xviil. century);

ALSO

## THE SOMERSETSHIRE MAN'S COMPLAINT

 (a poem of a full century earuier).THE ORIGINAL TEXTS EDITED, COLLATED, AND ARRANGED, WITH A COMPLETE TRANSCRIPT IN GLOSSIC, THE YOCABULARY ENLARGED, AND THE WHOLE ILLUSTRATED WITH COPIOUS NOTES, BY FREDERIC THOMAS ELWORTHY,
member of coovcli of the phlonomical societr.

## EDITOR'S PREFACE.

The great value to students of any true specimens of SouthWestern English Dialects consists in the fact that they are the living descendants of what was once the literary and courtly language of England. 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 classificd according to the districts in which they prevailed, as Early Southern English, Early Midland English, and Early Northern English.

Until abont 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 ean be traced the varions 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 casting 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-Wyeliffe and Chancer, 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 fortuitons exaltation of the Miidland dialects, our modern speeeh 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 ror' ; Aly, rlize; fourth, veorऽ' ; fifth, vifte, \&e. 'Robert of Cloueester,' about 1300, we find spelt first, verst ; fust, vaste and uaste ; fuir, vair, \&e. Later and last, 'John of Trevisa,' aboul 1387, has for spelt vor; forth, vorp; fer, veaw; fight, vy $z^{t e}$, \&e.

Besides these peeuliarities, there are many others which though common enough in the Western Dialects, are not polite Englishyet we find them written by these old writers precisely as they are spoken to-day. For instance, 'Robert of Gloneester' says, as pe hemle he clude 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 eommonly now-liche, the common adverbial affix then, is like now,

[^18]instead of the modern and polite ly. See W. S. Gram., p. 81. The inflexion of the infinitive, in intransitive verbs, the peculiar characteristie of modern South-Western dialects, exists in preeisely the same form as in the modern dialects in 'Robert of Gloucester.' For instance, where pe duc Willam anon uorbed alle his, pat non nere so wod to rolby: ne no maner harm do pere. (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 ive, 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 eomep for rumeth ; a for $h e$, \&e. Aiter his time, which was contemporary with Chancer, we look in vain for specimens of the South-Western English-indeed, thenceforward it existed only as a dialeet, and was used, much as it now is in 'Punch,' as an example of an unconth, barbarous form of the language, fit only to be the type of elownlom. It has, however, been handed down in its spoken form with fewer departures from its parent stoek 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 pronuneiation whieh 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 serap of writing in whieh any South-Western dialectal expressions oceur. From the xiv. century to Shakspere, a period of over two hundred years, exeepting the 'Chronicon Vilodunense,' a poem of Old Wiltshire dialect of about 1420 , there is a blank. The 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. se. vi.). This, however, is of great value as the first instance - of the Ich (I, ego) of earlier writers having beeome ch before a vowel and ise before a consonant. No doubt these few words put into
the mouth of Elgar, 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 $\%$. 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 To-pan 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 $c h$ 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.

Gons Boddikins 'c hill worke no more dost thinke 's hill labor to be poore no no ich haue a doe. ${ }^{1}$ 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. ${ }^{2}$ 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 ${ }^{3}$ neuer last another yeare
voke cannot be able to zow. dost think I euer 'c had ${ }^{4}$ the art to plow my ground up with my Cart

My beast ${ }^{5}$ are all I goe ${ }^{6}$
${ }^{1}$ This is still the p. part. of $d o$, pronounced $u$-dèo, and rhyming still with too (te $0^{\circ}$ ), precisely as it is found in the writers of the xiii. and xiv. century.
${ }^{2}$ Still a usual custom to put Mr. before a title, as Mr. Parson, Mr. Turney, Mr. Fish-jowder, Mr. Gin-lmun, especially when a sneer or slight is implied.
${ }^{3}$ A good example of the omission of the nom. case. (See W. S. G., p. 34.)
${ }^{4}$ This must be an error ; the author in his desire to put in the ch as often as possible has here iuserted it out of place. It should probably read Dost think that euer' 'chad the art.
${ }^{5}$ Beast, used collectively, is still a plural noun. (See W. S. Gram., p. 9.)
${ }^{6}$ The p. part. of go. The prefix is spelt $a$ 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. ${ }^{1}$
Here I doe labor toile \& zweat and dure the cold, hot, dry \& wett

But what dost think I gett.
Fase ${ }^{2}$ iust my Labor for my paines thes Garrizons haue all the gaines

And thither all is vett. ${ }^{3}$
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 ${ }^{4}$ 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.
${ }^{1}$ 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.
${ }_{2}^{2}$ This form is obsolete-though it may survive in fags !
${ }^{3}$ p. part. of to fetch-it is now sounded rather broader-vaat or vaut. There is an old proverb very commonly used-Vuur u-vau't, Dee ${ }^{\circ}$ ŭr $u$-bau $t$, i. e. 'Farfetched, dear bought.' Gower, the contemporary of Chaucer, has (Tale of the Coffers)-

> 'And then he let the coffers fet Upon the board, and did them set.'

4 The use of so for save or except is now quite obsolete.

If any money 'c have in store then straight a warrant come therfore or I must plundred ${ }^{1}$ be And when 'c haue shutfled vp one pay then comes a new without delay was euer the like a zee. ${ }^{2}$

And as ${ }^{3}$ this were not greife enow they have a Thing called Quarter ${ }^{4}$ too

Oh! that's a vengeance ${ }^{5}$ waster
A pox vpon't they call it vree
' $C$ ' ham sure that made vs slanes 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

- 1 This word would be still pronounced pluun dred or pluun dreed-so also mas'akreed for massacred.
${ }^{2}$ The p. part. of to see is now $u$-zeed.
${ }^{3}$ The use of $a s$ for if in this sense is quite obsolete.
${ }^{4}$ The allusion here is to the custom of quartering soldiers upon the farmers and householders.
${ }^{5}$ vengeance waster would now be rendered Devil of a waster. The word is used in the 'Exmoor Scolding' in the same way.
${ }^{6}$ 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 7 th 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-shuve, 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 'Scolling,' as we now have them, were written by the same handbelieved 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 7 th 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

[^19]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 (ny patemal great-grandfather) was the grandson of a Jolm 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, 1. 78. strut, Glossary. avore, 1. 123. avroar, Glossary. pochee, 1. 188. poochee, Glossary. This unwilling-
${ }^{1}$ 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 realers. 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 zait! as soft. Surely this is an interjection of the quasi oath kind, still very common, meaning ' $l l$-heart,' like the well-known zounds. Only the worls which were, then thought difificult 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 inserter in italics in the Glossary, will be instructive as helping to gange 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 pitfalls 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-meonscionsly 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 mulikely 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 we 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 lead is sometimes yeal, and sometimes aeal, while zing and sing are found on the same page. Gamborling in one place is gamboyling in another. velst, l. 134 ; valst, l. 169. zet, l. 340 ; set, l. 425. There is thronghout 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, ll. 594, 601. So quiet is quite, l. 375, the correct N. Dev. form, and quiet, l. 604, with many more. He also spells the West Country inflection of the intransitive verb, sometimes $y$ and sometimes $e e$.

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,' \&e., \&e. Yet of course he would not write thus, and would perhaps contend that his pronuneiation 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. we, l. 353 , instead of $u s$, 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 arljective 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 1.335 , 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, $I$ la'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 phural us used for the singular. This is still done, but judging from these dialogues it was more common formerly; $u s$ 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 l. 362, and he is, l. 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 somds. 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 aequired. 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 ${ }^{1}$ 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. Murray. This natural vowel represented by $u$ 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 pronmeiation, $-e, a$, and $o$, are each in turn used to represent the same sound, $v i z$, short $u$, i. e. the sound of $e$ in the book, spoken quickly. This short the is always written thu-and I have noticed this word is generally a stumbling-block to those who are iguorant 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.

## A N

## Exmoor SCOLDING,

I N THE
Propriety and Decency
O F
Exmoor L A N G U A G E, betweman

## T W O S I S T ER S:

Wilmot Moreman and Thomafin Moreman; As they were Spinning. A L S o, A N
Exmoor C O U R T S H I P.


## The NINTH EDITION:

Wherein are now added,
Such NOTES therein, and a VOCABULARY at
the End, as feem neceffary for explaining uncouth Expreffions, and interpreting barbarous Words and Phrafes.


$$
\mathrm{E} X \mathrm{X} \quad \mathrm{~T} \quad \mathrm{E} \quad \mathrm{R}:
$$

Printed and fold by W. GRIGG, Bookfeller and Stationer, in the Fore-ftreet, nearly oppofite to Broad-gate, 1778.

$$
(\text { Price } S \mathbf{I}-P \mathbf{E} \mathbf{N} \mathbf{E} .)
$$

## PREFACE.

## [TO THE EDITION OF 17\%8.]

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 ${ }^{2}$ 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, ${ }^{2}$ to be corrected in a future Edition.

It may be proper to advertise sucli 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;
${ }^{1}$ This preface appears for the first time with the 7th Edition-Exeter, A. Brice and B. Thorn, 1771, price nine pence.
${ }^{2}-{ }^{2}$ The 7th Edition has, 'Editors liave.'
and not an arbitrary Collection of ill-conneeted clownish Words, like those introdnced into the Journals of some late Sentimental Travellers as well as the Productions of some Dramatie Writers, whose Clowns no more speak in their own proper Dialects, than a. dill School-boy makes elegant and elassical Latin; their suppos'd Language being such as would be no less montelligible to the Rusticks themselves, than to those polite Pretenders to Criticism who thereby mean to make them ridiculons. 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 Eemoor Scolding particularly, the Substantives have frequently too many Adjectives annex'd to them, nearly synonymons; and that the objurgatory Wenches in that Part of the Country have not such a Copia Verborum as is here represented: But we may appeal for the Truth of the Contrary to all who have heard the most noted Soolds among them, when engaged and well-match'd with fonl-month'd ant nimble-tongued Antagonists ; and how apt they are to string up together a Variety of abnsive Words and devont 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 Parpose, provided they are sufficiently abusive._The following Collection was originally made abont the Beginning of the present Century, by a bind itinerant Fidler, (one Peter Lock, of North-Monlton, or its Neighbourhood) who was a Man of some Hnmour ; 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 ${ }^{1}$ of a neighbouring Clergyman, who by the Fidler's Assistance put the Exmoor Scolding into the Form in whieh we now have it, and, before his Death, (which happened soon after the Year 1725) communicated it to the Public, ${ }^{2}$ and afterwards gave Rise to the Ecmoor Courtship, a Performanee thought deserving to be added theremnto; but Copies of the Scolding were, for some Time before and after this, handed about in Mannseript ${ }^{3}$ above 40 Years since, and was then taken to be the original Composition of the Clergyman aforesaid; few being then apprehensive of its having
${ }^{1}$ 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. Ilole, Archdeacon of Barostaple.'
${ }^{2} 7$ th Edition las, 'commmicated it to the Editor of the first and subsequent Editions, who perfected the Courtship; but copies,' \&e. Sir F. Madden has underlined Editor, and in another pencil note says, 'Mr. Wm. Chapple?'
${ }^{3}$ 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 Iiver Exe rises) is, for the most Part, in the Comnty of Somerset; and tho' Paracombe 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 Northem Parts thereof: For many Words and Phases therein, would not be well understood by People in the Sontli-IIams, (by which is meant all the Sonthern 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 Comnty. 'Tis well 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 Duteh) ${ }^{1}$ took Place of the British every-where, but in Wales and Cornwall; and so continned until the Nomman Conquest, when the Conqueror, endeavouring to introduce the French Tongue, and causing all Edicts and judicial Proceedings to be in that Language, the Saxou 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 Languayes by the Professors of Arts and Sciences, \&c. the antient Anglo-Saxon Tongne, with some Variation of its Sonnd and Orthography, chiefly prevails in the vulgar Part of our present Language; and it will appear in the Glossary suljoin'd to the following Dialognes, 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

[^20]different Places. Hence every County has its peculiar Dialect, at least in respect to the vulgar Language of their Rusticks, insomnch that those of different Counties cannot ${ }^{1}$ easily understand each other. Among Persons engaged in Commerce indeed, or who have had a liberal Elucation, 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 fufe 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 wummon; 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: $\qquad$ "

The Reader must be left to judge, on a Comparison of this with any Part of the E.cmoor 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 " valned;" —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 Conntrymen wonld guess to mean. "I see a Gander feeding at our Barn-door."——But to tronble 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.

[^21]In the following pages the original text is printed on the left hand; the Glossic transcript, corresponding line by line, on the right.

## AN EXMOOR SCOLDING.

Thomasin. $\mathrm{L}^{\text {o }}$ CK! Wilmot, vor why vor ded'st roily ${ }^{1}$ zo upon ma up to Challacomb Rowl? - Ees ${ }^{2}$ dedent thenk tha had'st a be's zich a Labb o' tha Tongue. - What a Vengance! wart ${ }^{4}$ betwatled, or wart tha baggaged; ${ }^{5}$ ——or had'st tha 5 took ${ }^{5}$ a Shord, or a paddled ? ${ }^{6}$

Wilmot. I roily upon tha, $\mathrm{ya}^{7}$ gurt, thonging, banging, muxy Drawbreech ?-Noa, 'twas thee roil'st upon me up to ${ }^{8}$ Daraty Vogwill's Upzitting, whan ${ }^{9}$ tha vung'st to (and be 9 hang'it to tha !) to Rabbin.- 'Shou'd zem ${ }^{10}$ tha wartzeck arter ${ }^{11}$ Me-atand
${ }^{1}$ The regular form of the infinitive for intransitive verbs. (See W. S. G. p. 49.)
${ }^{2}$ Spelt es elsewhere in the text, e.g. line 10. See note 3, p. 26. Also spelt $i s$, line 22 .
${ }^{3}$ 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 ap pe sor've ibe ;' line 3, 'Of moni butaile pat ap ibe.'
${ }^{4}$ The form wart is becoming rare-now it would be wus(t.
${ }^{5}$ - ${ }^{5}$ These are elisions of one of two similar and consecntive 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, 2S.)
${ }^{6}$ At present this final $d$ wondd generally disappear, and we should hear $u$-butwat $7, u$-pad $\cdot l$, $u$-bageej-if for emphasis the $d$ were sounded, it would
 Compare púch thй, l. 32.
${ }^{7}$ 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

## U AK'SMOAR SK0A'LDEEN.

Thomasin. AU•K! Wúl•mut, vur wuy vaur deds rauy lěe ${ }^{1}$ zoa ded-n dhengk dh-ads u-bee ${ }^{3}$ zich u Laab u dhu tung.-_Want u vai•njuns! wurt ${ }^{4}$ u-bútwaat $\cdot d$, ur wurt dhu-bag"eejd; ${ }^{5}$ __ur ads dhuteokt ${ }^{5}$ u shoa•urd, ur u-pad ld ? ?

Wilmot. Aa'y rauy lee paun dhu, yu ${ }^{7}$ guurt, dhaung'een, ban'geen, munk sěe Draa buurch ?-Noa•u, twuz dhee rauy lus pun mee aup tu ${ }^{8}$ Daar"utĕe Vang-wee‘ŭlz aup-zút-een, haun ${ }^{9}$ dhu vungs the (un bee ang tu dhu !) tu Rab•een.—Sh'd zúm ${ }^{10}$ dhu wurt zek aar`tur ${ }^{11}$ 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.
${ }^{8}$ 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 :-

> 'pre sipe he ber croune aser ; to Mideuinter at Gloucestre To Witesonetid at Westminstre to Ester at Wincestre.'
a Nothing approximating the whan of the text could now be heard-the $w$ is quite lost, particularly in this district, and although wai $n$ is heard for the emphatic when in the vales of W. Somerset, yet throughout N. Devon and the Exmoor combtry it is haun or hau'n-as Hav'n wauz ut? Haun dhu Puesnz mae ěr' voallud. 'When was it? when the Parson's mare foalel.'
${ }^{10}$ This phrase would not now be used-zúm-z auff. '(It) seems as though,' would now be said.
${ }^{11}$ This form of after is the usual one still ; while in the Vale it is more commonly $a a^{\circ} d r$.

10 Me-al. ${ }^{1}$ - Aud zo tha merst, ${ }^{2}$ by ort es ${ }^{3}$ know, wey guttering ; as gutter tha wutt ${ }^{ \pm}$whan tha com'st to good Tackling.-But zome zed "Shoor and shoor tha del'st bet make wise, to zee nif tha ${ }^{5}$ 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 Thomusin. Hey go! What ${ }^{6}$ Disyease dest me-an, ${ }^{7}$ 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 ${ }^{8}$ my Heart to tha avore Ise: ${ }^{9}$ let tha lipped.-Chell tack et out ${ }^{10}$ wi' tha to tha true Ben, fath! Tell ma, a zey, what Disyease 20 dest me-an that tha zest ${ }^{11}$ cham a troubled wey?

Wilmot. Why; ya purting, tatcly, stertling, jowering, prinking, mincing Theng, chell tell tha what Disyease. Is ${ }^{12}$ del'nt me-an the Bone-shave*, ner the Heartgun, ner the 24 Allembatch that tha had'st in thy Nidlick. 'Tes better twar: ${ }^{13}$ Vor
${ }^{1}$ 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.
${ }^{2}$ Merst is now obsolete-it would now be múds for mightest.
${ }^{3}$ This is us not $I$, and is sounded nearly ess. I believe the ees of the text (line 3) is the same. The nom. phur. in N. Devon is always thus pronounced, and it is very commonly used for the nom. singular. (See W. S. G., p. 34.)
${ }^{4}$ This is the emphatic form, and the text conveys the exact present pronunciation. The ordinary form of wilt is wutt, or simply 't, as dhee-t zè ${ }^{\circ} n$ $u$-due'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 $u \quad u$-dùe'd.

* (Note to Ed. of 177S). 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 afllicted 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.
"Bone-shave right ;
"Bone-shave straight ;
"As the Water rums by the Stave,
"Good for Bone-shave."
They are not to be persuaded but that this ridiculons Form of Words sellom fails to give them a perfect Cure.

Nae•ŭl. ${ }^{1}$ - Un zoa dhu muurs, ${ }^{2}$ bi oa ${ }^{\text {urt }}{ }^{\text {es }}{ }^{3}$ nau, wai guut'ureen ; uz 10 guut ur dhu wuut ${ }^{4}$ haun dhu kaums tu gèo d taak leen.-Bud zaum zal "Shoo'ŭr-n shoo'ŭr thu daeds brit mak wuyz, tu zee neef dhu ${ }^{5}$ " yumg Joazee Yef-ee-ŭl wúd kaum tu zlaak dhi baudeez, un wae•ŭr u wád bi u-voa'r ur noa."-_Bŭ-twuz dhu oa'l dees-yai z , Chum.

Thomasin. Aa•y goo! Haut ${ }^{6}$ decs-yai'z dús mee'ŭn, ${ }^{7}$ yu guurt 15 duug'ud-taa'yuld, zwaupreen, 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 ${ }^{8}$ mi aa'rt tu dhu uvoar aayz ${ }^{9}$ lat dhu lúprud.-Ch-úl taak ut uwt $\cdot 10$ wi dhu tu dhu truè bairn, faath ! Tuul mu, u zai', haut deesyai ${ }^{z}$ dús mee ${ }^{\text {unn }}$ dhut dhu zaes ${ }^{11}$ ch-aam u-truub-ld wai?

Wilmot. Waa'y ; yu puurteen, taach•ĕe, stee ${ }^{\text {unrt }}$ leen, jaa'wureen, preng-keen, mún'seen dhaeng, ch-úl tuul dhu haut dees-yaiz. Es ${ }^{12}$ ded-n mee'ŭn dhu Boo'ŭn-shee'ŭv,* nur dh-aart-gunn, nur dh-aal• urnbaach dhut dh-ads een dhee núd $\cdot \mathrm{ik}$. Tez badre twaar: ${ }^{13}$ vur 24
${ }^{5}$ It is still nearly invariable to use the before a proper name when there is a qualifying adjective, as Aay zeed dh-on'l Faarmur Tarp; dhrat-s dhu geurt Jan Urel, 'that is great John Rel' (Lorna Doone). It will be noticed that this rule is not once broken throughout these dialogues. Compare below l. 31, ' the youmg Dick Vrogwill' and 'George Vunz.'
${ }^{6}$ What in the text is as incorrect as the whan noted above. In I. 149, Wilmot says, 'no Direct to hot tha tellst'-proving that then as now the relative had no $w$ sound in it.
${ }^{7}$ Also pronounced main, which at present is the common form.
${ }^{8}$ The ea in this word has always been sounded $a i$ as in main, and I think the author of the text must have so intended it, as also in Disyease.

9 This form is now quite obsolete as a conditional or future teuse. It is probably the es before noted.
${ }^{10}$ i.e. ' Have it out with you.'
${ }^{11}$ 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 literaryismthe 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.
${ }^{12} I s$ 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.
${ }^{13}$ Twar is now quite obsolcte. I have heard tware, but only from maidservants or those who try to talk 'fine.' The form thronghout N. Devon and Exmoor now is twaz when emphatic, precisely the sound of has in lit. Eng.
$\therefore 5$ than Ount Annis Moreman ${ }^{1}$ could ha' ${ }^{2}$ blessed vore, ${ }^{3}$ and net ha' ${ }^{2}$ pomster'd about et, as ${ }^{4}$ Moather ded.
4 Thomusin. 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 vetch tha.
30 Thomasin. What's me-an by that, ya long-hanjed Meazle? Dist lure ${ }^{5}$ ma? Tha call'st ma stertling Roil now-reert. How dedst Thee stertlee upon the Zess last Harest wey the young Diek Vrogwill, whan George Vuzz ${ }^{6}$ putch'd ? ${ }^{7}$-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 Ninniwateh 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 !

Witnot. Don't tell me o' glumping: Oll the Neighbourhoolen ${ }^{\text {s }}$ knowth ${ }^{9}$ thee to be a veaking, blazing, tiltish Hussey.

Thomasin. And thee art a erewnting, querking, yeavy, dugged-yess, ${ }^{10}$ ehockling Baggage.
45 Wilmot. Net ${ }^{11}$ zo chockling, ner it ${ }^{12}$ zo crewnting, as thee art, a
${ }^{1}$ This name is always thus pronomed. So also the village Morebath is always Aluur-buth.
${ }^{2}-{ }^{2}$ Elisions of the vowel $u$, i.e. the paiticipial prefix, or when in rapid speech, the auxiliary huee is shortened into $u$. If spoken deliberately it would be leod wo u-blus'url, neet ur u-peumsturd. This fom 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 $h a$ ' of the text merely conventional writing.
${ }^{3}$ This word adds no force to the verb, but is, and apparently has long been a mere pleonasm. Scarcely ten sentences ean be heard in the district without vour oecurriug some where.
${ }^{4}$ I think $a s$ is an error of the original transeriher. No native would have used so literary a phrase, he would have said sue"um-z Mourdhur daed, or eens Newedhur dued.
${ }^{5}$ This form is nearly olsolete, a very few old people still use it.
${ }^{6}$ Furze is a very common name, and is always pronownced $V^{\prime}$ tuzz.
${ }^{7}$ Ilere the words being all more or less emphatic, the final inflexion would have a syllable to itself.
${ }^{8}$ This is the old phural, quite obsolete. See W. S. Gram., p. 7.
dhan Aewnt An'ees Munr•mun ${ }^{3}$ kèod $u^{2}$ blas'ud voa $r^{3}$ un neet $u^{2} 25$ paum'sturd nbaewd ut, uz ${ }^{4}$ Mau dhur daed.

Thomasin. Haut dees-yaiz dhan yu guurt Ag•eej?
Wilmot. W•aa'y, ae’ŭr zúnz dhu wurt twuun'tee, aa'y zaewn'teen, un uvoar, dh-aast u-bee truubld wai dhu Daewl vach dhu.

Thomusin. Haut-s mee ŭn bi dhat, yu laung-han jud Maizl? 30 Dúst ny‘ur ${ }^{5}$ mu? Dhu kyaals' mu stce-ŭrtlecn Rauy‘n̆l naew-ree-ŭrt. Aew deds dhee• stee•urtlĕe pun dhu Zaes laas Aar"ns wai dhu yung Dik V raug wee $\breve{ }$ ul, ham Jaurj Vuuz ${ }^{6}$ púch-tu ${ }^{7}$ ? - Ee toal mudlu woal Fummp u dha bez nees.

Wilmot. Au! dhu vnur‘ĕe Vai•njuns tae'ŭr dhu! Dús dhee tuul 35 mee u Dik Vraug wee-ŭl?-Waa'y, thee urt een u Nín'čewanch
 Vuurz•dn (Fursdon).

Thomasin. Aew ! yu guurt chaewn'teen, gruum leen, gluum peen, zaaw'ur-zaap nd, yuur•een Traarsh !

Wilmot. Doa'ŭn tuul mee u glum'peen : Aul dhu Naay-bureodn ${ }^{8}$ nau'uth ${ }^{9}$ dhee' tu bee a vai keen, blae ŭzeen, túlteesh Unz'̆.e.

Thomasin. Un dhee urt u krue nteen, kwurkeen, yai•vॅe, duug ud-yas, ${ }^{10}$ chauk leen bageej.

Wilmot. Neet ${ }^{11}$ zu chauk leen, nur eet ${ }^{12}$ zu kriue nteen-zdhee arrt, u 45
${ }^{9}$ An example of the use of the termination th in the plural. Compare 'Ancren Riwle' (Ed. Camden Society) :-
'vor beos riwleð pe horte-
alse sum deð, alse зe telleð me.'-p. 8 .
'pe pine pet prisums polied : pet heo liggeð.'-p. 32.
So also in 'Robert of Gloncester' 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.
${ }^{11}$ Not in the sense here used, is at present always neet, and is the evident contraction of not yet or nor yet.

12 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 $\cdot t$, 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 wat come oll a gerred, and oll horry zo vurs ${ }^{1}$ 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, tha art zo vore-reet, nif Vauther dedn't ha-ape tha.

Thomasin. Ay, ay! Kester Moreman wou'd ha be hove ${ }^{5}$ up, nif zo be ${ }^{6}$ a had a had tha; a toteling, wambling, ${ }^{7}$ zlottering, zart-and-vair yheat-stool.

Wilmot. Ay, and zo wou'd tha young George Vuzz, mum, ${ }^{8}$ whan $\mathrm{a}^{9}$ had a had a rubbacrock, rouzeabout, platvooted, zidlemouth'd ${ }^{10}$ Swashbucket. - Pitha dest thenk enny Theng will e'er vittee or gooddee wey zich a whatnozed, haggle-tooth'd, ${ }^{10}$ stare-bason, timersome, rixy, wapper-ee'l Theng as thee art ?

Thonnasin. 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 lonching, haggaging Moil.
${ }^{1}$ For seems to have been, as now, unknown in either comparison-distance is vuur•nees. A man was giving me a direction across a very lonely part of Exmoor, and told me I should come to tùe guurt eeps u stoo unz baewt dhu vuur"nees uv и Kwaur"tur muyruld woorr yùe kaumth tu dhu gee'ŭt. 'Two great heaps of stones (two barrows) about the furness of a quarter mile before you cometh to the gate.'
${ }^{2}$ The teal of the text is not broad enough, even if $e a=a i$. I have heard very ignorant people talking 'fine,' say tee $\breve{u l l}$ for tail, dee $\breve{u l l}$ for dale, pee•йl for pail, \&c., but there was clearly no affectation about Wilmot.
${ }^{3}$ Probably $u-y u u k \cdot u d$ would more correctly represent the sound. In the hill districts the long o is somded more like oo than the oa of the vales. Hence yoke is $y 00 \%$-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 kee $\cdot n d$, so oblige is always ublee; $\dot{j}$, wind (v.) ween ; blind is constantly blee $n$, right, ree $\cdot t$, as in the text; shine, shee $\cdot n$. See text, 1. 129.
${ }^{5}$ I believe this to be the p. part. of heave with the prefix elided by rapid speech-uttered deliberately, this would be, wud u-bee u-oav aup.
${ }^{6}$ If when it signifies peradventure, is still neef zu bee.
7 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 stroak dhu Kae•ee, dhec wít km aul u-guur'ud, un aul aurce zu vuur-z ${ }^{1}$ dh-aart u-van'rkud ; yu guur $\cdot$ ul-taa'yuld, ${ }^{2}$ pang keen, eo streen Mai'zl !-Dhee urt lik u skit•eesh Stèor jest u-yook•ud. ${ }^{3}$ Dhu wíts buust ún'ěe keen•dees dheng, ${ }^{4}$ dh-aart zu voar-reet, neef Vau•dhur 50 ded-n aa'p dhu.

Thomasin. Aay, aa'y! Kaes‘tur Muurmun wúd u bee oa'v ${ }^{5}$ aup,
 zaart-n-vae'ŭr yee"ŭt-stèol.

Wilmot. Aa•y, un zoa• wúd dhu yuung Jaurj Vuuz, mún, ${ }^{8}$ haun u ${ }^{9} 55$ adu-ad•u ruub•ukrauk, raew•zubaewt, plaat-vèot•ud, zuy•dl-muw dhud ${ }^{10}$ Zwaysh-buuk rut.-Pidhu dús dhengk ún`ĕe dheng wúl ae•ŭr vútee
 túm•ursum, rik sěe, waap ur-ee dd dheng-z dhee aart ?

Thomasin. Dúst uy‘ŭr mú? ${ }^{11}$ Aul dhu Kruym u dhu Kuun'trěe 60 gooth, dhut haun.12 dhu lee'vst aup tu dhu Kaut, thu wurt dh-oa. 1 Raj'ur Ee'ŭlz uun'dur bai'd-blaun•kut. Un moo'ŭr-n zoa, ${ }^{13}$ dhut dhu
 laun cheen, ag eejeen Mauy $\cdot u l$.
the $b$ is always dropped-stuum leen, shaam ${ }^{\text {leen, }}$ raam $\cdot l e e n$, gruum $-l e e n$, \& $c$.
${ }^{8}$ 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 schave pe mon seit pe holi Michee.'
${ }^{9}$ 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, 1. 50, writes, ' $\&$ seyde pat a moste spare pynges pat scholde be hys oune: again, p. 245, 1. 68, '"Nay," quap Harold, "hy bep no prustes, bote a beb wel stalword kny3tes."'
${ }^{10}$ - ${ }^{10}$ In all these nouns used adjectively, the inflexion has the full syllable, as in the p. part. See note 3, p. 30. I think the transcriber inconsistent in having written some $e d$ and others ' $d$, while, on the contrary, he writes troubled, which is pronounced truub $l d$. 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 traap $u r e e \cdot u$ was spoken.
${ }_{11}$ Then, as now, threatening or abusive sentences very often began thus. Now this phrase, Dost hear me? is contracted into Shuur mu?
${ }^{12}$ Spelt whan elsewhere, in the text.
${ }^{13}$ This expression is still very common $=$ moreorer.

65 Wilmot. How! ya confounded Trapes! Tell me enny more o' 'Rager Hill's Bed-blonket, ad! chell pull the Poll $o^{\prime}$ tha; ${ }^{1}$ chell plim tha, chell vulch tha. Looks zee, ${ }^{2}$ - Rager Hill es as ${ }^{3}$ honest a Man as any ${ }^{4}$ in Challacomb; - no Dispreise.
70 Thomasin. And do thee tell me o' stertling upon the Zess, whan George Vuzz putch'd, ${ }^{5}$ 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 ${ }^{6}$ 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 ${ }^{7}$ in tha Chups $\dagger$, ya Grizzledemmandy.

Thomasin. Me a Strait in the Chups? Dest hire ma? Come aneest me, chell pummel tha, chell vag tha, chell lace tha.

Wilmot. Thee lace ma? Chem a laced well-a-fine ${ }^{8}$ aready ${ }^{9}$ ——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.

[^22]Wilmot. Aew! yu kaun faewn dud trae $u$ ups ! Tuul mee• únče 65
 u dhu ${ }^{1}$; ch-íl plím dhu, cll-úl vuulch dhu. Lčok-s zee ${ }^{\cdot}$, ${ }^{2}$-Raj•ur Ee•ŭl úz uz ${ }^{3}$ au’nees a mae•ŭn uz ún ${ }^{\text {ece }}{ }^{4}$ cen Chaal-ikum ;-noa deespraa'yz.

Thomasin. Un du dhee tuul mee a stee'ĭrtleen pun dhu Zaes, ham 70 Jaurj Vuuz púch•tu, ${ }^{5}$ ch-íli gi dhu u lik; --ch-úl laa'y dhu oa•vur dhu yuurz wai dhu vuy-ur-tangz. Ad! ch-úl ting dhu. Dhi buuzzom chuuks wur puurtee vút-ce uvoar dhu mae•ŭds dhi-zuul dhaur•ul, un dhi Vlaiysh aul wang urce, un dhi skeen aul vlag. ud, wai ${ }^{6}$ noa ${ }^{\circ}$ úrt bút Ag•een, un Vai•keen, un túlteeshnces.

Wilmot. Bai d-blaun kut ukaedh •ur*! Haa! zai zich wuurd moo'ír, ch-úl kaut•n dhuy wae-ŭskoa־ŭt. Ch-úl dhaung dhu, clıú-l gi dhu zich u straat-n ${ }^{7}$ dhuu chuups, $\dagger$ yu guur zl-dimuman dĕe.

Thomasin. Mee u straat-n dhu chuups? Dúst uy‘ŭr mu? Kaum mee•ŭs mee, ch-úl paum•ul dhu, ch-ùl vag dhu, ch-úl lae•n̆s dhu.80

Wilmot. Dhee lae'̆̆s mu? ch-úm u-lae'h̆s wuul-u-fuyn ${ }^{8}$ urad-če. ${ }^{9}$ - Zai woon wuurd moơ̆rr-n ch-úl búrsh dhu, ch-úl tan dhu, ch-úl mak dhi baud-eez púl měe.

Thomasin. Aew u mae uhn zaed ! ${ }^{10}$ mak muy band'eez pŭl'mĕe? Ad! neef ae‘ŭr dhu skwaikns woon wuurd moo'ŭr u dhu baid- 85 blaun•kut, cli-úl trím dhu, ch-úl kraewn dhu, ch-úl vump dhu.
${ }^{6}$ Error of transcribers, with was unknown.
7 Misprint in the text for strat or stratt. See Glossary.
${ }^{8} \mathrm{~A}$ common expression $=$ very fine -
'God him sente a wel feir gras.'
'Stacions of Rome' (E. E. T. S., Furnivall), p. 14, 1. 416.
'porn-out al Engelond. he huld wel god pes.'
'Rob. of Gloncester' (ed. Morris and Skeat), 1 (A), l. 370.
The $a$ in well-a-fine is, I think, euphonic ; compare wash-a-mouth, line 13s; rubb-a-crock, line 56.
${ }^{9}$ No trace of the $l$ is ever heard in already.
${ }^{10}$ 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 ŭm: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 eurry thy seabbed Yess var ${ }^{2}$ tha.
90 Thomasin. And why dest thee, than, tell me 'Isterday o' losing ${ }^{3}$ my Rewden Hat in the Rex-bush, out a whorting ? ${ }^{4}$ And more and zo, that the young Tom Vuzz shou'd le-ave ${ }^{5}$ he's Corl glove!-Ad! zey a Word more o' the young Tom Vuzz, chell baste tha, chell stram tha, ehell drash tha; -chell make thy Kepp 95 hoppee, wi' thy Vlanders Lace upon't. ${ }^{6}$

Wilmot. Vlanders Lace! What's me-an by that, ha-ah? ${ }^{7}$ Tell me enny more o' Vlanders Lace, chell make thy Yead ${ }^{8}$ addle. Chell up wi' ma Veest, and gi' tha a Whisterpoop, and zich a Zwop as ${ }^{9}$ 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 mulifty, ill-hearty, untidy Mea-zel ?-Andra wou'd ha' had a Trub in tha, nif Vauther hadent a 105 strad the Match.

Thomusin. How Dem! a Trub?-_Go, ye rearing, snapping, tedions, cutted Snibhlenose !--Th' art olways a vustled up in an old Jump, or a Whittle, or an old Seggard, avore ${ }^{11}$ zieh Times as 109 Neekle Halse ${ }^{12}$ comath about:- Than tha wht prinkee. -

[^23]Wilmot．Waay dúds dhee，dhun，tuul mee u dhu Zaes，ur eet u 87 dhu haa＇y pèok，uz ${ }^{1}$ dhu daeds wuy lae ur ？－Ch－úl druub dhut，ch－úl kuur＇ĕe dhi skab $\cdot$ ud yaes vaur $^{2}$ dhu．

Thomasin．Un waay daeds dhee，dhun，tuul mee ús＇turdai u 90 laus teen ${ }^{3}$ mi rùe dn aat een dhu reks bèosh，aewt u humr＇teen ？${ }^{t}$ Un
 gluuv！Ad！zai u wumrd mooŭr u dhu yuung Taum Vunz，ch－úl bae－ŭs dhu，ch－úl straam dhu，eh－úl draash dhu ；－ch－úl mak dhi kep aup•ee，wi dhi Vlaan durz lae us upaunt．${ }^{6}$

Wilmot．Vlaan durz lae‘⿰⿱口丂s！Haut－s mee un bi dhat，haa＇й？${ }^{7}$ Tuul mee ún＇c̆e moo ŭr u Vlaan durz lae＇йs，eh－úl mak dhi ai d ${ }^{8}$ ad $\cdot 1$ ． Ch－úl aup wai mu veest，un gi dhu u Wús＇turpeop，un zieh in Zwaup ${ }^{9}$ 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 thu chuups，－ur aup wai dhi duug ud Koaruts，un taak dhu gree：ŭsče ${ }^{10}$ yacs u dhu．

Wilmot．Dhee taak mu，yu aunlúf•tče，ee•ŭl－uarttĕe，amintuy•dĕe 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 ${ }^{\text {ŭreen，}}$ snaap een， tai•jus，euut ud snúb lnoa＇ŭz！－Dh－urt au laiz u－vuus＇ld aup eeu un oall jump，ur u wútl，ur un oal Saeg．urd，uvoart ${ }^{1 l}$ zich tuymz uz Naek•l Aal＇s ${ }^{12}$ kaum•uth ubaewt：－Dhan• dhu wít praeng．kče．－ 109
${ }^{6}$ 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 through－ out．（See also W．S．Gram．，p．33．）
${ }^{7}$ This is the equivalent of the well－known $e h$ ？but in the west generally takes the broader form．
${ }^{8}$ Head though written yead would not，I believe，have had a $y$ somrl， except for the close vowel preceding the long $a$ ．$\quad$ thi $a i \cdot d$ ，cannot be pronounced quickly without the $y$ sound．
${ }^{9}$ In rapid speech the as before shall would quite disappear．
${ }^{10}$ Greasy would now be prononnced grai sĕe．
${ }^{11}$ This is still the common idiom for uatil；another equally common is $g i n$ zich tuymz．A man at Plymouth（Feb．12，1879）said to me，＇us can wait avore you be ready，Sir．＇
${ }^{12}$ Halse is a very common name in N．Devon ；it is always pronounced $A a / s$ by the Thomasin class．Neckle is the usual abbreviation for Nicholas．

110 Thee hast a let the Kee go zoo vor Want ${ }^{1}$ o' strocking. ${ }^{2}$ It a vore oll* th' art an abomination ${ }^{3}$ Pinchvart vor thy own Eends.———Ay, ay! Shoort, Wilmot, shourt!----Zwer thy Torn, ${ }^{4}$ or else tha tedst net carry ${ }^{5}$ whome ${ }^{6}$ thy Pad, and meet ${ }^{7}$ Neckle Halse by tha Wey.——He'll meet tha in the Vuzzy-park ${ }^{8}$ Coander ${ }^{9}$ 115 by Cockleert, or avore, chell warndy. ${ }^{10}$

Wilmot. Tell ${ }^{11}$ ma one Word more o' Neckle Halse chell skull tha, tha hassent a be' a skull'd zo vor wone while. ${ }^{12}$ Ya gurt Fustilugs! The Old Mag Dawkins es bet a Huckmuck to tha. Zet tha about ort, why, tha dest Thengs vore-and-back, ${ }^{13}$ 120 a cat-hamm'd, ${ }^{14}$ a vore-reert, and vramp-shaken, ${ }^{15}$ like a Totle.

Thomasin. How! ya long-hanged Trapes! Ya blowmonger Baarge! Thee wht coal-varty a-bed $\dagger$ 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, ${ }^{19}$
${ }^{1}$ A literaryism-the vernacular would be laats; want is scarcely ever heard in this sense - a want is the only name known for a mole (Talpa).
${ }^{2}$ Like yoa $\%$ (see note, l. 38), so stroa $k$ is shortened by the added syllahle to struukeen, struck $\cdot u d$ (intrans.) : the transitive inflection not adding a syllable would be stroo \%it.
${ }^{3}$ Still a common expression for abominable. The $r$ is distinctly somded in all words ending in ation.
${ }^{4}$ This expression is still very commonly used to women. It is equivalent to 'get on with your work.' A farmer's wife would say, Zouur 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 pud (q. v.).
${ }^{5}$ Corry is a literaryism-the $y$ is always dropped.
${ }^{6}$ 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 arm-the precise sound of om in Tom.
${ }^{7}$ Meet, sweet, keep, peep, decp, and some others have the ce short, something like the sound of $i$ in pit, linit, of lit. Eng. Some, as sleep, leat, are zlec ŭи), lee"йt.

* (Note to Erl. of 1\%7S.) It (or Eet) a vore all, means, Yet notwithstanding.
$\dagger$ (Note to Ed. of 17\%S.) 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 $\cdot$ vur wau ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ u struuk $\cdot e e n .{ }^{2}$ Eet 110 uvoar aul,* dh-aart un ubaum•inae ŭrshun ${ }^{3}$ púnchvaart vur dhi oa ŭn
 ur uls dhu taeds nút kaar. ${ }^{5}$ woa'm ${ }^{6}$ dhi pad, un mĕet ${ }^{7}$ Nack 1 Aa ls bi dhi wai.-Ee ul mĕet dhu een thu Vuuz ${ }^{\text {če }}$ paark $^{8}$ Koa ${ }^{\text {unndur }}{ }^{9}$ bi Kauk-lee ưrt, ur uvoar, ch-úl wau'rnd-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 Daurkeenz úz bút u Uuk•muuk tu dhu. Zaet dhu abaewt oa•urt, waay, dhut dús dhaengz voar-rin baak, ${ }^{13}$


Thomasin. Aew! yu laung-an-jud Trae ŭps! Yu llèo maun jur Baa•rj! Dhee wút koal $\cdot$ vaar těe u-baid $\dagger$ uvoa $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ bi roor dai z . Dh-aartzu dee $\cdot \mathrm{f}-\mathrm{s}^{16} \mathrm{u}$ ad $\cdot \mathrm{ik}$ een chaun jeje wadh ur . Ur haun taez avroar ${ }^{17}$ ur u-skraa $\cdot \mathrm{eht}$ dhu lee‘ŭs dhaeng aewt, ${ }^{18}$ ur haun snèo th, ur blaeng $\cdot$ kuth, ${ }^{19} 124$

[^24]125 or doveth, or in scatty Weather, or in a tingling ${ }^{1}$ Vrost, than tha art thecklifted, ${ }^{2}$ and ba hang'd to tha.

Wilmot. And thee art a lams'd in wone o' thy Yearms, ${ }^{3}$ and cassent zee a Sheen in thy Reart Ee.

Thomasin. Rex-bush! - Fath! tell me o' tha Rexbush, 130 ye teeheeing Pixy' - Es marl ${ }^{4}$ who's more vor Rigging or Rumping, ${ }^{5}$ Steehopping or Ragrowtering, Giggleting, ${ }^{6}$ or Gambowling than thee art thyzel.-Pitha, dest'nt remember ${ }^{7}$ whan tha com'st over tha Clam wi' tha Old Hugh Hosegood, whan tha Wawter was by Stave, how tha vel'st ${ }^{8}$ in, and the Old Hugh 135 drade thee out by tha vorked Eend, wi' thy dugged Clathers up zo vur as thy Na'el, ${ }^{9}$ 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.

${ }^{1}$ Words ending in gling or ging, never somd two $g$ 's, as in lit. Eng. tinggling, or Lancashire sing ying.

2 The participial prefix omitted in the text-it could not be so by the speaker. See W. S. G., p. 49.
${ }^{3}$ I never heard any $y$ somd 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.

4 Marrel is thas pronomiced-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; murl, i. e. clay is maar"dl.
ur doa•vuth, ur een skatce wadh our, ur een u teng leen ${ }^{1}$ vrau's, 125 dhan dh-aart u-thaek $\cdot$ luf $\cdot t u d,{ }^{2}$ un bee ang-tu dhu.

Witmot. Un dhee urt u-laamst een woon u dhi ae hrmz, ${ }^{3}$ uu kas'n zee a Shee'n een dhi ree ŭrt ee.

Thomasin. Raeks-lèo sh !-Faa th ! tuul mee u dhu raeks-leoosh,

 buwleen-un dhee aart dhi zuul.-P'údh'u, dús-n rai'mumbur ${ }^{7}$ haun dhu kaumst oa'vur dhu klaam• wai dh-oal Yùe• Oazgèol, ham dhu waatur wuz bi stae $\breve{n} r$, aew dhu valst ${ }^{8}$ een, un dh-oal Yùe. drae-ŭd dhee aewt bi dhi vaurkud een, wai dhi dung oud Klaadhurz 135 aup zu vur-z dhi naa $\cdot \mathrm{ul},{ }^{9}$ haun dhu wnst jist u-luud ld ?

Wilmot. Lauk! dús dwaalče, ur tuul dauy ul ?-Pádh•u tuul raiznubl, ${ }^{10}$ ur oald dhi paup 'een, yu guurt Waysh-mmaewf.

## Zoa ainth athu fitus Baewt.

${ }^{5}$ Romping is still so spoken-so Juul for $J o b$, ruul for rol, \&e.
${ }^{6}$ Giggling-this word is still pronomeed with $t$ in it. I heard a man abusing his daughter, call her 'yu gig lteen yuang buch!'
${ }^{7}$ Literaryism-remember would be fine talk. Thomasin to Wilmot would have said muyn, 'mind'- to the parson or a 'real gentleman,' ruimumbur.
${ }^{8}$ Spelt culst in l. 169.

10 This is a very common expression still $=$ tallk sensilly.

## AN EXMOOR SCOLDING.

## BOUT THE SECOND.

Wilmot. IST hire ma, Dem? Chell ha tether Vinny wi' of ${ }^{2}$ Rigging and Rumping, Steehopping and Ragrowtering, Giggleting and Gamboyling. ${ }^{3}$ What's me-an by thate? ${ }^{ \pm}$But thee, thee wht ruckee, and squattee, and doattee ${ }^{5}$ 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 Duckingham Jenkins. - Ay, ay, poor ${ }^{\circledR}$ Andra Vursdon wud ha' had a rig-mutton Pumpstall in tha, nif tad net ha' be' strat. ${ }^{9}$ 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. ${ }^{11} \mathrm{Na}$, tha wut lee a Rope
${ }^{1}$ There is no sound of the $d$ or the $t$ after the $l$ in this word.
${ }^{2}$ Literaryism-of $=u v$ is only used before a vowel.
${ }^{3}$ Spelt gambouling previously-I never heard gamboyling.
${ }^{4}$ 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 thet.)
${ }^{5}$ Here the similar vowel sounds-doartee een $=$ doattee $i n$-of the text would in rapid speech be slurred together, as previously noted. (See note 5, 1. 5. Also W. S. Gram., p. 27.)
${ }^{6}$ 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 SK0A'LDEEN.

## BAEWT DHU SAEK•UNT.

Wilmot. UST uy'ur mu, Daem? Ch-úl ae hu taedh ur vín'ee wi $u^{2}$ rig•een un rumm'peen, stee aupeen un rag.grnwtureen, gig.lteen un gaam buw leen. ${ }^{3}$ Hant-s mee ${ }^{\text {unn }}$ bi dhae n̆t? ${ }^{4}$ Bút dhee, dhee
 lik $\mathfrak{u}^{6}$ aks wad•l; an: wi dhu zae $u$ um dhu wút rae ${ }^{\text {nhkěe }}$ aup-m ${ }^{7}$ gèo $k$ če, un tuul dauy•ul, tuul Dúl•drumz un Bunk•eenum Jing- 145
 ruum psl een dhu, neef t-ad nút $u$-bee straat. ${ }^{9} \mathrm{U}$ wúd $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{ad}$ u koa ud, riglteen, par•baekeen, puy peen ban•dee-n dhu! aul•wai woon glaam ur naedh $\cdot \mathrm{wr}$. Un moo'ňr-n zoa', dhur-z noa clurack• tu haut dhu truls. ${ }^{10}$ Dhu wút faeb ut aar ti luyk. ${ }^{11}$ Naa, dhu wít lee u roo up 150

[^25]151 up-reert.* 1 Chad a most a borst my Guts wi' laughing, whan's zeed tha whilere trapsee hum from tha Yeoama Lock, ${ }^{2}$ thy Shoes oll besh-, ${ }^{3}$ thy Hozen ${ }^{4}$ muxy up zo vurs thy Gammerels to tha rery Hucksheens o' tha, thy Gore Coat oll a girred, 155 thy Aead-Clathing ${ }^{5}$ oll a' foust ; thy Waisteoat oll horry, and thy l'ancrock a kiver'd wi' Briss and Buttons.

Thomusin. Why thare zo! ${ }^{6}$ Bet dist net thee thenk, ya long-hanged Trapes, that tha young Josy Yeaff-field ${ }^{7}$ wud ha' be' plasad, when ha had zitch a crewdling Theng as thee art? Eart 160 lunging, eart squatting upon thy tether Eend. Zey ort to ${ }^{8}$ tha, why tha wut twitch up thy Teal, and draw ${ }^{9}$ up thy Noaze, and take Owl ${ }^{10}$ o', or take Pip $o^{\prime}$. Nif won ${ }^{11}$ zey the le-ast Theng out, ${ }^{12}$ tha wut purtee a Zemet arter.

Wilmot. How, Hussey! ya confounded Trash! Dist remem165 ber ${ }^{13}$ when tha wenst out in the Tuzzey-Park, in the Desk o' tha Yeaveling, just in tha Dimmet, wi' tha young Humphrey Hosegoul,and how ha mullad and soulad about tha? Ha bed ${ }^{14}$ tha zet down;and tha zedst tha woudst net, ${ }^{15}$ nif ha dedent blow tha down. Zo ha blow'd, and down tha valst. Who shud be hard by ${ }^{\text {lid }}$ (vor 'twas in 170 tha Dimmet) bet tha Square's ${ }^{17}$ Bealy, -and vorewey ha' cry'd

[^26]aup-ree•ŭrt.*1 Ch-úd umoo-ees buus mi guuts wai laar feen, haun-s 151 zeed thu wuy 'ulae•ur trae•ŭpsěe uum vrum dhu Yoa•an 'ur Lauk, ${ }^{2}$ dhi shèo z aul besh-, ${ }^{3}$ dhi oa'zn ${ }^{4}$ muuk•see aup zu vur-z dhi gaam'urulz
 dhi ai•d klaa'theen ${ }^{5}$ aul u-fuwst ; dhi wae'ŭskoo'n̆t aul aur ĕe, un dhi 155 pang-krauk a-kúv•urd wai brús -n buut'nz.

Thomasin. Waay dhae ŭr zoa $\cdot!^{6}$ Bút dús nút dhee dhaengk, yu laung• an•jud trae'ups, dhut dhu yuung Joa'zee Yefee'ǔl ${ }^{7}$ wúd ubee plai'zud, haun $u$ ad zich u krèodleen thaeng uz thee aart. Ee'ŭrt
 waay dhu wút twúch aup dhi tany‘ŭl, un droa• aup ${ }^{9}$ dhi noa'ču, un tak owl ${ }^{10}$ oa, ur tak púp on. Neef waun ${ }^{11}$ zai dhu lee'ŭs dhaeng aewt, ${ }^{12}$ dhu wít puur'těe u zaen cut aar'tur.

Wilmot. Aew, uuz'ee! yu kaun•faewn $d u d$ traarsh! Dús rai-mímbur ${ }^{13}$ haun dhu wai'ns aewt-n dhu Vuuzee-Paark, een dhu dúsk u dhu 165 Yai•vleen, jist cen dhu dúm•nt, wai dhu yuung Uum•fri Oa•zgìod,un aew u muul•ad-n suw lud ubaewt dhu? U bai $d^{14}$ dhu zút daewn ;un dhu zaeds dhu wúts nát, ${ }^{15}$ neef u daed-n bloa dhu daewn. Zoa u bloa•d-n daewn dhu vaals. Ue shud bee aard buy ${ }^{16}$ (vur twuz een dhu dúm•ut) bít thu Skwai Jŭrz ${ }^{17}$ Bee ulc̆e,-un voarwai u kruy d 170
${ }^{9}$ Drew is always drue'й $=$ trahere, but draa $=$ designare. In Ed. of 1771 this word is $d$ row $=$ throw, doubtless the correct reading, $i . e$. 'toss up thy nose.'
${ }^{16}$ This expression is quite obsolete.
${ }^{11}$ I believe this to be a literaryism-the indefinite pronom is now always anyborly. (See W. S. Gram., p. 35.) This should be Neef ún'ee bau•dee zacth.
${ }^{12}$ The use of out in this sense is still very common-Dhu lairstees beet aext means a very small slice. There is not the least connection with the modern Cockney out-'the finest thing ont.' See l. 124.
${ }^{13}$ I think remember too 'fine talk'-it would most likely be dís mugn.
${ }^{14}$ This word is rare (though forbid is common) ; in the past tense it is still pronomed precisely like beel (cubile). The literary transcriber felt this, and so wrote it ; but I doubt not that then, as now, it was sounded bai $\cdot d$.
${ }^{15}$ The negative being here emphatic, the not is fully pronomecd; the ordinary form would be dhu urits-n.
${ }_{16}$ This is too literary. I never heard hard by used by a native-the usual form is chae'ür-buy. (See W. S. Gram., p. S4.) Neef twout-n dhue'йr, twuz dlute 'ŭr-buy; ' If it was not there, it was close at hand.'
${ }^{17}$ I think Square in the text fails to convey the sound-the diphthong is very long. Bailiff is often bee:ŭlèe, but more commonly bae ưlèe.

171 out that Oll Winavalls ${ }^{1}$ belongad to's Measter. Wi' tha zame ${ }^{2}$ tha splettest away - down tha Pennet - hilter skilter as if tha Dowl had ha' be' in tha Heels o' tha.

Thomasin. Oh the Dowl splet tha! who told theckee ${ }^{3}$ Strammer?
Wilmot. Why, twos thee thy own zel up to ${ }^{4}$ 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 ${ }^{5}$ agen? W'ell 'tes well a fine. ${ }^{6}$-Es can drow vore worse Spalls than thet to thee:-Ad! es cud rep tha up.

Wilmot. What, a Dowl, and be hang'd to tha, canst tha drow vore to me?

Thomasin. How many Times have es a hoard ${ }^{7}$ tha, and a zeed tha, pound Savin, to make Metcens, ${ }^{8}$ and Leckers, and Caucheries, and Zlotters ?-Tes good to know vor why vore. ${ }^{9}$

Wilmot. Oh! a Plague rat ${ }^{10}$ 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, ${ }^{11}$ and hawehee, and scrumpee ; tha wut net

[^27]aewt dhut Aul ween ovaalz ${ }^{1}$ bilaungud the z Mae ${ }^{\text {unstur. Wai dhu } 171}$ zae ${ }^{\text {umm }}{ }^{2}$ dhu splút us uwai--daewn dhu Pen'ut-úl'tur skúl'tur-z-auf dhu Duwl ad u-bee -n dhu ee oulz u dhu.

Thomasin. Oa dluu Duwl splút dhu! ùe,toal dhek'ĕe. ${ }^{3}$ straam'ur? Wilmot. Waay, twuz dhi oa'n zul aup tu ${ }^{4}$ stèoleen u tuur uz.175

Thomasin. Oa! u plaa'yg kunfaewn dhu! dús dhu dhaengk es daed tuul-t tu dhu $t$-ae ut u droad voar ${ }^{5}$ ugee ${ }^{\text {unn }}$ ? Wuul taez wrul u fuyn. ${ }^{6}$-Es kun droa voar wús-ur Spaals-n dhaet tu dhee:-Ad! es kud rúp dhu aup.

Wilmot. Haut, u Duwl, un bi ang• tu dlu, kúns dhu droa voarr 180 tu nee?

Thomasin. Aew múněe tuymz uv es u-yuurd ${ }^{7}$ dhu, un u-zeed dhu, paewn saav'een, to mak maet'sunz, ${ }^{8}$ un lek'urz, un kau $\cdot$ chureez, un zlaut urz? Tez gèo $\cdot \mathrm{d}$ tu noa vur way roar. ${ }^{9}$

Wilmot. Oa! u plaa'yg raat ${ }^{10}$ dbu! Yu muul'igruub guurgeen ! 185 yu shung maizzl!-Dh-urt gèo dl vur noa'ŭ't bít a gyaaps-naes.-U guut-ureen au-chumaewf dhaeng!-Haun dhu kaums tu gèod taak:leen, dhee wút peochĕe, ${ }^{11}$ un au-chče, un skrumm pĕe ; dhu wút nút
daed-n zee mee; un dhae ǔr dhai wauz u-droa'een aewt tu waun ur tuulh $u$, un zor aay yuurd ùe stoa lld your vaew $\mathrm{h} / \mathrm{l}$.
${ }^{6} i . e$. it is all very fine ' (obsolete phrase).
${ }^{7}$ Nothing like the hoard of the text can now be heard. See l. 81.
${ }^{8}$ Medicines still pronomed thus.
${ }^{9}$ 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.
${ }^{10} i$. e. rot-still always pronounced thus.
${ }^{11}$ 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 dialognes, 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-
'Reign of Will. Conqueror' (ed. Morris and Skeat) -
'He let gadery is liniztes.'-l. 47s.
'\& bigan sone to grony,
\& to febly also.'-1. 490.
' 'at he ne mizte ofseapie nozte.'-1. 495.
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! ${ }^{4}$ How dedst thee poochee and hawchee, and scrumpee, whan tha young Zaunder Vurston and thee stey'd ${ }^{5}$ up oll tha Neert a roasting o' Taties? pritch tha vor me! ${ }^{6}$ -Why, than tha wut be a prilled, or a muggard, a Zennet out195 recrt; and more an zo, thee wut rowcast, nif et be thy own Vauther. Nif tha beest ${ }^{\text {' a }}$ Zend to Vield wi tha Drenking, or ort, ${ }^{8}$ to tha Voaken, ${ }^{9}$ whare they be shooling ${ }^{10}{ }^{1}$ ' Beat, handbeeating, or angle-bowing," nif tha com'st athert Rager Hosegood, tha wht lackee an overwhile avore tha com'st, and ma' be ${ }^{11}$ net 200 trapesee ${ }^{12}$ hum avore the Desk o' tha Yeavling, ya blow-mannger Ba-arge. Oll ${ }^{13}$ vor palching about to hire ${ }^{14}$ Lces ${ }^{15}$ to vine-dra
> 'Life of St. Dunstan' (ibid)' Hi lete hit do to Glastnebury to morischi und to fede.'-1. 26.
> 'Serui he wolle poure men je wyle he mizte deore.'-1. 63.

These examples might be multiplied, but only in the last here given have I been able to find a verb laving 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 Gloncester'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.
${ }^{1}$ IW ait for or expect. Still a very common expression. A person unexpectedly paid for a service would say apologetically, Shoa ur nay daed-n leok vur noa jish dhatny; 'Sure I did not expect anything of the kind.' Compare Acts xxiii. 21, also 2 Pet. iii. 12 .

2 i. e. 'I'll warrant you.'
${ }^{3}$ This form of the conditional is most umsual. I incline to regard it as a spurious literaryism-it should be un-eef tae:z. The and nif is impossiblethe $d$ is not sounded, and the two words are slurred into one, dropping one of the $n s$ as before explained.

* (Note to Ed. of $1 \% \% \mathcal{S}$.) 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.

leok ${ }^{2}$ vur laa theen, eh-úl wau'rnd-ee; ${ }^{2}$ un-eef ut bee ${ }^{3}$ laub laul'če, dhu wút slaup ut aul aup.

Thomasin. Aew u mae'ŭn zaed! ${ }^{4}$ Aew daeds dhee pèo $\cdot$ ehče, un au'chee, un skrum•pěe, haun dhu yuung Zau'ndur Vuuz dn un dhee steyd ${ }^{5}$ aup aul nee‘ŭrt u roa-ŭsteen u tae-ŭdeez? púreh dhu vaur mi! ${ }^{6}$ -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 oarn 195 vau'dhur. Neef dhu beest ${ }^{\top}$ u-zai'n tu vee'ŭl wai thu draeng'keen, ur
 ur ang-l-boareen,* neef dhu kaumst u-dhuurt Rajour Oa'zgèod, dhu wút laak'ee un oa vur-wuyoul uvoar dhu kamms, un mu bee ${ }^{11}$ nút trae ${ }^{\text {unpsee }}{ }^{12}$ uum uvoar dhu daesk u dhu Yai'vleen, yu bluw-maun-jur 200 Baa•rj! Aul ${ }^{13}$ vur paurleheen ubaew-tu uyur ${ }^{14}$ lee ? ${ }^{15}$ tu vuyn-draa
${ }^{4}$ How is constantly used for as and that (conj.) in connection with sayYìe lau'n zai aew yùe ùv'ur zeed mee dhae'ŭr'; 'Yon cannot say how you ever saw me there.' Uuir zaed aew mas'us waud-n aum; 'She said how mistress was not at home.' The whole phrase is very common. See note, l. 84.
${ }^{5}$ 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 stac. $\%$.
${ }^{6}$ 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.
${ }^{7}$ Thou beest is quite obsolete, if it was ever current, which I doubt. (See W. S. Gram., p. 55.) Art is used elsewhere. See 1. 186, \&c.
${ }^{8}$ Or ought is a very common phrase, tacked on to any clause of a sentence, and usnally 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.
${ }^{9}$ This plural in en is now quite olsolete, 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.
${ }^{10} i$. e. shovelling the broken-up thrf. Sods are called tuur"uz, i. e. turves, only when intended for house fnel. See W. S. Dial., p. 71.
${ }^{11}$ May be-still a common expression for perhaps, probubly.
${ }^{12}$ This word used thus is peculiarly scornful, beyond the power of lit. Eng. It implies sloth as well as dirty untidiness.
${ }^{13}$ This all for signifies 'entirely devoted to '-a very common phrase. Uur-z aul vur flaa'wurz, 'She is entirely devoted to flowers.'
${ }^{14}$ Obsolete.
${ }^{15}$ Lies are still pronounced thus, but it is more common now to hear lei $\cdot z$.

202 Voaks. Whan tha goast to tha melking o' tha Kee, in tha Vuzzy-Park, thee wut come oll a dugged, and thy Shoes oll mux, and thy Whittle oll besh-. Tha wut let tha Cream-chorn
205 be oll horry, $\dagger$ and let tha Melk be buckard in buldering Weather.
Wilmot. Tell me o' Rager Hosegood, chell make thy Kep ${ }^{1}$ hoppee. - Ay, ay, es marl hot to tha Vengance the young Zaunder Yursdon wud ha had a do ${ }^{2}$ wi' tha, nif ha had a had tha. Yor why? Tha last ${ }^{3}$ no Stroil ner Docity, no Vittiness in enny 210 keendest Theng. - Tha cortst ${ }^{4}$ tha natted Yeo now-reert, or bet leetle rather, ${ }^{5}$ 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 ${ }^{6}$ by tha heend Legs d'en $^{6}$-_(but vurst ha button'd ;-'tes a Marl ted net 215 a valled into tha Pancrock, as ${ }^{\text { }}$ ha wzeth to do); but thof ${ }^{8}$ ha ded viggee, and potee, and towsee, and tervee, ${ }^{9}$ and lonstree, and spudlee, and wriggled, ${ }^{10}$ and pawed, and wraxled, ${ }^{10}$ 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, 220 aud dest wetherly bost tha Neek o'en.

Thomasin. And nif tha dest pick Prates upon me, and tell

[^28]voaks. Haun dhu goa'us tu dhu múl keen u dhu kaiee, een dhu 202 Vuuz'ěe-Paark, dhee wút kau'm aul u-duug'ud, un dhi shèo'z aul muaks, un dhi wút-l aul besh-. Dhu wút laet dhu krai'm-chuurn bi aul aur•ee, $\dagger$ un laet dhu múlk bi buuk•urd een buul•dureen wadh ur. 205

Wilmot. Tuul mee u Raj ur Oa'zgèo $\cdot d$, ch úl mak dhi kep ${ }^{1}$ aupree. -Aay, aa'y, es maarrul haut tu dhu vai•njuns dhu yumg Zaurndur 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 dans $u t$ ĕe, noa vútinees een ún ee keen dees dhaeng.-Dhu kaurts ${ }^{4}$ dhu naat'ud yor nuw-ree ưrt, ur 210 bút lee•dl raedh•ur, ${ }^{5}$ lai'peen oa'ŭr dhu Yoa'an'ur Lauk: (Ch-úl tuul vau $\cdot d h u r$ oa ut zu zèo $n$ uz u kaumth uum vrum ang l-boa eeen, doa'n kwaes'n ut). Haut daed dhu yoa due, haun dhu ads u-kaurt-n ${ }^{6}$ bi dhu eend ligz oa un ${ }^{6}$ - (bút ruust $u$ bunt'nd ; taez u maar*ul tal nút u-vaald eentu dhu pang-krauk, uz ${ }^{7}$ u yùe zuth tu dùe $\cdot$ ); bit thauf ${ }^{8}$ u 215 daed vig'ee, un poa'ŭtee, un tuw'zee, un tuur'vee, ${ }^{9}$ un lèo'stree, un spuud $\cdot l e e$, un vrig-lud, ${ }^{10}$ un pan'ud, un vraak $\cdot$ slud, ${ }^{10}$ un twuy nud, un raat-luul, un tae•ŭrud, vig, 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.

Thomasim. Un-eef dhu dús pik prae"ŭts upaun mu, un tuul

5 'Or but a little while ago'-now-right implies only a moment past.
${ }^{6}$ - ${ }^{6}$ 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! aa'y-v u-saard-n un u-tai'n un zu wuul-z úv'ur u kan; búd ee úd-n noa badry'-_'Oh! I've served him and tended him as well as ever I can; but he isn't no better.'March, 1879.
${ }^{7}$ Two literaryisms in this clause -1 , as is improbable; 2 , the verb do would be omitted. It should be sae ǔm-z or eens u yùe $\quad$ zuth tùe.
${ }^{8}$ Although. (See W. S. Gram., p. 94.) There are other examples of the $g h$ of lit. Eng. being $f$ in the dialect, e. g. ought is $\alpha u \cdot f(t$. See W. S. Dial., p. 74. Rob. of Glouc. ('Life of St. Dunstan'), ed. Morris and Skeat, p. 19, 1. 15, has-
' Ne non muste wames hit com. bote purf oure Louerdes grace.'
${ }^{3}$ 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.
${ }^{10}$ _ ${ }^{10}$ Most words written $w r$ are now pronounced very distinctly $v r$, as $v r u y t$ (write), vraeth (wreath), vraidh (wreathe), vraung (wrong), wring (wring), vraach eed (wretched), and many others.
${ }^{11}$ Should have been zoonder, not ruther.

222 Vauther o', chell tell a zweet Rabble-rote upon thee, looks zee. Vor when tha shudst be about tha Yeavling's Chuers, ${ }^{1}$ tha wut spudlee out the Yemors, ${ }^{2}$ and screedle over mun: ${ }^{3}$ 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 carce ${ }^{6}$ who tha scullest: 'Twos olways thy Uze; and chem agast ' tha wut zo vore ${ }^{\text {s }}$ thy Een. Tha hast 230 tha very Daps o' thy oll Ount Sybyl ${ }^{9}$ Moreman upazet.

Wilmot. Why, ya gurt Roil, chant ${ }^{10}$ 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 Ay to tha. Tha wudst buy tha Cot up to Town ${ }^{11}$ rather than thy 235 Live, ${ }^{12}$ but tha hassent tha wharewey; and tha wudst kiss tha Yess of George Hosehood to ha'en ; but tha hasent tha Why for Ay.

Thomasin. How ! ya gurt mulligrub Gurgin?
Wilmot. And thee art a long-hanged blow-monger Baarge vor telling me ${ }^{13} 0^{\prime}$ 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 $0^{\prime}$ pounding ${ }^{13}$ Savin,
${ }^{1}$ This is a very common word, pronounced choar $r$, choareen, in West Som., but cheochr 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 -

> 'pe pridde time rilht also, and [pe] feorthe cherre, \& te vifte cherre, \& nout ne chaunge ze.'
${ }^{2}$ Spelt Yeumors in El. of 1771.
${ }^{3}$ The regular objective plural them of North Devon. See W. S. Gram., p. 37 ; also 'Courtship,' l. 416.
${ }^{4}$ As would not be used thus-cens or sae'rumz dhee aart would be a more vernacular reading, but the whole clanse is scarcely dialect ; it is stagy.
${ }^{5}$ The p. part. of set is almays $u$-zaut. I think the zet of the text must be an error of the transcriber.
${ }^{6}$ Curee is still used thus, intransitively, but Thomasin would have also said, dhu dus'n kee ŭr u peen, \&e., when using the word to care in a quasi-transitive seuse. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.)
${ }^{7}$ Agest in Ed. of 1771, but I consider ayast the proper reading.

Vau'dhur oa, ch-र́l tuul u zwěet Rabl-roa ŭt upun dhee, leoks zee. 222 Vur haun dhu shèods bee ubaewt dhu Yai•vleenz Chèo $\cdot \mathrm{urz},{ }^{1}$ dha wút spuud lee aewt dhu yaem'urz ${ }^{2}$ un skree dl oa'vur mún: ${ }^{3}$ Un moo'ŭr-n zoa, dhu wút rauylĕe ec’ŭrt upun woon, un ce•ŭrt upun unuudh•ur, 225 zút voaks tu bae $\breve{ }$ ut, $\operatorname{lig} \mathrm{u}$ guurt Daarj $\mathrm{uz}^{4}$ dhee aart: Un dhan Gaet•fur Raj ur Shuur*wul, ee muus kwaul-ifuy ut ugee'ŭn. Haun dh-urt u-zaut ${ }^{5}$ ugaug, dhu dús-n kee ŭree ${ }^{6}$ he• dhun skyèol'us : twuz aulwai'z dhuy yù'z; un ch-úm ugaa's ${ }^{7}$ dhu wít zoa voar ${ }^{8}$ dhi ce $\cdot n$. Dh-aas dhu vuurcĕe daaps $u$ dhi oa 1 Aewnt Súblc̆e ${ }^{9}$ Mruur'mun aupuzút: 230

Wilmot. Waay, yu guurt rauy-ul, ch-int ${ }^{10}$ zu bae $\mathrm{ud}-\mathrm{z}$ dhee. Dhee wút ae•-u Haay tu ún•ee Kaes•n soal. Dhan dhu wút chauk• lee, un ban`če, un blae•ŭž̌e, un ruwn shee•uv ún'ce baud•ee dhut dúth bút zai Aa'y tu dhu. Dhu wnits baay dhu Kaut aup tu Taewn ${ }^{11}$ raedh $\cdot u r-n$ dhi luyv, ${ }^{12}$ buit dh-as-n dhu wae ŭrwai•; un thu wíts kees thu Yaes' u 235 Jaurj Oa'zgèo ${ }^{d}$ t-ae•-un ; bút dh-as-n dhu waay vur aay.

Thomasin. Aew! yu guurt muul tigruub Guurgeen?
Wilmot. Un thee urt u laung-an•jud bluw-maun•jur baarpj vur tuul $\cdot$ 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 tual $\cdot$ cen


[^29]243 and making ${ }^{1}$ Caucheries and Slotters wi't. Tha art a Beagle, Chun, pritch tha! vor anether Trick. Chad et in my Mcend, 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? Tha wut drew, ${ }^{4}$ and hen, ${ }^{5}$ and slat,-slat tha Podgers, slat tha Crock, slat tha Keeve and tha Jibb, bost tha Cloam. 250 Tha lhast a most a stimed e'ery earthly Thing in tha Houz. Absleutly ${ }^{6}$ tha art bygaged. Ay, ay, Ount Magery was Death the near vor tha. ${ }^{7}$ Her moort ${ }^{8}$ ha' vet ${ }^{9}$ 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? Tha henst along thy Torn, tha 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 tha wut bloggy.

Wilmot. And hot art thee? A brocking Mungrel, a skulk260 ing Mea-zel !-And cet a vore oll* good vor nort leet seollee, ${ }^{13}$ avore ${ }^{14}$ tha art a hoazed that tha cast ${ }^{15}$ searce yeppy. Petha, ${ }^{16}$ dest thenk enny Theng will goodee or vitte wi' emmy zitch a Trub es ${ }^{17}$ thee art,--that dest net caree to zey thy Praers? ${ }^{18}$-bet-wut ${ }^{19}$
${ }^{1}$ This should be mae ǔkeen u kau chureez.
a i. e. I will not throw, \&c.
${ }^{3}$ Very common exelamation of coarse but extreme contempt.
${ }^{4}$ Drew is a misprint, it is spelt drow (二 throw) elsewhere. Here it is drow in the Ed. of 1771.
${ }^{5}$ This is now the commonest word for fing or throw. Drow rather implies to throw down, and would be used in connection with heavier objects than hain. Roberd of Brume (a.d. 1030), in his 'Handlyng Symne' (ed. Fumivall, Roxburghe Club), laas, l. 5616-

> 'For be stone he toke a lofe, And at pe pore man hyt drofe. be pore man hente hyt op belyue, And was berof ful ferly blype.'
${ }^{8}$ This is rather 'fine,' but it is possible.
${ }^{7}$ 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 obsclete.
${ }^{9}$ i. e. come round, fetched up, recovered. Sce note 3 to Preface, p. 10.

* (Note to Ed. of 17\% 17 .) Sce Note in Page 36.
un mae•ŭkeen ${ }^{1}$ Kaurchureez un Zlaut-urz wai ut. Dh-urt u bai•gl, 243 Chún, púrch dhu! vur maedlıur trik. Ch-ad ut een mi meen, un zoa ch-aav stee $\breve{\prime}$ l. Brit ch-oa ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ droa ut aewt uvoar dhu bigee ${ }^{2} 245$ ugee cŭn, un dhan ch-úl.

Wilmot. Haay $\quad$ goa ! Mús us Haay $\quad$ goa-shcet ! ! ${ }^{3}$ U bai•gl ? Un haut urt dhee? 'Dhu wít droa, ${ }^{4}$ un hai $\cdot n,{ }^{5}$ un slaat. Slaat dhu pauj urz, slaat dhu krauk, slaat dhu kee $\cdot \mathrm{v}$ un dhu Júb, buus dhu kloa'm. Dh-ast umau'st u-stúnd ae-ŭree ae'ŭrth-lce dhaeng een dh-aewz. Ab- 250 slèo ${ }^{\text {tlee }}{ }^{6}$ dh-urt u-bigae`ŭjud. Aay, aa ${ }^{\circ} y$, Aewnt Maa‘juree wuz dath dhu nee'ŭr vaur dhu. ${ }^{7}$ Uur moo'ŭrt ${ }_{4}^{8}$ u vút ${ }^{9}$ eet, neef zu bee dh-ads nút u-lat ur toa ȟtee aup-m daewn zu aurt. ${ }^{10}$

Thomusin. Waay dhac ur loa! Bigae ňijud! Un haut daeds dhee dìe bút naew-ree•ŭrt? Dhu liai'nst ulaung dhi tuurn, dhu wíts 255 u-buas-n ${ }^{11}$ tu shív'urz, neef ch-ad nút $u$-vuung ${ }^{12}$ un, un $u-p^{\text {puing }}$ d-n baak ugym. Dhan dhu wút snaapree, un dhan dhu wút kancefleo, un dhan dhu wít blaug'ce.

Wilmot. Un haut urt dhee? U brank'een muung'grul, u skuul $\cdot k$ cen mai'zl! Un eet $u$-voa'r aul,* gèod vur noa'ŭrt lút skyèol•ec, ${ }^{13}{ }^{2} 60$ uvoa $\cdot{ }^{14}$ dh-aart u-oa'zud dhut dhat kas ${ }^{15}$ skee'ŭs yaep•ee. Pridh ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{16}$ dús dhaengk únce 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? ${ }^{\text {¹8 }}$ —bút—wút ${ }^{19}$
${ }^{10}$ This passage is obscure. I think it means, 'She might have fctched 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 mid.
${ }^{11}$ The Torn, i. e. the spinning-wheel, is spoken of here as masculine-un, $-n$ $=$ him. (See W. S. Gram., pp. 32, 36.)
${ }^{12}$ Vuny is obsolete. The verb is quite common, but is now conjugatedpres., vang or (intr.) vang $u s$; past, vanyl or vang'ud; p. part., $u$-vangd or $u$-vang'ucl $=$ to hold, to seize.
${ }^{13}$ Spelt scull, l. 228 ; skull, l. 117.
14 ' Until thou art hoarse.' See note 11, p. 35.
${ }^{15}$ Canst scarce $(l y)$. This would generally be kas-n, i. e. canst not scarcely.
${ }^{16}$ Spelt pitha elsewhere-l. 57.
${ }^{17}$ Here we have es doing duty for $\alpha s$; elsewhere it stands for $I$, for $u s$, for $i s$, and he $i s$.
${ }^{18}$ This should be praa.yurz. Perhaps these scolds talked a little 'fine' now and then.
${ }^{19}$ The omission of the nom. pronoun is very common, and implies extrene 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 coltce 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 ${ }^{4-\text { tha }}$ dest zey mun at oll, thy Marrabones shan't ${ }^{5}$ kneelee,--thof tha cast ruckee well a fine. ${ }^{6}$ - '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 scrubling 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, ${ }^{15}$ Chum, nif tha dessent buy tha ${ }^{16}$ a new Whittle.

Thomusin. Why, ja gurt Kickhammer Baggage! thee art 280 grood vor no Sauce. ${ }^{17}$ 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!

[^30]straam•ee, un fúl>ee, un blac‘uzee, un ban•ee: Un moo‘urr-n zoa, wút koaltee, un rig'ee wi in cee troaluubur ${ }^{1}$ dhut kaum ${ }^{\circ}$ uth ${ }^{2}$ udhuurt dhu. 265 Un haun dhu dús zai min, ${ }^{3}$ taez buit wry ưlz dh-urt skruub een, eo streen, un rút•leen u-bai•d. U'n neef bi guurt aap ${ }^{4}$ thu dús zai
 ruukee wuul u faaryn. ${ }^{6}$ - Tez u marar ul neef ae ŭr thu kaums t-aeb'm ${ }^{7}$ uun•ee tu zai mún ${ }^{8}$ zaenz dlıu nae•ŭr zaes mán, ch-úl waur"nl-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 $\cdot 1$-vaar•teen ${ }^{10}$ u-bai $\cdot d$,* yu guurt laul•fpaut! Dh-as-n dhu sains tu stuy"ŭl dhi oa'ŭn dras een. Vur wuy, út ul zút ${ }^{11}$ aar"tur dhu, ai dhur an'tlbee'ŭr ${ }^{12}$ lik dhu duurnz uv ut doo'ŭr, ur waudh urwai twíl zút ai laung ur u ${ }^{13}$ wee'wnw, ur aul u-punk •ureen. 275 Dhu zaeds twuz skwuul'streen un aut ${ }^{14}$ wuy lae ${ }^{\text {ur. }}$. Ad! dhu whít bee u-mik $\cdot \mathrm{ld}$, un u-steev'ud wai dhu koall voarr T-An•durz Tuyd, ${ }^{15}$ Chum, neef dhu dús-n baay dhu ${ }^{16}$ u nèo• wnit $\cdot \mathrm{l}$.

Thomasin. Waay, yu guurt Kik'aam'ur Bag'eej! dhee urt-n noa gèo d vur noa saars. ${ }^{17}$ Dhu wút nút ${ }^{18}$ braik dhi kan tle-boarun u dhuy 280 taedh •ur een ${ }^{19}$ wi ehèo $\cdot u r e e n,{ }^{20}$ ch-ul waurnd-ee; dhu wút nút tak ut zu vrai'ch, yu sau'ntureen troa'unt!
${ }^{13}$ 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.
${ }^{14}$ Whot in the text must be a misprint. There is no soumd of $v$, and there never could have been.
${ }^{15}$ St. Andrew's Day, November 30th.
${ }_{16}$ This should have been bacuy dhi-zíl.
${ }^{17}$ The text has but the ordinary literary negative. This is quite wrongthere would certainly be tevo and most probably three negatives in this clanse, as written in the Glossic.
${ }^{18}$ The negative here is emphatic, otherwise it would be dhut wit-n.
${ }^{19}$ A common expression signifying 'you are too lazy to hut yourself.' That the tether or tother is not a nodern provincialism, but veritable English, is certain. Vid. 'The Stacions of Rome' (Vernon MS., 1370 A.d.), E. E. 'T. Soc., ed. Furnivall, p. 3, 1. 79-
> 'pat holy Mon ' Ananias. Him erisnet borw godes gras. And cleped him Poul peties broker. For pe ton schulde ' cumforte pe toper.'

${ }_{20}$ See note to chuers, l. 223.

283 Wilmot. Heigo! samntering Troant than! ${ }^{1}$ 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 Leeker tha hast a had zo ort in thy Teening Bottle.-There's a Rumple, ${ }^{7}$ Chun!

Wilmot. Nif tha young George Ilosegood had a had tha, he murt ${ }^{8}$ 290 a hozed in a little Time. ${ }^{9}$ Ha wul zoon ha' be' condidled.-Yeet a-vore oll, ${ }^{10}$ a-vore Voak, ${ }^{11}$ tha wut lustree, and towzee, and chewree, and bucklee, and tear, make wise, ${ }^{12}$ as ${ }^{13}$ anybody passath; but out o' Zeert a spare ${ }^{14}$ Totle in enny keendest Theng. ${ }^{15}$

Thomasin. Why, thare's Odds ${ }^{16}$ betwe' Sh-ng and Tearing 295 won's Yess. Wone mussent olweys be a boostering, must a ? ${ }^{17}$ But thee,-thee wut steehoppee, and colty, and hobby, and riggy, wi'enny Kesson ${ }^{18}$ Zoul: Oll ${ }^{19}$ vor whistering and pistering, and hoaling and halzening, or cuffing a Tale. ${ }^{20}$

Wimot. Ad! tell me o' hobling and rigging, chel vlee to ${ }^{21}$ tha 300 Kep ${ }^{22}{ }^{22}$ tha.
[Pulls her Poll.
Thomasin. Oh ! -oh ! - Mo-ather ! - Mo-ather ! - Murder ! Oh! Mo-ather!--Her hath ${ }^{23}$ a chucked ma wi' tha Chingstey.-Es

[^31]Wilmot. Haay.goa! sau'ntureen troa ${ }^{\prime}$ urt dhun ! ${ }^{1}$ vur waay voar ${ }^{2} 283$ dús tuul woon, ${ }^{3}$ dhan, u dhu racks-bèosh ${ }^{4}$ un dhu aay-pèok, un dhu Zaes.

Thomasin. Un waay voa'r ${ }^{5}$ dús dhee droa voar zich spaalz tu mee? Goa pai ${ }^{6}$ dhi skoar vur dhu lek ${ }^{\text {er }}$ dh-ast $u$-ad zu aurt een dhi teen'een bau'tl.-Dhae ŭrz u ruum $\cdot \mathrm{pl},{ }^{7}$ Chun!

Wilmot. Neef dhu yuung Jaurj Oarggèod ud u-ad dhu, ee muurt ${ }^{8}$
 uvoa'r aull, ${ }^{10}$ uvoar voak, ${ }^{11}$ dhu wút lèos'tree, un luw'zee, un chèo-ree,
 aewt u zee•ŭrt, u spae•ŭr ${ }^{1 t}$ toa-tl cen ún'ěe kee nděes dhaeng. ${ }^{15}$

Thomasin. Waay, dhur-z audz ${ }^{16}$ twĕe shuy teen un tae'ŭreen woonz Yaes. Woon muus'n aul'waiz bee u-bèo'sturčen, must u? ${ }^{17}-295$ Bud dhee,--dhee wít stee aupče, un koaltče, un aub"ce, un rig"če wai ún'ĕe Kaes"n ${ }^{18}$ Soal: Aul ${ }^{19}$ vur wús'tureen un pús'tureen, unoalľen un aal'znčen, ur kuuf'een u tae ul. ${ }^{20}$

Wilmot. Ad! tuul mee u aubeen un rigreen, ch-úl vlee tu ${ }^{21}$ dhu kep ${ }^{22}$ u dhu.
[Péolz ur poctl. 300
Thomasin. Oa!-oa!-Mau dhur!-Maurdhur!-Muur dur !Oh! Mau•dhur!-Uur-dh ${ }^{23}$ u-chuuk mu wi dhu chee nstai.-Es
${ }^{13}$ 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.)
${ }^{14}$ Spare is the usual word to express slow, dilatory. A 'spare workman' is a slow one. Gardeners talk of certain plants as 'spare growers.'
${ }^{15}$ Common expression $=$ anything whatever.
${ }^{16} i$. e. a great difference. A very frequent comparison is dhik-s bad $\cdot r$ (or was) $b i$ audz ; 'that one is better' (or worse) by odds,' i. $e$. by a great difference.
${ }^{17}$ 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.
${ }^{18}$ 'This is a very common phrase. Ben Jonson has ('Tale of a Tub,' Act II. sc. ii.)-

> ' Clay. No, as I am a Kyrsin soul, would I were,' \& c.

19 See note to l. 201.
${ }^{20}$ 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)-mere's a pretty stoar about her.'
${ }^{21}$ Always fly to, not at.
${ }^{22}$ Cap is pronounced very short, almost $k p$, in N. Dev.
${ }^{23}$ IIath is quite literary - the pronunciation is always uur-dh. Eedh $=$ he hath.

303 verly hleive es chell ${ }^{1}$ ne'er vet ${ }^{2}$ et.-And nif's don't vet et, looks zee, in a Twelvemonth and a Dey, ${ }^{3}$ Cuzzen Kester Broom chell ${ }^{1}$ zee 305 tha a trest up a Ground. ${ }^{4}-$ He chell ${ }^{1}$ zee tha zwinged, fath ! ${ }^{5}$

## Enter the Old Julian Moreman.

Julian. Labbe, labbe, Soze, ${ }^{6}$ labbe.-Gi' o'er, gi' o'er ; *-Tamzen and Thee be olweys wother egging or veaking, ${ }^{7}$ jawing or sneering, blazing or racing, kerping or speaking cutted, chittering ${ }^{8}$ 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, ${ }^{9}$ stivering or grizzling, tacking or busking, a prilled or a muggard, blogging or glumping, rearing or snapping, vrom Candle-tonting to Candle-teening ${ }^{10}$ in tha Yeavling, 315 gurt Hap else. ${ }^{11}$

So ends the SCOLDING.

1__1_1 This must be wrong. According to the text it would read I I shetl. Instead of chell it should be shall in the text. In El. of 1771 it is shell, the true reading.
${ }^{2}$ See note to vít, l. 253.
${ }^{3}$ This is in reference to the old custom of sentencing women to be hung after a twelvemonth and a day.
${ }^{4} i$. e. trussed up above gromd-hanged.
5 still the commonest of all expressions of asseveration $=b y$ my fuith. (See W. S. Dialect, p. 95.)
${ }_{6}$ 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.

7 This word being quite obsolete, I do not know if it is vee ǔkeen or vai $\%$ ken.
8 This is a common word. Vide John of Trevisa, 'Description of Britain, De incolarum linguis' (ed. Morris and Skeat), p. 241-
' Mellyng furst wip Danes \& afterward wib 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 suber literature of the period (1357).

* (Note to Ed. of 1'yYs.) Speaking to Wilmot, who had pulled Thomasin's Cap.
vuur lŭe blai $\cdot v$ es shńl ${ }^{1}$ núv•ur vít ${ }^{2}$ ut.-Un ncefs doa•n vút ut, lèok-s 303 zee', cen utwul-muunth un u dai, ${ }^{3}$ Kuuz'n Kaes'tur Bròo'm sh- $l^{1}$ zee dhu u-trúst aup u graewnd. ${ }^{4}$-Ee shll ${ }^{1}$ zee dhu-zwingd, faa ${ }^{-t h}!^{5}$

Ai $\cdot$ ntur dll-oa $\cdot l$ Jie $\cdot \mathrm{l}$-yun Muur"mun.
 zeen un dhee bee aul'waiz wuth'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 ${ }^{\prime}$ ureen ${ }^{8}$ ur droa een voa'r u spaadz, puurteen ur jaa'wureen, yuureen ur chaewn'teen, tak•een Owl u wan dhaeng ur púp u 310 taedh ur, chauk leen ur pèo'checn, ríp ceen aup ur raewushee'uveen wan taedh $\cdot u r,{ }^{9}$ stúv•ureen ur guur $\quad$ lleen, taak $\cdot e e n$ ur buus $k$ keen, u-prúld ur u-mung*urd, blaug'een ur ghum peen, rae ŭreen ur snaap'een, vrum kan l-duw'teen tu kanl-teen'een ${ }^{10}$ cen dhu Yai•vlěen, guurt haap uuls. ${ }^{11}$

Zoa ainz dhu ShoA•LDEEN.
${ }^{9}$ One another. The more common form is wan ur tacdh $\cdot$ or.
${ }^{10} i$. 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,' Lob. of Glouc., 1298 a.d. (ed. Monis and Skeat), pp. 19, 20. Speaking of his mother's miraculous taper-

> 'per-of hi tente here lizt. Alle in ve place.
> What was pat oure Louerd C'rist.
> pe list fram hevene sende.
> \& bat folc kat stod aboute.
> Here taperes perof tende.'

In both places the verb is in the past tense. The $e$ may have been pronouncel long, and if so it is identical with our teen.
${ }^{11}$ This is quite vernacular and very common. It is here the alternative of the always at the begiming of this long sentence,-i. e. aluctys, either, \&c., \&c.-great chance if otherwise.

## P0STSCRIPA.

The whole of the foregoing pages were in type and printed before I had an opportunity of comparing the later elitions with the carlier ones. 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. Madlen 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 statement. Fortunately the Courtship was not so far advanced -consequently the most important of different readings are dealt with in the notes. It is true that the variations are generally confined to 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 pointthe second vor, I knew well, must be accentuated, and therefore in wriing 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 futher instend of the nif vouther found in the later editions. If futher of course implies our futher. 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 piquaney of abuse is diluted by making it appear that the father of Thomasin, whom Wilmot is abusing, had prevented it.

On the other liand, 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

| 1 | read | vor why vore $\quad 1$ | 76-8 |  | zitc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | " | zitch for zich | 77 | " | wastecoat for waistecoat |
| 4 | " | betoatled for betwatled 1 | 7S-9 |  | strat for strait |
| 11 | , | will'st for wutt 9 | 82 | " | tann for $\tan$ |
| 11 | " | bet for but | 85 | , | add for ad |
| 12 | ", | zee whare for zee nif 1 | 85 | " | squeak'st for squeakest |
| 16 | " | zwopping for zwapping | 90 | " | dedst for dest |
| 18 | " | is for ise 1 | 91 | " | losting for losing |
| 21 | " | ghowering for jowering | 92 | " | out to for out a |
| 28 | " | touty for twonty 9 | 93 | " | a word for zey a word |
| 30 | , | meazel for meazle | 98 | " | zitch for zich |
| 32 | " | zest for zess 9 | 104 | " | nif's vauther for nif |
| 40 | " | zower-zwaped 9 |  |  | vauther 1 |
| 42 | " | know for knowth 9 | 105 | " | strat for strad, IV. ed. only |
| 43 | " | heavy for yeavy 1 | 106 | , | ya for ye, I. and III. ed.; |
| 46 | " | hobbey for hobby |  |  | ye in IV. $\quad 1$ |
| 50 | " | vore-reert for vore-rect 1 | 107 | " | olweys for always |
| 54 | " | he-at-stool for yheatstool 9 | 112 | " | ay, ya! for ay, ay! 9 |
| 55 | " | chun for mun | 120 | " | vramp-shapen for vramp- |
| 57 | " | think for thenk 9 |  |  | shakeu 1 |
| 58 | " | haggage-tooth'd for haggle | 122 | " | bevore for bevoor |
|  |  | tooth'd 9 | 123 | " | zo for so |
| 73 | " | thy zell for thyzel | 123 | " | avoore for avore |


| Line |  | Line |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 127 read | can'st net for cassent 9 | 218 read | yet for yeet |
| 129 , | reert for reat | 220 " | dedst for dest |
| 130 | ya for ye 1 | 224 | yewmors for yemors |
| 133 | comest for com'st | 224 | men for mun |
| 134 | wos for was | 229 | agest for agast |
| 138 | reazauable for reaznable doatee for doattee | 229 | wat vore for wut zo vore, in |
| 143 |  |  | IV. ed. only |
| 143 | chimly for chimley | 229 " | an a'en for thy een |
| 150 | herrtily for heartily | 230 | old muxy Ount Sybly |
| 151 | out-reert for up-reert 1 | 235 | yess $0^{\prime}$ for yess of |
| 151 | borst for bust 9 | 237 | ya mulligrub for ya gurt |
| 152 | trapesee for trapsee 1 | 242 | pounding 0'savin 1 |
| 155 | head for aead | 245 | drow't for drow'et 1 |
| 158-238 | long-hanjed for long | 247 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Mrs. Hi-go-shit-a-beagle ! } \\ & \text { drow for drew } \end{aligned}$ |
|  | hanged 1 | 248 |  |
| 159 | placad for plasad 9 | 2.50 | e'ry for e'ery |
| 159 | crowdling for crewdling 9 | 250 | houze for houz |
| 160 | lundging for lunging | 251 | abseutly for absleutly 9 |
| 161 | twitch for twich | 252 | et for it |
| 161 | drow for draw 1 | 254 | dest for dedst |
| 162 | tha for the least | 256 | chat for chad 9 |
| 163 | zinnet for zennet 9 | 257 | cummitlee for canifllee |
| 166 | jest for just 1 | 263 | as for es |
| 168 | ded net for dedent | 263 | cary for caree |
| 171 | windvalls for winavalls 9 | 266-268 | men 'tes for mmn' tis |
| 178-179 | I for es | 267 | ritling for rittling |
| 184 | slotters for zlotters | 273 | et twul for et wel |
| 188 , | tha for the | 275 | wotherwey twul zet along l |
| 196-212- | 222 veather for vanther | 275 | weewow for a weewow 9 wut for wet |
| 197 | or hand-beating for | 276 |  |
|  | handbeeating | 278 | dest net for dessent 9 |
| 202 | goest for goast | 280 | sauze for sauce |
| 207 " | ees for es | 250 | tha for the |
| 210 | nated for natted | 283 | Higo ! for Heigo ! ) |
| 211 | leet for leetle 1 | 284 | dedst for dest |
| 212 | cometh for comath | 256 " z | zetch for zitch |
| 213 | question't for quesson't 9 | 259 ", l | ha for he |
| 213 | yeo for yoe | 290 ", i | it for yeet |
| 213 | be for by [o'en | 292 | and for but |
| 214 | heend legs for heend legs | 293 , t | toatle for totle |
| 214-215 | bet for but | 295 " | wone's for won's |
| 214 | tad for ted | 295 " 1 | must net for mussent? 9 |
| 215 | as uzeth for as ha uzeth | 296 ", st | stechoppy for steehoppee |
| 217 | wraxled and rattled-' and | 300 " l | kepp for kep |
|  | twinned' in III. ed. only | 302 | ees for es |


| Live Line |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 304 | read | shall see for chell ze | 1 | 30 s | read | sherking for sneering | 1 |
| 306 | " | Gi' o'er, gi' o'er, Ta | n. | 303 | " | 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 "Courtship," 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 reproluce 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 Mayazine, vol. xvi. p. 405. "Exon, Aug. 12, 1740. "Mr. Urdan.
"On perusing those curious pieces, the Exmoor Courtshit and Scoldivg, in your Magazines, I find several words markel 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 understanding of old books.
"I have added several words that are not to be found in either the Exmoor Seolding or Courtship (though not less common in that quarter), and I believe I could recolleet as many more if they would be acceptable. You will in this vocabulary find all the words that you have mark'l, 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 umintelligible to the inhabitants of the southern parts of it as to a eitizen 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.

[^32]"I can't help observing that the Transcriber of the Exmoor Courtsh ip has committed some blunders, having used the word Thek in many places where an Exmoorian would have said That, and the $V$ insteal of $F$, \&c. For though it be very common with them to ehange $F$ into $V, S$ into $Z, T h$ into $D$, \&c., yet there are a great many words in which they never make this change, as Flush, Fashion, Fine, Seu, Soul, Sud, Sarrant (i.e. Servant), Third, and many others. It should be observed that they use To insteal of $A t ; I s e$, ees, and ich for $I$; I cham or 'cham for I am ; 'Chell for I shall, \&c.; which was once the general mote of proper speaking throughout the kingtom, and may be found in many ancient Enylish anthors.
" 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.
'Allembatch (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, eighteen.
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, bewiteh'd.
To Bank, to leat.
Banging, large, great.
B'arngun, a breaking out in small pimples, or pustles in the skin.
Ba'ria, or Ba'rrow, a golt pig.
To the true Ben, or Bend (possibly of Bendan, Sax. to stretch out, to yichd to). To the purpose, or sufficiently, to the utmost stretch.
Bewhiver'd, lost to ones self, bewilder'd.
Biird, or Berd, bread.
Blaking, crying till out of breath.
Blazing, spreadiny 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
hecls, or the scratches), a bind 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 brounds is a stack of wood cleft for the fire : so woaken, or elmen braunds, means oak or elm billets.]
Briss, dust.
Broach, a spit, spiadle.
Buckard, or Bucked (spoken of mill) soured by leeping too lony in the milk-bueket, or by a foul bueket.
Buldering (weather,) sultry, hot.
Bumish, to grow fat, or increase in bulk, look bright, rosy.
Butt, a bec-butt, or hive.
Cat-ham'd, fumbling, without dexterity.
Ca'uchery, a medicinal composition, or slop.
Champ, a scuffle.
Cha'nnest, to challenye.
Cha'ngeling, an idiot, one whom the fairies have changed.
Chaunge, a shirt, or shift.
Cho'ekling,"hectoring, scolding.
Cho'unting, quarrelliny.
Chu'er, a chare, or jobb of work.
Clathing, clothes.
Clavel, a chimney-picce.
Cloam, earthen-ware.
Coad, unhealthy.
Coajerze'end (i. e. a corduainer'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 - clonts, a lind of splatter dashes, worm 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.
Crowding, slow, dull, siclity.
Crub, or Croust, a crust of bread or cheese.
Cu'fing, 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, frigluten'd, stum'd.
Dem! you slut.
Dimmet, the dusli 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, $\quad$ words begiming with Th sound D instead thereof.
To Dron, to try.
Drumbledrane, a drone [or humble bee.]
Du'bbed, blunt.
Du'gged, or Duddled, draggle-tail'd.
Eart one, cart to'ther, now one, then. the other.
E'el-thing, or Ill-thing, St. Anthony's fire.
El'ewn, cleven.
E'long, slanting.
Elt, see Itt.
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 sulsisting on it.
Fustiluggs, a big-bon'd person.
Ga'llied, frighten'd.
Ga'libagger, a bug-bear.
Ga'lliment, a great fright.
Ga'mmerell, the small of the leg.
G'and or G'ender, go youter.
G'anny, a turkey.
G'a’owing, chiding.
Ga'pesnest, a raree show, a fine sight.
Geed, gave.
Gho'sering or Jowering, quatrelsome.
Ginged, or Jinged, bexiteh'd.
Gint or Jynt, joint.
Girred, drukyle-taild.
Glam, a wound or sore.
Glowwing, sturing.
Glu'mping, sullen, or sour-looking.
Griddle, a grid-iron.
Grizzledemundy, a laughing fool, one

- that grins at everything.

Grizzling, laughing, smiling.
Gubl, a pandar, or go-betzeen.
Gurt, great.
Gu'ttering, eating greedily [guttling].
Ha'sgage, a slattern.
Ha'lzening, predicting the uorst that can lappen.
Hanje or Hange, the purtenance of any creature [in Somerset, lumb's head and purt'nance, is the head, heart, liver and liyhts].
Ha'ntick, fruntick.
Hare, her, also us'l for she.
Harrest, hervest.
I'awchamouth, one that talks imulecently.
Ha'wthern, a kind of hitch, or hin, cut out in an erect board, to hung a cont on, or the like.
To Hem, to throw.

He'wstring, short-lreath'l, wheczing.
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, shufting and shrinking up one's shoulders.
Jacketawa'd, an Ignis Fatuus.
Ilt, or Elt, a gelt sow.
Kee, kine, or cows.
Kер, a cap.
Kerping, carping, finding fuult.
Kittepacks, a kind of buskins.
Labb, a Ulab.
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 uonder.
Mass, acoms [mast].
Maz'd, mad, crazy, [so a maz'd man for madman].
Hews, moss.
Min, or Men, them, e.g. Put min up, i.e. Put them up.

Moyle, a mule.
To Moyley, to lubour 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.
Nidlick, the nape of the neck.
Ninniwatch, a lonying 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 haic an over errand to you (p. 295 II).
To take OwI, to take amiss.
Ownty, empity.
Pa'ddick, a toad.
To Pa'ddle, to tipple.
Pa'lching, patching or mending clothes.
Pa'lching, walking slouvly.
Jame, a christening blanket, a mantle.
Pa'ucrock, an eartherm pan.
Pu'uking, panting.
Pa'reaking, fietful.
Peek, a prong, or pitch fork.
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 enerease in bulls, 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 $\mathrm{Po}^{\prime}$ 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 chech, or withstand. $\dagger$ $+[$ A term for making holes in the leathers of cards to admit the wire.]

Pro'sets, buskins.
Pung, mush'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.
Ragrowtering, 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].
I'o Ream, to stretch.
Rearing, mocking, by repeating anather's words with disduin, or the like.
Reart, right.
Re'arting (i.c. righting) mending.
Rexen, rushes.
To Rey ones self, to dress ones self [aノay].
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 cater desire to cheat or defraud another.
To talee a Shoard, to drink a cup too much.
Sliool, 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, de.
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 hobly-horse.
Stewardly, like a good housewife.
Ste'san or Stean, an earthern pot, like ajar.
To Stile or Stilee, to iron clothes.
Stirrups, a lind of buskins.
Stra'mmer, a great lye.
Stro'aking, milking after a calf has suck't.
Stroil, strength and agility.
A good Stubb, a large sum of money.
Sture, a steer, also a dust raisad.
Su'ling, 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, scuffing, striugling.
Taply or Tapely, early in the morning.
Tatchy, peevish.
Teaster, the conopy of a berd.
'I'ed 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, ille.
Tourn, a spinning wheel.
To Toze, to pull abroad wool, dec.
Troant, a foolish fellow, and sometimes a lazy loiterer, a truant.
Trolubber, a husbandman, a daylubourer.
Trub, a slut (not a little squat woman, as Bailey has it).
Twine, pachthread.
To Vang, to take or receive.
To Vang to, to stand sponsor to a child.
Ve'aking, fietfulness, peevishness.
Vi'sging, sce Potee.
Vimied, mouldy.
Vinny, a scolding-bout.
To Vit, to dress (meat, \&e).
Vitty, decent, handsome, well.
Umber, number.
Voor, a furrow.
Vore, forth.
To drow Vore, to iwit one with a foult.
Vo're-days or Voar-days, late in the clay.
Vore-reert, forth-right, without circamspection.
Upaze't, in perfection.
Upze'tting, a gossiping, or christcning feast.
Vung, receiv'd.
Vull-sta'tad, see Full-stated.
Vurdin, a farthing.
Vur-vore, fur, forth.
Wa'ngery, flably.
Wa'shamouthe, a blabb.

Wa'shbrew, fummery.
Wassa'il, a drinking song on twelfthday eve, throwing toast to the apple trees in order to have a fiuitful 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;
Whisterpoop, $\}$ (perhaps aback-hand stroke).
Whitwich, a pretended comjurer that discovers, and sells, charms for witcheraft.
Who'tjecomb, what d'ye call him.
Whott, hot.
Why-vore, or for why vore, wherefore.

Wop, a wasp.
Wraxling, wrestling.
Yallow beels or Yellow boys, guincas.
Yead, head.
Ye'aveling, eveining.
Yees, eyes.
Yeevil, a dung-fork.
Ye'rring, noisy.
Ye'wmors, embers, hot ashes.
Yeo, an ewe.
Zennet, a ueek, a sev' night.
Zess, a pile of sheaves in a barm.
Zew, a sow.
Zewnteen, seventeen.
Zigg, wrine.
Zinnyla, son-in-laz.
Zive, a scythe.
Zo'werswopped, ill-natur'd.
Zowl, a plough.
" I could muster up many more words in this barbarous dialect, but

> Ne quid nimis.
"Devon."
N客 "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.

$$
\text { "Exom, Sept. 15, } 1746
$$

"Sir,
"On perusing the Exmoor Scolling, 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, irreqular.
Cunniffling, dissembling, fluttering.
Dwalling, talking nonsense, or as if delivious.
Eart, or Aert (i.e. oft), but generally used of now aml then, as eart this way, eart that way, i. e. now this way, now that way.
Hoazel! 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 neellework, or the like.
Ort, ought, anything.
Ort, Orten, often. See Eart.
Rigsing, 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 maseuline, 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 Boncshave (as the Exmoorians, who often use it, call the Sciuticut.
'The patient must lie on his back on the bank of a river or brook of water, with a straight staff by bis 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 nume, dc.
"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
elition, a square 12 mo ., 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 printel, 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 houso. Tables are upset and dishes broken, but there is no incilent in the dialogues which can by any streteh of imagination be supposed to bo illustrated. The printer, Andrew Brice, Exeter, is the same as the publisher of the thirl edition, who is said by Sir J. Bowring to be one of the authors. This copy bears the name "W. Upeott," and appears at some time also to have belonged to Sir F. Nadden, who has written :-

> " Bought of Brallbury, No. 2 Mortimer St., 22nd. Feby. 1850 . "I never saw another copy, and I have made large collections. on "F. MLadDex."

Besides this curious fourth edition the British Muscum 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 thiod edition (1746) there is the serenth (1771) and a reprint of the seventh dated 1703. 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 "-

> "Excter,-_J. MeKenzie \& 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 worls not found in the vocabulary, but the entire translation into " 1,lain 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 mucouth 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 Montlly Matarzine, Sept. 1814, p. 120, is a letter which may well be reproduced here, inasmuch as it throws light upon the pronunciation of the $c h$ when used for the first person singular.

## Mouthly Muguzine, September 1814, p. 126.

"Sir,
"Seeme lately in your Magazine a list of provincial words used in Essex, and a wish subjoined that your corresponlents 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 comnty, which I hope will not be deemed altogether unworthy of notice.
"Somersetiensis."
"Tcunton, July, 1814."
Vocabulary.

Ar'guefy, argue.
Aus'ney, to anticipate bad news.
Brecte, tlaw.
Doff, take off.
Dout, put out, extinguish.
Dumps, twilight.
Dumpy, short, squat.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Gabcy, } \\ \text { Gaukhey, }\end{array}\right\}$ simpleton.
Hell, to pour.
Hend, to throw.
Latch, fancy, wish.
Lie-a-bier, lie-dead.
Lissom, active.

Not half saved, foolish.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Nummet, } \\ \text { Nunch, }\end{array}\right\}$ hucheon.
Ort (aught), anything.
Pillom, dust.

* Roiley, to rail.
* Rowl, fair, revel.

Skiver, skewer.

Swant, proper.
Thick, that.
Tottle, totter.
Trapes, slut.

* Upsetting, christening.

Wap, to beat.
"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-breck 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. It has always been my opinion that this fault arises in a great measure from a surt 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, ro-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 $e r$ ') for he in interrogations only, as, did they see him ? dicl'em zee'en ? did he give them anything? dider' $g i$ ' 'em ort (aught) ! give him, gi' 'en, \&c.
"They change the sut in such contractions as isn't, was'nt, into rl'n, as, isn't he ? id'n er? was'nt he? wad'ner? but they say han't er? for hasn't he ? to distinguish it from had'n er, hadn't he ?
"Beside these general corruptions thereare a few peculiar to different parts of the comnty. At Marlock, Yeovil, and the adjacent places, they make use of che, (pronounced almost like the French $j e$ ), 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-eu), door, doo-eu; pear, pecteu, \&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 realers a specimen of it. If I mect 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 Zomerzctshire, 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 particnlars 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.

## A N

## Exmoor COURTSHIP;

$\mathrm{O} R, \mathrm{~A}$

SUITORING DISCOURSE

I N THE

Devonfhire DIALECT and MODE,

N E A R

The FOREST of EXMOOR.

## The Perfons.

Andiew Moreman, a young Farmer.
Margery Vagwell, his Sweetheart.
Old Grammer Nell, Grammer to Margery.
Thomafin, Sifter to Margery.

## AN EXMOOR COURTSIIIP.'

> S C E N E Margery's Home. ${ }^{2}$
> To Margery enter Andrew. ${ }^{3}$
> Andrew.

Margery. Hoh! Cozen Andra, how d'ye try?
Andrew. Come, let's shake Honds, ${ }^{5}$ thof Kissing be ${ }^{6}$ scarce.
320 Margery. Kissing's plenty enow ; ${ }^{7}$ bet chud zo lecfe ${ }^{8}$ kiss the Back o' ma Hond es c'er a Man in Challacomb, or yeet in Paracomb; no Dispreze. ${ }^{9}$
${ }^{1}$ Courtship is a literary word-kyèo‘urteen, 'courting,' alone is heard in the dialect.
${ }^{2}$ Another literaryism-a person's home is never heard of-it would be Maajurěez aewz. Home is used only in the sense of at home; as, az maerustur aum? 'is master at home?' In early editions of 1746 it is house.
${ }^{3}$ Again, this would be-Tu Maajurese kaumth $A n \cdot d r$-enter is altogether too stagy a word.
${ }^{4}$ This salutation is thoroughly vernacular. See Preface, p. 15.
${ }^{5}$ 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 pronuncia-tion-for Robt. of Gloucester (Will. the Conq., ed. Morris and. Skeat, 1. 41), says-

> '\& uor Harald adde is op ibroke
> fat he suor mid is rijt hond.'

## U AK'SM0AR K00'URTSIIUP.

SAIN Maajunĕеz au•m. ${ }^{2}$<br>Tu Maa-jurěe ai ntur An•dr. ${ }^{3}$<br> 316

Margery. Hoa ! Kuuz ${ }^{n}$ An $\cdot d r$, aew d-ee traay ?
Andrew. Kau'm, lat-s shee'ŭk hauns, ${ }^{5}$ thauf Kees'čen bee ${ }^{6}$ skee ŭs.

Margery. Kees•een-z plai ntee unèo $\cdot{ }^{7}$ buit cl-úd zu leev ${ }^{8}$ kees dhu 320 baak $u$ mù haun uz ae ur u mae'un een Chaalikum, ur eet een Paarikum ; noa deespraa yz. ${ }^{9}$

So also William of Shoreham, a.d. 1307 (De Baptismo, l. 121), says-
'pe prest takeb pat ilke child
In his honden by-thuixte.'
${ }^{6}$ This be is emphatic, otherwise it would be thauf kees'en-z skeeăs.
7 See 'Somerset Man's Complaint,' p. 9.
${ }^{8}$ This is still the usual phrase, alternating with $z u$ 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 -
' For lever here was pe pore to ffedi.'
This is also a good example of the use of her as a nominative. (See W. S. Gram., p. 35.)
${ }^{9}$ 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 es ${ }^{2}$ believe well too.
[Swop! he kisses and smuggles her.
325 Murgery. Hemph-Oh! tha very Vengeance out o' tha! Tha hast a creem'd ma Yearms, ${ }^{3}$ and a most a bost ma Neck. -Wall, bet, vor all, how dost try, es ${ }^{4}$ zey, Cozen Andra? Es hant a zeed ye ${ }^{5}$ a gurt while.

Andrew. Why, fath, Cosen Margery, nort marchantable, 330 e're since es scoast ${ }^{6}$ a Tack or two wey Rager Vrogwell tether Day.--Bet sugs ! ${ }^{7}$ es trem'd en \& vagg'd en so, that he'll veel et vor wone while, chell warndy. ${ }^{8}$

Margery. How, Cozen Andra! Why es thort ${ }^{9}$ you coudent a vort ${ }^{9} \mathrm{zo}$.

[^33]* (Note to Ed. of 17YS.) Thate is the proper Word here, according to the Exmoor Dialect; though Thek was in the former Editions impropenly 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 Devoniaus however in their Distinction

Andrew. Ls doa'n bleev dhaet, ${ }^{* 1}$ eet es ${ }^{2}$ bleev wuul tùe'.
[Zwanp! u keesth un smuuglth ur.
Margery. Haemf-Oa•! dhu vuurĕe 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, es ${ }^{4}$ zai, Kuuz'n $A n \cdot d r$ ? Es aa'n u-zeed ee ${ }^{5}$ u guart way $\cdot u l$.

Andrelo. Waay, faa'th, Kuuz'n Maa•jurěe, noa urt maar chuntubl,
 dal.—Bút z'uugz! ${ }^{7}$ es tremd un vag•d-n zoa, dhat u-l vee ŭl ut vur wan wuy ul, ch-úl waurnd-ce. ${ }^{8}$

Margery. Aew, Kuuzn An'dr! Waay es dhaurt ${ }^{9}$ yùe kèod'n u vaurt ${ }^{9}$ zoa.
between Theek or Theekee, and That, do not altogether conform to that which our Saxon Ancestors made between Thyilic or Thylc, (whence the Scotch Thilk) Thyllice or Thylce, hic \& hac tulis, and their That or Thaet, by which they commonly expressed, id, illum, illud, istud, hoc, istoc, \&e. The Devonshire Use of these Words may be exemplified by the following Phrases :
$\qquad$ "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'du'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 whenee we learn the real Origin thercof:
"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 claming 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 eame to be deemed a proper Present for a notorious Liar; and hence eyery great Lie, when intended to corroborate another, is called a Clineher."

335 Andrew. Why, 'twos oll about thee, mun ;--vor es chan't ${ }^{1}$ hire $\mathrm{an}^{2}$ eel Word o' tha.

Margery. How ! about me!-Why, why vore about me, good zweet ${ }^{3}$ now ? ——Of a Ground ${ }^{4}$ ha can ${ }^{5}$ zey no Harm by ${ }^{6}$ ma.

Andrew. Well, well, no Mater. ${ }^{7}$ Es conden hire tha a rma ${ }^{8}$ 340 down, and a roilad upon zo, and zet still like a Mumehance, and net pritelı ${ }^{9}$ en vort.

Murgery. 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'l en, es lace'd en, es thong'd en, es drash'd en, es drubb'd en, ${ }^{12}$ es tam'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. ${ }^{17 *}$ -

[^34]Andrew. Waay, twuz aul ubaewt dhee, mun;--vur es-shaa ${ }^{n}{ }^{1}{ }^{1} 335$


Maryery. Aew! ubaewt mee!——Waay, waay voar ubaewt mee, gèod zwěet ${ }^{3}$ naew ?-_ Uv u Graewnd ${ }^{4} \mathrm{u} \mathrm{kn}^{5}$ zai noa aarm buy ${ }^{6} \mathrm{mu}$.

Andrew. Wuul, wuul, noa maat ur. ${ }^{7}$ Es kèod-n uy-ur dhu u-uurns ${ }^{8}$ daewn, un u-rauy lud upaun zoa, un zút stee•ŭl lik u muum $\operatorname{chaans,~} 340$ un nút purch-n ${ }^{9}$ vatu-t.

Margery. Waay, haut, un lii ang. the un, kèod u zai u mee, $u$ guurt Maizl ?

Andiew. Es begit dhu wuurdz naew ; but u rauy-lud zoa, dhut es keod-n bae $u$ ur ut.——Bút u daed-n lau'st ${ }^{10}$ úz lae ŭbur, faa th; vur 345
 druub-m, ${ }^{12}$ es tan un tu dhu trìe Bai•n, faa'th : Bút staap! ${ }^{13}$ ch-úm uvoar mi stoa'rěe ${ }^{14}$ —Zaez aay, Dhee, dhee urt u puur těe vael'u! Zaez ee', Gaa'r! dhee kas-n mak up purtěe vael'u oa' mu.- Noa Agaa'r, zaez aay, vur dh-urt tìe• uug.lěe tu ${ }^{15}$ bee mae'ŭl a puurtee 350 vael n , dhaet-s trine unèo: Gaar, u wauz waewn ${ }^{\prime}$ lĕe ${ }^{16}$ mad dhoa. ${ }^{17}$
${ }^{12}$ Drumm'd in early Editions.
${ }^{13}$ Step in the text is an error-in the First Ed. it is stap-which is still the only pronumciation of stop.
${ }^{14}$ Uvore my story is the regular idiom for 'I am digressing.' A scandal is a stoa $r$.
${ }^{15}$ This clanse is too literary, it should be, 'tùe uuglĕe vur tu bee u-mae'ŭd u puartee vael 'u ocr,' 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 $16, \mathrm{p} .83$.
${ }^{16}$ Clench. 'An In-coud-In: a woundy bray young vellow,
As the 'port went o' han then, and in those clays.'
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.
${ }^{17}$ (See W. S. Gram., p. 86.) Tho is used for then, throughout the Wilton Chronicle, a.d. 1420, as-
' Five moner pepull here dwellyd po.-Stanza 12.
To wex pe Bretones for hurr' syane ; Pictis and Scottys and Hyrisshe also; And be Demmarkes come po first ynone.'
' po alla baysshette.'-Stanza 217.
' To Wylton ano po come he ywys.'-Stanza 351, ed. Hoare.

352 Chell try thate, zeys he.-As ${ }^{1}$ zoons that wut, zes I. Zo up a roze, and to't we ${ }^{2}$ went.- Vurst a geed ma a Whisterpoop under tha Year, and vorewey a geed ma a Vulch in tha 355 Leer.-Ad, thoa ${ }^{17}$ es rakad ${ }^{3}$ up, and tuek en be tha Collar, and zo box'd en, and zlapp'd en, that es made hes Kep hoppy, and hes Yead adule to ${ }^{4}$ en.

Margery. Well, es thenk ye, Cozen Andra, vor taking wone's ${ }^{5}$ Peart zo.-Bet cham agest he'll go vor a Varrant ${ }^{6}$ vor ye, and take 360 ye bevore tha Cunsabel; and than ye mey ${ }^{7}$ be bound over, and be vorst ${ }^{8}$ to g' in to Exeter to Zizes; and than a mey ${ }^{7}$ zwear tha Peace of es, ${ }^{9}$ you know.-Es en ${ }^{10}$ et better to drenk Vriendsandmake et up?

Andrew. Go vor a Varrant! ${ }^{6}$ Ad, let en, let en go ; ehell net 365 hender en: Ver there's Tom Vuzz ean take his cornoral Oath that he begun ${ }^{11}$ vurst.-And if he deth, chell ha' as ${ }^{12}$ good a Varrant ${ }^{6}$ vor he, as he can vor me, dont quesson et: Vor the Turney into ${ }^{13}$ Moulton knowth me, good now, and has ${ }^{14}$ had zome zweet Pounds o' Vauther ${ }^{15}$ bevore ha dy'd. And if he's a meended to ${ }^{16}$ go to La, es can 370 spend Vorty ${ }^{18}$ or Vifty Shillings as ${ }^{19}$ well's he. And zo let en go,
${ }^{1}$ This is quite wrong-zu zeo $n-z$ dhu wut is the correct idiom.
${ }^{2} W e$ is a literaryism-it should be es or uus waint.
${ }^{3}$ i.e., wake up as out of sleep-rouse oneself. The same word is used, 1. 144.
${ }^{4}$ Aadle vor'n would be the true idiom-aadle to en as in the text sounds quite foreign to the dialect.

5 This expression is impossible in the dialect. The expression in this case wonld certainly be-takeen u un'eebaúdeez pae'urt-zo. (See W. S. Gram., 38, 39.)
${ }^{6}-6{ }^{6}{ }^{6}$ 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.
${ }^{7}-{ }^{7}$ May is literary ; never heard in the dialect. (See W. S. Gram., p. 71.) The $y$ in $y e$ is never sounded, although so persistently written thronghout these dialogues. It is clear that $y$ is a very doubtful consonant in such words as yearms, 1. 326 ; yeet. See note 2, 1. 323.

8 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 mannown. A third error is the omission of the participial prefix.
${ }^{9}$ Here, where it is manifestly first person plural, is the same spelling as is throughout supposed to represent $I$.
${ }^{10}$ 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.——Uz ${ }^{1}$ zèo $n-z$ dhu wút, zaez aay.—— 352 Zoa aup u roardd, un tùe-t wee ${ }^{2}$ wairnt.-_Vuist u gid mu a wús turpèop uun dur dhu yuur, un voarwai $u$ gid mu $u$ vuuleh een dhu lee'ŭ.——Ad, dhoa ${ }^{17}$ es rae ưkud ${ }^{3}$ 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 tue ${ }^{4}$ un.

Murgery. Wuul, es thaengk-ee, Kuuz'n $\mathrm{An} \cdot \mathrm{dr}$, vur tak $\cdot$ een waunz ${ }^{5}$ pae ưrt zoa.-Bút ch-ím agaast-u-l goa vur u Waar unt ${ }^{6}$ vaur ee, un tak ee bivoar dhu kuun'subl ; un dhan ee múd ${ }^{7}$ bee u-baewn oa'vur, un 360
 dhu pai's oa es, ${ }^{9}$ yu noa.--Uz-n ${ }^{10}$ ut bad'r tu draengk vrai'nz un mak ut aup?

Andrer. Goa vur a Waar unt! ${ }^{6}$ Ad, lat-n, lat-n goo ; ch-úl nút een•dur-n: Vur dhur-z Taum Vuuz kn tak úz kaur-nurul oa ưth dhut 365 ee bigeend ${ }^{11}$ vuus. - Un-eef u dúth, ch-úl ae ${ }^{9}$ zu $^{12}$ gèod $u$ Waar"unt ${ }^{6}$ vur ee, z-ee kan vur mee, doa•n kwaes'n ut: Vur dhu Tuur"nĕe een'tu ${ }^{13}$ Moaltn noa-ŭth mee, gèod nuw, un-dh ${ }^{14}$ u-ad zum zweet paewnz u vau dhur ${ }^{15}$ uvoar u duyd. Un-eef ee-z u-mee'ndud tu ${ }^{16}$ goo tu Laa, eskún spai•n vaur•tee ${ }^{18}$ ur veef•tee shúl'eenz uz ${ }^{19}$ wuul-z ee. Un zoa lat-n goo, 370
${ }^{11}$ Degun is literary, not dialect. (See W. S. Gram., p. 46.)
${ }^{12} \mathrm{As}$ is impossible here.
${ }^{13}$ The market or neighbouring town is almays spoken of as into-'Send into market'-'He livth into Lynton town.' Moulton here means South Molton.
${ }^{14}$ IIas of the text is literary-hath is the proper word contracted after and into $d l$.
${ }^{15}$ 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.
${ }^{16}$ 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 -

> 'Swete lefdi seinte Marie, uor be muchele blisse pet tu heflest po bu iseie bine brihte blissful sune pet te Gyus wenden vorto Aprusemen, ase anoper deadlich mon.'
(Ancren Riwle, ed. Camden Society, p. 40.)
See also Chronicon Vilodunense, ed. IIoare, Stanzas 100, 101, and throughout the poem. Of this use endless quotations might be given.
${ }^{17}$ See p. 80, l. 351.
${ }^{18}$ Forty and fifty are generally pronounced with the $f$ quite sharp as in lit. Eng., while four and five are always vaau ur, vai v. See remarks by Devoniensis, p. 64 .
${ }^{19}$ Should be, so well as he.

371 and whipe ${ }^{1}$ whot a zots ${ }^{2}$ upon o' Zendeys wey lies Varrant. ${ }^{6}$ But hang en, let's ha nort more to zey about en; vor chave better Besense ${ }^{3}$ in Hond a gurt deal. ${ }^{4}$
[IIe takes hold of her \& paddles in her Neck \& Bosom.
375 Murger:\%. Come, be quite, ${ }^{5}$-be quite, es zey, ${ }^{7}$ a grabbling o' wone's ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Tetties.-Es wont ha' ma Tetties a grabbled zo; ner es wont be ${ }^{9}$ mullad and soulad.- Stand azide, ${ }^{10}$ come, gi' o'er.

Andiex. Lock, luck; how skittish we be now; you werent ${ }^{11}$ so skitish 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.

Murgery. Why, Cozen Andra, thes wos the whole Fump o' the Besenese. ${ }^{15}$ - Chaw'r ${ }^{16}$ in wey en1 ${ }^{17}$ to daunce ; and whan the Daunce was out, tha Croud cry'l Syueak, squeak, squeak, (as a useth to do, ${ }^{18}$ you know) and a cort ma about the Neek, and woudent 390 be a sed, ${ }^{19}$ but a woud kiss ma, in spite o' ma, do what es coud to heuter en.--Es could a borst tha Croud in Shivers, and tha Crouter too, a voul ${ }^{20}$ Zlave as ${ }^{21}$ a wos, and hes Vildlestick into the Bargain.
${ }^{1}$ This word is very emphatic, and hence the strong aspirate.
${ }^{2}$ In the Exmoor district the $t h$ inflection is quite the rule, and partionlarly with such words as sit, wet, fret, eat, wall, take-which all have th only, and not eth; take becomes tae ülith or tulith.
${ }^{3}$ Misprint in the text. See Besenese, I. 357.
${ }^{4}$ In rapid speech the $t$ of guurt glides into the $d$ of deal-thus it is always u guw
${ }^{5}$ Quiet is always a monosyllable. In the early editions this was written quiet-but has been very properly amended in the 7th.
${ }^{6}$ See p. 82, note 6.
${ }^{7}$ Es zey is improbable-the two sibilants destroy each other, in rapid speach.
8 This should be grab•leen u ún eebau'deez tút ceez. See W. S. Gram., pp. 38,39.
${ }^{9}$ In early editious this was uont be zo mullud, a much better reading than the text.
${ }^{10}$ This is quite literary-aside is unknown. She would not have used such an expression under such provocation-she would have said git uxai. The idiom of stand aside is stan u wan zuyd (stand on one side).
 ang un, lat-s ae•й noa'ŭrt moo-ŭr tu zai ubaewt-n ; vur ch-uv bad•r bís unees ${ }^{3}$ een haund u ghur-dae-ŭl. ${ }^{4}$
[U takth oadd oa ur, un padlth een ur nak-n bunzom.
Margery. Kaurm, bee kwuyt, ${ }^{5}$-bie kwuyt, u zai ${ }^{7}$ u grab leen u 375 waunz $^{8}$ tút-eez.-Es oa ǔnt ačŭ mi tút-eez u-grablld zoa; nur es


Andiew. Lauk, Lauk; aew skít-eesh wee bee naew; yùe wae•ŭrunt ${ }^{11}$ zut skút•eesh wai Kaes tur Oargèol, aup to Daar"utee
 nur zu skwai meesh naedh $\cdot \mathrm{ur}$. - Ee muurt muul-če un suw lče tael ${ }^{12}$ u wúz wae'ŭree. ${ }^{13}$

Margery. Es bleev dhu vurr'ee Duw l-z een voak vur lee eeen.
Antrew. Aew ; shoa‘ŭr un shoa'ŭr yùe oa'n denuy ut, wul ĕe, ham aul dhu voa $\cdot k n{ }^{14}$ tiok noa ưtees oa ut.

Margery. Waay, Kuuzn An•dr, dhús wuz thu woal fump u dhu bés unces. ${ }^{55}$ - Ch-aur ${ }^{16}$ een wai un ${ }^{17}$ tu dau'us; un haun dhu daurus wuz aewt, thu kraewd kruyd skwik, skwik, skwik (uz u yŭc'zuth tu due, ${ }^{\text {l8 }}$ yu noa) un u kau'ŭrt mu baewt dhu nak, un wíd-n bee u-saed, ${ }^{19}$ bút a wíd kees mu, cen spuyt u mu, dite hant es keol tul 390 econdur-n. Es kèod u buus dhu kraewd een shív'urz, un dha
 dhu baar geen.
${ }^{11}$ - ${ }^{11}$ The present form would be yùe waud-n. The aerent of the text sounds too bookish.
${ }^{12}$ I doubt if till or until would have been used-it should be gin or core.
${ }^{13}$ I never heard weary in the dialect-it should be vore u wuz u-tuy-йrd.
${ }^{14}$ Quite obsolete. See note, l. 197.
${ }^{15}$ 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.
${ }^{16}$ Quite obsolete. This form evidently stands for I war or were.
${ }^{17}$ This phrase 'in with him' is peculiar, but thoronghly 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.
${ }^{18}$ Do here is literary-the dialect omits the verb, uz u yùe zuth tùe.
19 i. e. refused, resisted. Compare guinsaid.
${ }^{20}$ This is not a dialectal word. It may have been used, but I doubt it.
${ }^{21}$ 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 while ${ }^{3}$ 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 Andrev. 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 ne-an by thate.

Andrew. Why, than, chell tell tha vlat and plean. Ya know es 405 kep Challacomb-Moor in Hond;7 tes vull stated: ${ }^{8}$ But cham to chonge a Live ${ }^{9}$ for three Yallow-beels. And than there's tha Lant up to Parracomb Town : And whan es be to Parracomb, es must ha' wone ${ }^{10}$ that es can trest to look arter tha gerred-teal'd Meazels, and to zar ${ }^{11}$ tha Ilt and tha Barra, and melk tha Kee to Challa410 comb, and to look arter tha Thengs o' tha Houze.

Murgery. O Varjuice! Why, Cozen Andra, a good steddy Zarrant ${ }^{12}$ can do oll thes.

Andrev. 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 $g^{\prime}$ in to wone.-No, no, es bant zo mad nether. ${ }^{15}$ - Well, bet, look, dest zee, ${ }^{16}$ Cozen
${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ See note, 1. 55. Extreme familiarity is here implied, as also in l. 355.
${ }^{2}$ The omission of the verb be, as in this instance, is very common. (Sce W. S. Gram., p. 57.)
${ }^{3}$ All this while is not dialect, and has no business here. Some snch expression as aa•dr au•l (after all), or kaum tu laa's (come to last), the lattcr most likely, would have been used.
${ }^{4}$ This word is pronouncel fuath, with the $f$ quite sharp-it is spelt so in many places in the text ; e. g. ll. 345, 347.
${ }^{5}$ Not a dialectal word-such words, and indeed this whole sentence, tends to bring the entire 'Courtship' into discredit as a faithful record.

6 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.

7 An owner is said to keep land in hand when he farms it hinself.
${ }^{8}$ 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 angrgree, mun. ${ }^{1}$-Un zo lat-s kees-n Vrai $\cdot u z .{ }^{2}$ [Keesth ur.] Wuul bút Kuuz'n Maa•jurěe, 395 aul dhús wuy•ul ${ }^{3}$ es aa•n u-toa•l dhu mi Aar'unt; - un ch-uv u oa'vur Aar"unt to dhu, mun. ${ }^{1}$

Margery. [Súm pureen.] Gèod zwčet naew, haut aarunt niz ut? Es maar ul haut Aar unt ee kn ac $\cdot \breve{u}$ tu mee.

Andrew. Waay, faath, ${ }^{4}$ ch-úl tuul dluu. Haut zig'n-eevuyz ${ }^{5}$ ut tu 400 maens dhu Mat'ur ? ${ }^{6}$ Taez dhús? boa lus noa lus wút ae ${ }^{\text {un mu? }}$

Margery. Ae-ŭ mu? Haut-s dhact? 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-Noa ưr een aund ; ${ }^{7}$ taez vèol stae-ŭtud : ${ }^{8}$ but ch-aam 405 tu chaunj u luyv ${ }^{9}$ vur dree yal ur bee uhlz. Un dhan dhur-z dhu Lant aup tu Paar•ikum-taewn: Un haun es bee tu Paarikum es mús
 un tu saar ${ }^{11}$ dhu últ un dhu baar"u, un múlk dhu Kae eee tu Chaal'ikum, un tu lèok aa dr dhu dhengz u dhu aewz.

Murgery. Oa Vaarjees! waay, Kunz'n An•dr, u gèod stúd`ĕe Saar unt ${ }^{12}$ kún due aul dhús.

Andrew. Poa, poa, poa! ch-úl trís noa Saar unts. ${ }^{12}$ - Un moocurr-n
 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--1

[^35]Magery ; zo vur vore es tha wut ${ }^{1}$ ha' ma, chell put thy ${ }^{2}$ Live pon Parracomb Down. Tes wor ${ }^{3}$ twonty Nobles a Year and a Puss to put min in. ${ }^{4}$
420 Margery. O vile! whot marry? -No chant ${ }^{5}$ ha' tha best Man in Challacomb, nor yeet in Parracomb. Na, chell ne'er marry, vor ort's know. No, no! they zey ${ }^{6}$ thare be more a marry'd aready than ean boil tha Crock o' Zendeys.-No, no, Cozen Andra; es coud amorst swear chudent ha' tha best 425 Square in oll Ingland.-Bet eome; prey, ${ }^{7}$ Cozen Andra, set down ${ }^{8}$ a bit. Es must g' up in Chember, and speak a Word or two wey Zester Tamzin. Hare's darning up of ${ }^{9}$ old blonkets, and rearting tha Peels, and snapping o' Vleas.-Es ell come agen presently. ${ }^{10}$
430 Antrew. Well, do than; bet make Haste, d'ye see.-Me-an time ${ }^{11}$ chell read o'er the new Ballet cheve ${ }^{12}$ in ma Pocket.

Murgery. New Ballet! O good now, let's hire ye sing et ${ }^{13}$ up. ${ }^{14}$

Andier. Zing!-No, no, tes no singing Ballet, mun; bet 435 tes a gedly one good now.

Margery. Why, whot's't about, than?
Andrew. Why, tes about a Boy that kill'd hes Vauther;

[^36]Maa jurĕe; zu vuur voar uz dhu wít ${ }^{1}$ ae ${ }^{\text {rı }} \mathrm{mu}$, ch-ul puat dhuy ${ }^{2}$ luyv pun Paar-ikum daewn. Taez waeth ${ }^{3}$ twaun'tee Noablz u Yuur un u Puus tu puat mún cen. ${ }^{\text { }}$

Marger! !. Ou vuy •ul! haut marrĕc ?-Noa, shaant ${ }^{5}$ ae'ŭ dhu bas 420 mae'ŭn een Chaal ikum, nur eet een Paar-ikum. Naa, ch-úl nae'ŭr maarce, vur oăŭrt-s noa. Noa, noa, dhai zai ${ }^{6}$ dhur bee moo ŭr u-maar-ĕed urad’ĕe-n kún bwuuy’ul dhu Krauk u Zún•dĕez.-Noa, noa, Kuuz'n An dr ; es kèod umaurs zwae ŭr ch-èod-nt ae óu dhu bas
 u beet. Es mús g-uup-m Chúm•bur, un spaik u wuurd ur tive wai Zús'tur Taam'zcen. Uur-z daar-neen aup uv ${ }^{9}$ oall blaun kuts, un ree'urteen dhu Pee'ulz, un znaap'een u vlai'z.-Es ul kaum ugec'ŭn praz'unt luyk. ${ }^{10}$

Amdrew. Wuul, due dhan; bút mak ačus, d-ee zee.-Mai'n tuym ${ }^{11} 430$ ch-úl rai•d oa־ǔr dhu nùe baal $\cdot$ ut ch-uv ${ }^{12}$ cen mu paurgut.

Margery. Nùe baal ut! Oa gèod naew, lat-s uy ŭr ee zing ut ${ }^{13}$ aup. ${ }^{14}$

Audrew. Zing !--Noa, noa, taez noa zing-een baal ut, mun ; luít tacz u gaud•lee wún geod naew.

Margery. Waay, haut-s-t ubaewt, dhun ?
Andiew. Waay, taez ubaerwt u bwuwy dhut kee ǔld 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.
${ }^{10}$ This word sounds rather literary. Presently when used at all implies nox, and not as is politely understood, after a little time. I think Margery would have said-' E's ell come agen purty quicl:'
${ }^{11}$ Not dialect. Andrew would have said, wuy. $\mathrm{ul} l$ yùe bee $u$-goo-certainly not meantime.
${ }^{12}$ IIe 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.
${ }^{13}$ A song or ballad is a thing used, not an abstraction-the pronoun therefore would be $h e$, nom. un, objective. it, in reference to a song, is not vernacular. (See W. S. Gram., p. 32 ) It should read $\operatorname{zing}$ un aup.
${ }^{14}$ This up is very peculiar, but perfectly true to custom. To sing a sony would imply an ordinary, sober, or sentimental one ; but to $\operatorname{sing}$ up a song would convey an idea about the song that there was something outre about itextravagant or indecent. Familiarly to tell a tale would imply a sober, orderly story, but to tell up a tule implies something that nobody believes-a cock and bull story.
and how hes Vauther went agen, ${ }^{1}$ in Shape of ${ }^{2}$ a gurt voul ${ }^{3}$ Theng, wey a cloven Voot and Vlashes ${ }^{4}$ o' Vire, and troubled 440 the House so, that tha Whatjecomb, tha Whit Witch, wos vorst ${ }^{5}$ to ${ }^{6}$ lay en in the Red-Zea; ${ }^{7}$ and how the Boy repented, ${ }^{8}$ and went distracted, and wos taken ${ }^{9}$ up, and wos hang'd vor't and sung ${ }^{10}$ 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?
Andiew. True? O La! Yes, yes : ${ }^{11}$ es olways look to thate. Look see' tes here in Prent ${ }^{12}$-* Lissencel 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 ehell g' up to Zester.

SCENE the Chamber.

To Thomasin enter Margery.

Margery. 454

0H! Zester Tamzen !-Odd! ee es a come a long, and vath and trath ${ }^{13}$ hath a put vore ${ }^{14}$ tha Quesson

[^37]* (Note to Ed. of 177S.) So Country People us'd to read Licensed, \&c.
 dhaeng, wai $u$ kloa vm vèot un flaar shíz ${ }^{4}$ u vuy ur, un truubld dh-aewz zoa, dhut dhu Hauch ěekum, dhu Weet Wúch, wùz foo us ${ }^{5} 440$ tu ${ }^{6}$ laa'y un een dhu Huurd-Sai ; ${ }^{7}$ un aew dhu bwuwy raipai $\cdot n t u d,{ }^{8}$ un wai'nt deestraak'tud, un wuz u-tèokt ${ }^{9}$ aup un wuz angd vaur't un zingd ${ }^{10}$ Saa $\cdot \mathrm{mz}$, un zaed úz praaryŭrz. Twíl dùe yur aart gèod tu huy ${ }^{\text {ür }}$ ut, un mak ee kruy lig ún'ee dhaeng.-Dhur-z dhu pik•tur oa un tue', un dhu paa'sn un dhu Daewl, un dhu goa'ŭs, un dhu 445 gaal-ěes.

Margery. Bút úz ut trìe', b-ee shoa *ur ?
Andrew. Trùe? Oa laa! ees, ees; ${ }^{11}$ es aurvees lèok tu dhaet. Lèok zee túz yuur een púrnt ${ }^{12}$ —* Lús'nd ukoardeen tu aurrdur.-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-íl g-uup tu Zaes'tur.

> SAI•N dhu Chúm•ur.

Tu Taam'zeen aintur Maajurěe.
Margery. a! Zaes'tur Taam'zeen! -Aud! ee úz u-km ul lau'ng, un faa'th-n traa'th, ${ }^{13}$ u-th u-puut voa $\mathrm{r}^{14}$ dhu Kwaes'n 454
${ }^{5}$ Force is always $f \circ 0^{\circ} \mathrm{u} s$, not $v o 0^{\circ} \breve{\iota} s$. There is no sound of $r$ in the dialectal word.
${ }^{6}$ This onght to read foo us vur tu laay un.
${ }^{7}$ Red-Zea is impossible; red is uurd, but emphasised it is huurd. Sea is almays sai, never zai, the latter means say. See p. 64, where 'Dovoniensis' confirms this.
${ }^{8}$ Repented is rather a 'fine' word, but it is used in the dialect, and is then uttered very deliberately rai-pai'ntucl.
${ }^{2}$ i. e. was apprehended-the regular idiom for arrestod. Taken up is impossible ; past. part. u-tèokt. (See W. S. Gram., p. 48.)
${ }^{10}$ (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 noar tuz trie, Kuuz aay zeed ut een purnt. Print is always púrnt. 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.

455 to ma a' ready.-Es verly beleive thy ${ }^{1}$ 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 Tongne in what cham a going to sey, and than 460 chell tell tha sometheng. - The Banes, cham amorst sure, wull g' in ether $\mathrm{a}^{2}$ Zindey or $\mathrm{a}^{2}$ Zindey-senneert to ${ }^{3}$ vurdest. Es ${ }^{4}$ net aboo Two and Twonty;-a spicy Vella ${ }^{5}$ and a vitty Vella ${ }^{5}$ vor emny keendest Theng.-Thee know'st Jo Hosegood c, reckon'd a vitty Vella ${ }^{5}$ : Poo! Es ${ }^{4}$ a sooterly ${ }^{6}$ Vella to Andra; 465 there's no Compare.

Thomasin. Go, ya wicked Cunterveit! ${ }^{7}$ 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 ${ }^{9}$ off, and ${ }^{10}$ come no more anearst tha.
470 Margery. Go, ya Alkitotle? ya gurt voolish ${ }^{11}$ Trapes! Dest thee thenk a beleev'd ${ }^{12}$ ma, whan es sed chudent marry? Ee es net so sart ${ }^{13}$-a-baked nether. Vor why? es wulent 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 ; vor he's by ees zell oll theez while.

[^38]tu mu urad'če.-Es vuurlľe blaiv dhu ${ }^{1}$ bae whnz úl g-een naks Zún dě̌e. 455 -Túz aul es oa * vaur.-Bút es tuul-n, Maar"če u-kaedb $\cdot \mathrm{u}$ ! un tuul-n daewn-ree-ŭrt es shaa'n maar'če dhu bas mae-ŭn een Shuur'weel Uun•durd.--Bút dús dhu huy-ŭr mu, Zaes'tur Taam'zeen; doa'n ee bee $u$ Laab u dhu tumg een haut ch-ím u-gwai'n tu zai, un dhan ch-úl tuul dhu zaumfeen :- Dhu Bae•ŭuz, ch-úm umau'rs shoa'ŭr, 460
 U-z ${ }^{4}$ nút ubeo tùe un twaun'tee ;-u spuy'sěe Vael $\cdot 1^{5}$ un u vát'če Vael•n ${ }^{5}$ vur únee keen'dees dhaeng.-Dhee noa-s Joa Oarzgèod úz
 dhur-z noa Kumpae ŭr.

Thomasin. Goa, yu wik•ud Kuun'turvai't! ${ }^{7}$ waa'y dús lee• zoa ugúns dhi meend; un haun u puut voar thu Kwaes'n tul-n dhu wúts-n maarcěe?-Uzuydz, zu vuur-z dhu noa:s, u muur-tak ${ }^{8}$ Púp oa, un meech ${ }^{9}$ oaf, un ${ }^{10}$ kaum noa moo ŭr unee ŭrs dhu.

Margery. Goa, yu Aal'keetoa'tl? yu guurt fèol'eesh1 ${ }^{11}$ trae'ŭps! 470 Dís dhee dhaengk ublai vud ${ }^{12} \mathrm{mu}$, haun es zaed chèod-n maar"ee? Ee úz nút zu zaart-u ${ }^{13}$-bae cưkud naedh ur. Vur waay? es wúd-n bee tìe. vuurwurd naedh ur ; vur dhan ee murt draa baak.-Noa, noa; vur anl haut-s zaed, es oap thu Bae-ŭnz wúl g-een, e-zai, naks Zín•děe.Un faa'th, neef-s die' vaal oa'vur thu dús, t-oa'n dhurr mu, nur eet 475 buus mi boa‘ŭnz.- Bút neef dhai doan g-een bi Zín děe zacn ee ưrt, ch-úl tuul dhu, een shoa'urt Kau'mpměe, ${ }^{14}$ es ch-úl ${ }^{15}$ buus mi Aart.Bút es mus goo daewn tùe un ; vur ee-z lie eez-zuul aul dheez wuy u l. 478

> 'Ny in alle pe tyme of his regnyng, Theff nor mycher' forsothe per nasse.'
(Chronicon Vilodunense, A.D. 1420, ed. Hoare, Stanza 206.)
${ }^{10}$ Here a negative should come in, un nut laum noa moo'ŭr.
${ }^{11}$ Fool and its compounds are pronounced with the $f$, sharp and distinct.
${ }^{12}$ The inflexion would in this case be fully sounded. In the early editions this was ee believad.
${ }^{13}$ Spelt zent elsewhere in the text, l. 54.
${ }^{14} i . e$. in few words. For change of $n$ into $m$. See W. S. Dialect, p. 17.
${ }_{15}$ This cannot be right. The pronoun is in the text used twice over $=\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{I}$ shall, it should read, es sh'l; as the chell can be only intended for shall. In Ed. 1746, we read shatl borst, which is of course right. The change is in the later editions, and the alteration was doulbtless made to get in as many instances as possible of the $c h$-which after all is the main feature of the dialogues.

* (Note to Ed. of 1z'78.) Ho' is here an Abbreviation of IIope.

SCENE the Ground-Room ${ }^{1}$ again.

## To Andrew enter Margery.

Audrew. WeLL, Cozen Magery, cham glad you're ${ }^{2}$ come
480
agen: Vor thes Ballet es zo very good, that et makes ${ }^{3}$ wone's Heart troubled to read et.

Margery. Why, put et up than, ${ }^{4}$ while es git a Putcher o' Cyder. Wull ye eat a Croust ${ }^{5}$ o' Brid and Chezee, ${ }^{6}$ Cozen Andra?
485 Andrew. No, es thankee, Cozen Magery; vor es eat a Crub as ${ }^{7}$ es come ${ }^{8}$ along; besides ${ }^{9}$ es went to Dinner ${ }^{10}$ jest avore. -Well, bet Cozen Magery, whot Onser dest ${ }^{11}$ 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-aexz (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 downstairs. Neither up-stairs nor down-stairs are dialect. In houses of greater pretension the family living room is $d h-a a \cdot l$ (the hall), and the room for company, seldom used, dhu pacildur (the parlour).
${ }^{2}$ Literary. In the dialect it is yù̀ bee, or in N. Dev. very often yù 'm, or emph. yùe haam. See W. S. Gram., p. 55 ; also W. S. Dial., p. 19.
${ }^{3}$ This whole clause is too literary-no native would thus express himself. Mrakes is not used in N. Devon or Exmoor district, it is always makith. The impersoual pronoun is not one but anybody. See W. S. Gram., pp. 38, 39. Troubled so used would be $u$-traub $\cdot l d$-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.'
${ }^{4}$ This would be nearly unintelligible to a real native. Such a phrase as put it $u p$ is impossible. The pronoun would always, even judging from the transcriber's own context, be en. Margery would have said puut-n uwai than.
${ }^{5}$ Crust and crumb are peculiar in pronunciation-they have more of the oo soumd than is conveyed by the croust of the text.
${ }^{6}$ 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.'
${ }^{7}$ This use of as is much too literary-it has not the sense of whilst or

## SAI•N dhu Graewn-rèom ${ }^{1}$ ugee•un.

Tu Andr ai'ntur Maa'jurěe.
Andrew. JUUL, Kuuz'n Maa•jurěe, ch-úm glad yèo ur ${ }^{2}$ u-kaumd
 dhut út maks ${ }^{3}$ wauz aart truub ld tu rai d út.

Margery. Waay, puut nit aup dhan, ${ }^{4}$ wuy ${ }^{l}$ es git u púch ur u Suy dur. Wuul ee ai't u krèost ${ }^{5}$ u buurd-n chee ${ }^{*}$, ${ }^{6}$ Kuuz'n $\mathrm{An} \cdot \mathrm{dr}$ ?

Andrew. Noa, es dhangk ee, Kuuzn Maajurěe; vur es ait u 485 krèob uz ${ }^{7}$ es $\mathrm{km}^{8}$ ulaung; zuydz ${ }^{9}$ es waint tu daen ${ }^{\text {eur }}{ }^{10}$ jest uvoar. -Wuul, bút Kuaz'n Maa•jurěe, haut aun‘sur dús ${ }^{11}$ gi mu tu dhu kwaes'n es puut voa'r naew-ree-ŭrt.

Margery. Haut kwaes'n wanz ut?
during in the dialect. Andrew wonld have said ee'ns es kim ulaung (see W. S. Gram., p. 66), or still more probably ee'ns es wuz u-kaum•een ulaung.
${ }^{8}$ 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:

> 'Wende ajen to Normandie. from voan he com er.'-Will. Conq. 1. 252.
> 'A Sein Nicolas day he com.'-1. 254.

In the Chronicon Vilodunense come is used for the past tense throughont, comen for the plur., and $y$ come for the p. part. :
'To Wylton ano po come he y wys.'-st. 351.
' And selkemen come pedur mony and ffele.'-st. 586.
So Trevisa always uses com for the past tense :
' Whanne he com tovore pe duc.'-Norman Invasion, l. 33.
9 This word generally loses the first syllable. It is spelt bezides in earliest editions.
${ }^{10}$ This idiom is still the common one, and means not went to dine, but actually partook of and finished dinuer.
${ }^{11}$ This persuasive question should have been in the 2nd pers. plur.-haut aun sur dùe ee gi mu? In the next sentence he addresses to her Andrew uses the plur.

490 Andrev. Why, sure ya bant so vorgetvul, Why, tha Quesson es put ${ }^{2}$ a little rather. ${ }^{3}$

Murdery. Es dont know whot Quesson ye mean; es begit whot Quesson twos.

Ancliew. Why, to tell tha vat and plane ${ }^{4}$ agen, twos thes; ${ }^{5}$ 495 Wut ha' ma, ay or no?

Murgery. 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 chnd never marry at oll. ${ }^{8}$-And more and zo, Cozen Andra, cham a told ya keep Company
500 wey Tamzen ${ }^{9}$ Hosegood, thek gurt banging, thonging, muxy Drawbreech, daggle-teal'd ${ }^{10}$ Jade, a zower-zop'd, yerring, chockling Trash, a buzzom-chuck'd haggaging Moyle, a gurt Fustilug. ${ }^{11}$ Hare's ${ }^{12}$ a Trub! And nif ya keep hare Company, es'll ha ${ }^{13}$ no more to zey to tha.
505 Ancliew. 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. Al, bet twos Jo Hosegood's zetting vore in tha vurst ${ }^{14}$ 510 Place. Ha wull lee a Rope upreert.-Whan ha hath a took ${ }^{15}$ a Shord and a paddled, ha wull tell Doil, tell Dildrams, and roily
${ }^{1}$ The transcriber is wrong in spelling this $f u l$ with a $v$. Adjectives in ful have the $f$ quite sharp. (See W. S. Gram., p. 15.)
${ }^{2}$ Es aukst on ee ulee'dl rae uhdluur is much more veruacular than the text. To put a question is bookish.

3 ' Vor he hadde ylost meny stalword men in pe raper batayl.'
Trevisa, Norman Invasion, l. 55 (ed. Morris and Skeat).
'The fifetende day, thai bathe
Sal be mad newe and faire ful rathe.'
Homilies in Verse, A.d. 1330, Signs of the Doom, 1. 144.
' Lete not pi luft hond • late nor rape, Beo wat what pi riht hond 'worchep or delep.'

Piers Plowman, Pass. III. l. 56 (ed. Morris and Skeat).
${ }^{4}$ This pronunciation is obsolete-the broader placyn has become usual, especially in the Exmoor district, but in S. Dev. and Cornwall it is not so.
${ }^{5}$ Andrew would certainly have said dhus yuur $=$ 'this here.'
${ }^{6}$ 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'ŭr yùe bae-ŭnt zu vurgit•fèol, ${ }^{1}$ watay, dhu 490


Margery. Es doa' noa haut kwaes'n ee mai'n; es bigit haut kwaes'n twauz.

Andrew. Waay, tu tuul dhu vlaat-n plain ${ }^{4}$ ugín', twuz dhús; ${ }^{5}$ Wút ae ŭ mu, aa'y ur' noa?
 aunsur es gid uvoar, es wúd-n marrece dhu bas mae'̆un een aul Ing lun. ${ }^{7}$ Es kúd umaurs zwae'ŭr ch-úd nŭv•ur max'če ut aul $1.8^{8}$ _ Un moo:ŭr-n zoa, Kuuz'n An•dr, ch-ún u-toa•ld yùe kip kau'mpmĕe wai Taam'zeen ${ }^{9}$ Oa'zgèod, dhek guurt bang•een, dhanng'een muuk sĕe 500
 leen traarsh, u buwz'um chuuk ud , ag'éejeen many $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$, u guurt fuus ti lugz. ${ }^{11}$ Hae ${ }^{\text {ur-z-z }}{ }^{12}$ u trub ! Un-eef yùe kip hae ŭr kau'mpmée, es-ul u ${ }^{13}$ noa moo'ŭr tu zai tu dhu.

Autrew. Aa•y dhús uz Joa Oa•zgèodz flúm-flaam.-Oa, dhu 505 vuur če vai'njuns aewt oa un.

Murgery. Noa, Noa; túz noa'ŭı u Joa Oazgèodz flúm-flaam; bút zoa dhu kruym u dhu kum treeg gooth.

Andlew. Aa, bút twuz Joa Oa'zgèodz zút een voar een dhu fuus ${ }^{14}$ plae us. U wúl lee u roo‘̆̆p aup-ree•ŭrt.-Haun u aath u-teokt ${ }^{15}$ u 510


[^39]512 upon enny Kesson Zoul. ${ }^{1}$ - Ad ; nif es come athert en, chell gee en a Liek ;-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.-All ! 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. ${ }^{3}$

Mfargery. 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.

Antrew. Well, well, Cozen Magery, be't how twull,' whot caree I? ${ }^{6}$ - And zo, Good-buy, Gool-buy t'ye, ${ }^{7}$ 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.
[Going.
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 ${ }^{8}$ to zee me drenk? - Why, ya hant a tasted our Cyder yet. [Andrew returns.] Come, Cozen Andra, here's t'ye. ${ }^{9}$

Audrew. Na, vor that Matter, ${ }^{10}$ es owe no ${ }^{11}$ Ill-will to enny Kesson, net I.-Bet es wont drenk, nether, exeept ${ }^{12}$ ya vurst 535 kiss and Vriends.
[Kisses her.

[^40]pun ún'če kaestn Soal. ${ }^{1}$ —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 ěe úz koa ut vaur-n, ch-úl druub-m, ${ }^{2}$ ch-úl mak úz kep aup•če.-Ad! ch-úl gee un zúch u zwaup;-ch-úl gee un u waup•ut, un u wuur•ut, un u wís'turpèop tùe:-Ad ch-úl bae'ŭs-n tu dhu trùe bai'n.

> [Spai kth een u guurt paar‘shn, un shoa'th wai úz anz aew u-l bai't-s adversary. ${ }^{3}$

Margery. Lauk, Lauk, Lauk, Kuuz'n An•dr! Vur waay roarr ${ }^{4} 520$ b-ee een zúch u vuus'teen vìm? -Waay, es doa'n zai twuz Joa Oa'zgèod zaes zoa, bút uun -ĕe zoa dhu kruym u dhu kuun treee gooth.

Andrew. Wuul, Wuul, Kuuzn Maa-jurěe, bee't aew twúl, ${ }^{5}$ haut kee'ŭrěe aay? ${ }^{6}$-Un zoa, Gèod bwuuy, Gèod bwuy t-ee, ${ }^{7}$ Kuuz'n Maa-jurêe. Neef voarkn bee júl'ees uvoar dhai bee u-maarčed, zoa 525 dhai múd aar•tur.-Zoa Gèod bwuuy, Kuuz'n Maa•jurěe. Ch-úl mít truubll ce ugee ŭn vur wan wuy ŭl, ch-úl waurn d-ee. [Gwai•n.

Margery. [Kau•leen aa•dr-n.] Bút aarkče, aar•ǩ̆e u beet, Kuuz•n An•dr! Es wúd-n ae-ee goo-wai angrgrée naedh ur. Zhoo ur un Zhoo ur yùe oa'n dinaa'y ${ }^{8}$ 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. ${ }^{9}$

Andiew. Naa, vur dhat Mat•ur, ${ }^{10}$ es oa noa ${ }^{11}$ ee•йl wee'ŭl tu ún•ee Kaes'n, mít aay.-Bút es oarn draeugk, naedh ur, saep ${ }^{12}$ yìe fuus kees-n vrai'nz.
[Keesth ur. 535

Mour"neen t-ee (good morning), Gèod nait-ee (good night to you), \&c. Buy in good-buy is always bwuuy = be wi' ye.
${ }^{8}$ 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.
${ }^{9}$ This is the most ustal form of pledging. In a hay-field the first drinker usually says before putting the cup to his lips, Keum soci'us, yuur-z $t$-ee' (come mates, here's $t$-ye).
${ }^{10}$ I never heard this phrase-matter is not dialect. Audrew would have sail, Naa, zu vuur-z dhuat gooth.
${ }^{11}$ This is literary. In such a sentence a double negative would be invariable -Es dont owe no ill-will.
${ }^{12}$ Except is unknown-sacp or saeps are common.

Margery. Ya wont be a zed. ${ }^{1}$ - [He drinks.]-Well, bet hearky, Cozen Andra; wont ye g' up and ${ }^{2}$ zee Grammer avore ye g' up to Challacomb? Tes bet jest over tha Paddick, and along tha Park. ${ }^{3}$
540 Andrew. Es carent much ${ }^{4}$ nif's do go ${ }^{5}$ zee Old Ont Nell :And how do hare tare along ? ${ }^{6}$

Margery. Rub along, d'ye zey? - Oh! Grammer's wor ${ }^{7}$ Vower Hundred Pounds, ${ }^{8}$ reckon tha Goods indoor and out a door.
545 Andrew. Chan glad to hire et; vor es olweys thort her to ha be ${ }^{9}$ 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 Arm ${ }^{15}$ under his, and leads her.

SCENE Old Grammer Nell's.
To her enter Andrew and Margery.
Andiex. OOD DEN, good Den, Ont Nell.-Well, how d'ye try? How goth et wey ye. ${ }^{16}$
${ }^{1}$ You won't be answered or contradicted, gain-said. Common phrase.
${ }^{2}$ Amd in rapid speech would become $m$ after $p$. See note, l. 516.
${ }^{3}$ See note, l. 114.
${ }^{4}$ This expression sounds quite foreign to the district. Es doa'n kee'ŭr muuch would now be said.
${ }^{5}$ This is quite characteristic to leave out the prep. to before the infinitive, but it should have been due goo vur zee.
${ }^{6}$ Common phrase $=$ how does she do? Another equally common would be How do her bear't up?
${ }^{7}$ Worth is now always waeth.
8 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.
${ }^{9}$ Here the part. prefix is omitted for euphony. At length it would read to la a be. Robert of Gloucester usually wrote ibe for the p.p. of to be.

Margery. Yùe oa'n bee al-zaed. ${ }^{1}$ - [u drengkth.] - Wuul, bút 536
 g-tuup tu Chal'ikum? Túz bút jest oa•vur dhu pad•eek, un ulaung dhu paark. ${ }^{3}$

Andrew. Es kee ŭmt muuch ${ }^{4}$ neef-s dùe goo ${ }^{5}$ zee $\mathrm{Oa} \cdot 1$ Aunt Nal : 540 Un aew du hae ŭr tae tur laung? ${ }^{6}$

Margery. Ruub ulaung, d-ee zai? Oa! Graam'ur-z wuur ${ }^{7}$ vaa'wur mun'durd paewn, ${ }^{8}$ raek $\cdot n$ dhu gèo'dz ee'ndoo'ŭr-n aewt u doour.

Andrew. Ch'úm glad tu huy'ŭr ut; vur es au'vees dhaurt uur 545 tùe u bee ${ }^{9}$ bae 'ur bunk-l-n dhaungs.

Margery. Oa, noa mun ; hae'ul'z muurtee wuul tu paas, ${ }^{10}$ un makth guurt ukaewnt ${ }^{11}$ u mee, gèo-naew.

Andrew. Ch-úm glad tu huy ưr u dhaet tìe. Mai ${ }^{12}$ bee uur ${ }^{13}$ múd gi dhu u gèod stuub. -Kaum, lat-s $g$-yaen ${ }^{\text {dur }}{ }^{14}$ dhan.
[Takth ur aarm een ${ }^{15}$ uun $\cdot d u r$ eez, un lai $\cdot d t h$ ur.

> SAI•N Oa•l Graam•ur Nalz.
$T$-uur ai'ntur An'dr un Maa-jurěe.
Andrew. 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 pre zer:'

Reign of William Conq., I. 317 (ed. Morris and Skeat).
${ }^{10}$ Mighty well off.
${ }^{11} i$. e. sets great store by me. Very common expression.
${ }^{12}$ Mayhap, mee-aap, is much more common. May be is very bookish.
${ }^{13}$ The transcriber persists in spelling her, hare, but it cannot be right when unemphatic. $H a r$ is more like it, but too broad. May is not so used

14 '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.)
${ }^{15}$ 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.'
${ }^{16}$ This form is the common one in the hills of W. Som. In the vale it is aew dùe ut goo wai ee?

553 Old Nell. Why, vath, Cozen Andra, pritty vitty, whot's chur. ${ }^{1}$ Chad a Glam or two about ma.-Chad a Crick in ma
555 Back and in ma Niddick. Thoa ${ }^{2}$ chur a lamps'd in wone o' ma Yearms. Tho ${ }^{2}$ come ${ }^{3}$ to a Heartgun. Vorewey struck ${ }^{3}$ out and come to a Barngun. Tho come ${ }^{3}$ to an ${ }^{4}$ Allernoatch; and vorewey fell ${ }^{5}$ 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 ${ }^{7}$ a told that ${ }^{8}$ ye simmered upon wone tether up to Grace Vrogwill's Bed Ale. ${ }^{9}$-Well, Cozen Andra, twull ${ }^{10}$ do vary well vor 565 both. No matter ${ }^{11}$ how soon. Cham all vore, ${ }^{12}$ and so chawr ${ }^{7}$ zo zoon's es hired o'et.-Hare's net as ${ }^{13}$ zome Giglets, zome prenking mencing Thengs be, oll ${ }^{14}$ vor Gamboyling, ${ }^{15}$ Rumping, Steehopping, ${ }^{16}$ and Giggleting ; bet a tyrant Maid vor Work, and tha stewarliest ${ }^{17}$ \& vittiest Wanch that comath on tha' Stones $0^{\prime}$ 570 Moulton, no Dispreise.
${ }^{1}$ Quite obsolete. I think the $s$ a mistake in the text. It should have been whot char, otherwise it would read what I I were. On the other hand there is authority for a pronoun preceding the $c h$ (see Glossary, chave); but it is strange that in the text just below, l. 555, the same speaker uses chur aloue for $I$ were. Haut aay vauz is the present form, i. e. compared to what I was.
${ }^{2}-{ }^{2}$ i. e. then. (See W. S. Gram., p. 87.) This was the regular literary form in the olden time-
> ' Bot whe he had broust po four' kinulam? to hepe, And won be cyte of Chest' also, He comañdede all men to clepe All his lond Enylond po.'

Chron. Vil. (ed. Hoare), st. 22.
po is used throughout the Chronicon. See p. 81, note 17.
' Duc Willam was fo old • nyne and britti zer:'-1. 195.
'po his butaile was yllo ‘duc Willam let bringe.'-1. 197.
'\& Lichard bat was po a chilld.'-1. 107.

> Robert of Gloncester (ed. Morris and Skeat).
${ }^{3}-3-3$ Examples here and following of the still very common omission of the nominative. (See W. S. Gram., p. 34.)
${ }^{4}$ The article $a n$ is literary ; not used in the dialect eren before a vowel. See W. S. Gram., p. 29.
${ }^{5}$ Fell is unknown.

Ole Nell. Waay, faath, Kunz'n An•dr, púr•těe vút-če, haut-s 553 ch-ur. ${ }^{1}$ Ch-ad u glaam ur the ubaewt mu. Ch-ad u krik een mu baak un een mu Núdik. Dhoa ${ }^{2}$ ch-ur u-laampsud een wan u mi 555 ae -urmz. Dhoa ${ }^{2}$ kamm ${ }^{3}$ tùe u aart-guun. Voarwai strèokt ${ }^{3}$ aewt un kaum tiee u baarn-gum. Dhoa kaum ${ }^{3}$ tiee ${ }^{4}{ }^{4}$ Aal-urubaach; un voarrwai vaald ${ }^{5}$ een pun mu boa ŭnz un kaum tùe a boa ${ }^{\text {unn-shee• }}$ unv. Bút ae ŭr zúnz dh-oa•l Júl yun Vringkl blas'ud voa•r túz pur•těe vút-ĕe; un ch-úm u-kaum tu mi Mai't lúst ugee ŭn.-Wuul, bút aar'kěe 560 Knuz'n Andr; es luyy ŭr ee lik u leet ${ }^{6}$ ubaewt mu Kuuz'n Maa'jurěe ; aa'y, un-v u-smíld ubaewt ur u púr'ťe wuy ŭl. Ch-awr ${ }^{7}$ u-toa $\cdot l d$ dhut ${ }^{8}$ ee súm'urd pun wan taedh ur aup tu Grae ${ }^{\text {nis }}$ Vrang wee ${ }^{\text {unlz }}$
 bèo cll. Noa maat ur ${ }^{11}$ aew zèo $n$. Ch-ím 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 $\operatorname{seen}$ dhaengz bee, aul ${ }^{14}$ vur gaambuw $\cdot$ leen, ${ }^{15}$ rum •peen, stee'aupeen ${ }^{16}$ un gig'lteen ; bút u tuy runt maa'yd vur wuurk, un dhu stùe urlees ${ }^{17}$ un vát-ĕe-ees waunch dhat kaumth pun dhu stoa'ŭnz u Moaltn, noa deespraa yz.
${ }^{6}$ 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.
${ }^{7}-{ }^{7} I$ was. The form in the text quite obsolete. This is the same word as spelt chur, ll. 554, 555.
${ }^{8}$ That as a conjunction is far less frequently used than how or eens.
${ }^{9}$ Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub'-
' A man that's bid to a bride-ale, if he have cakie And drink enough, he need not vear his stakie.'

Act II. sc. i. (Turfe).
'And by that means the bride-ale is deferred.'
Act III. sc. i. (Turfe).
${ }^{10}$ The $w$ is quite dropped in it will-moless emphatic, always tíl or $t^{\prime} l$.
${ }^{11}$ No odds is much more natural. No motter is quite literary.
${ }^{12} I$ am all for it (or in favour), and so I was, \&c. Lit. I am all forward. Common expression.
${ }^{13} \mathrm{As}$ is not dialect, like is the proper word.
${ }^{14}$ See note, l. 201.
${ }^{15}$ Spelt gambowling elsewhere, the correct sound.
${ }^{16}$ In early editions we read stcehoppin!, rayrouting, and gigletting. 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.
${ }^{17}$ Stewardlest, vittest (no and), in early eds. Vittiest is the better reading.

571 Margery. [Softly aside ${ }^{1}$ to her.] Thenk ye, Grammer, thenkee keendly.-And nif es shadent ha en shou'd borst ma Heart. - [Aloud.] Gool Crammer, dont tell me of marrying. Chave a told Cozen Andra ma Meend already, thet ${ }^{2}$ chell ne'er marry 575 wor ort es know.

Old Nell. Stap hether, ${ }^{3}$ Cozen Magery, a lit and tarn these Cheesen. ${ }^{4}$ - [Pretendedly private to her.] Go, ya Alkitotle, ${ }^{5}$ why dedst ${ }^{6}$ tell ${ }^{7}$ zo, tha wert ${ }^{8}$ ne'er marry? Tha wutten ha tha leek; ${ }^{9}$ a comely sprey vitty Vella vor enny keendest 580 Theng. Come, nif tha wut ha en, chell gee tha ${ }^{10}$ good Stub. Thare's net a spreyer Vella in Challaconnb.

Margery. Det 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 ${ }^{11}$ hare'll dra 585 en into a Promish wone Dey or wother.

Andrev. 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 ${ }^{12}$ they uze to zey. Es must go home now as vast as ${ }^{13}$ es can.-Cozen Magery, wont ${ }^{14}$ ye go wey ma a lit Wey.
590 Margery. Mey be ${ }^{15}$ es mey go up and zee Ont Moreman, and mey be ${ }^{15}$ es mant.
[Exeunt.
${ }^{1} U$ wan zuyd $=$ on one side, is the vernacular for aside. This is but stage direction, and perhaps not intended to be in the dialect.
${ }^{2}$ How is much better.
${ }^{3}$ This is still the usual form of come here. Step is always pronounced staap.
${ }^{4}$ This plural is quite obsolete.
${ }^{5}$ Alketole in first ed. The text is the correct reading.
${ }^{6}$ Dest in first ed., the evidently true reading.

* ${ }^{7}$ Tell is always used for tall-' I heard them telling together,' 'He was telling up all sorts of stuff.' See note to l. 116.
\& Wert is evidently a misprint, it never can have been used for wilt. In first ed. it is tha'rt ne'er.
${ }^{9}$ Luck. Leek is surely a misprint in the text. It is the same in all editions, but I have never heard anything like it.
${ }^{10}$ Here the article is dropped on accomt of two similar vowels coming together. Spoken slowly it would be git tha a good stub. In first ed. read gi' for gce.
${ }^{11}$ This word is spelt agast, l. 229-the correct reading.

$$
\text { ' } \& \text { is folc uor'p mid him } \cdot \text { as hii were agaste.' }
$$

Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., l. 142 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

Margery. [Sau•flĕe uzuy'd ${ }^{1}$ tùe ur.] Dhaengk ee, Graam'ur, 571 dhaengk ee keendlĕe.-Un-eef es shèod-n ae-un, shúd buus mi aart. _ [Ulaewd.] Gèod Graam•ur, doan tuul mee u maar‘ěe-een. Ch-uv u-toa•ld Kuuz'n An'dr mu meend urad•ĕe, dhut² ch-úl nae ŭr maar`ॅe 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 th uur-] Goa, y-Aal•ki-
 ae•ŭ dhu lunk ; ${ }^{9}$ u kaum lee spraay vút-ĕe Vael'u vur ún'ěe keen•dees dhaeng. Kaum, neef dhu wút ae'-un, ch-úl gi dhu ${ }^{10}$ gèod stuub.- 580 Dhur-z nút u spraay our Vael•u een Chaal-ikum.

Margery. Bút Graam •ur, wúl ee bee zu gèod-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 $^{11}$ uur-úl drae un eeu'tue u praum eesh wan dai ur nuudhur.

Andrew. Wuul Aunt Nal, es huy $\mathrm{ur} d$ 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 ${ }^{12}$ dhai yùe z tu zai. Es mus g -au'm naew zu ${ }^{13}$ vaas uz es kan. -Kuuz'n Maa•jurěe, oa ${ }^{14}$ ee goo wai mu uleet wai?

Margery. Mai bee ${ }^{15}$ es mai g-uup-m zee Aunt Murrmun, un mai 590 bee ${ }^{15}$ es mant.
[Exeunt.

> 'Falsnesse for fere bo • flegh to be freves, And gyle dud hym to gon ' agast for to deye.'
> Piers Plowman, C. Pass. III., l. 221 (ed. Skeat, E. E. T. S.).
> ' Of this meruaille agast uras all the prees, As mased folk they stoden euerichone.'

Chaucer, Man of lawes tale, l. 677.
'pe Englysshmē pey woxe a gast.'
Chronicon Vilodunense (ed. Hoare), st. 71.
${ }^{12} A s$ in this seuse is not dialect. It should be sae $\cdot \breve{u m-z}$ (same as), or eens they uze to zey.
${ }^{13}$ This as is also literary, and impossible to Andrew.

- ${ }^{11}$ The $w$ in wont is quite dropped in the dialect.
${ }^{15}$ - ${ }^{15}$ Mayhap is much more common-may be is 'fine talk.' This sentence, to be vernacular, must be thus-' Mee-aa $p$ es múd g-mup-m zee Auunt Muur-mun, un mee-aa'p es múd-n.' Mant is a word in an unknown tongue.;


## SCENE the open Country.

Eister Andrew folloved by Margery.
592 Margery. D! es'll zee en up to Challacomb-Moor Stile. - Now must es ${ }^{1}$ make wise chuwr ${ }^{2}$ a going to Ont Moreman's, and only come theez ${ }^{3}$ Wey. [Aside.
595 Andrew. [Spying her.] Cozen Magery, Cozen Magery! stap a lit. ${ }^{4}$ Whare zo rast 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 chuulent 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 Bodys 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. ${ }^{11}$

Andiew. Well, whot's sey, Cozen Margery? Chell put in tha Banes a Zendey, ${ }^{12}$ bolus nolus.
610 Margery. Then es ell vorbed ${ }^{13} \mathrm{~min}$, vath.

[^41]SAI.N dh-oa'pm Kuun-trĕe. Ai $\cdot n t u r$ An dr uraul'ëd bi Maa jurěe.

Margery. 1 D ! es-l zee un aup tu Chaalikum Moar Stuy ul. 592 Naew mus ees ${ }^{1}$ mak whyz ch-awr ${ }^{2}$ u-gwain t-Aunt Muurmmnz, un umn ĕe kaum dheez ${ }^{3}$ wai. [Uzuyd,

Andrew. [Spuy•een oa ur.] Kuuz'n Maa-jurěe, Knuz•n Maa jurěe ! 595 Staap u leet-4 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-oant.

Margery. Oa, yùe tak dhu wuurdz taedh ur wai. Es zaed mai bee ch-úl un mai bee ch-oant g-unp-m zee Amt Muur-mun. Es zaed noa 600 moo hur un zoa. Es goo theez wai vur to zee hae ưr $^{5}$ dhat úz aul.
 Paarikum, nur eet een aul Keng Jaurjuz keng•dum, blas úz wunsh op! Mit dhu mai'n ukaedh'u!-Aa! bee kwuy't, e-zai, ${ }^{7}$ u-krai meen u bau dĕe ${ }^{8}$ zoa. Un moo ŭr un zoa, yur bee'ŭrd praekth 605
 gèod vaur. Yhe v u-mae ${ }^{\text {und }}$ mi chunks bunzum. ${ }^{11}$

Antrew. Wunl, haut-s-zai, Kunz'n Maa•jurěe? Ch-úl puut een dhu bae ŭnz u Zán ${ }^{\text {dĕe, }}{ }^{12}$ boalus noa lus.

Margery. Dhan es-l vurbai $\cdot{ }^{13}$ mán, faarth !
${ }^{11}$ 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 buиz'uměe. (See W. S. Gram., p. 49.)
${ }^{12}$ On Sunday. This $a$ or $u$ has many meanings. (See W. S. Gram., p. 96.)
' Ac sone ajen to Engelonde • a Sein Nicolas day he com.'
Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., l. 254 (ed. Morris and Skeat).
'y-pyned onder pouns pilate $\cdot y$-nayled a rode.' Dan Michel (A.d. 1340), Credo (ed. Morris, E. E. T. Soc.).
${ }^{13}$ 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, baicl.

611 Antrew. Oh ! chell trest tha vor thate. Es dont thenk you'll take zo much Stomach ${ }^{1}$ to yer sel as to vorbed min avore zo menny Vokes.-Well, Cozen Magery, good Neart.

Margery. Cozen Andra, good Neart. - Es wish ye well to 015 do.

## SCENE Margery's Home.

## To Thomasin enter Margery.

Margery. ESTER Tamzen, whare ${ }^{2}$ art? Whare art, a popeling and a pulching? Dost hire ma?
Thomasin. Lock, lock, lock! Whot's the Matter, Magery, that tha leapest, and caperest, and sing'st so? What art tha 620 hanteck ?

Murgery. That's nort to nobody. ${ }^{3}$ Chell whistley, and capery, and zing, ${ }^{4}$ vor oll thee. ${ }^{5}$ - Bet yeet avor oll, ${ }^{6}$ nif tha wuttent be a Labb of tha Tongue now, chell tell tha somethengZart! ${ }^{7}$ whistery!-Ma Banes g' in a Zendey, vath, to Andra, 625 the spicest Vella ${ }^{8}$ in Sherwill Hunderd.

Thomasin. O La! why thare lo! Now we ${ }^{9}$ shall be marry'd near together; vor mine be in and out agen;thof ${ }^{10}$ my Man dont yeet tell ma tha Dey. Es marl ha dont pointee whot's in tha Meend o'en. ${ }^{11}$
630 Margery. Chell g' in to Moulton To-marra pritty taply, to buy ${ }^{12}$ some Canvest vor a new Chonge.

[^42]Andrew. Oa ! ch-úl trís dhu vur dhaet. Es doa'n dhaengk yùe-ul 611 tak zu muuch stumm ik ${ }^{1}$ tu yur-zuul-z tu vurbaid mún uvoar zu mún’ĕe Voaks.-Wuul Kuuz'n Maajurĕe, gèod nee ŭrt.

Margery. Kuuz'n An'dr, gèod nee'ŭrt.—Es weesh ee wuul tu dùe.

## SAI•N Maa•jurĕez Aew'z.

Tu Taam'zeen ai $\cdot n t u r$ Maa'jurĕe.
Margery. FAES•TUR Taam'zeen, wur ${ }^{2}$ aa'rt? Wae'ŭr urt u-poa'pleen un u-puul•cheen? Dúst uy ŭr mu?
Thomasin. Lauk, Lank, Lauk! Haut-s dhu maat ur, Maa'jurěe, dhut dhu laipus, un kee ŭpurus un zingus zoa? Haut, urt dhu han'tik?

Margery. Dhaat-s noa ŭrt tu noa bauděe. ${ }^{3}$ Ch-úl wús'lĕe, un kee'ŭpurěe, un zing•ěe, ${ }^{4}$ vur aul dhee. ${ }^{5}$ But eet uvoar aul, ${ }^{6}$ neef dhu wút-n bee u Laab u dhu tuung naew, ch-úl tuul dhu zaum•feen.-D-zaart! ${ }^{7}$ wús'turěe !-Míu bae'ŭnz g-een u Zún•dĕe, faath, tu An•dr, dhu spuy'sees vael $\cdot{ }^{8}{ }^{8}$ een Shuur weel Uun $\cdot$ durd.

Thomasin. Oa Laa! waay dhae'ŭr loa! Naew wee ${ }^{9}$ shl bee u-mar-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 pwauy.nteg haut-s een dhu meend oa un. ${ }^{11}$

Margery. Ch-úl g-een tu Moaltn tu maar•u púrtee taap lĕe, tu 630 buy ${ }^{12}$ zum kan ${ }^{1}$ vúst vur u nùe chaunj.
${ }^{8}$ Fellow is spelt vella throughont in the text, but this is one of the errors like those referred to by Devoniensis, p. 64. See note, l. 462.
${ }^{9} W e$ 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 I. 37 s .
${ }^{10}$ Thouf is always pronounced with sharp th, the direct converse of though, its equivalent in received Eng.
${ }^{11}$ This form of possessive is much more used than his. (See W. S. Gram., p. 13.)
${ }^{12}$ Here it ouglit to have been vur tu buy. (See W. S. Gram., p. 52.)

632 Thomasin. Ay, ay; zo do; vor tha cassent tell what mey happen ${ }^{1}$ to tha in thy middles Banes.

Margery. How ! ya gurt Trapes!-Whot dest me-an by thate? 635 Es scorn ${ }^{2}$ 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, kerp639 ing Baggage.-Varewell. ${ }^{3}$
${ }^{1}$ Happen is unknown. This is a simple literaryism.
${ }^{2}$ Scom is a rare word in the dialect.
${ }^{3}$ This word is pronounced with $f$ sharp.
The Third Edition has
'So end all the Dialogues.'

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 $b, d, f, j, k, l, m, n, p, t, v, v, y, z$, and the digraphs $c h, s h$, $t h$, 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 ،r, but for convenience simple $r$ is printed; $n g$ as in sing, think $=$ thingk; $n y g$ as in anger $=$ anggur ; zh is used for French j, the English sound in vision $=$ vizhum; and dh for the voiced form of $t h$, as in that = dhat. The Vowels, found also in Euglish, are $a$ as in man ; aa in bazaar ; aa short, the same in quality, but quantity short ; $a i^{\circ}$ in $a i$; ; $a o^{\circ}$, like $o$ in bore ; $a u \cdot$ as in laud; $a u$ the same short, as $a$ in watch; $e e$ in see; $\ddot{e} e$, the same short, as in French fin $i$; $i$ as in finny ; oa as in moan ; $\check{a} a$, the same short (not found in English); oo ${ }^{\circ}$ in choose ; $u$ in $u$ p, carrot; $u o, u$ in bull. Dialectal vowels are $a e$, opener than $e$ in net, French è in nette; è, French eu in jeune, or nearly; $\grave{e} o^{\circ}$, the same long, as in jeane ; ùe, French $u$ in duc, or nearly ; $u^{e}$, the same long, as in d $\hat{u}$;

Thomasin. Aa'y, aa'y ; zoa dùe ; vur dhu kas-n trul haut múd 632 aap ${ }^{1}$ tu dhu een dhi múd $\cdot l$ bae ŭnz.

Margery. Aew ! yu gunr-trae-ŭps !-Haut dús mee-ŭn bi dhaet?
Es skaurn ${ }^{2}$ dhu wurdz. Dúd oa ưrt aap tu dhee, een dhi múd•l 635 bae'ŭnz? Aa•p ukaedh•u!

Thomasin. Haa! Oa'ŭrt aap tu mee'-n mi múdll bae-ŭnz? Es skaurn ut tu dhu duurt u mi shh̀ez, lèok-s zee, yu maen'seen, kyuurpeen bag•eej.--Faar*wuul. ${ }^{3}$
$u u$, a deeper sound of $u$ in $u$ p than the London one, but common in England generally; ua, a still lower and deeper sound ; $\{$ (now used for Mr. Ellis's oe No. 28, and $\grave{i}$, eo, $\check{u} o$, No. 30) is the natural vowel heard with $l$ in kind-le $=$ kind $\quad a l$. It lies between in and $u \mathrm{n}$, and etymologically is a lowered and retracted $i$, as tum $u r$, zúl $=$ timber, sill. The diphthongs $a a \cdot w$, as in Germ. haus; $a a \cdot y$, long $a a$, finishing with $\breve{x}$, as in Ital. mai; aay, the same with shorter quantity (a frequent form of English $I$ ) ; aeve, ae finishing in oo, sometimes heard in vulgar London pronunciation, as kaew $=$ cow; auy, as in boy (nearly) ; $a w y$, with the first element longer or drawled; $u w=o w$ in how; $u y$, as in $\mathrm{b} u y=i, y$ in bite, $\mathrm{b} y ; u u y$, the same a little wider, under influence of a preceding $w$, as pwuuy $z n=$ poison. Imperfect diphthongs, and tripthongs, or fractures formed by a long vowel or diphthong finishing off with the sound of $\breve{n}$, or the natural vowel, are numerous; thus $a e^{\breve{\iota}}$ (nearly as in fair $=$ fae $\breve{u}$ ); $\alpha 0^{\circ} \breve{\breve{u}}$ (as in more $=$ mao $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$ ) ; ee• $\breve{\iota}$ (as in idea, near) ; oa• $\breve{\iota}$ (barely.distinct from
 our broadly) ; aty'й; aew'九̆; uw'九̆ (as flower = fluw'й); uy' $\check{\iota}$ (as in ire $=$ uy $\cdot \mathrm{u}$ ). Of the imperfect diphthongs $e e \cdot \breve{\iota}$ and $00 \cdot \breve{\prime}$, from the distinctuess of their initial and terminal sounds, are most distinctly diphthonal to the ear, the stress being also pretty equal on the two elements. The tumed period after a vowel, as $00^{\circ}$, indicates length and position of accent; after a consonant it indicates shortness of the vowel in the accented syllable, as $v a d h \cdot \breve{u} r=v a ̆ d h ' u ̆ r . ~$ As a cantion, the mark of short quantity is written over ěe, ŏa, when short, as these are never short in English; and it is used with $\breve{u}$ when this has the obscure unaccented value found in $\check{c}$-bove, mannc̆, natiŏn, etc. The peculiar Sonth-western $r$ must be specially attended to, as it powerfully affects the character of the promuciation. 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. That sound is here expressed by $\breve{u}$, as win $\cdot d \breve{u}$, 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 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | read | Tamzin sister to Margery for Thomasin (Title) | 347 | read | $d$ stap for step ${ }^{\text {- }}$ |
|  |  |  | 3.4 |  | thee! thee for thee, thee |
|  | " | Margerys House for | 349 | " | Gar! for Gar, |
|  |  | Margerys Home | 349 |  | astn't for Cass |
| 322 |  | dispreize for dispreze | 350 |  | zes I for zeys I |
| 323 |  | thek for thate | 351 |  | a mas for a w |
| 323 |  | and eet for yeet | 351 |  | mad than for mad thoa |
| 325 | " | vary for very | 352 |  | thek, for thate |
| 326 | " | morst for most | 352 |  | zes he for zeys he |
| 326 |  | burst for bost | 355 | " | Add, then ees $f$ |
| 326 |  | well for wall |  |  | hoa es |
| 327 | " | oll for all | 358 |  | ees for es |
| 327 | " | ees zay for es zey | 359 | " | eel for he'll |
| 327 | " | ees hant a zee'd for es | 359 |  | Warrant for varrant |
|  |  | hant a zeed | 36 |  | t' Exeter for to Exeter |
| 330 |  | e'er zince for e're since | 365 |  | Tom Vuss for Tom Vuzz |
| 330 |  | scorst for scoast | 36 |  | hes for his |
| 330 |  | t'ather for tether | 36 | " | thet for that |
| 331 |  | zo for so | 366 | " | he begun for he begun |
| 333 |  | ee for your | 366 | " | do's for deth |
| 339 |  | Matter for Mater | 365 | " | knows for knowth |
| 339 |  | cou'den for Couden | 369 |  | Veather for vauther |
| 340 |  | leke for like | 369 |  | ha for he |
| 342 |  | zey o' me for zey o' me | 371 |  | wipe for whipe |
| 34.5 |  | looze for lost | 371 | " | zindeys wi for zendeys wey |
| 347 |  | drumm'd for drubb'd | 371 |  | Bet for But |


| Line |  | Line |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 373 rea | bezneze for besense | 427 | read | Zister for Zester |
| 375 " | quiet for quite (2) 9 | 427 | " | blankets for blonkets |
| 375 " | zay for zey | 425 | " | ees 'll for es ell |
| 375-6 | es (3) for ees (3) 9 | 429 | , | prezently for presently |
| 377 | be zo mullad for be mullad 1 | 430 | " | zee for see |
| 350 | than for thoa 9 | 432 | " | you for ye |
| 391 | squeamesh for squeamish | 437 | " | Veather for Vauthur |
| 353 | ees for es 9 | 439 | " | we for wey |
| 384 | zure (2) for sure (2) | 440 | " | zo for so |
| 385 | noteze for notese | 440 | " | whotjecomb for whatje- |
| 357 | bezneze for besenese |  |  | comb |
| 357, 385 | donce for daunce | 441 | " | tha Boy for the Boy |
| 359 | uzeth for useth | 442 | " | was ta-en for wos taken |
| 390 | a zed for a sed | 443 | " | zung zed for sung sed |
| 390, 391 | ees for es 9 | 443 | " | Zaums for Saums $\quad 9$ |
| 392 | ha wos for a wos | 444 | " | yow for ye |
| 392 | veddlestick for viddlestick | 444 | " | Thare's for There's |
| 393 | bargen for bargain | 446 | " | bezure for be sure |
| 399 | ees for es 9 | 447 | " | Look's zee for Look see |
| 399 | ee for ye | 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 |
| 401 | volus nolus for bolus nolus |  | " | Tamzenenter for Thomasin |
| 402, 403 | thek (2) for thate (2) 9 |  | " | euter 1 |
| 402 | ye for ya | 453 |  | fath for vath |
| 404 | yow for ya 9 | 454 | " | b'leive tha Banes woll for |
| 405 | statad for stated |  |  | beleive thy Banes will 1 |
| 406 | dree for three 1 | 456 | " | downreert for downreet 1 |
| 408 | girred for gerred | 457 | ", | dont ee for dont ye |
| 410 | of for $0^{\prime} \quad 9$ | 458 |  | zey for sey |
| 414 | t'ather for tether | 459 | " | zometheng for sometheng 1 |
| 416 | loek, dost for look, dest 9 | 459 | " | amost for amorst $\quad 9$ |
| 417 | vur yore for vur vore 9 | 459 |  | zure for sure 9 |
| 418 | twanty for twouty | 460 |  | other for ether 9 |
| 418 | purse for puss 9 | 460 |  | Zendey (2) for Zindey (2) |
| 421 | ner eet for nor yeet 1 | 460 |  | zenneert for senneert l |
| 423 | marryd for marra'd | 461 | " | E's not abo' for Es net |
| 424 | cud for es coud 1 |  |  | aboo |
| 424 | zwear chudn't for swear chudent | 463 | " | Ees a zooterly for Es a sooterly |
| 425 | Squaer for Square $\quad 1$ | 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 |


| Line |  |  | Line |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 467 | read | as knowst for as tha | 496 | read | ne'er for never |
|  |  | know'st 9 | 496 | " | No more chon't vor ort's |
| 467 | " | Pip o' tor P'p o' 1 |  |  | knaw after marry at oll 1 |
| 469 | " | yow Alkitole for ya Alki- | 497 | " | you for ya 1 |
|  |  | totle 9 | 499 | " | zower-zop'd for zower- |
| 469 | " | yow gurt vullesh for ya gurt-voolish | 501 | , | sop'd you . . ees'll for ya . . . |
| 470 | " | ee believad for a beleev'd 1 |  |  | es'll |
| 470 | " | ees zed chudn't for es sed | 503 | , | this is for thes es 9 |
|  |  | chudent 1 | 506 | " | of tha . . goeth for o' tha |
| 471 | " | $z 0$ zart for so sart 1 |  |  | goth 9 |
| 471 | " | ees wudn't for es wndent | 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 years for |
| 474 | " | ner borst ma for ner yeet borst ma | 511 | " | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { ly .... tha years } & 1 \\ \text { toze for tose } & 1 \end{array}$ |
| 475 | " | Zendey-zenneert for Zin-dey-senneert | 515 | " | $\begin{gathered} \text { Add ! . . . gi’ . . . gi' for } \\ \text { Ad . . . gee . . . gee } \end{gathered}$ |
| 476 | " | shoort for short 1 | 515 | " | whapper for whappet 1 |
| 476 | , | es shall for es chell 1 | 517 | " | Benn for Ben |
| 477 | " | ees . . es zel for es . . ees | 519 | ", | eefor ye |
|  |  |  | 519 | " | fume . . . ees for vume |
| 477 | " | thes for theez 9 |  |  |  |
| 479 | " | 20 for so 1 | 520 | " | only that zo for only zo 9 |
| 481 | " | get for git 9 | 520 | " | goeth for goth 9 |
| 452 | , | Zyiler for Cyder 9 | 525 | " | yow for ye 1 |
| 482 | " | will ee for wull ye 1 | 527 | " | ees . . . away for es . . . |
| 452 | " | bread and cheeze for brid and chezee | 528 | " | awey ma drenk, wull ye ? for me |
| 484 | " | came for come 9 |  |  | drenk? 1 |
| 4St | $"$ | bezides for besides 1 | 528 | " | yow for ya 1 |
| 484 | " | Denner for Dinner 1 | 529 | ", | Zyder for Cyder 9 |
| 485 | " | dost for dest $\quad \mathbf{9}$ | 530 | " | tee for t'ye |
| 488 | " | zure for sure 9 | 532, | 534 | yow (2) for ya (2) |
| 488 | " | yow ar'n't for ya bant 9 | 535 | " | hearkce for hearky |
| 489 | " | vorgetvul for vorgetful 9 | 538 | " | Ees caren't for Es carent |
| 490 | $"$ | ees . . . ees for es . . . es | 541 | " | vour for vower 9 |
| 490 | " | ee mean for ye mean 1 | 541 | " | Hunderd for IIundred 1 |
| 490 | , | what for whot | 545 | " | Oh, no no mun for Oh, no |
| 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 | " | wudu't for wudent | 548 | , ' | gi' for gee |


| Line |  |  | Line |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 549 | read | Ount Nell for Ont Nell | 595 r |  | yow be zo for ya be as 1 |
| 550 | , | goeth et wi' for goth et | 596 | " | may (2) for mey (2) |
|  |  | wey 9 | 597 | " | yow . . . thather for ya |
| 553 | " | Tho chawr for Thoa chur |  |  | tether |
| 556 | " | vell for fell | 597, 59 S |  | 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 smelled . . . pretty | 599 | " | Wey to zee for Wey vor to zee |
| 561 | " | yow . . . t'ather for ye | 599 | " | that's for that es $\quad 9$ |
|  |  | tether | 600 | " | chudn't for chudent |
| 562 | " | twell for twull 9 | 601 | " | ner eet for wer yeet 1 |
| 564 | " | eeshiredo'tfor es liredo'et 9 | 602 | " | ees zey for es zey |
| 565 | " | Stechopping, ragrouting and gigletting for Steehopping and giggleting | 604 605 | " | ees marl whot theze for es marl what these yow for ya |
| 567 | " | stewardlest, vittest for Stewarliest and vittiest 9 | 606 | " | zey . . . Magery for sey <br> . . . Margery |
| 569 | " | Thenkee for Thenk ye 1 | 607 | " | volus nolus for bolus nolus |
| 570 | " | nif's shudn't for nif es shudent. | 608 | " | ees'll vorbed men fath for es ell vorbed min vath 1 |
| 571 | " | $o^{\prime}$ for of | 609 | " | thek . . . yow'll for thate |
| 572 | " | that, for thet |  |  | you'll 9 |
| 573 | " | ort's for ort es $\quad 9$ | 610 | " | yare zel . . . men for yer |
| 57. | " | hather for hether 9 |  |  | 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 1 |  |  | Tamzen . . . . popeling |
| 576 | " | tha' rt for tha wert | 614 | " | Dest for Dost |
| 578 | " | gi' for gee | 615 \& | sqq. | 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 | 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 vatlı 1 |
|  |  | go wey | 625 | " | eet tell me . . . Ees for |
| 558 | " | ees may $g^{\prime}$ up for es mey go up | 628 | , | yeet tell ma.... Es 1 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 |

## 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 Glassary 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 assistauce 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.
$A d!17,72,85,93$ [ad], an interjectional quasi oath, still very common. Of the same meaning as Gar !
Aead-Clathing, 155 [ai $\cdot \mathrm{d}$-klaa $\cdot d$ heen], 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' thateh,' ' 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 appearel. [ugaa's] (common). See note, l. 584.
Agging, 75, murmuring, provoking, egging on, or raising Quarrels. [as•een] nagging (very common).
Agng, 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.'
Akethe, 456, 604, 636, Akether, 76. See note, p. 32 (obsolete).
Alkitotle, 470, 577, a silly Elf, or foolish Oaf. Perhaps, a foolish Creaturo 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. Alan, 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. [ai laung or ulan'ng]. 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 anelonge. 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 [unce ŭs], near. Used indifferently with $a-n i g h$, but always with some verb implying motion. It would not be used to explain a
situation, such as 'the house lies aneest tho road'-hero 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. Anglebowing, as deseribed 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. T'o set angle-bows, is to set wires for game. Any running noose is called ang $\cdot$-boa'. See angylle, Prompt. Parv.; also noto to Ed. of 1778, p. 46.
Antle-beer, 274, Cross-wise, irregular: Ab Antre, 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 Skiuner. [u-pur"ld] (rare, obsolescent). It is common to speak of cider as 'pricked' when turning sour, and thero is connection between pritch (q. v.), or prick, and pritchell, a blacksmith'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 [aar*unt], errand; always so pronounced.
Athert, 198, 512 [udhuur't], athwart, across. This word, pronounced as above, is the only ono to express across or crosswise in uso in the dialeet. 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 avoar ee-v u-broakt-n ubroa'ül', '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 duf`rrut uvoa'r ee-zu-fünceesh, 'That (article) will look different by the time that (not before) he is finished.' See note, l. 108.
Acore oll, 291 [uvoa'r 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 $\cdot 1$ ] 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 kou•l aar•shez. Before tho eheapening of alkulies 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 [lay], and being strongly alkaline is still used in some places for washing, to save soap.
The axwaddles used to go about with a pack-horso and collect the surplus dry ashes from farm-honses, paying for them in drapery or other pedlary wares, but seldom in moncy. Cottagers used only to have sufficient to make their own lie. Aren for ashes is now spoken by some very old men, and the word is also retained in the uames of several farms, \&c.
$A y, 234$. Sce Hy.

## B

Ba-arge, 122, 201, 226, 238, from the Saxon [beath?], Majalis, a Barrow-pig, generally used in Dovonshire to signify a fat hoavy Person, ono that is unwieldy as a fatton'd Hog. (Obsoleto.)
Buqgeqe, 44, 279, 639 [bag eej], a common term applied to females only. Puurtee oarl bag'eej, uur ai'z, shoar 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 ujd] (common), over-looked, hag-ridden.
Benes, 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 bancs, that have prov'd
Weallock. Come, I'le sing thee a cutch I have
Made on this sulject.'

$$
\text { 'The Women's Conquest,' } 1671 .
$$

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 curtu, eartuccia. In the text (6) it implies a hoidenish bouncing as well, in consequence of its being separated from gart. A gurt banging lie, a yurt benging doy, are common phrases.
Bermee, 233, 264 [bance], to rudely contradict (still used, not common).
Bure, 546 [bae ur], simple, plain, unadorned (very common as used in tho 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,' Let ii. sc. 4.
'Fitzdottrel. That's your moportion! and your coachman bald, Because he shall be bare enouyh.'

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 [haar"u], this word is not now used alone, but always with pig-barrow-pig (the only term in use).
Buste, 93,518 [bae-hs(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•ŭt], to contend, to quarrel. A bate, a passion, a rage. ' And bat bey repentyd hem wonder sore, $p^{t}$ ev' k ey meden aseyn 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 grooning ale but of grocming 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 :
' Feymeden 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.

Sce 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 Gloncester, William of Shoreham, Chaucer, \&c., who all use bep with plural construction.
Befit, 493 [higit•], forget (very common still).
To the true Ben, 19, 519, or Bend, soundly and to the Purpose. [tu dhu trùe bai'n] (common).
I't lectle ruther, 210 [but lee•dl rae huhlhur]. Rather means earlier in point of time in the dialect, and is never used to imply a preference, for that the word is zeo 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 roor lays, 122. See Vore days. I quite dissent from the definition here given, which appears to bo contrived to render the text
intelligible. The present term is wor $\cdot r$ dui, meaning before daybreak. In the 'Ancren Riwle' (ed. Camden Society), p. 20, we read :
'\& lesten vort efter prime ipe winter erliche ; ipe sumer biuor deies.'
To this is a note referring to the Cleopatra MS., giving another reading, 'I sumer bifor'd marejen.' Here we have the identical phrase as old as the XIII. cent. clearly meaning before daybreak. I think the true meaning of 1.122 , 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•ǔ̌̆e], 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'ŭzeen] (very common). Belg. ourblcesen? 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. [blaenkĕe]. 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.
Blogqy, 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 shonld have needed no more Spell.'-Vid. Spenser's Calender, Agl. 3d. \& Theocriti Ilyll. B. Ver. 90. [blas voar] to charm, very commonly spoken about warts. The word probably is used in the sense of to uare or bramtish, as in passing the hand baekwards and forwards over the affected part whilo reeiting the hocus pocus: this meaning may be derived from the common action used in the benediction:

> ' And burning blades about their heals 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.
> ' I'hiles 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 Frencli 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 puffis 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 cleshabille 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 exprossion, pieked up no doubt originally at tho Suyrzez (Assizes).
Bone-shave, 23, 258, The Sciatica. See Note to Page 26, also p. 70. [boa'ŭn shee uv] (common).

Boostering, 295, Labouring busily, sc 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 l. 50 this is the meaning; she is like a fresh-yoked stecr, so heallong that she would burst, i.e. break, the plongh tackle, however strong. So in l. 220, bost dha neck o' en, i.e. 'break the ewe's noek;' l. 249, bost tha cloam, i. e. 'break the croekery.'
Bozzom, 63, 72, 607, or, Buzzom-chuck'd, 502, The having a deep dark Reduess in the Cheeks. [buuz-um chuuk'ud] (still used, rare). See note, l. 607.
Bresle, 82 [lrish, 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 [pul'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. [brauk:een muung-grul]. I wholly dissent from the above explanation. Brocking (quite obsolete) meant badgering, hence bothering, agyravuting. Mongrel was not applied to horses but to dogs, and hence the epithet in the text is perhaps simply equivalent to aggravating bitch. 1'rof. Skeat says: 'The place in A.S. where broc is applied to a horso 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 appliod in a contemptuous sense to any ereature, 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 eavities.
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? [buuskeen] (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 buskiny means doing or saying something to excite another's choler.
Buttons, 156, besides the commonly known menning 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 Placos BeggarsButtons. See Briss.
Button'tl, 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. [kanl-teen'cen] (common). Teen the candle $=$ light the candle, is a common expression. Soo noto, 1. 314.

To Caniffle, 257, or, Canifflee, to dissemble and flatter. (Obsolete.)
Cantlelone, 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. Sce 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. [kyataamd or aam 'ud] (very common). Generally appliod 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 sulve than a potion.

Chud, 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 shorld be often changed. [chanj]. This pronunciation is not like Eng. change, but the same as in flunge. Still the regular name for a shift.
Cliant, 231, I am not.
'Chave, 206, 211, 372, 396, i.e. Tch have, $I$ have.-And so'ch for Ich is prefixed to many other Words, viz. 'Niey 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, \&e. See 'Essay' by 'Somersetiensis,' p. 73.
Choront, 245, I will not; Chomt, 11. 598, 600.
Cheiver, 563, 565. See Clut.
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 [chńt-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 twittcring of sparrows. See note, l. 309.

> 'The feathered sparrowe cald am I;
> In swete aud pleasaunt spryng 1 greatly doe delight, for then, $I$ chitter, chirpe and syng.'
> Kendall, ' Flowers and Epigrammes,' A.D. 1576.

Chocklec, 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 jče], changeable, unsettled, stormy--applied to weather (very common).
Chounting, 39, 310, tamnting, scorufully 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 ư̆rĕe, choa ŭrĕe]. Uur du choa ưrrěe, 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 uñ is very common. 'Her's a nice old quean' may be often heard.]
Chups, 101 [chuups], chops, i.e. cheeks.
Clurr, 554, 555, I was. See note 1, p. 102.
Cluwr, 593. See Chur.
Clathing, Cloathing-Clathers, 135, Clothes. [klaa-dheen, klaa •dhurz] (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. [kloa $\cdot \mathrm{ml}$ ] (the common name for crockery). Spelt cloom in the text.
Coad, or Caud, 148, unhealthy, consumptive, or cored like a rotten Sheep. [kaod] common disease of sheep, through feeding on wet land. Cf. A.s. cóz.
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'tĕe] (very common).
Colting, 46 [koalteen], romping in a very opprobrious sense, when applied to a woman (common). Chaucer has coltish (Halliwell). Seo also Cymbeline, Act ii. sc. 4.
Compare, 465 [kmpae $\cdot \mathrm{ur}]$, comparison (very common).
'This offspring of my lraine, 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, clandestincly and gradually spent and consumed.
Cornoral Oath, 365 [kamrnurul 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 [kaut•n], 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 trĕe] (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 wellknown 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. 1. 1002.

- A lacquey that can . . . wait mannerly at a table . . . W'arble 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 Cheesc. [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, $\mathrm{S} 9,516$ [kuur c c e], to thrash, to whack. ' I'll curry your hide for you,' is a very common threat. Some weapon is hero also implied.
Cutted, 107, 308 [kuut ud], a word of rather general meaning, implying crabbed, ill-conditioned, snappish (rare, obsolescent).

## D

## Dagyle-teal'd, 501. Sce 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! [dac ŭm] (very common). This worl does not now mean you slut! but its use in speaking to any woman would be insulting, without conveying any definito 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 ?
> Mereutio. 'Tis no less I tell you,' \&c.
[gèod ai'n] (common). The good den of the text is impossible.
Deny, 530 [dinaary], to refuse. This word is still commonly used as in the text, p. 98-'You wont dony to see me drenk.' A quito authentic story is told of a man standing up in a chureh, not very far from Parracombe, nor very long ago, to forbid banns thus: ' I dony it and defy it, th' ummun's mine!'

> 'Aud now he left that pilgrims might donay 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, duth], 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 • pe lasse po of him tolde, \& drof him to busemare - as me ofte deb pan olde.'
Robert of Gloucester, Will. Conq., 1. 463 (ed. Morris and Skeat).

> 'Ac $3 y f$ pou nart, ich cristni pe;
> And dep pat his to donne.'
> William of Shorcham, A.D. 1307 , 'De Baptismo,' 1. 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 1.68 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.
Distructed, 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 thouylits 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'ŭtěe] (very common). The action is occasionally to be noticed in church.
Docity, 209 [daus•utĕe], 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. [dumrnz] (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‘vutli] (obsolescent).
The Dowl, 173, 174, 383, 445, or Dæul, the Devil. [daew'ul] (rare, but not unknown).
Doul retch tha, 29 [dhu Daew•I 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 uhd], drew. See note 9, p. 43. This is a good example of a strong verb in lit. Eng. remaining weak in the dialect. Sce W. S. G., p. 46.

Drash, $94,346,515$ [draash, 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 [draengrkeen]. In Devonshire this is the fooll, 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•en], clothes, linen.
Drow, 245 [droa], throw.
Drow vore, 175, 176, 180, 309 [droa voarr], to twit (very common still). See note 5, p. 44.
To drub, 347, 516 [drumb], 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 duallee.

## 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 $\cdot n$ ], end (common).
Egging, 307, spurring on, or provoking. [ag•een] (See Agging.)
E-long, 275, slanting. (See A-long.)
Elt, See Ilt.
Eul, 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, 'T'ale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. 2.
Es, 2, 10, that is Ise (the Scotch of the Pronom 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 $u s$ 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.]

## 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.'
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. [ruulch] (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 seignge, Vath, thou that distriest the temple," \&c.-Mark จ. 29.'

Compare also Ps. xxxy. 21, and Ps. xl. 18, Prayer Book version.

## G

Gambowling, 131 [gaambuw leen], gamboling, 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. $\theta$. Fit only to be stared at, as some strange uncommon Creature. [gaaps-naes] (very com.), a gazingstock.
Gar, 349 [gaur], 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 cok syngeb.' 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 [giglteen], 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.'
> $\quad$ Massinger,' 'Fatal Dowry,' Act iii. sc. 1.

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 nojt 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'ěe, 'Those shoep 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 $\cdot \mathrm{e} e$ ] (common), to bend backward and forwards, like a cuckoo's well-known swing. To act the cuckoo [gèok $\cdot$ 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 ưr koo'üt] (common).

> 'Betere is bolien whyle sore ben mournen euermore. Geynest vader gore, Herkne to my roun.

Alysoune, 1. 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. [grabl] (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. [gúr•zl] (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${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{zl}$-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 bet sle 3 pe 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 bere 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 Egbert be kyng.'-Stanza 36.
> 'His owne spencer's dou;t 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. [haurp] (very common). The use of this word would convey au 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, l. 49, just above.
Haddich, 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.
Handleating, 197 [an-bee•hteen], 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 handleating. 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 $a i \cdot d-n a n j$, ' 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.
'pe coukerdes hound pat time - as happe by-tidde, feld foute of pe child • and fast pider fulwes.'

William of Palerne, 1. 32, ed. Roxburgh Club.
See also Prompt. Parv. p. 226.
'Is wib tresor so full begon,
That if e happe pervpon,
$3^{e}$ schull be riche men for eure.' Gower, 'Tale of the Coffers,' l. 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. [unr, emph. humr]. 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.
IItrest, 32 [arrus], harvest. Always so pronounced.
To Hawchee, 188, 192, to feed foully. [au'chěe] (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 ont what comes uppermost; and whose Discourse therefore is a mere Hotch-potch. [au'ch-maew dhud, au'chĕe-maew $\cdot d h u d]$ (common), loud, obtrusive, gross in talk. Hauchmouth is a common epithet.
Huy-pook, 88, 284 [aa'y-pèok], hay-cock-the usual word. Pèoku atey 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. [aart gumen (still in use). Gun as a suffix, probably A.S. gund, seems to mean ailnent of an inflammatory kind. See Barn-gun.
To Henn, 248,255 , to take and throw. [Vide Spenser's Calend. Egl. 3. 'The Pumie Stones I hastily hent and threw.'] But this Word is seldom used in Devon, tho' frequently in Cornwall. [ain], the most commonly-used word for to fing 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 cast down in wrestling or to fell. Trees are always $u-d r o c \cdot d$. See note $5, \mathrm{p} .52$. This word in no case means to seize or take hold.
Hewstring, 48, 267, Houstring, coughing, wheezing. [èo'streen] (very common).
Hey !o! ' 15, 247, 283 [aary go], Heigho! The $g$ is always sounded in this interj.

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•uzzd], 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 ulul 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 elergyman, 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 chureh 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.
Holby-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 Den 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 tho phrase ' picking holes' arose from a misunderstanding of A.S. hol, detraction.
Horry, 47, 155, 205, foul and filthy. (Obsolete.)

> 'Of vche best pat bere 3 lyf - busk pe a cupple, Of vche clene comly kynde . enclose seuen make, Of vche horwed, in ark . halde bot a payre.'

Alliterative Poems (A.D. 1360), E. E. T. S., ed. Morris, l. 333. ' pat pis synfull world pat so horry ys.'
' Chronicon Vilodunense,' ed. Hoare, st. 167. 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 ěe], to hop, to jump. A good example of the inflection $\breve{e}$ 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 heare.
Hozed or Hawzed, 290, finely off!-Tronically 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 Wieker Strainer us'd to prevent the Grains and Muck from running out with the Wort. [uukmunk], 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. Gloss. 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.'

## I

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 aart tee], unhealthy, ailing, delicate (very common).
The Ilt, 409, the spayed female Pigs. (Obsolete, both word and custom.) This word was formerly gilt or yilt. The Prompt. Parv., P. 194, has Gylie. 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 Dau. gallte, porcus." . . . . Any female swine is called a gilt in Staffordshire.'
Jowering, 21, 309, Geowring. See Geowering.
Ise, 17. See E.s. I believe this form of ego does not and never did exist. I'ze means I has $=\mathrm{I}$ have, but it is not Western. I have been told by elucated 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 'conyentional 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 eee]. This is a common pronunciation. In the singular it is $a$ cow [kae $e \mathrm{ee}$-cows are [kae'eez].
Any Keendest Thing, 210, 293, any Kind of Thing,-all Sorts of Things, ever so much. [kee'ndees] (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 wonld 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, l. 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.
River'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,' 1. 3506.
To Labbe, 306. I am quite uncertain as to this word. I assume it to be pronounced lab•ee, 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, labeee, If ever I have a men, 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.ŭs] (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-ěe] (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'ŭn laak bût tai` $n$ mún'eets tut dree uklauk,' '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 rheumatiscd, 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. [laa'theen]. 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-luek $u$, liquor. I have heard a sick person ask for mi luek'urz, meaning my physic.

> 'Hist mozt be do ine kende water, And non oper licour.'
> William of Shoreham, 'De Baptismo,' 1.13.
> ' Ne mede, ne forpe, no oper licour pat choungep wateres kende.'-Ibid, 1. 22.

Nute,-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 leating, 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 $3 y f$ ber wer $y$-mengd licour Oper wid kende watere Ich wogt wel prime to cristuye Hit nere nefur be 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, 1. 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. [ [ee"urr], 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'ĕe] (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,
' Morte Arthure,' l. 2560.
' That long-legged fellow comes launching along.'
Forby, Gloss. E. Anglia.
Long-hunged, 30, 121, 158, 238 [laung-anjud]. See Hange. This epithet means loug-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 lamging in the text.

Loustree, 216 (obsolete). See Lustree.
To Lustree or Lewstery, 291, to bustle and stir about like a lusty Wench. [lèo:strěe] (common).
$L y, 513$ [laa•y], 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 tho' 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 pactst ulau'ng mak wayz i 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 [gun 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 marchartalle means ' nothing to boast of' (still very common).
Marl, 130, 207, 214, 269, 628, a Marvel or Wonder. [maar"ul] (common). See notes, ll. 130, 606.
Marralones, 268 [maar uboa unz], knees (very common).
Meach off, 469 [mee ch oaf], to slink off, to play the truant. Meacher [mee'chur], a truant (very common). See note 9, p. 92.
'Some meaching rascal in her house.'
Beaumout and Fletcher, 'Scornful Lady,' Act v. sc. I.
' Ophelia. What means this, my lord?
Hamlet. Marry this is miching malecho; it means mischief.'
Shakspere, 'Hamlet,' Act iii. sc. 2.
'Falstaff. Shall the llessed sum of heaven prove a micher and eat llachberries.'-Ibid, ' 1 Henry IV.,' Act ii. sc. 4.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Mychyn, or pryuely stelyn smale thyngys.'
Mecorty, 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 meczle, 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., l. 247, of the Emperor Constantine we read-

> ' A. Mesel forsope, we fynde he was. Til crist sende him • of his gras. Pope Siluestre . . . .

## 1. 255. bat be 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 meselrie, 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 [min'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. $\quad$. 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-lanes, 632, 636 [míd $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ bae•ŭnz], middle-bands, the waist (rare, but not obsolete).
Min or Mun, 224, 268, for Them ; as 1. 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, 1. 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, 'Poetastew,' Act i. sc. 1.

See also Beaumont and Fletcher, 'Scoruful 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 $\operatorname{lnd}$ ], 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. [muul 'igruub guur'geen] (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. [muumchaans] (common).
' What would you have a body stand like mum-chance, as if 1 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 farn-yard. See Pilm.
Muxy, 7, 153, 500, Dirty, Filthy. [muuk sče] (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 Ere 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 theu, 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 haue a lamb, Newly weaned from the dam, Of the right kind, it is notted.'
> $\quad$ 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. [uídik] (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-urt], nought, nothing. Still the invariable pronuncia-tion-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‘urrt], 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 1.14 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.' $$
\begin{array}{l}\text { Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. } 2 .\end{array}
$$

To take 0 wl 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- $24 \times 4 \times 360=34,560$ 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 20 s . or 30 s . 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 Peclmarket.
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 seuse.) 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 Tadies,
to handle them roughly, to put his hand into their necks or losoms, to kiss
them by surprize, icc.; 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 skivt 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 punrock 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, Hith laced panes of russet cloathe,

F'ynes '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.

Paverl, 217 [pau•d], dug or beat with the fore-feet.
Peels, 428, for Pillows. [pee $\breve{\mathrm{ul}} \mathrm{l}]$ (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 pilhum. '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. [pínchfaart] (very common). Cf. Prompt. Parv. 'Pynchar, nyggarde.'
To Pink, 256, to push.-In the Preter 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 e to rum him through. Shakspere speaks of 'her pink'd porringer' ('Heury 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 pung'd of the text is another good example of the super-addition of the weak inflection to the strong verb. See Nickled, 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 1. 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 sail, '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 pe 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 onomatopœia, to represent the sound of whispering.
Pitha, 57, 132, 137 [pidh•u, puidh•u; now pronouncel puidh•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.)-Teeheeing Pixy, P. 38. Langhing Fairy or Goblin. [pik seěe]. The well-known 'little folks' or fairies are still firmly believed in. They are known in the TVest 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-focted. [plaat-vèotud] (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,' 1. 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 ntěe], to appoint, to make known (common).
To Pomstery, 26, to use Slops or Salves, and play the Empiric and Quack. [paum•sturěe] (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. $\Lambda$ sheep while being shorn is said to poa'utĕe ; a bed-fellow who kicks is said to poa'utĕe.
' Corn. poot, to kick like a horse.'-Williams's ' Corn. Dict.'
'Welsh, putio, 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 panching of the nait-holes in horseshoes. The instrument used is called a pür cheel or prúch•eel, 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 lim soundly,-to box him. [puum•ul] (very common). This word implies the use of fists onlyno 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 [kwaul'ifuy], 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 ili-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, ronghening, and tearing the Clothes to Rags; or playing the Rogue, viz. in a wanton Frolic. [ragruwtureen] (common), going on the rampage.
Rukee up, 144, 355 [rae 'rkkěe 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 $\cdot$ and routte at pe laste.
" What a-wake, renk," quap repentaunce " 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 1. 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.'

Ruther, 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 zeo ondur, sooner, is the word; occasionally it is lee vur, liefer. The use of rather in 1 . 218 is a literaryism-zoonder it should be. See note, 1. 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.'-IIall'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 Picce
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 $u-r u i m d$ 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 rai t .]
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. vraek'sn]. 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 c e ], 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.
For vilest things
'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, whethor 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 lubour.'-Shakspere, 'Two Gent. of Verona,' Act i. se. 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. Oldeastle.'
Ripping, 311 , taking off the Rind and exposing our Nakedness ;-or ripping up our Character and laying open all our Faults: [ríp 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 ruu, 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•sĕe], 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•lĕe] (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'ŭveeu] (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, l. 55. I disagree with this definition. The word implies a rough, slap-dash, bustling hoiden-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 raev*ul.] 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 lire 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 sulien corners rucke.' Warner, 'Alb. Eng.' p. 185, ed. 1610.
'The furies made the bride-grommes 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 lint. See note, 1. 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 [saav'een], 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 dialognes, 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`ĕe 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. [skoars].

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'Pan. . Would not miss you, for a score on us, } \\
& \text { When he do 'scourse of the great charty to us. } \\
& \text { Pup. What's that, a horse? can'scon'se nought but a horse, } \\
& \text { And that in Smithveld. Charty! I n'er read o' hun.' } \\
& \quad \text { Ben Jonson, 'Tale of a Tub,' Act i. sc. } 2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

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 skoars 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 scrutched. ''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•dI] (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.
Sed [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 frst you came to town in', Your safeguard, cloke, and your hood suitable.'
> Beaumont and Fletcher, ' Noble Gentleman,' Act ii. sc. 1.
> 'On with your clork and saveguard, you arront drab.'
> ' Ram Alley' (Nares).
'The men booted, the gentlewomen in cloaks and safeguards.'--Stage direction in 'The Merry Devils' (Nares).
Sheen, 128 [shee $n$ ], shine, a glimmer. Many words in long $i$ in lit. Eng. are still pronounced long $c e$.
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. Parr. 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. [shèoll 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 shww 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 Owol, 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).
Skulhing, 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, l. 260 ; scullest, l. 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 ${ }^{\text {? }}$ 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 urěe wadh ur] (very common), rainy weather.
Smuggle, 324 [zmuug.1], to hug violently, smotheringly. See Mullad (common).
Snapwy, 257, 313 [znaap •ee], to speak very snappishly, to snub, to snap at one (very common still). These words are spelt in the text some with $y$ aud 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, T'hat bites the first-born infunts 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 sueap 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 Niser, in this County. [snúbll 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 Serrant. He'll go, he says, and sowle the porter of Rome gates by the eurs.'-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, 300, to throw one's Errors and little Flaws in one's Teeth, quasi Spalls or Chips, which fly off from the Car-
penter'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 ưr] (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 cul ; 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, 1.217 , 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 carcusses.'
'Tragedy of Locrine,' p. 26.
A Stare-bason, 58, One that is saucer-eyed, and impudently stares one in the Face. [stae ${ }^{\text {urr }}$ bae ưsn] (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' (1. 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 earry 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. steg. 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 l. 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 [stùeurlees], most careful, best managing, most stewardly (common).
Stimued, 250 [stúnd], stmmed. 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 $u p$ 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).

> 'Matherine. MWolsey] was a man
> Of an unbounded stomach, ever ranking Himself with princes.'
> $\quad$ 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. Heuce 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, l. 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 $\cdot$ een, stroa $\cdot k e e n$ ] (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 ur r, rarely so pronounced]. For a dust it is a different word, stoa $\cdot r$, i. e. stir-to stir is always to stoar. A very old and common saying against undue dwelling upon the disagreeable is-'Dhu moo ŭr yùe stoa'r-t, dhu wús t -1 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 Nallard 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.

## T

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 fackle.' Tackle not in the text.
Tackling, 11, 187 [taak•leen], food, provisions. Anything very nice is frequently called rae'urr taak-leen. Tackle is, however, the commoner word. Taak.l fút vur dhu keng is often heard. Tackling is the usial 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•ĕe] (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.
' Offritiro, 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 $z^{e t}$, \& wittnesse of bat wylked werk.'
Alliterative Poems, 1360, 'Destruction of Sodom,' l. 1049.

> 'And to his fadvis maneris enclyne, And wikkid tachis nud vices escherve.'
> 'Occleve,' Ms. Soc. Antiq. 134, f. 279 .
> ' It is a tacche of a devouryng hounde To resseyve superfluyte nd do excesse.'
> Mis. 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 waywarre was thy infancy.'
> Shakspere, 'Richard III.,' Act iv. se. 4.
> 'Troilus. I cannot come to Cressid but by Pandar;
> And he's as tetchy to be wooo'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 t ]. 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 hare 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'ŭr 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, Aud 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.
Teclious, 107 [tai•jus], aggravating (very common).
Teeheeing, 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,' 1. 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 winy, I'hen 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"věe] (common).
Tether, 139, 160, 311 [taedh•ur, tuulh $\cdot \mathrm{ur}$ ], 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 pe, because pe toper $=$ pet oper.
' Bot pe tō shall for be top' 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. [tríteez] (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 com monly 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, 1. 215.

> 'pof pou be noght be mastleem Iuda, cité, poou 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 thofe the bryde blythe be That Percyvelle hase wone the gree.'
'Thozfe Percevelle has slayne the rede knyght, $3^{\text {itt }}$ 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 [tul'teesh], uppish, touchy, ready to take offence (common). Of a horse, apt to kick.
Tiltislmess, 75 [túl'teeshnees], fretfulness, touchiness, ill temper (common).
Timersome, 59, Passionate. [tum ursum] (common), sensitive, easily rousel 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 calld 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 ifs lig dh-oa.l duum'unz speenceen 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'hz], 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 untrngle, 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. Thinh'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, $65,158,470,63 \pm$ [trae*ups], a woman all bedraggled by walking through deep mud, hence a slattern (common).
Trapsee, 200 [trae "upsěe], to walk through a wet or muddy path, and to get all bedraggled. A man may trae upsee drìe 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 [trím], 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-tríst 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, ov 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; bence 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 $\cdot$ ld wai dhu rue matil; ; he is tronbled 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, l. 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 Churn. (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.

Tyrcut, 568 [tuy-runt], 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- $\alpha$-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-ct-zot,' i.e. set up for inspection. Cf. Upzetting.
Up-reert, 151, 510 [aup-ree urt, oftener aup-rai t], upright. In early editions it is lee a rope out-reert. See notes, l. $1 \overline{1} 1$.
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, de., is called 'sitting up,' and the days when such visitors are expected are called 'sitting up days.'
Uze, 229 [yne ${ }^{\circ}$ ], 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 Preter 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 Robin. [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, l. 2j6. See E. D. S. Gloss. B. 14.
Varjuice, 411 [vaarjees], verjuice ; a common exclamation.
Vuth, 400, 475, 553, 610, 624. See Fath.
Vath and trath ! 454 [faath-n traath !], 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 truath 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 $f u u \cdot t$ or $f a u \cdot \breve{u} t$ 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 ; phur. vee•stez, vuy•stez], fist.
Vengeance, $4,35,207,506$ [vai njums], 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 [vuur $\cdot$ lĕe blai•v], 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 (1. 252), the p. part. of fetch. We see the word spelt rett in the 'Somerset Man's Complaint,' p. 8, and fet by Chaucer. In the 'Chronicon Vilodunense' the word is used frequently in different forms, in all of which it has a form nore like the modern dialectal. Fetch is now pronounced fauch or vaach. In stanza 732 of the Chron. Vilo. we read fache for the infin. of fetch.

> ' Turre soule was fate to herene we 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' seyst
> And crokette and maymotte fatton pere hurre hele :
> Miracules weron do per' pus tlay and nyzt And sekemen come pedur mony and dfele.'-st. 586. ' A basyn we 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.
' Freves with feir speches • fetten him pemes.'-Pass. II. 205. Gower has:

> 'And bame he let be cofres fette Tpon be bord and dede hem sette.'

Tale of the Coffers, 1. 45.
Chaucer has:
' A Briton booli, 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 filget is the diminutive.'-Skeat.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Fykī̄ a-bowte, infre in Fyskin̄.' 'Fiskī̄ a-bowte yn ydilnesse.'
' I praye you se howe she fysketh aboute.'-Palsgrave.
'Trotière, a raumpe, fisgig, fisking huswife, raunging damsell.'Cotgrave.
' Makeð feir semblaunt, \& fikeð mil te heaued.'
' Ancren Riwle,' p. 206.
'pet fickereð so mit pe, \& fiker mid dogge uawemunge.'
Ibid, 1. 290, ed. Camden Soc.

- And since I trotted from my trotter stall, And figd about from neates feete neafly drest.'
'A Quest of Enquirie,' A.D. 1598 (Nares).
Vinnied or Vinnad, Finnewed, Mouldy. [vún ond] (the usual term in every-day use), mildewed, spotted with mould, or with any defiling matter. Cheese with green mould is always called vín $\cdot u d$. Webster gives this word as 'vimuewed, obsolete.'
' Mamy 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 mast oft be died with goare,
Lest, storke 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. Favour, 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. se. 1.
'Fenne has occasionally the abstract signification of mire.' In Vegecius, Roy. MS. 18, A. xii., Scipio speaks 'with this reprouble 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 fai'n draa 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 he eaten. (Obsolete.) Not in the text. Halliwell is again absurdly wrong in copying this, and so giving ' Vit. To dress meat.' To rit 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'ěe] (very common); also as an adverb-properly, in the right manner. Spelt vittee, l. 73.
Vittiness, 209 [vút-inees], dexterity, neat-handedness (very common).
Vlagged, 74 [vlag•ud], loose, flaccid, flabby (very common).
Vlee, 299 [vlee], to fly; so always vlee lig u buurl, 'fly like a bird.' Always, as in the text, fly to, not fly at.
Voar, Voor, $o r$ Vore, 286-Forth;-Also a Furrow. [voarr] (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 voar ${ }^{\text {] }}$ (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. [voa'r-n baak] (very common); batk- $n$-voar is more usual. Spelt vore-andback, l. 119. I do not think this expression means fore or right hand back, or buck-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-und-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 lefthand side [laft-an'-zuyd] for left side.

Prof. Skeat suggests that the and in up-and-down, \&c., is on; i. e. $u p$-on-down $=u$ - - (side) on-down (side). This is very probable.
Vokes, 202 [voaks], folks, people. Also spelt rockien, 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 roak, as in 11. 291, 383, would mean people in general, while the plural, as in 1. 297,
means work-people. It is most common to distinguish men and women, as mui'n coaks, wuom ceen voaks. See note 9, p. 47. Spelt voals, l. 202.
Vore, 286 [voar], for (emphatic).
Vore, 229 [voar], until. See notes, 1l. 108, 229.
Vore-Days or Voar-Days, 122, late, or forward in the Day ; the Day being far adranced. [voa'r daiz]. Be coor days in the text. The exprossion 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. fort deeges, 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. [roa $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ ree'ŭrt] (rare, obsolescent); [voa'r ruyt], tho present form (very common). Spelt vore-reet, 1. 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 'forə 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 foree 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. Eore-right, and a brisk gate.'
> 'The Slighted Maid,' p. 3 (Nares).

Vorevey, $170,354,556,558$ [voarwai, voarwai $\cdot$ ], 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 tha art a vorked' i. e. so far as thou art forked: and l. 135, 'drade tha out by the rorked Eend' i. e. drew thee out by the forked End; which Phrases want no other Explanation, the Fork therein meant being well known: Aud 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. [vaurkud]. 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. Seo Thort, Nort.
Tor why? 208 [vur waary], on which account, because, wherefore (common phrase as here used).

> 'Al $p^{t}$ auel of Dina $p^{t}$ ich spec of er, ne com nout, forrui $p^{t}$ te wummen lokede cangliche o weopmen.'
> $\quad$ 'Ancren Riwle,' ed. Camden Soc., p. $\mathbf{5 6}$.
'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 pe complection of ilk man
I'as sythen febler pan it was pan.'-Ibid, 1. 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, Rearlily, carefully, diligently and earnestly. [vrai $\cdot \mathrm{ch}$ ], 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, \&e.

> 'That may be heled with no 7ecke, So violent thei are and full of wreche.'

MIS. 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 bet tu uorhowie Wreche of his dome 't nime to pin owrone 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-pork, 114 [vuuz`ee 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

Warstcout, 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 worl 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 $\%$. A stock for centre-bits is a weum?l stauk.

The Prompt. Parv. has 'Wamelynge, of pe stomake, idem quod walmynge. Nuusict.'
' Allecter, to wamble as a queasie stomacke dothe.'-Cotgrave.
In Trevisa's yersion of 'Barth. de Propriet.' it is said of mint: ' It abrteth with vynegree parbrakinge (q. v.), and easting, that comethe of febelnesse of the vertue retentyf; it tulieth away abhominacion of wamblyng aud abutethe 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 Habby. [wangurěe] (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 wanyery.' This word is the same as to wong, 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-ce] (very common). It is to be carefully noted that, as explained in note, 1. 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 assereration; 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 rumning 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. Sce 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 e' the Ear. [wur"ut] (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.' Shaspere, 'Tempest,' Act iii. sc. 2.
> 'That cursed wight, from whom I scapt whyleare, A man of hill, that calls himself despaire.',' Bk. 1, ix. 28.
> Spenser, 'Faerie Queene.'
> ' Doe you not hnow 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. SThe term whetstone for a liar, or for the prize for lying, seems to be very old, and, accerding 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?
> IIe shall have a silver whetstone for his labour.'
> $\quad$ 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, 2.2, 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.'

$$
\text { Ben Jonson, 'Cynthia's Revels,' Act i. sc. } 1 .
$$

Hence the force of Bacon's sarcasm to Digby, who was unable to describe tho philosopher's stone which he professed to have seen, ' Perhups 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 lyiny, to inform the nation, And by their public use to bring down The rate of whetstones in the kingdom.',

$$
\text { Butler, 'Hudibras,' pt. ii. l. } 57 .
$$

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. [wís•tur pèop] (very common), an unexpected blow, a sudden blow.
Whittle, $108,204,278$ [wít•l], 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 Rogneries of others. [weetwúch] (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. [huurteen]. The $w$ in this word is quite gone-I doubt if it ever was somded. 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 Aof 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. [wúm'een]. To winnow is always to wum or wuom; there is no $l$ 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).
Wolheruay, 275, otherwise (rare in Devon).
Woundy, 351 [wuw'nděe], wildly, excessively (obsolete). This is one of thoso 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 $u d$ (see TV. S. Gram., p. 50); also that words spelt wr are most commonly pronounced $v r$, 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).

## 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. Bcels 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-ull.
To Yappee, when spoken of a Dog, signifies to yelp.-See Yeppy. [yapeèe] (very common). A spaniel or terrier is said to yap •ёe when he utters his sharp bark on disturbing his game.
The Prompt. Parv. has ' Wappyn̄, or baffyn as howndys (or snokyn) -wappoñ, or berkyn̄.'

> 'Wappynge, of howndys, whan bey 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 vere. 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•èe]. This word is precisely the same as yappee ( $q . v$. ), but in N. Dev. it is often pronounced closer, yeprĕe.
Yerring, 41, 310, 501, Yelling, Noisy. [yuur•een] (very common).
Yess, 44, 89, 102, 295, Podex, in plain English mine A-- [yes] (the $y$ is obsolescent). See note, l. 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.'
> $\quad$ Tusser, 'Maies husbandrie,' $51, ~ s t . ~ 4, ~ e d . ~ E . ~ D . ~ S . ~$

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. [yùe'murz, sometimes]. See Yemors.
Yeo, 210, an Ewe Sheep. [yoa'] (always so pronounced).
Yheat-stool, 54 [yee•ŭt-stèol]. 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.'

Haliiwell 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.

## z

Zar. See Sar.
Zart ! 624 [zaart !], a quasi oath, - l's heart ! (very common). Not to be confounded with soft, also spelt zart in the text.
Zait-and-vair, 54 [zaart or saart-n-vae $\breve{r r r}$ ] soft and fair (more commonly saart-n-vae $\breve{\prime} r$ ), 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 $\breve{\prime} \mathrm{l}$ ]. 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 medireval 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. i879) 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 old noumy-zool, two-vore-zool, combing-zool, doublezool, tatie-zool, and others, all of them various kinds of ploughs.
' Gif eax ne kurue, ne pe spade ne dulue, ne be sulnh ne erede, hwo lepte 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.ŭrt], sight. This pronunciation is now rare-generally zai't only is heard. The same applies to cock-leert, vore-reert, \&c.
Zenneert $o r$ 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, zuu'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. Aay zûm t-l kau'm tìe 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 [peorl]. 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 Slut. This word is one of those corrected in the Glossary. It is in very common use. See W. S. Gram., p. $6 \overline{0}$.

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 [zlaut-ureen], 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 Ermoor 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. <br> 

II.

## WESTMORELAND.

## A BRAN NEW WARK.

EDITED BY THE
rev. Pr0fess0r skeat, M.A.

## INTR0DUCTION.

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. $1762^{1}$ 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

[^43]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,' ${ }^{1}$ 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 lave 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. Seeat.

[^44]
# By WILLIAM DE WORFAT, 

CONTAINING

## A true Calendar of his Thoughts

CONCERNING GOOD NEBBERHOOD.

Naw firft printed fra his M.S. for the ufe of the hamlet of WOODLAND.

Diligers appetitus aliquando negligit verba cultiora nee curat quid bene sonet, sed quid indicet atque intimet quod ostendere intendit. St. Aust.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { KENDAL: } \\
\text { Printed by W. Penvingtox. } 1785 .
\end{gathered}
$$

## THE

## PR0L0GUE

## BY WILLIAM DE WORFAT,* CLERK;

Shewing his awn estate, and then addressed to sic north-country folls, 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. $\dagger$

GOD 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 $E$, and dive like a porpoise? different 10 spots $\downarrow$ have their different pleasures, eigh and difficulties tea. We laugh at a wedding, and cry at a berring ; a christning brings a feast;

* Alias Oifat, alias Overthwaite.
+ 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 quce jam cecidere; cadentque Quce nunc sunt in honore vocabula; si volet usus Quem penes arbitrium est, \&jus, \& norma loquendi.
$\ddagger$ 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 clanted 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, aaiming to hev a good conscience, I am meeterly content. My 25 humble situation indeed may check ivery sprauting thonght, 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 Worjat 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 fiure to the tune of Ald Roger. The 35 barns of the nebber-raw merrily carrol the story of the Cherry Tree $\dagger$ with other godly Ballads; $\ddagger$ and lasses fidge their parts; naw Jumpiny Jorn, ${ }^{1}$ 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

* This is the sentiment of a minister of one of the islands of the Hebrides.
$\dagger$ 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, Sussex, 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 issnes 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.

[^45]blecch; they hev mucking and threshing, ploughing, peating, mawing, haying, shearing. Haw lile knaws ya part of the ward haw 40 tother leeves. ${ }^{1}$

Ye good christians, that like swallows and cuckoos, love to change to mare sumny 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 leaned 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 $\mathrm{men}^{2}$ which the north country produced, some of whom ${ }^{3}$ 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
${ }^{1}$ 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 $5 l$. per year, a goose grass, a whitle gate, and a harden sark.

These revenues however are greater than that of Micah' Levite, see Julges xvii, who had ten shekels of silver a suit of apparel, and his victuals.
${ }^{2}$ Amongst these the northern apostle Barnarel Gilpin, stands first in the list, then follow a number of eminent persons, Airy, Smith, Coakenthrop, Chumbers, Barwick, the bishops Carleton, Pearson, Fleming, Barlow, Cibson, next Mills, Seecl, Shaw, Fothergill, Lancelot Addison, Peter Collinson, dc.

Roger Askum, 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. Merlcalf 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.
${ }^{3}$ Rydley 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. ${ }^{1}$ 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.
${ }^{1}$ Sic ; for focos.-W.W.S.

## THE

## PLAIN ADDRESS.

HAW 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 thare 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, or ta fine for my addle paate; I will neither venture my neck, ner strain my wits. What is it to us, shoud 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

[^46]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 kraken ${ }^{1}$ 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, ${ }^{2}$ 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 abaut 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 callen by faith in Christ Jesus
110 to yood 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 comny verse indeed, yet things mun widely 120 alter before it be duly obsarved. At present there er in ivvery neak ta mamy mischief-makers, busy-bodies. . What! leve my neighbour ${ }^{3}$

[^47]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. ${ }^{2}$ 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 manseitten ; wad there was a leaf turn'd dawn, whare a feal ex'd Wha is my neighbour! But- again, I heve net done with kirk business, I 140 mean the spiritual business which shoud thare employ weel disposed christians. Hes naane 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 sawey 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." 3 It is bad nebbourhood, ${ }^{4}$ when a body is not suffered to say his prayers 148
' Archbishop Laud's expression.
${ }^{2}$ 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 auother than these two for substance." Leigh's Crit. Sacra.
${ }^{3}$ A line in Fairfux's Tasso.
4 "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 Maim. 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 nick ${ }^{2}$ sic folk in his clutches? Good friends, these er sad duings, efeclings. My saal is vexed within me. ${ }^{3}$ Hoa fellow thare! sweetly sleepest ta naw, when the devil 155 rocks thy cradle. Pardon my zeal, mappen it may rise heegh 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 yan 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 yance 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

[^48]two places at yance, ${ }^{1}$ that black is white. God gave us our senses to feel with, to handle with, and when St. Joln 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 ${ }^{4}$ 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 oor the poor creatures

This made Averroes resolve, quando quidem christiani adorant quod commedunt, [sic], sit anima mea cum philosophis? When Mrs Ann A skew 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."
${ }^{2}$ Supposed to mean, hoc est corpus.
${ }^{3}$ 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.
${ }^{4}$ Hileriter [sic] and celeriter, merrily and quickly. I might have used a better epithet, harem skarem, rash, mad, who turns all into confusiou.

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 bluwn away his enemies with the blast of the breath of his displeasure. ${ }^{1}$ God drawned the praud children of Adam; the rainbow is a witness; Raven-scout ${ }^{2}$ 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 Funlshaw, which yesterday tawer'd aloft with their black heads, but to day er scal'd ${ }^{3}$ 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
${ }^{1}$ 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 nostrils." The blast of a furnace, the blasting of rocks give fine ideas.
${ }^{2}$ 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, somelimes 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 lighest point of a ridge of rocks in Holme-park, adjoining to Farleton-lnot, frequented by ravens, and sometimes visited by eagles on their passage.
${ }^{3}$ Scaled, scattered, levelled, so to scale muck, or molehills, to scale hay, and yet this word puzzled most of the editors of Shakespeare.
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'd ${ }^{1}$ in sin and concupisceuce. 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 withaut dissimulation.

I haasten hawever to ask a mast important question. Suppose this eftornean you were to see Jeremiah, Obadiah, or Jona, standing on Windsear, 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 Mannt, 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, soa 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 cye 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. ${ }^{2}$ On the reet hand ye behold your judge, terrible in majesty, 240

[^49]2 "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 lit! we er net ready with aur accaunts ; we hev net lov'd nor fear'd thee as we ought; we hev net lov'l 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 ye 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 ${ }^{2}$ on, but your awn frowardness. ${ }^{3}$ Think naa warse of me for giving you Godly advise! Eternal life, ${ }^{*}$ who can help repeating

[^50]it, is the prize, and remember! that you reeeive it by Christ Jesus 252 your Lord ; wrestle then for it with an active faith ; leeve fouzauably 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. Joln when near a hundred years ald, spreading aut his arms, thus accosted those abaut him, Little chithren, love yan another.

Withant this binding quality o aur righteousness is as filthy rags ; ${ }^{1}$ 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 ${ }^{2}$ o these that good nebbourhood fails in part, but thare er other enemies which I mumet pass over sleightly.

[^51]
## PART THE SECOND.

APlain 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 or 270 mamy kinds of voices in the world, and none withaut 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 abant it dunnet make 230 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; ${ }^{1}$ they forgat that love is the fulfilling of the law. God be thank'd that christians naw knaw better, practise better. Barbarous customs are banish'd the land. Formerly great 285 people kept monkeys to grin, and moek 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 about 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 intentious in a manner either to lull their consciences, or quibble with their God. See the provincial letters.
trutl 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 enemics 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. WVee'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 streaws, which in a frosty winter drop dawn
${ }^{1}$ Baldwin le Petteure had his name and held his land in Suffolf: 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. ${ }^{1}$ To rob a roost, to break an orehard, to filch pows, withys, spelks, to cut dawn saplings, and carry off rotten ring-fenees 320 er reekoned leeny tricks, but fitter for heathen Sparta, ${ }^{2}$ 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 cumning. But what said the good bishop Latimer, "Thon 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, ${ }^{3}$ whilst I gang on with another of my awn.

## TIIE PARSON'S TALE.

Last saturday semet, ${ }^{4}$ abaut seun in the evening, (twas lownd 330 and fraaze hard) the stars twinkled and the setting moon cast gigantic shadows. I was stalking hameward aeross Bleckivoutermosses, and whistling as I tramp'd for want of thought, when a noise struck my ear, like the erumpling 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 thare 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

[^52]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 nebbou'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.

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 thare is danger and temptation even in the godly deed. Thares 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 abaut 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 wronght 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. ${ }^{1}$ 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 rattencreak 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. Araund 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, ${ }^{2}$ said I, Maggy, I am thy teacher, thy friend, tak comfort! God's aboou still, tho' the ward awns the net; he will net forsake thee. Affictions and troubles dumet 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, tho' mebby, with saar troubled hearts. It is said, The trust of the evil-doer shall be an attercobweb, ${ }^{3}$ but a perfect man God will net cast away. Trust thau then, Maggy, in the great Father of mercies, and wait for better days! 395 the poor will net oucays be forgitten. But let me ask thee; Haw durst ta wink at thy children, whilst they laad theirsells with lurthens of iniquity? Thinks ta, God sees these bad tricks and will 398 net punish? Whether they were peats or flusheocks, or prickins
${ }^{1}$ Ano means and all, that is also.
${ }^{2}$ 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 yon, 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!"
${ }^{3}$ Which says the excellent old Sanderson, the light touch of a besom striketh away in a moment. Esaich 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.

[^53]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 kuaw 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 ${ }^{1}$ 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: Thare 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." ${ }^{3}$ 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. He 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 lift, as his peace of mind.

I come next to simple whonedon, God hes said, this he will likewise judge. Young tykes oft buy pleasure dearly. Solomon 430

[^54]431 gives 'em good advice, but they turn the deaf ear. ${ }^{1}$ Oh! that folks wad but lust when and whare they mud lust lawfully. ${ }^{2}$ 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 slanghter. Nor is her ease mickle better; with the loss of her maidenhead, she loses all that is valuable, her honour, her diguity, 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, lier 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. ${ }^{3}$

[^55]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 withaut stopping at the ale-house. 'Tis a burning sham to see him 455 like a maffin bezzling dawn strang licquors. 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 abaut 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 whare it began. Tittle tattle begits scandal ; scandal, like a cur-dog, bites into' th 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, withaut quarrelling. ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^56]Let us give and tak. If a man rails, bid God bless him, and soa 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 Hull, "like stakes in a hedge, pull them up, all the rest are but loose and rotten sticks easily removed."

And naw I hev nearly done, I commit my parishonors 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 yance 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

1 Wharting begits quarrels, in families, in nations; quarrels often end in war, in rebellion ; either is dreadful, the last particularly. Once an arehbishop of St. Andrews was taken by his enemies, and directly hung upon a live thorn, upon which a wit wrote the following verse,

> 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. Snch indeed [is] the frnit 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, beeanse Charles 2d. only stood within the shade of the boughs. Qu. Had not Pope thought of the above latin verse?
${ }^{2}$ These allusions, odd as they appear, are taken out of the sermons of eminent divines, who wrote in the sixteenth century.
$m e,{ }^{1}$ 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.
${ }^{1}$ 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 worra 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 thansands: 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 creatnres were condemn'd in Scotland on this supposition, and five really suffered death. Dea I 520 mention Scotlund! for hundreds of years what debateable wark, what rhaading, and watching, and warding! what dakering and cruel nebbourhood alang the Border Sercice. 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 leare 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 net 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 madd 545 at the last day. Beloved, I hev nearly done, my address to you is an address to my awn conseience ; I am a sarvent of Jesus Christ, tho' net in soa gandy a livery as some of my school-fellows, wha hev jump'd into better places. ${ }^{1}$ 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 consun'd, and my banes dry as kiln-sticks, may Woolland continue to flourish 560 in o virtue and godliness of leeving. This is the prayer of your vicar for Arnside and Storth, for Hetle and Whasset, for Beethum and Haverlrack, for Farlton, for Oalluank, and Worfut.

[^57]THe 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, crow crow.
570 Davn down, dumnet do not, $d u$ 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.
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.
$T a$ to, ta thou, tea too.
Waund wound, wark work, warse worse, wad would.
585 Varra very.
$Y a$ 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 cstate 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. 1S. leate. 21. tended; nea [thrice]. 26, 27. mear. 28. pleace. 31. nea. 33. harth. 40. o'th warl haw. 43. mear sunney. 48. deales; muther's. 60. areas (sic). 63, 66. aur. 76. it is nivver. 78. tears. 79. nea. S4, 85. mear. 86. feace. 87. reace-horse. S8. peate. 90. teadpoles. 92. inhabitants; the t being dropped in the carlier 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. 14S. nebberhood. 15s. 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 [lst 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 l. 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. neakedness. 344. nea. 346. speake. 345. hungered. 351. heame; nea. 354. apreia. 361. lodgment. 367. meade. 36s. rease; shined. 370. compassed. 371. mysell. 372. Here the later ed. correctly has unsneek'd, which in the earlier one is misprinted msnec'k. 375. greadly. 376. mear. 391. sear. 396. lead. P. 24, note 2, 1. 4. should go. 403. piece of mouldy. 416. sarvant. 449. rottoness. P. 26, note 1, l. 7. espousal ; l. 9. prove that [for. appear]. 459. nea. 470. land ( $\alpha$ misprint); sarvants. 486. quarreling. 488. seave. P. 28, note 1, l. 5. virto (a misprint) ; 1. 8. both edd. omit is ; 1 . 12. wonderous; note 2 . allutions. P. 29, note 1, 1. 5. means it. 513. the [for this]. 524. forgotton. 537. er it may net be ; relations. 545. mead. 547. sarvant.

The most noticeable point abont these variations is the systematic substitution of ea for aa; as in peavement, neaked, nea, mear, perte, tead-poles, heame, \& c., for paavement, naaked, naa, maar, paate, taad-poles, haam. So also, instead of late, place, dales, fuce, race-horse, \&c., we have leate, pleace, deales, feace, 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.

## N0TES.

10. Ea simply means water or river, A.S. eef, and is the E. representative of the Lat. cuqua. Hence Ect, Ect-mont, Roth-ay, Brath-ay, and other rivernames. In Gloss. B. 1, we find-" Ect, a river along the sands on the sea-shore."

41 (footnote). Lis 'predecessor' was the Rev. Daniel Wilson. Hence, probably, the reason for his presenting a copy of his book to 'Master Menry Witson.'
53. The 'venerable prelate' is perhaps the schoolfellow who is alluded to in the footnote to 1.549 ; see also l. 62, and the note to l. 549 .

56 (footnote). "Doctor Nico. Melculfe, 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 Northemmen; who being liberallie rewarded in the semice of their Prince, bestowed it as liberallie for the good of their Contrie. Some men thonght therefore, that D. Medcalfe was parciall to Northremmen, but sure I am of this, that Northrenmen were parciall, in doing more good, and geuing 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 ont the art of flying. The famous bishop Wilkims 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 buots. 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 domn'd, occurs in b. i. st. 48. Ilowever, 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. sceítan, to shoot out;" Brockett's Glossary. But the form of the word is rather Scandinavian than Anglo-Saxon ; cf. Icel. skíta, 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 cxample, 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 stele, i. e. render it stale, tell it over again. See note to l. 250.

240 (footnote). "Oh that a man myghte hane the contemplation of hell!" -Latimer, Seven Sermons before Edward VI., ed. Arber, p. 113.

241 (footnote). The quotation is somewhat abridged from Hall's Contemplations, 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." Witc 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 uyte;" Cant. Tales, Group G, 1. 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 pe tre twey mees he sey pat hadde al be rote frete wel ny3; pat o mous was whit, pat oper blak was; Me pinkep bis mon was in a wondir cas."

This again is borrowed from the Latin version of the Gesta Romanormm, c. 168, and has been traced to an Eastern somrce. See the English version of the Gesta, ed. Herrtage, Introd., p. ix.

251 (footnote). The story belongs to the reign, not of Inc, but of Edwin, king of Northmbria. See Beda, Eccles. Ilist. b. ii. c. 13 ; and the version of it in one of Wordsworth's somets. Onr author copies it, as he says, from Camden's Remains, ed. 1657, p. 235; but Camden says Edrim, correctly.

239 (footnote). Of the two quotations here said to be from Chancer, the latter is from his Prologue to the Cant. Tales, 11. 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 1.11 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 compassel."-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 pronom, occurs six times in Shakespeare.
231. 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, suffrum, et pettum sive bumbulum, for daneing, pout-puffing, and doing that before the king of England in Christmas holy-days, which the word pet signifieth in French." Here 'pont-pufting' means ponting and putting out the cheeks, so common an action of the old buffoons. The Latin suffum 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 donlst as to the truth of this strange statement; see my note to P. Plowman, C. xvi. 206 ; Warton, IIist. English Poetry, ed. 1871, iii. 16:2, note 3.

332 . "And whistled as he went, for want of thonght."-Dryden, Cymon, 85 .
404. Compare P. Plowman, C. x. 92-
"Ther is payn and peny-ale as for a pytannce 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 grod pittance, and cold meat and cold fish is in place of roast renison, and, on Fridays and fasting-days, a farthing's worth of musele-fish or as many cockles would be a feast for snch 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. mamm (usually matr), 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] vito the sayd Frenshe Cronycle, \& sonwhat I shall folowe the anctour Gyraldus, the whiche with other, testyfyen, that Lewys, in his returue 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, \& offemle his lawes. And so the kyng put hymselfe to the mercy of God \& receyued helth shortly after."-Fabyan's Chrouicle, ed. Ellis, p. 270.
440. This explanation of heod is wrong. Muidenhear is only another spelling of maidenhood; compare Godheod with munhood. The words are not different, as said in the text, but the same. The explanation of hood is also quite wrong. The suttix -hood is A.S. -hid, 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.
$4 \times 1$. "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 herul could never have meant thou shalt destroy him; because to feed an enemy could in no sense destroy him."-Conybeare and IIowson, 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 hy 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 coftin. Another version of the story is, that he was found to have gnawed off the flesh from his arms;" Euglish Cycloperdia, art. Duns Scotus.
549. "Wim. Preston was educated at IIeversham 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 Juue, 1788, was translated to Ferns and Leighlin. I possess a cony of the engraved portrait of him, and a very amiable-looking man he is. There is a notice of him in Atkinson's Wonthies of Westmoreland." The ahove note was commmicated 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 thauks.

## GLOSSARIAL INDEX.

1 vevture 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. Pemington, 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. Peunington, 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 umnecessary 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, betrow, betsom, cock-a-lioop (given under bolberous in the Glossary), brentrefth, bram-new, brock, bmanel, cakerd, clints, cloys, colby, comy, dulier, Itamut, didder, dubler, ea, elden, fidge, frandish, hagkorm, haiking, hurermeal, hullet, jamnelis, linott, leeml, lound, marrous, maunder, mense, merestone, meterly, nifte, nope, prot, put, rumble-balls and racken-crook, rungs, scarrs, sconce, scout, scroggs, skale, skirl, slench or slinch, sloum or slome, suochisnarles, snow, snotter, speals, spellis, stor, stim; storken, stoter or stotter, swail, swattle, teatn, tent, threap,
tike, warl, whamp, white (to whittle sticks), \&e. 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.

## B

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. 13. 1 .

Butter-flee, butterfly, 77. Butter-Hlee-mad, mad after butterflies.

## C

Cakered, "bound with iron as are clog-shoes," 4. Brockett gives-" Coucker, an iron plate put upon a clog."
Calver, a cow that is not barren, 322.

Chitterwien, 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, proul, 528. Also "in good spirits;" Glos. B. 1 .
Cock-a-hoop, pretentious, vainglorious, 195. "Pobberous, 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; ef. Sc. canny.
Craw, crow, 185.
Croft, a field next the dwellinghouse, 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. tangenichts. 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 Dodled 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.

## 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. Sce Amess in Dickinson's Cumb. Glos.
Er , are, $94,95,320$.

## 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 flushoock 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 Raddleheck.
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, loldfast, a sure possession, 44.
Hullet, owlet, owl, 337.
Hunx, a miser, 129. "Haspin, an hunx;" Glos. B.1. "Humiel, an hunx, or covetous person;" id.

## I

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, recky-peaked hills, 70 .
Kraken, a sea-snake, 99.

## L

Laa, low, 196.
Laad, load, 396.
Laaking, playing, amusing himself, 50.
Lang 0 , along of, owing to, 263.
Lang-settle, long seat, 137. A wooden form with a high baek; "a bench like a settle;" Glos. 13. 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. (Nisspelt whlute ; 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 lomin.)
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. Sce the note.

Mere-stanes, boundary - stones, 307. "Cursed, saith the law, is hee that removeth the landmarke. The mislaier of a meerestone 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, piek 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 .

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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.
0ways, 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, wieked, 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. "Proy, 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-loor, 37.. "Radling, watling;" Glos. B. 1 .

Randletree, a 'randle-bank,' 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-pute, in Halliwell.
Raund, round, 33.
Raund, rown, i. e. whisper, 125.
Raw, row. See Nebber-raw.
Reet, right, 157.
Rhaading, railing, 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 skole in Glos. B. 1.
Scarrs, bare roeks, 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 sile 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 l. 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, $2 \because 6$.
Sennet, week (seven nights), 329 .
Seun, seven o'clock, 329 .
Shaws, copses, woods, $4 \frac{4}{4}$.
Sic, such, 15.
Sidesmen, assistants to churchwardens, 156.
Skirling, shrieking, sereaming, 337.

Slaaworm, slow-worm, 407.
Slinging, slinking, sneaking, 462. See Slench in Glos. B. 1.
Slome, slumber, 150.
Snaw, suow, 17.
Snocksnarles, all of a heap, 366 . Generally used of entangled thread ; see Glos. B. 1 and B. 2.
Snod, smonth, 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 spelicurs.
Sprauting, rebellious, 25. "Sprant, to kick and struggle;" Halliwell.
Squats, sits, 131. See Surut 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.

Starsand garters, an exclamation, 411.

Storkened, lit. stiffened, hence, congealed, 339. See Glos. B. 1.
Stot, young ox, 476 .
Stottered, stumbled, 365.
Swattles, swills, 460. "Sucattle, to guzzle;" Glos. B. 1.
Sweal, flame, blaze, 385. Spelt swaile in Glos. B. 1.

## T

Ta , to, 112 .
Ta, thon, 396, 397.
Taad-poles, talpoles, 90.
Taan, taken, 293.
Tarn, pool, 239.
Tau ; hes tur $=$ hastou $=$ hast thou, 126, 127. See Ta.
Tea, too, 11, 212.
Tearing, tiring, 272. See Teered.
Teata, very, 119. (Teat $=$ tootoo, as in Shakespeare ; see Tootu in Glos. B. 17.)

Teed, tied, 458.
Teered, tired, 104 . See Tearing.
Teers, tires, 78.
Tented (later ed. trmdol), gnarded, tended, 21. "Tent, to watch or guard from doing a thing;" Glos. B. 1.
Testrels (later ed. testrils), worthless fellows, 2!4. See Tuistrel, 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- $\mid$ Woon, (ye) dwell, 488. whertle, 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 .

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; Chancer.
Yule-clog, yule-log, Christmas $\log , 33$.

## 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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Sweet, Henry
A history of English sounds from the earliest period

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The system called Glossotype, illustrated at p. 16 of Mr. Ellis's Early English Prouunciation, may be considered as now cancelled, and superseded by Gilossic.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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? Answernóu.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ I have ventured to substitute "narrow" for Mr. Bell's "primary," as being both shorter and more expressive.

[^3]:    1 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 $\alpha$.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ The not unfrequent change of $t h$ into $f$ is no doubt purely imitative ( $f$ ruu for fruu).

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care. Introd. p. xxiii.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ See my paper on Danish Pronunciation (Trans. Phil. Soc. 1873-4, p. 101).

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland, p. 106.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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: wag, wax, etc.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $u$ in dóouh, fóou( $h$ ), ete., was probably a mere secondary formation, generated by the ghw, the stages being oogh, ooghw, ooughw, and then oouh or simply oou.

[^12]:    

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ I have repeated most of these words again under $\overline{0}$.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ Note, however, that aspen is a dissyllable, with a liquid in the second syllable: but we have after, not after.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the preservation of $\grave{e} \dot{e}$ before $r$ in bèer, etc., see p. 68.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 Anglian forms.
    ${ }^{2}$ Is there an Anglo-Saxon Language? Transactions of the American Philological Association, 1872.

    3 On such one-sided grounds as these it would be easy to prove that Nodern 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:
    " Wieniawski, der Paganinispieler par excellcuce, zeigt sich da, wo er mit

[^17]:    Schwierigkeiten und Effecten à la Paganini spielt, in seinem eigentlichen Elemente; seine Compositionen sind daher für exclusive Virtuosen nicht ohne Interesse. Dieselben wollen mit voilkommenster technischer Freiheit, ubermüthiger Laune und Feuer gespielt sein, vor allen die Variationen Opus 11-echte musikalische Mixpickles."
    "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.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ All this is very ably and fully treated by Dr. Murray in the article, 'English Language,' in the 'Encyclopedia Britannica,' New Ed. 1879.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ At the end of the portion published in 'Blackwood' is 'the conclusion in our next.' The conclusion however never appeared.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ It must be remembered that 'High Dutch' is a very difierent 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 peuple 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 Migh Dutch to me.'

[^21]:    Exeter, January 1\%\%S.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ The poll of thee is a much more derogatory form of speech than 'thy poll.' (See W. S. Gram., p. 13.)
    ${ }^{2}$ 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 $=l o o k$, do you see? (See W. S. G., p. 35.)
    ${ }^{3}$ 'This must be an error of the transcriber acenstomed to the literary style. I never heard a real native say as honest as; it should have been so honest as.
    ${ }^{4}$ 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. 1. 533, writes, 'Ae noper of is oper sons.' At present we should say, nother one of his other sons.
    ${ }^{5}$ This word being emphatic there wonld be a lingering on the final consonant, which would produce quite a distinct syllable, $u h$. This will be found to occur frequently.

    * (Note to Ed. of 17\%S.) Akether! means Qnoth he! or Quoth her!
    + (Note to Ecl. of 17\%8.) Chups or Chucks, the Cheeks.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Literaryism-should be sae. $4 \mathrm{~m}-z$ or eens-as is impossible.
    ${ }^{2}$ 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.'
    ${ }^{3}$ 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.)
    *The $w$ has disappeared, except among the better class--huurts, huur-teen, only are heard among Thomasin's class. Probably the transeriber wrote whorting from literary habit.
    ${ }^{5}$ The present form is laef-anything like the leave in the text is quite obsolete. (See W. S. G., p. 47.)

[^24]:    ${ }^{8}$ 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.
    ${ }^{9}$ Corner is always so pronomed ; so tailor is taayuldur. (See also W. S. G., p. 19.)
    ${ }^{10}$ I'll warrant ye.

    - ${ }^{11}$ Tell is the equivalent of say or talk. A ay yuurd um tuul- een tugredh $u$. 'I heard them talking together.' Doa'un tuul uup zich stuuf', is the usual way of saying, 'don't talk nonsense.' Aay yuurd um tuul aew ree bee givai $\cdot n$ mer' $t$-ae" cu curd weentur. 'I heard them tell (i.e. on dit) how that we are going to have a hard winter.'
    ${ }^{12}$ One while means a very long time.
    ${ }^{13}$ An equally common form still in use is baak-n voarr, both signify backwards, or rather back in front.
    ${ }^{14}$ Cat when emphasised is always kyaat or kyat.
    ${ }^{15}$ Shee $\breve{u} p u d$ would be said at present. I suspect the en of the text is it 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.)
    ${ }^{16}$ 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 Hadlock,' is still the constant simile throughout W. S., used for the superlative absolute of deaf. (See W. S. Gram., p. 22.)
    ${ }^{17}$ Misprint in the text ; avrore in Ed. 1771. See the Glossary. Compare Germ. getroren.
    ${ }^{18}$ Still a common idiom-the out has rather an intensitive force. 'A very small piece' is generally dhu lai'stoes beet aext.
    ${ }^{19}$ Misprint in the text for blenketh. See Glossary.

[^25]:    ${ }^{7}$ The and in rapid speech becomes shortened, and after $p, b, f, v$, is always sounded as $m$, as before noted, l. 120.
    ${ }^{8}$ 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.
    ${ }^{9}$ 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 ha' be' a strat.
    ${ }^{10}$ Tell throughout the dialognes is used for say and talk. See note 11, 1. 116 ; also 1. 137.
    ${ }^{11}$ This whole sentence reads apocryphal-I never heard the word $f i b$ in the dialect, and no one ever heard heartily. Moreover the word hearty would not be used in this sense.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ If this saying was ever common, it is now obsolete. At present this would be expressed thus-Dhu wít tuul luyzzu vaas uz u au's hin gaal'up, 'Thee wilt tell lies as fast as a horse can gallop.'
    ${ }^{2}$ I have made careful enquiry at different times, and from several persons, who know every corner of Exmoor and of the district of Paracombe and Challacombe, but can hear of no such place as Yeoanna Lock. I therefore conclude it to be a fiction.
    ${ }^{3}$ Beshut'n.
    ${ }^{4}$ Now quite obsolete, but it was not uncommon so lately as fifty years ago. Stockings only are now heard of.
    ${ }^{5}$ Head-clathing in Ed. of 1771.
    ${ }^{6}$ This is still a common exclamation-of no particular meaning-like $O h, I$ never! Good gracious! \&c.
    © Joseph Heathfield. (See W. S. Dial., p. 22.) A common name in these parts.
    ${ }^{8}$ The $r$ is always sounded in this word, but the $t$ is dropped in rapid speech when followed ly another $t$.

    * (Note to Ed. of Rirs.) To lie a Rope upright, contains a Pim 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.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ A short syllable is very frequently inserted between two nouns when compounded, as in rimelfalls. My house is called Foxclown, but this is generally pronounced Foxydoun by the labouring people. In Ed. of 1771 this word is windfalls-at present it would be weenvalz, but I have heard ween woadz occasionally. Compare well-a-fine, ll. s1, 178.

    2 The construction of this paragraph, except the literaryisms referred to, is excellent, and conveys an admirable notion of the idion. '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.
    ${ }^{3}$ In West Som. generally it is $d h i \hbar \cdot \bullet$ ée, but in North Devon and Exmoor it is dhel. $\breve{e} c$, as in the text.
    ${ }^{4}$ To when thus used implies employed at or in the act of. Maun aay vuz tu pluween dhikěe vee"ŭl $u$ 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.
    ${ }^{5}$ To drow vore is to twit, to rake up old offences. In the Vale district this is to droar uext. 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 $\check{\text { ülz }}$ dhile tuym. Indeed! who then? Au! aay wuz een tu dhu Kaut eeej (a public-house), un dhae ŭr wuz —un ——; un dhai

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cap is pronounced kep throughout North Devon and the hill comntry of W. Somerset, but not in the Vale district.
    ${ }^{2}$ Here the transcriber tried to convey the elision of the $t$ in to after the $d$ in had by writing a for to.
    ${ }^{3}$ This is too literary. I think it should have been in the text-' Tha hast net agot no stroil.'
    ${ }^{4}$ Cureghtst is a very doubtful word. At present it would be dhu kaechd.
    $\dagger$ (Note to Ed. of 1 Y/S.) Horry-for Hoary, mouldy or finnew'd.-Vid. Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet ; where Mercutio puns upon the Words Hare and Hoar :
    'Mercutio. - So-ho!
    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 its true Meaning here.

[^29]:    ${ }^{8}$ i. e. until thy end, as long as you live. Toar is constantly used in this sense. See note 11, p. 35.
    ${ }^{9}$ Sybly in Ed. of 1771, probably the true reading.
    10 This form is quite obsolete. Now it would be aay bae ount, or more probably cs bae unt. I think chant is an exaggeration of the author, in his desire to bring in the peenliar chas often as possible.
    ${ }^{11} i$. 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 zeondur, 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.
    ${ }^{23} \ldots{ }^{13} \ldots{ }^{13}$ Of is nearly always used after the gernond - these should be tuul een u mee, purn'deen u suaveen.
    ${ }^{14}$ I never yet heard convound, but keten-furond is very common. It is spelt confoumel twice before-ll. 164, 176.
    ${ }^{15}$ Oa u uun $\circ$ lur would be much more correct. The use of of and an are rather "fine" talk. (Sce W. S. Gram., p. 29.)

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ This epithet still common? Is it the parent of trolloper?
    ? Cemuth in Ed. of 1771, but probably a misprint.
    ${ }^{3}$ Them, i. e. prayers. Spelt mua, ll. 224, 266, 268, men twice in 1. 270 , and mim in l. 419. (See W. S. Gram., note 2, p. 37.)
    ${ }^{1}$ Common expression $=$ ' by great chance.'
    ${ }^{5}$ This is a peculiar though frequent use of shall not, and it is equivalent to never will ar never do.
    ${ }^{6}$ i. e. 'though thon canst stoop down very well.' See note S, p. 33.
    ${ }^{7}$ I have no idea what the transcriber meant to be the pronunciation of Hewn; heaven is always $a e b \cdot m$.
    ${ }^{8}$ i. $e$. 'only by saying them '-an example of the common use of the infinitive for the gerund.
    ${ }^{9}$ IIere the transcriber has inserted the usual of after the gerundive (see note $13, \mathrm{p} .51$ ), but he onits the prefix. It should be u-shruub:cen $u$.
    ${ }^{10}$ I cannot explain this phrase ; it is quite obsolete and unknown, so far as I can ascertain.
    ${ }^{11}$ In the Ed. of 1778 , now reprinted, there is a clear misprint, aet uel et ; in that of 1771 it is et ovel zet. This is so evidently the true reading that it is adopted here.
    ${ }^{12}$ i. e. 'all across.' The simile is cumbrous, but therefore the more true.

    * (Note to Ecl. of 17\%S.) Sce Note in Pige 13.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Then is as common in every-day taik as doch is in German. The expressions are the exact equivalents of each other.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is simply the emphasised redundant preposition, = for why for, quite distinct from the voar in droa voar just below, II. 2S6, 309 ; the latter is an adverb. See note to I. 184.
    ${ }^{3}$ The use of one as a pronom is rare. The usual expression is ancee baude้e. (See W. S. Gram., pp. 3S, 39.)
    ${ }^{4}$ Rush-bush is still so pronounced except when a $v$ is sounded-the common form-as vraeks-beosh. (See W. S. Gram., p. 7.)
    ${ }^{5}$ This should have been Un vur waay voar. See note to ll. 184, 283.
    ${ }^{6}$ This would now be broad paa'y. I fancy Miss Thomasin must have been talking 'fine' if she said peci.
    ${ }^{7}$ This is obscure. I think it means there's your change !-there's a Rowland for an Oliver.
    ${ }^{8}$ Might, spelt merst, l. 10. Obsolescent, but still used.
    ${ }^{9}$ Time is much too literary. She would have said 'in a little bit,' but more probally ' a hozed in a quick stick.'
    ${ }^{10}$ Nevertheless-a very common phrase.
    ${ }^{11}$ Before folk, i. e. in the presence of strangers-still the regular idiom.
    ${ }^{12} i$. e. 'make believe,' 'in pretence'-an every-day phrase.

[^32]:    * This forest is in Somersetshire, and is called Exmoor from the river Ex having there its rise.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ I never heard thate-the thet of the original note is more like the present form. (See W.S. Gram., p. 32.) In First E. . it is thek, clearly an error of the original author. See letter of 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.
    ${ }^{2}$ In Editions I. to IV. we find and eet es believe, de. This pronunciation of yet is the only correct one. I camot account for the insertion of the $y$ in the text, except that it is found and sounded in the literary yet. See note to l. $110, \mathrm{p} .36$.
    ${ }^{3}$ 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 dwhich cannot be uttered without the $y$ sound.
    ${ }^{4}$ In the first four editions, both es-s in this line are written ces, a form which is still common in interrogative sentences. (See W. S. Gram., p. 34.)
    ${ }^{5}$ I an confirmed in the conclusion expressed in Note 2, by the transcriber's writing $y e$ with a $y$ which is never sounded-aew $b$-ee? 'how ye be?' d-ce chaengkt-l oall tùe u vrau's? 'do you think it will hold to a frost?' (very common idiom); you in l. 333 is spelt ee in ist ed.
    ${ }^{6}$ In the early editions this word is written scorst-which still represents the sound more nearly than the text.

    7 A quasi oath, still heard occasionally, but I cannot interpret it.
    ${ }^{8}$ IIere the transcriber denotes the 2ud pers. pl. by simple $y$-pronounced precisely the same as when spelt $y e$, as above in $1.32 s$.
    ${ }^{0}-{ }^{9}$ In many words ending in ught this $r$ is inserted, as in nort, 1. 329 ; ort, 1. 167 ; brort $=$ brought ; bort $=$ bought ; cort, l. 359 .

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is clearly an error-it could not have been es chant, but the common shant for shall not.
    ${ }^{2}$ This $a n$ is a literaryism. (See W. S. Gram., p. 29.)
    ${ }^{3}$ Good now is a very common phrase, but I never heard good suceet now I
    ${ }^{4}$ This is quite obscure.
    ${ }^{6}$ Another literaryism--the double negative, u Liaan a zai noa; 'he can't say no' would be the true idiom.
    ${ }^{6}$ This $b y$ 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, la cant sey nothing by ma. The word is used here precisely in the same sense as--'I know nothing by myself.'-l Cor. iv. 4.
    ${ }^{7}$ No matter-impossible for a native-no odds would have been the expression.
    ${ }^{8}$ rum is always uurn, the true descendant of the O.E.
    ${ }^{9} r$ followed by a short $u$ or short $i$ always changes places, as buursh, búrj (bridge), turch (rich).
    ${ }_{10}$ 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 Elitions it is loose.
    ${ }^{11}$ 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.

    * (Note to Ed. of 17Y8.) Tho or Thoa is used for Then when spoken of Time pas'; but Than when referred to Time future. (See I. 360.)

[^35]:    ${ }^{2}$ In North Devon, the district here named, a good deal of the land was. until very recently, held upon leases for lives, renewable upon payment of fines and duit 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 Ecelesiastical Commissionersthe great reversioners of these lands-are refusing to continue the system.
    ${ }^{16}$ This would be somebody, not one.
    ${ }^{11}$ Serve is always saar, not zar. See 'Devoniensis', p. 64.
    ${ }^{12}$ - ${ }^{12}$ So servant is never zarrant. See 'Devoniensis,' p. 64.
    ${ }^{13}$ - ${ }^{13} B y$ is used when what is said of a person is derogatory. Natives would never think of speaking well by a person ; they always speak well of him. See p. 80, Note 6, also W. S. Gram., p. 89.
    ${ }^{1 t}$ As here is a literaryism-it should be sae üm-z (same as) or eens. (See W. S. Gram., p. 66, Note 1.)
    ${ }_{15}$ This would now be nuudh ur.
    ${ }^{16}$ In a coaxing, persuasive sentence, a native would never use the 2nd pers. sing. except to a child. He would invariably use theplural. (See W.S. Gram.,p.35.)

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here too he would say yùe•nt or ee-čl. Thee wilt is most improbable ; it is slightly hectoring and not in the least persuasive.
    ${ }^{2}$ The foregoing remarks apply equally to thy. It should be yorcŭr.
    ${ }^{3}$ I never heard wor-it is always vouth or wuth.
    ${ }^{4}$ i.e. 'twenty nobles and a purse to put them in.' (See W. S. Gram., p. 37.) Very common phrase, in speaking of value.
    ${ }_{5}$ Chant is a misprint or mistake.
    ${ }^{6}$ 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.
    : Pray in this sense is bookish, not dialect. A native would say Prudl $\cdot \mathrm{e}$ e, i.e. prithee. See l. 261.
    ${ }^{8}$ Sit is spelt zet elsewhere. Here in rapid speech the $t$ final and $d$ initial become one, and the whole becomes one word $z$ fl-duewn.
    ${ }^{9}$ 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' oleas, but these pursuits are contrasted with rearting the Peels, which conveys the impression, through the

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is quite a literaryism. It would be lig $u$ guurt, \&c., 'like a great.'
    ${ }^{3}$ Foul is not a West Country word-it is Lancashire in this seuse. Here it should read gurt ugly thing. (See W. S. Gram., p. 102.)
    ${ }^{4}$ An $r$ is sounded in most words in ash, as aarsh = ash ; smaarsh, laarsh, waursh. Comp. vort, thort, \&c., of the text, I. 334 ; flash too is not sounded vlash, but the $f$ is quite sharp-vlaarsh is flesh. (See W. S. Dial., p. 71.)

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is evidently a misprint. Margery could not have believed thy Bams, i.e. her sister's would go in. In the early Editions of 1746 it is tha Banes.
    $z^{2}{ }^{2}$ This short somed- $a$ 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.
    ${ }^{3}$ To is used for at. (See W. S. Gram., p. 89.) Also Devoniensis, p. 64.
    ${ }^{4}-{ }^{4}$ Here es, which ustally stands for as or $I$, means he is.
    5—5_5 Fellow is generally fuul wr, a word in very common use-this sharp pronumciation of the $f$ distinguishes fellow from felloe or felly, which is always pronounced veul $\cdot \boldsymbol{r}$.
    ${ }^{6}$ i. e. Whipper-snapper, a nobody.
    7 This is not dialect, but the epithet is probable.
    8 This would certainly now be-u mud tak: he might take, \&c.
    ${ }^{9}$ Meech and meecher are still very common terms for sneak-skulk-and the word is also ohl-

[^39]:    ${ }^{7}$ England is always so pronounced, never as in received speech with two $g s$ $=$ Inyjglund.
    ${ }^{8}$ In the first four editions Margery adds here, 'No more chon't-vor ort's know.'
    ${ }^{9}$ Thomasin, with its diminutive Tamsy, pronounced J'aan zeen, Taam'zĕe, was a very common name, but is becoming rarer.
    ${ }^{10}$ This form is rare now, but I have heard it. Tail, like plain, is sounded much broader, tau'yul.
    ${ }^{11}$ This epithet is always in the plural, and it is so given elsewhere, 1. 118.
    ${ }^{12}$ This is very emphatic, hence the aspirate and the drawling out of uur, the usual she, in to hae "urr.
    ${ }^{13}$ Mave. (See W. S. Gram., p. 96.)
    ${ }^{14}$ 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.
    ${ }^{15}$ Always $u$-tèolit. (See W. S. Gram., p. 48.) See also 'Nathan IIogs.'

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Soul is always pronounced with sharp $s$. A zoa $\cdot l$ is a plough, and natives never make mistakes in names. See Devoniensis, p. 64 ; also note, l. 297.
    ${ }^{2}$ After $p, b, f, v$, the $n$ changes to $m$. (See W. S. Gram., p. 65.)
    ${ }^{3}$ Not a dialectal word.
    4 See l. l ('Scolding').
    ${ }^{5}$ This is a very common phrase, but the it is usnally omitted. Bi aewo tuitl, spoken almost like one word, is the precise equivalent of the Cockney anyhow.
    ${ }^{6}$ This is possible, but most improbable. It would now be hout d-aay kee• ${ }^{\text {err }}$ ? or haut audz uz ut tu mee? This is the first appearance of $I$ in either Scolding ' or 'Courtship.'
    ${ }^{7}$ In salutations and farewells it is most usual to add t-ee $=$ to yon.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ In this form the first person "singular is still very often as in the text. Nuew mus ees mak uayz would be the common idiom at present. It is written ees in first ed.
    ${ }^{2}$ Chuur must be a misprint. It is spelt chawr on the last page $=I$ were, and also spelt chawr in first ed.
    ${ }^{3}$ This is usually dhee:z in North Dev., dhee $\cdot \mathrm{u} z$ in West Somerset.
    ${ }^{4}$ I think this must have heen intended for bit, staap $u$ beet is so very common a phrase, and more in harmony with the context.
    ${ }^{5} \mathrm{Her}$ is here emphatic.
    ${ }^{6}$ Meet is pronounced very short, also sweet, feet, keep, \&c. The fine it in pit, knit, \&c., of receivel Eng. exactly represents the sound.
    ${ }^{7}$ Spoken rapidly, the $s$ before $z$ is lost. See numerous instances in W. S. Gram., also see l. 597.
    ${ }^{8}$ This would be far more commonly ùnee bau•děe than u bau'děe.
    ${ }^{9}$ I never heard this word in the dialect. It might be used, but if so the $f$ in farour would be pronounced sharp.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ i. e. 'You will not have the face,' \&c.
    ${ }^{2} 2$ The first where art has the accent on the verb, the second on the adverb.
    ${ }^{3}$ One of the commonest sayings in the dialect.
    ${ }^{4}$ This ought to be singy in the text, as much as capery.
    ${ }^{5}$ Common phrase $=i n$ spite of thee or notwithstanding thee.
    ${ }^{6}$ This phrase, very common in the district, is the equivalent of the housomever of other dialects, and of nevertheless of lit. Eng.
    ${ }^{7}$ I think Zort! is a common quasi-oath like Zounds! and not as given in the Glossary.

[^43]:    1 The author himself, writing at 'Yuletide, 1784,' says he has 'tented his flock' for 'aboon twenty-four years'; see 1. 20. The explanation is, that he was already curate of Beetham in $\mathbf{1 7 6 0}$.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ On a fly-leaf at the beginning is printed a second title, containing only the words-

    > a plain address, written in the provincial dialeot, of tiie
    > 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 Montesquien ; 'the ill grounded objections of many spring from their own heads, not from what I have written.' Wm. de Worfat, Sept. 12th, 1785."

[^45]:    $\ddagger$ In an old translation the song of Solomon is called the ballad of ballads.
    ${ }^{1}$ Names of oh comntry dances.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^47]:    ' The kraken is an enormons sea animal of a crablike form, found near the coast of Norucy. 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 comntry 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.
    ${ }^{2}$ Strong agitation.
    ${ }^{3}$ The wretch I am speaking of, never thinks he has grist enough at his mill.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ I love to hear myself say, The Lord be with you, and my neighbours answer, And with thy spirit.
    ${ }^{2}$ From Nikur an idol worshipp'd by the northern nations.
    ${ }^{3}$ 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 yon have done, I'll begin. Another time the people being in a hurry to get their hats ready for going ont, 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 langh at that if yon please. At Kendal church, hearing some officers talking alond, he stopped, When you have done I'll go on.
    "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.
    ${ }^{5}$ Chillingworth speaks of this curst cow ; he was her great enemy, and baited her purely.

[^49]:    1 "Dause thyself in jordan seven times, the leprosy of $\sin$ will not off." Archdeacon Nicholson of Brecon.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 monnt trembling. If such were the proclamation of God's statutes, what shall the sessions be ?"
    ${ }^{2}$ White. This local word signifying the mark at which an arrow is shot, may not the sense here, nouyht to blame, be borrowed from thence.
    ${ }^{3}$ 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 Bubbington 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 monse nibbles o the lang day, the black an o the neet; who can tell how far these two mice have eaten through lim?" His lordship I must confess, does not edify me very much.

    - I am better pleased with the speech of one of the courtiers of Ina King of Northumberlund, 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 ns not only what shall become of us but also how we may obtain everlasting life."

    This is a translation by the great Camden in his remains, from venerable Bedu.

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Esaiuh 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
    "Braade words er good, whilst good folks use them They er only bad, when bad folks abnse them,"
    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 ber 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 male 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 homan 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 clescriptions 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 forlon and abject condition. Figures these, which if considered only in themselves, seem orlious and disgusting, but which, when they are traced to their sacred source, will appear to be full of energy and dignity."

    2 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 Becon?

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ This simile I have from Archdeacon Nicholson of Drecon. I believe he had it from St. Chrysostom.
    ${ }^{2}$ At $S_{p}$ oarte robbing made a part of the education of their youth.
    3 "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 ; sic folks can speak soa finely that a man would think butter would scant melt in their months." 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!
    ${ }^{4}$ A week or seven nights, so fortnight, fourteen nights.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ A professor of Aberdeen about 1660, gives a cantion, lest teachers in driving their flocks to green meadows, should overdrive them. Not a bad hint to some at this day.

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mense from mensa, a table, alluding to the tables in the old monasteries spread for the poor.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sir Thomas More uses this expression.
    ${ }^{3}$ Dr. Stanhope.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ A king of France more averse to fornication than Solomon, once travelled into the Holy-Land, and was long absent; lnt 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.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Deuteronomy xii, 20, 21.
    ${ }^{3}$ 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 formication; one of them thus, "The body is the temple of the Holy Gost, these swine malie it the devil's stye." How strangely do old divines paint the devil. The translator of Luther to the Gallutians 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.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 humdred 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."

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ Since writing the above, my school-follow, formerly of Mincaster, is made an Irish bishop. I therefore should have named him in the prologue.

