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## SHORT HISTORICAL

ENGLISH GRAMMAR
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## SHORT HISTORICAL

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

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'A New English Grammar'
'A Primer of Phonetics,' 'Shelley's Nature-Poctry,' etc.

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## PREFACE

For some years the want has been felt of a short historical English grammar up to date, especially as regards phonology, dialectology and chronology, the last implying careful discrimination between what is really in living use and what is obsolete. The present work is an attempt to supply this want. It is an abridgment of the historical portions of my New English Grammar. It does not include syntax, for the good reason that a grammar which attempted to deal-even if only superficially-with such a vast and difficult subject as historical English syntax could not possibly be designated as a 'short' grammar. But within the limits of phonology and accidence, including composition and derivation, it will, I hope, be found to contain all that is really essential to the beginner.

Some teachers will be disappointed at not finding here any exposition of that time-honoured generalization 'Grimm's Law,' and the still more popular ' Verner's Law.' I have for the present excluded them, because they do not belong to historical English grammar, but to comparative Arian philology ; because, if studied adequately, they are too difficult for beginners; and because, without a detailed knowledge of

Sanskrit, \&c., they are of little use for etymological purposes. But although most of those who have kept pace with the recent developments of Comparative Philology admit all this, some of them still plead for the retention of Grimm's Law on the ground of its being so interesting, and having such a stimulating effect on pupils. The answer to this is, By all means teach it then, but teach it as an extra, not as a part of English grammar, any more than you would include French, Latin, and Greek etymology in English grammar ; although, of course, English grammar undoubtedly leads up to all these subjects, and is more or less directly connected with them, in the same way as it is connected with the political, social, and literary history of England.

The study of this grammar requires no preparation except a knowledge of the ordinary grammatical terms. It does not even postulate any practical knowledge of Old English, although I should advise every teacher of historical English grammar to let his pupils go through a preparatory course in Old English with the help of such a book as my AngloSaxon Primer.
. Additional grammatical details and illustrations that may be required will easily be found in The New English Grammar and my History of English Sounds, in which latter will be found a concise statement not only of Grimm's and Verner's laws but also of all the other sound-laws by which English is connected with the older Arian languages.

## HENRY SWEET.

South Park, Reigate, 7 Sept., 1892.

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## SHORT HISTORICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

## HISTORY OF ENGLISH.

## Periods.

1. The name 'English language' in its widest sense comprehends the language of the English people from their first settlement in Britain to the present time. For the sake of convenience we distinguish three main stages in the history of the language, namely Old English (OE), Middle English (ME), and Modern English (MnE). OE may be defined as the period of full endings (mōna, sunne, sunu, stänas), ME as the period of levelled endings (mōne, sunne, sune, stōnes), MnE as the period of lost endings (moon, sun, son, stones $=$ stounz). We further distinguish periods of transition between these main stages, each of which latter is further divided into an early and a late period. The dates of these periods are, roughly, as follows :-

| ed) | 700-900 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Late Old English (E. of Ælfric) | 900 |
| Transition Old English (E. of Layamon) | 1100-1200 |
| Early Middle English (E. of the Ancren Riwle) | 1200-1 |
| Late Middle English (E. of Chaucer) | 130 |
| Transition Middle English (Caxton E.) | 1400-1 |
| Early Modern English(TudorE.; E. of Shakespere) | 1500-16 |
| Late Modern English | 1650 |

to which may be added Present English, by which we understand the English of the present time as spoken, written, and understood by educated people, that is, roughly speaking, 19th-century English.

## Cognate Languages.

2. English belongs to the Arian family of languages, descended from a hypothetical Parent Arian language, the chief of which are given in the following table, different periods of their development being separated by dashes:-
(A) Fast-Arian, or Asiatic:
(a) Sanskrit, the sacred language of India-Pali-Bengali and the other Gaurian languages of India.
(b) Iranian languages: Zend or Old Bactrian. Old Persian, which is the language of the Cuneiform inscriptions -Modern Persian.
(c) Armenian, which is really half-way between East- and West-Arian.
(B) West-Arian or European:
(d) Greek-Romaic or Modern Greek.
(e) Latin-the Romance languages: Italian, Provençal, French (Old French, Modern French), Spanish, Portuguese, Roumanian.
$(f)$ Celtic languages. Gaulish. The Goidelic group: Irish, Manx, Gaelic. The Cymric group: Welsh, Cornish, Breton (introduced from Britain).
(g) Slavonic languages. Old Bulgarian - Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Servian, Bulgarian.
(h) Baltic languages. Lithuanian, Lettish.
(i) Germanic languages.
3. The Germanic group, to which English belongs, consists of the following languages :-
(A) East-Germanic :
(a) Gothic.
(b) Scandinavian languages. West-Scandinavian group: Norwegian, Icelandic. East-Scandinavian group: Danish, Swedish.
(B) West-Germanic :
(c) Low German languages. Old Saxon-Dutch,Flemish. Anglo-Frisian group: English, Frisian.
(d) High German, or German.
4. English is then a member of the Anglo-Frisian group of the Low German languages.

## Old English.

5. In the fifth century-or perhaps earlier-Britain was partially conquered by a variety of Germanic tribes from the other side of the German Ocean, the chief of which were
(a) Saxons, from the country between the Elbe and the Rhine.
(b) Angles, from the district still called Angeln in the South of Schleswig.
(c) Jutes, from the North of Schleswig.
6. The first settlement is said to have been that of the Jutes, who took Kent and the Isle of Wight.
7. The Saxons occupied the country south of the Thames; except Cornwall, where the Britons still kept their nationality. Some of the Saxons settled in Sussex; some north of the Thames in Middlesex and Essex ; the remaining portion of the tribe being called 'West-Saxons,' whence their state is called 'Wessex.'
8. The rest of England was occupied by the Angles. Suffolk and Norfolk were included under the name of
'East-Anglia.' Another tribe of Anglians occupied what are now the Midland Counties, between the Thames and the Humber. These were called Mercians, and their country is called 'Mercia.' The country north of the Humber was occupied by a variety of Anglian tribes included under the name of Northumbrians. Ancient Northumbria extended up to the Firth of Forth, and thus included the greater part of what is now the Lowlands of Scotland.
9. All these tribes spoke the same language with slight differences of dialect. These differences increased by degrees, so that already in the 8th century we can distinguish four main dialects: Northumbrian and Mercian, which together constitute the Anglian group; and West-Saxon and Kentish, which together constitute the Southern group.
10. All these tribes agreed in calling their common language English, that is, 'Anglish,' because the Angles were for a long time the dominant tribe. The supremacy afterwards passed to the West-Saxons, and their capital, Winchester, became the capital of England; and West-Saxon became the official and, to a great extent, the literary language all over England. The West-Saxons still continued to call their language English, the name 'Anglo-Saxon' being used only as a collective name for the people, not the language.
11. In this book OE words are always given-unless the contrary is stated-in their Early West-Saxon forms; that is, in the dialect of King Alfred.

## Characteristics of Old English.

12. The characteristics of OE are those of the other Low German languages. It was, as compared with MnE, a highly inflected language, being in this respect intermediate between

Latin and Modern German. In its syntax it closely resembled Modern German. It also resembled Modern German in having an unlimited power of forming new words by derivation and composition, as when it made Scribes and Pharisees into 'bookers and separation-saints' (OE bōceras and sundorhälgan).

## Latin Influence.

13. Nevertheless it adopted many Latin words, some of which it brought with it from the Continent, such as strāt ' high road,' ' street,' mīl ' mile,' cāsere 'emperor' from Latin (via) sträta, mīlia (passuum), Caesar; while others were learnt from the Romanized Britons, such as ceaster 'city,' laden 'language' from castra, (lingva) Latina. These are all popular words. There is another layer of learned words which came in after the introduction of Christianity in 597. Such words are dëofol 'devil,' mynster 'monastery,' fers ' verse,' from diabolus, monasterium, versus.

## Celtic Influence.

14. Very few Celtic words came into OE, because the Britons themselves were to a great extent Romanized, especially the inhabitants of the cities, who were mainly the dessendants of the Roman legionary soldiers. $d r \bar{y}$ 'druid,' 'sorcerer' is an example of a Celtic word in OE.

## Scandinavian Influence.

15. Towards the end of the 8th century Scandinavian pirates-chiefly from Norway, but also from Denmark, all being indiscriminately called 'Danes' by the Anglo-Saxonsbegan to harass the coasts of England. By the end of the next century they had conquered and settled East-Anglia (in

870 ), Mercia (in 874), and Northumbria (in 876); although in the next century they were forced to acknowledge the supremacy of the West-Saxon kings. In ior 6 the whole of England was conquered by the Danes, and England was ruled by Danish kings till 1042, when the Anglo-Saxon royal line was restored in the person of Edward the Confessor.
16. It is not till the close of the OE period that Scandinavian words appear. Even Late Northumbrian (of about 970 ) is entirely free from Scandinavian influence.

## French Influence.

17. With the accession of Edward the Confessor in 1042 Norman influence begins; and in 1066 the battle of Hastings made the Norman duke William king of England, although the actual conquest was not completed till ro7r.
18. The Normans were Scandinavian by race, but their language was a dialect of Old French.
19. The influence of Norman French on OE was of course even slighter than that of Scandinavian, so that it does not become a factor of importance till the ME period. Nevertheless several French words passed into literary OE even before the Conquest, such as castel 'castle,' capūn 'fowl.'

## Middle English.

20. In its Middle period English went through much the same changes as the other Germanic languages, though at a quicker rate. Many of the sounds were changed, most of the old inflections were lost, their place being supplied by form-words-prepositions, auxiliary verbs, etc.-and many words became obsolete.

## Dialects of Middle English.

21. The Norman Conquest, by depriving the old WestSaxon of its literary and political supremacy, gave free play to the development of the dialects. Although the ME dialects are continuations of the OE ones, it is convenient to call most of them by different names. The main divisions are Northern, corresponding to the Old Northumbrian, Midland, corresponding to the Old Mercian, Southern, corresponding to the old West-Saxon, and Kentish. We include the first two under the term 'North-Thames English,' the last two under 'South-Thames English.'
22. Of these dialects the Midland was the predominating one. Its commanding position in the heart of England enabled it to exercise a direct influence on all the other dialects, while Southern and Northern were completely cut off from one another. Hence even the earliest Southern of about 1200 shows considerable influence of the Midland-or Old Mercian-dialect.
23. It is to be observed that the changes which distinguish one period of English from another went on much faster in the North of England than in the South. In fact, the Old Northumbrian dialect of the roth century had already entered on its transition period-characterized by a general confusion in the use of inflections, and was thus almost on a level with the Early Southern Middle English of about 1200. Again, the Northern dialect in its Early Middle period had got rid of nearly all the inflections that are not preserved in MnE , being thus several centuries ahead of the South-Thames dialects. The Midland dialects were more conservative than the Northern, though less so than the South-Thames dialects. It will be seen, then, that the criteria of full, levelled, and
lost endings by which we distinguish the periods of English (1) apply only to the South-Thames dialects.

## Struggle between French and English.

24. For a long time the two languages, French and English, kept almost entirely apart. The English of 1200 is almost as free from French words as the English of 1050 ; and it was not till after 1300 that French words began to be adopted wholesale into English.
25. Meanwhile English was steadily gaining the upper hand. In ${ }_{1258}$ we find it officially employed in the Proclamation of Henry III. In the next century French gradually fell into disuse even among the aristocracy. In 1362 English was introduced in the courts of law instead of French. About the same time English took the place of French as the vehicle of instruction in schools.

## Rise of the London Dialect.

26. In the ME period the dialects had diverged so much that speakers of the extreme Northern and extreme Southern dialects were no longer able to understand one another, and the need of a common dialect became pressing. Such a common dialect can be formed only in a centre of intercourse where speakers from all parts of the country meet constantly. Such a centre was London, which now was not only the capital of England, but also a place of great and growing commercial importance.
27. The London dialect, as we find it in its earliest document, the Proclamation of Henry III, shows such a mixture of Midland and Southern forms as we might expect from its position on the border-line between these two
dialects. The Midland dialect was intermediate between the two extremes, Northern.and Southern, not only geographically but also linguistically; so that speakers of Midland could understand both Northern and Southern much better than Northerners and Southerners could understand one another. Hence the Midland element in the London dialect made the latter peculiarly fitted to serve as a means of general communication. Hence also the Midland element in the London dialect became stronger and stronger in the course of the ME period, till at last even Northern forms passed into it through the medium of the Midland dialect, while Southern influence became weaker and weaker.

## Scandinaitian Influence.

28. Although the Norwegians and Danes spoke different dialects, the difference between these dialects was very slight. The Scandinavian words imported into English seem to be mostly Danish. Although the Scandinavian dialects were not intelligible to the Anglo-Saxons, yet the cognate languages English and Scandinavian were so similar in structure and had so many words in common, that the languages blended together with the same facility as the races that spoke them. English got the upper hand, but Scandinavian nevertheless left its mark on every English dialect, especially the EastMidland and Northern dialects, where the population was half Scandinavian. Ill, fro in 'to and fro,' bound in 'bound for a place,' are examples of Scandinavian words in English (Icelandic ill-r ' bad,' frā ' from,' büinn 'ready').

## French Influence.

29. The Norman French introduced into England was not a uniform dialect, but was itself split up into local
varieties or sub-dialects, which in the Norman spoken in England-the 'Anglo-Norman' or 'Anglo-French' language -were mixed together indiscriminately. The loss of Normandy in 1204 put an end to the influence of Continental Norman; and henceforth. Anglo-French was influenced only by the literary French of Paris, this Parisian French having the same predominance among the French dialects as London English had among the English dialects. At the time when the influence of Anglo-French on English begins to be important-that is, in the late ME period-it was, therefore, a mixture of Old French of different periods and different dialects, modified by changes of its own, and also by the influence of English itself, especially in its pronunciation.
30. French influence on English is most marked in the vocabulary. Soon after the Conquest English ceased for several centuries to be the language of the higher purposes of life, and sank almost to a mere peasant's dialect. So when English came again into general use, it had lost a great part of its higher vocabulary, for which it had to use French words, such as sir, duke; captain, army, battle; sermon, preach. Even when the English word was kept, the same idea was often expressed by a French word, whence numerous synonyms such as work and labour, weak and feeble.

## Latin Influence.

31. In Old French itself we must distinguish between popular and learned words. The popular words in Old French, such as sire 'lord,' from Latin senior 'older,' are simply Latin words which have undergone those changes which take place in every language whose development is natural and unimpeded. But as Latin was kept up as an
independent language throughout the Middle Ages, Latin words were imported into Old French as well as the other Romance languages, being used first in books, then in ordinary speech. These learned words were kept as much as possible unchanged, being pronounced as they were written. It often happened that a Latin word which had assumed a popular form in French, was re-imported direct from Latin, so that chronological doublets were formed, such as caitif 'wretched' and captif, both from Latin captivus, whence the English caitiff and captive.
32. These learned French words were introduced into ME in great numbers. Hence when Latin words came to be imported directly into English, they were put into a French shape on the analogy of those Latin words which had really been brought in through French. Thus when a word in -tio, such as nöminātiō, was taken direct from Latin, it was made into -tion ( MnE nomination) on the analogy of the older importations, such as nation (ME näcioun).

## Modern English.

33. In the Middle period literary English was still distinctly an inflectional language. In the Modern period it became mainly uninflectional, with only scanty remains of the older inflections.
34. The Modern period is that of the complete ascendency of the London dialect, which henceforth is the only one used in writing throughout England. Henceforth the other dialects of England continued to exist only as illiterate forms of speech confined within narrow areas.
35. The spread of Modern London English-or 'Standard English,' as we may now call it -was greatly aided by
the introduction of printing in 1476. The publication of Tindal's translation of the New Testament in $\mathbf{I}_{525}$ paved the way for the Authorized Version of 1611, which made Early Modern London English what it has ever since beenthe sacred or liturgical language of the whole English-speaking race.

## Influence of other Languages.

36. In the Early Modern period, the Renascence-the revival of the study of the classical authors of Greece and Rome-led to the adoption of an immense number of Greek as well as Latin words, the Greek words being generally Latinized, just as the Latin words imported into Middle English were Frenchified.
37. As the first prose writings were mostly either translations from Latin, or else the work of scholars to whom Latin was in some respects a more natural means of expression than English, it was inevitable that Early MnE prose was greatly influenced by Latin, not only in vocabulary, but also in grammatical structure and idioms. In a few generations many Latin-and some Greek-words and expressions which were at first purely learned and technical passed into the language of everyday life; while, on the other hand, many others became obsolete.
38. As the relations of England with other countries became more extended, many words were imported into English from almost every European language, especially Dutch, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, and from many other languages besides, such as Arabic, Persian, and Turkish, and the native languages of America.
39. Standard English has always been influenced by the different English dialects. The literary revival of Broad

Scotch—which is really Modern Northumbrian-at the end of the last century by Scott and Burns has introduced many Scotch words into literary English.

Periods.
40. The main general difference between Early and Late MnE is that the former is the period of experiment and comparative licence both in the importation and in the formation of new words, idioms, and grammatical constructions. The Late MnE period is, on the other hand, one of selection and organization. The most marked differences in detail are the great sound-changes undergone by the spoken languagechanges which have been completely disguised by the fixity of the orthography.

## PHONOLOGY.

## PHONETICS.

41. Phonetics is the science of speech-sounds.
42. As the ordinary spelling does not always show the real pronunciation, it is necessary to use a phonetic spelling, which, to prevent confusion, we enclose in ().

## Analysis.

43. The foundation of speech-sounds is breath expelled from the lungs, and variously modified by the vocal organsthroat, nose, mouth, lips.

## Throat-sounds: Breath and Voice.

44. The first modification the breath undergoes is in the throat. If the vocal chords, which are stretched across the inside of the throat, are kept apart so that the air can pass through with but little hindrance, we have breath, as in ordinary breathing or sighing, and in the consonant (h), as in high. If the chords are brought together so as to vibrate, we have voice, as in murmuring or in the word err.

Nasal Sounds.
45. If the passage into the nose is left open, we have a nasal sound, such as ( m ) in am. In the formation of all
sounds that are not nasal, such as the (b) in amber, the nose-passage is closed.

## Consonants.

48. If the mouth-passage is narrowed so as to cause audible friction-that is, a hissing or buzzing sound-or if it is completely stopped, a consonant is produced.

## Vowels.

47. If the mouth-passage is left so open as not to cause audible friction, and voiced breath is sent through it, we have a vowel. Every alteration in the shape of the mouth produces a different vowel.

## Vowel-like Consonants.

48. Some consonants have hardly any friction when voiced, and are called vowel-like consonants. Such consonants are (1), as in little (litl), and (m).

## Synthesis.

49. We have now to consider the synthesis of sounds, that is, the different ways in which they are joined together in speech.

## Quantity.

50. By quantity, sounds are distinguished as long, halflong or medium, and short, 'long' being often used to include half-long as well. In phonetic notation long and half-long vowels are doubled, short vowels being written single, as in (məəmə) murmur. The length of consonants is only occasionally marked by doubling.

## Stress.

51. There are three main degrees of stress or loudness: strong, half-strong or medium, and weak. Thus in contradict the last syllable is strong, the first half-strong, the next weak. We mark strong stress by ( $\cdot$ ), half-strong by (:), these marks being put before the sound on which the stressed syllable begins, weak or unstressed syllables being left unmarked : (:kontrə dikt). Weak. stress is marked when necessary by prefixing (-), as in (-it reinz) ' it rains.'
52. Sounds which occur only in unstressed syllables, such as the short (ə) in (məəmə) murmur, are called weak.

## Intonation.

53. Intonation or tone is either level, rising, or falling, marked respectively ( ${ }^{-}, ', '$ ). The level tone is not much used in speech. The rising tone is heard in questions, such as what ${ }^{\prime}$, the falling in answers such as no'.

## Glides.

54. Glides are sounds produced during the transition from one sound to another. Thus in (kii) key we have the glide from the (k)-position to the (ii)-position, which does not, however, require to be written, as it is implied by the position of (k) and (ii).
55. Consonants are often joined together without any glide, not only in such combinations as (nd) in hand, where the ( d ) is formed by continuing the ( n ), the nose-passage being closed at the same time, but also in such words as the English act (ækt).

## Syliables.

56. A syllable is a vowel, either alone or in combination with consonants, uttered with a single impulse of stress.

Every fresh impulse of stress makes a new syllable, the beginning of the syllable corresponding with the beginning of the stress. Thus (atæk) attack has two syllables, the first syllable consisting of the vowel ( $\partial$ ) uttered with weak stress, the second of (tæk) uttered with a new impulse of stress beginning on the ( t ). Vowel-like consonants often form syllables in the same way as vowels, as in battle $=$ (bæt-l).

## Diphthongs.

57. If two vowels are uttered with one impulse of stress, so as to form a single syllable, the combination is called a diphthong, such as (oi) in oil. Most diphthongs have the stress on the first element. A simple long vowel, such as (әә), is called a monophthong.

We now have to consider sounds more in detail.

## Vowels.

58. As every alteration in the shape of the mouth produces a different vowel, the number of vowels is infinite. Hence what we call the vowels, (a), (i) etc., are really groups of an indefinite number of vowels differing very slightly from one another.

## Rounding.

59. The shape of the mouth-passage by which vowels are formed depends partly on the position of the tongue, partly on that of the lips. If the lip-opening is narrowed while the tongue is in a certain position, the resulting vowel is said to be rounded. Thus ( $y$ ) in French lune is the round vowel corresponding to the unrounded (ii), which is nearly the sound in English he, both vowels having the same tongueposition.

## Tongue-Retraction.

60. The tongue-positions depend partly on the degree of retraction of the tongue, partly on its height or distance from the palate.
61. If the root of the tongue is drawn back, we have a back vowel, such as the (aa) in father. If the fore part of the tongue is advanced, we have a front vowel, such as (ii). If the tongue is left in its neutral position, intermediate between back and front, we have a mixed vowel, such as (әә).

## Tongue-Height.

62. If the tongue is raised as close to the palate as is possible without making the vowel into a consonant, a high vowel is formed. Thus (i) is a high-front vowel, (u), as in full, a high-back-round vowel. There are two other degrees of height, mid and low. For convenience we may include mid and low vowels under the common name 'un-high' vowels, distinguishing them as close and open, according to the degree of openness of the mouth-passage. We denote open vowels, when necessary, by italics. French $e^{\prime}$ in ett is the mid-front-close vowel, or, more briefly, the frontclose vowel, for when a vowel is not expressly called high, we assume it to be un-high. English (e) in men is the corresponding mid-front-open vowel. Very open vowels are called broad. (æ) in man is a broad front vowel. The distinction of close and open applies also to the high vowels. Thus French (i) in $f i n i$ is the close high front vowel, English (i) in finny is the open high front vowel.

## The Vowels in Detail.

The following are the most important vowels.
(A) Unrounded vowels.
63. (a) 'clear back': (a'haa) aha !
64. (e) 'dull back': (sen) son, sun.
65. (ə) 'mixed' or 'neutral' vowel : (məəmə) murmur.
68. (i) 'high front.' Close (i) in French fini, the short E. $i$, as in finny, being always open. Long close (ii) is the older E. sound in such words as see, sea, receive, machine, and this sound is still preserved in Scotland and the North of England. In the South of England it is diphthongized into (i) followed by very close (i), which is nearly the sound of the consonant (j) in $y o u$, so we write (sij), etc.
67. (e) 'front.' French $e$ is close front. The E. vowel in men is open front (e). Before ( $\partial$ )-with which it forms a diphthong-it is still opener, as in (feə) fare, fair. The long close front (ee) is still preserved in Scotch in such words as name, day, where Standard E. has the diphthong (ei).
68. (æ) 'broad front': (mæn) man.
(B) Round vowels.
69. (u) 'high back round.' Close in French sou, the E short ( $u$ ) in full, good being always open. The older close (uu) in such words as moon, move, you (juu) is still kept in Scotland and the North of England, but in the South of England it becomes ( $u \mathrm{w}$ ) with a distinct ( w ). Weak open (u), as in value, is the high mixed round vowel, which, when necessary, we write (ü)-(væljü).
70. (o) 'back round.' Close in French beau (bo). Close (oo) in Scotch no, know, where Standard E. has the diphthong
(ou). The (0) in the diphthong (oi), as in boy, is the same open sound. Weak ( 0 ), as in October, is the open mixed vowel, which, when necessary, we write (o)-(oktouba).
71. ( 0 ) 'broad back round.' This is the sound of the E. short vowels in not, what. The long broad vowel is heard in such words as naught, fall. For convenience we write the short vowel (o), the long ( 0 ) in Standard E.-not (not).
72. (y) 'high front round' $=$ rounded (i). French une. German über.
73. (œ) 'front-round.' Close in French peu, whose vowel is a rounded French é. Open in French peur.

## Nasal Vowels.

74. If a vowel is formed with the nose-passage open, it is said to be nasal, which we mark by ( $n$ ). Thus we have nasal ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathfrak{x}$ ) in French sang, sans (san), vin (væn).

## Diphthongs.

75. We call (ei, ou; ij, uw) half diphthongs, because they are not very distinct, their two elements differing only in height.
76. Full diphthongs, on the other hand, such as (ai, au, oi) are made up of vowels as distinct as possible from one another.
77. There is another class of murmur diphthongs ending in (ว), as in hear, here (hiz), fare, fair (feə), poor (puə), pure ( $\mathrm{pj} u$ ), more ( $\mathrm{m} \supset$ ). There are also murmur triphthongs, as in fire (faiz), loyal (loial).
78. The following table will show the relations of the
chief vowels more clearly. Those marked * do not occur in English:-

| $\begin{gathered} \text { high back } \\ *_{\Lambda} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { high mixed } \\ *_{i} \end{gathered}$ | high front i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { back } \\ & \mathfrak{a} ; \mathfrak{e} \end{aligned}$ | mixed <br> ə | front e; æ |
| high back round n | high mixed round ii | high front round *y |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { back round } \\ \text { o, } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { mixed round } \\ \ddot{\circ} \end{gathered}$ | front round ${ }^{\text {®e }}$ |

79. The relations of the English vowels may be shown thus :


## Consonants.

80. Consonants admit of a two-fold division (a) by form, (b) by place.

Form.
By form there are five classes :-
81. (a) Open, in which the passage is narrowed without stoppage, such as (s).

82, (b) Side, formed by stopping the middle of the passage and leaving it open at the sides, as in (1).
83. (c) Stopped, formed by complete closure. The
voiceless stops ( $k, t, p$ ) are in English followed by a breath glide or slight puff of breath, thus cat almost $=($ khæth $)$.
84. (d) Nasal consonants are formed with complete closure of the mouth-passage, the nose-passage being left open, as in (m).
85. (e) Trills are the result of vibration of the flexible parts of the mouth. Thus in the trilled Scotch (r) the point of the tongue vibrates against the gums, the E. (r) in red being an open consonant without any trill.

## Place.

By place there are also five classes :-
86. (a) Back, formed by the root of the tongue, such as ( $k, y$ ) in king (kiy). The back open consonant ( x ) is the sound of $c h$ in the Scotch and German loch. The corresponding voice consonant ( 3 ) is heard in German sage.
87. (b) Front, formed by the middle of the tongue, such as the front open voice consonant $(\mathrm{j})$ in you, which is really a consonantal (i). The corresponding breath consonant ( $\varepsilon$ ) is heard in German ich and Scotch hue, Hugh (quu), which in Southern E. is pronounced (hjuw).
88. (c) Point, formed by the tip of the tongue. In the point-gum consonants, such as $E$. (t, d, n, l) the point of the tongue is brought against the gums just behind the teeth; in the point-teeth consonants, such as the point-teeth-open (p) in thin, it is brought against the teeth. The voice consonant corresponding to ( $\mathrm{\beta}$ ) is ( $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text { ) in then. }\end{array}\right.$
89. (d) Blade, formed by the blade of the tongue-that part of it which is immediately behind the point. ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$ ) are blade consonants. In the blade-point consonants, such as the blade-point open ( () in she, the blade position is modified
by raising the point of the tongue. The corresponding voice consonant ( 3 ) is heard in measure (mezว).
90. The point and blade consonants are included under the name of forward consonants.
91. (e) Lip, formed by the lips, such as (p, m). The lip-open consonant ( $\phi$ ) is the sound produced in blowing out a candle; the corresponding voice consonant occurs in German in such words as quelle ( $\mathrm{k} \beta$ elə) ; ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v}$ ) are lip-teeth consonants. (wh), as in why, and (w) are lip-back consonants, formed by narrowing the lip-opening and raising the back of the tongue at the same time, (w) being a consonantal (u). In Southern E. (wh) is often pronounced (w).

## Compound Consonants: Rounding, Fronting.

92. (wh, w) are really compound consonants, formed in two places at once. If instead of back-modifying the lipopen consonant, as in (wh), we lip-modify or round the back-open consonant (x), we get the back-round consonant (xwe) in German auch. Other consonants may be rounded in the same way, which we express by adding (w); thus (rwed) is red pronounced with a rounded (r).
93. When a consonant is modified by raising the front of the tongue, it is said to be front-modified or fronted, which we express by adding ( $j$ ). Thus the lip-open frontmodified consonant is the sound in French huit ( $\beta$ jit) ; it is almost a consonantal (y).

## The Aspirate.

94. The aspirate (h) is partly an open throat consonant, partly a breath vowel-glide. Thus (h) in hook is mainly formed by unvoicing the beginning of the ( u ), almost as if we were to write the word (whuk).
95. The following is a table of the chief consonants. Those marked * do not occur in E.

|  | Breath. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Throat. | Back. | Front. | Point. | Blade. | Blade- <br> Point. | Lip. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Lip } \\ & \text { Back. } \end{aligned}$ | $\underset{\text { Teeth. }}{\text { Lip. }}$ |
| Open | h | *x | *¢ | ${ }^{\text {r }}$ h, p | s | S | ${ }^{*} \phi$ | wh | f |
| Side | - |  |  | ${ }^{*} 1 / 2$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Stop |  | k | *c | t |  |  | p |  |  |
| Nasal | - | *ロ $h$ | *ñ $h$ | $*_{\mathrm{n}} h$ |  |  | * m h |  |  |
| Voice. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Open | - | *3 | j | r, f | $z$ | 3 | * $\beta$ | w | v |
| Side | - |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Stop | - | g | *q | d |  |  | b |  |  |
| Nasal | - | $\eta$ | * ${ }_{\text {I }}$ | n |  |  | m |  |  |

98. We generally write (rh), etc., instead of (rh) for the sake of convenience.

## R in English.

97. (r) in E. occurs only before a vowel following it without any pause, as in here he is (hizr ij iz ); before a consonant or a pause it is dropped, leaving only the preceding ( $\partial$ ), as in here she is, he is here (hia fij iz, hij z hij). This (a) is absorbed by a preceding (әə, aa), as in err, erring, far, far away (әд, әәrin, faa, faar әwei). After ( $)$ the (ว) is kept finally, but dropped before the ( r ), as in pour, pouring ( $\mathrm{p} \supset \boldsymbol{\partial}$, porin), being also dropped before a consonant in the same word, as in poured (pod).

## Laws Of SOUND-CHANGE.

98. Sound-changes fall under two main classes-internal and external.
99. Internal changes are either organic or acoustic. Organic changes are due to the natural tendencies of the organs of speech, as in the change of OE stän into MnE stone through the natural tendency to pronounce a back vowel without opening the mouth fully, and so to round it.
100. Acoustic changes are the result of the impressions which sounds make on the ear, as when one sound is substituted for another because of their likeness to the ear: thus children often make through (pruw) into (fruw), and point (r) is changed into back (3) in French and other languages. These are imitative changes.
101. External changes are those which are independent of organic and acoustic tendencies. Thus the change of spake into spoke in MnE is not the result of any tendency to change $\bar{a}$ into $\bar{o}$ in MnE , but of the influence of the preterite participle spoken (568).
102. Internal changes are further distinguished as isolative and combinative. Isolative changes, such as that of OE $\bar{a}$ into $\mathrm{MnE} \bar{o}$, affect a sound without regard to its surroundings, while in combinative changes one sound is modified by another one close to it, as in the change of ME (au) in saw into MnE (sov) through (sou) or (sou). Here we have two distinct combinative changes: first the rounding of the (a) by the influence of the following (u), and then the lowering of the high ( $u$ ) till it is merged into the ( 0 ). We see that the influence of one sound on another is either backwards, as
in the change of (au) into (ou), or forwards, as in the change of (ou) into (o).
103. All combinative changes are, besides, either convergent or divergent. Convergent changes, as of (au) into (ou) are organic, being due to the tendency to save trouble by making the passage from one sound to another as short and easy as possible.
104. Complete convergence or assimilation in diphthongs makes them into monophthongs, as when (ou) becomes ( 00 ), and in this case is called smoothing.
105. Divergent changes are often partly acoustic, being due to the striving for distinctness, as when the half diphthong (ou) in no is made into full (au) in Cockney E. But cleaving, by which a long vowel is made into a diphthong, is an isolative organic change; it consists generally in forming the first half of the vowel with greater openness-either of the mouth- or the lip-passage-than the second. We see the beginning of cleaving in the E. change of (ii, uu) into (ij, uw), which by divergence could easily become (ei, ou) or ( $\partial \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o} u$ ) and then (ai, au).

## OLD-ENGLISH SOUNDS.

## Orthography.

108. The Anglo-Saxons brought with them to England their national Runic alphabet, which was founded on one of the Old Greek alphabets or possibly the Latin. On their conversion to Christianity they adopted the Latin alphabet in its British form, to which they afterwards added the two Runic letters $p=$ th and $p=w$. In the British-Latin alphabet
-and consequently in the OE alphabet as well-several of the letters had peculiar forms, $g$ for instance being written $\delta$.
109. Each letter of the Latin alphabet was used to denote the OE sound nearest to that which the letter had in the pronunciation of British Latin, which was more archaic than that of the Continental Latin.
110. Spelling in OE was purely phonetic : the OE scribes wrote as they spoke, as far as the defects of their alphabet would allow them to do so.
111. In this book we supplement the defective distinctions of the OE orthography by adding diacritics, which gives the following new letters- $\ell, f, \dot{\varepsilon}, \dot{g}, \bar{a}$, etc., ( ${ }^{-}$) denoting vowellength.

## Pronunciation.

110. The vowels had the same sounds as in our phonetic notation, the unmodified vowels being all close except $a$. $a=(a)$, as in faran 'go,' 'travel' ; long in stān 'stone.' $e=$ close (e), as in elan 'eat'; long in $m \bar{e}^{-}$' me.' There was also an open $e$, which we write $\ell$, as in $m_{\ell} t$ e ' food.' $\quad i=$ close (i), as in witan 'know'; long in wīn'wine.' $o=c l o s e ~(0)$, as in God 'God'; long in gōd 'good.' There was also an open broad $o$, which we write $g$, as in long 'long.' $u=$ close (u), as in sunu 'son'; long in hus 'house.' $y=$ close $(y)$ as in symn 'sin'; long in fyyr 'fire.' $a=(x)$, as in fader 'father'; long in hēlan 'heal.' $\infty$ had the sound of close (œ), as in blotsian 'bless'; long in fōt 'feet.' The diphthongs ea, $\bar{e} a, e o, \bar{e} o=(` æ a, ~ ' æ æ a, ~ ' e o, ~ ' e e o): ~ h e a r d ~ ' h a r d, ' ~$ dēad 'dead'; eorbe 'earth,' dēop 'deep.' In ie the two elements were originally pronounced separately, but in ordinary West-Saxon the diphthong was smoothed into open ( $i$ ), as in ieldra ' older,' ' elder '; long in hieran 'hear.'
111. The following consonants require notice. $c=(k)$, as in cène 'bold.' $\quad i=(\mathrm{c})$, resembling in sound our $c h=(\mathrm{t} \mathrm{f})$, as in cirice 'church.' $g$ when not initial was pronounced ( $\delta$ ), as in dagas 'days,' burg ' city,' hālga 'saint,' except in the combination $n g$, which was pronounced ( gg ), as in lang ' long,' singan 'sing.' $\dot{g}$ in the combination $n \dot{g}$ was a front stop, this combination having the sound (nq), as in seng்an 'singe,' where the OE $g$ has a sound very similar to that of the $\mathrm{MnE} g$ in singe. $i \dot{g}$ had the sound (qq), as in bryig 'bridge,' where, again, the OE sound closely resembles the (dz) of bridge; the $c$ in this digraph is intended to indicate the front sound, the less frequent (gg) being generally written $g g$, as in frogga ' frog.' Initial $\dot{\delta}$ also had the sound (q), but seems also to have been pronounced (j): geard ' yard,' 'court,' genumen 'taken.' Non-initial $\dot{\delta}$ had the sound (j), except in the combinations $n \dot{g}, \dot{c}_{\dot{g}}$; dagg (day), seǵeb ' says,' herġian ' ravage.'
112. $x=(\mathrm{ks})$, but in many words it was originally pronounced (xs), as in weaxan 'grow.'
113. $f, s, \beta$ had the voice sounds ( $v, z, \delta)$ between vowels and between $r, l$ and vowels, as in drïfan 'drive,' frēosan ' freeze,' eorbe ' earth.'
114. Initial $h$ had the same sound as in E. $h w$, as in $h w \bar{z} t$ ' white,' $=(w h)$. So also $h l, h r, h n$ represented the voiceless sounds of (l, r, n) respectively, as in hlūd 'loud,' hring 'ring,' hnutu 'nut.' In $h w$ etc. the $h$ and the $w$ were originally pronounced separately. Non-initial $h$-'strong $h$ '-had the sound of (x) in Scotch loch, as in burh 'through'; in some words it had the sound of ( $\varepsilon$ ) in German ich, especially after a front vowel, as in gee sihb 'sight.'
115. $r$ was always trilled, as in Scotch. $c, g$, $w$ were pronounced clearly before consonants in such words as
cnāzan 'know,' gnagan 'gnaw,' writan 'write,' wlac 'lukewarm.'
116. Double consonants were pronounced double, or long, as in mann 'man'-distinct from g'e man 'I remember,' where the $n$ was quite short-sunne 'sun' (the $n n$ as in pen-knife) distinct from sunu 'son.'

## Stress.

117. In OE the general principle of word-stress is to put the strong stress on the first syllable of a word, as in fisias ' fishes,' fisiere ' fisher,' 'misdē̄d ' misdeed.'
118. In compounds the modifying word came first, and took the chief stress, as in horshzval ' walrus,' literally 'horsewhale,' ryhtwis 'rightly wise,' 'righteous,' cwicseolfor ' 'quicksilver,' literally 'living silver.'

But there are some exceptions to this rule of putting the stress on the first element of compounds :-
119. Group-compounds of preposition + noun, such as the adverbs of 'dūne 'down,' literally 'off-the-hill,' as in hē eode ofdüne 'he went down,' on'bacc ' back,' literally 'on-the-back,' tō dagg 'today,' were of course originally independent wordgroups.
120. Adverbs of full and distinct meaning took strong stress when followed by another word with which they form a group, as in rwide gee:sīene ' widely seen,' 'seen far and wide' [compare the compound wīdcūp 'widely known']. So also when a verb follows, as in rinn $: g \bar{a} n$ ' go in,' $b \bar{z}$ :standan 'stand by,' 'help.' But if the verb precedes, it takes the principal stress: hē 'eoode iinn 'he went in,' hé $\cdot$ stōd him' $b \bar{\imath}$ 'he helped him.' When these particles precede their verbs, they are felt to form compounds with them through the
group having the same stress as compounds in general, so that we may write these groups as single words-inngān, bistandan. But as these particles are, as we see, liable to be separated from their verbs in other constructions, we call them separable particles.
121. But if these particles are compounded with nouns or adjectives instead of verbs, they cannot be shifted, as in -inngang 'going in,' 'entrance,' bispell 'by-tale,' ' parable,' whose elements can no more be separated than those of ryhtwis, etc.
122. In OE there is also a class of inseparable particles, such as for-in for'giefan 'forgive,' which has no connection with the preposition for 'for,' never occurring as an independent word. These inseparable particles ought strictly speaking to be regarded as derivative elements, like the $u n$-in 'uncüb 'unknown,' but as many of them lost their independence only at a comparatively recent period in OE, it is allowable to regard forgiefan, etc., as compounds. The inseparable prefix be- in be'seltan 'beset' is, indeed, the same word as the preposition be 'by,' although they have diverged in meaning.
123. While abstract nouns compounded with inseparable particles throw the stress on to the particle in the usual way, as in 'forweyrd 'destruction,' parallel to inngang, the corresponding verbs take the stress on the verb itself, as in for'weorban 'perish,' for:g̀iefan. This shifting of stress is often accompanied by phonetic weakening of the particle; thus to the strong form of the prefix in 'bigrang 'going round,' 'cultivation,' 'worship,' corresponds the weak be- in be gān 'go round,' 'cultivate,' etc., beseltan.

## Quantity.

124. Long vowels in weak syllables were shortened in OE, as in begān (123).
125. On the other hand, short final strong vowels were lengthened, as in $h w w \bar{a}$ ' who,' $p \bar{u}$ 'thou'=Germanic $h w w a, p u$. Hence the short vowel of the unstressed article se in -se mann 'the man' is lengthened when the word is used in the sense of ' he,' as in 'sē-be 'he who.'
126. In Anglian, short vowels were lengthened before vowel-like consonants followed by another consonant-'group-lengthening'-as in āld 'old,' lèng 'long,' blind 'blind,' dūmb 'dumb'=Early West-Saxon eald, leng, lang, blind, dumb. These lengthenings appear also in Late WestSaxon.

## Vowels.

127. a ( 8 ), $æ$, ea. These vowels all correspond to Germanic $a$, still preserved in Modern German; thus OE mann, fader, heard=German mann, vater, hart. Germanic $a$ in the Oldest E . was kept only before nasals, as in mann, hand, lang. Everywhere else it was fronted to $a$, as in was ' was,' eceer 'field,' fader. Before 'group $r$ and $l$,' that is, before $r$ and $l$ followed by a consonant, and before strong $h$ the voice-glide (ə) was developed, as in E. (hirriy), which afterwards by phonetic divergence developed into full (a), as in heard, earm 'arm'; eall, eald 'old'; ge seah 'saw,' eahta 'eight,' weaxan (112). Before a back vowel in the next syllable $a$ became the back vowel $a$, as in dagas 'days,' dagum 'to days' dat., compared with dag'g 'day,' gen. dages. These are the West-Saxon forms. In Anglian a before nasals became $g$-as also often in Early West-Saxon-and $a$
before group $l$ became $a$, so that the Anglian forms are mpnn, hīnd (126), lōng ; heard, etc. ; all, alld (126).
128. i, e, eo. In Germanic, e before group-nasals became $i$, whence OE bindan 'bind,' singan 'sing' compared with helpan 'help.' In OE itself $e$ also became $i$ before single nasals, as in niman ' take' compared with stelan 'steal.' The vowel in such words as witan 'know' is Germanic and Arian $i$. In OE $e$ before group $r$ became eo much in the same way as $a$ became ea (127), as in steorra 'star,' eorbe. e, $i$ became eo, io before a back-especially a back round-vowel in the next syllable, as in heofon 'heaven,' cliopian ' call,' the forms hefon, clipian also occurring.
129. u, o. In Germanic, $o$ became $u$ before group-nasals; and in OE itself $o$ became $u$ before single nasals, whence OE ġebunden 'bound ' compared with geholpen 'helped,' genumen 'taken' compared with g̀estolen 'stolen.' In such a word as sunu 'son,' the $u$ s are Germanic and Arian.
130. The Germanic vowel $\overline{\mathscr{e}}$ is preserved in West-Saxon, as in $f \bar{e} r$ 'danger,' $\bar{e} f e n ~ ' e v e n i n g, ' ~ b e i n g ~ n a r r o w e d ~ t o ~ \bar{e}$ in Anglian and Kentish-fêr, ëfen.

## Mutation.

131. Mutation is the influence exercised by a vowel on the vowel of a preceding syllable, by which the first vowel is modified in the direction of the second one. Thus in OE gecoren 'chosen'=Old High German gikoran, compared with OE curun later curon 'they chose,' $u$ has been lowered to o by the influence of the $a$. This is therefore an $a$-mutation of $u$.
132. But the most important mutations in OE are the front mutations, caused by Germanic $i$ and $j$, which after
they had caused the mutation were generally lost or modified in OE.
133. The following are the mutations in their Early WestSaxon forms:-
e . . . i. beran ' carry,' bireb (Oldest E. birib) 'carries'; cweban 'say,' cwide (Oldest E. cwidi) 'saying,' ' speech.'
a (æ) . . . ę. faran 'go,' 'travel,' ferian ' convey'; mann ' man,' menn (Germanic manni) 'men.'
$\overline{\mathrm{a}} . . . \overline{\boldsymbol{m}} . \quad$ hāl ' whole,' 'sound,' hālan ' heal'; $\bar{a} n$ ' one,' $\bar{e} n i \dot{g}$ ' any.' This 'mutation $\bar{e}$ ' remains in the non-WestSaxon dialects, which change Germanic $\bar{e}$ into $\bar{e}$. For convenience we will in future distinguish the West-Saxon Germanic $\bar{e}$ by writing it $\hat{e}$, as in $\hat{e} f e n ~ c o n t r a s t e d ~ w i t h ~$ hālan. Mutated Germanic $\bar{e}$ remains unchanged in WestSaxon, as in lêecie 'physician' (Oldest E. lầici'), dêdd ' deed' (Germanic $d \bar{o} d i \bar{l}$ ), and becomes $\bar{e}$ in the other dialects: lēe$e$, dèd.
ea, eo . . . ie. eald ' old,' ieldra ' older,' nieht (Germanic nahti') 'night'; heord 'herd,' hierde 'shepherd.' In Late West-Saxon this $i e$ becomes $y$ or $i: y l d r a, n i h t$, hyrde. In Anglian the one $i e$ appears as $\varepsilon$, the other as $i$ : $\ell l d r a$, $\bar{\varepsilon} l d r a$, neht; hirde (Oldest Anglian hirdi).
ēa, ēo . . . īe. ġelēafa 'belief,' ǵel̄̄efan 'believe,' éaca 'increase' (noun), éac 'also,' iècian 'to increase '; g̀esēon 'see,' g̀esìne ' visible.' $\bar{\imath} e$ in Late West-Saxon becomes $\bar{y}, \bar{z}$ : ğelȳfan, ìcan, s'sesyne. In the other dialects it becomes é: ǵelēfan, écan, g̀esène.
u . . . y. full 'full,' 'gefyllan ' to fill,' cyning ' king.' $y$ in Late Kentish becomes e by lowering and unrounding, as in s̀efellan.
$\overline{\mathbf{u}} . . . \overline{\mathbf{y}} . \quad c \bar{u} p$ ' known,' c解an ' proclaim,' mūs ' mouse,' $m \bar{y} s$ ' mice.' $\bar{y}$ becomes $\bar{e}$ in Late Kentish, as in més.

- . . . $\infty$. dohtor ' daughter,' dat. dochter. $a$ was unrounded into $e$ in Late OE, the change beginning already in Early West-Saxon: dehter. As Germanic o became $u$ before $i$ in the same way as $e$ became $i(133), y$ is the most usual OE mutation of $o$, as in gold 'gold,' gylden (older guldin) 'golden,' fox 'fox,' fyxen ' vixen.'
 $\bar{\alpha}$ afterwards became $\bar{e}$, the change beginning in Early WestSaxon : fêdan, fèt.


## Consonant Influence.

134. In West-Saxon the front glide between $\dot{c}, \dot{g}$ and a following vowel often developed into a full $e$ forming a diphthong with the vowel.
135. ċæ-, ġæ- passed into cea-, gea-, as in sieal'shall,' geaf'gave' [compare cwaph 'said']=non-West-Saxon sicel, gaf. This ea was mutated into ie in West-Saxon in such words as the noun ciele 'chill' compared with calan 'be cold,' g'iest 'stranger' [compare German gast]=non-West-Saxon cele, gegst.
 'they gave' [compare cwôdon 'they said']= non-West-Saxon sièp, ṡéfon.
136. cie-, g̀e- became cie-, ġie-, as in scield 'shield,' g'iefan 'give' [compare cweban]=non-West-Saxon sield, sièld, g̀efan.
137. Through similar changes $\dot{g}$ followed by a diphthong in West-Saxon often corresponds to Germanic $j$, which in OE seems to have been made into the stop consonant ( $q$ ), as in ǵear ' year' Anglian gèr, g̀eoc ' yoke,' ġeong ' young,' compared with German jahr (=Germanic $j \bar{\alpha} r$ ), joch, jung.
138. In Anglian, the back consonants $c, h, g$ smooth ${ }^{-}$a
preceding diphthong. ea became $a$, as in ges $a h$, waxan $=$ non-Anglian (West-Saxon and Kentish) geseah, weaxan. eo became $e$, as in fehtan 'fight,' werc 'work' (noun) $=$ WestSaxon feohtan, weorc. $\bar{e} a, \bar{e} o$ became $\bar{e}$, as in $\bar{e} c, \bar{e}_{g} e^{\prime}$ 'eye,' hēh 'high,' fëgan 'to fly'=West-Saxon ēac, ēage, hēah, fēogan.
139. $w$ often changes a following $e o$ into $o$ or $u$, especially in Late OE, as in sweostor 'sister,' later swustor, sweord, sword, swurd 'sword.'

## Consonants.

141. In OE $h$ between vowels or between vowel-like consonants and vowels was dropped, often with lengthening of the preceding vowel, as in furh 'furrow,' dat. plur. fürum, Wealh 'foreigner,' 'Welshman,' plur. Wealas, Wëalas, Wielisć 'Welsh.' When two vowels came together in this way, they were often made into a diphthong, as in g̀esēon 'see' from *geseohan [compare ġeseah 'saw'].
142. Open $g, \dot{g}$ became $h$ before a breath consonant, as in byht 'bending' [bügan 'bend '].
143. Final open $g$ was also unvoiced in Late West-Saxon, as in troh 'trough,' genōh ' enough,' burh=earlier trog, genōg, burg.
144. $r$ is often transposed, as in iernan 'run'-the original form being preserved in ġerinnan 'run together,' ' coagulate' -especially in Late Northumbrian, as in pirda'third'= West-Saxon pridda [compare brēo 'three'].
145. $s$ is often transposed in the same way, as in Late West-Saxon äxian ' ask,' cirps 'curly'=earlier āscian, crisp.
146. $r$ in some words does not correspond to Germanic $r$ but to a Germanic modification of $s$, as in wêron 'were'
compared with was 'was,' gecoren 'chosen,' cyre ' choice' compared with cēosan 'choose.' So also $g$ and $d$ often represent Germanic modifications of $h$ and $\beta$ respectively, as in cwédon, cwide compared with cweban, slagèen 'struck,' slaga 'slayer' compared with slean [from *sleahan] 'strike,' 'kill.' These changes are the result of weak stress of the syllable containing $s, b, h$ in Early Germanic. Hence we call the resulting $r$ 'weak $r$ ' to distinguish it from $r=$ Germanic $r$, and so with the other consonants.
147. $p$ in the combinations, $t p, d p, s p$ becomes $t$, to which a preceding $d$ is assimilated, giving the combinations $t t$, st, as in Early West-Saxon bitt=bītep 'bites' and bidep 'waits,' cièst 'chooses' from ièosan.
148. Double consonants in OE often represent a Germanic single consonant $+j$, as in sellan 'give,' sięppan 'injure,' settan 'set'= Gothic saljan, skabjan, satjan, the single consonant appearing in such forms as selep, siegeb, setep 'he gives,' etc., which point to older *salip, etc. Germanic $k j$, $g j, f j$ appear in OE respectively as $\dot{c}, \dot{c} \dot{\delta}$ and $b b$, as in wrecicaa 'one exiled,' leicigan 'lay,' hebban 'raise' compared with zracu 'state of exile,' lagg ' he lay,' hafen 'raised.' Germanic $r j$, on the other hand, appears as $r i$ in OE , as in derian 'injure' [cp. daru 'injury'].
149. In OE itself, $c, t, p$ are often doubled before $r$ and $l$, as in biter, bitter ' bitter' [cp. bitan 'bite '], ceppel 'apple' [cp. apulder 'apple-tree'], nêdre, nêddre 'serpent,' fôd(d) or 'food'; and in the later forms micicle plur. of micel 'great,' dēoppra adj., dèoppor adv. 'deeper.'

## Gradation.

150. By gradation we understand certain traditional connections between the vowels-most clearly shown in the
conjugation of the 'strong' verbs-which enable us to classify them under the following gradation-series:-
a . . . ō. faran 'proceed,' for ' proceeded'; för 'journey,' ġefāra, ṡefēra ' companion.'
e (i, eo) . . . a (æ, ea) . . . u (o). windan 'wind,' wand 'he wound,' wundon 'they wound'; wendan 'turn.' beran ' carry,' bar, geboren 'carried,' byr-pen 'burden.' beorgan 'protect,' bearg, burgon, geborgen; beorg 'mountain,' burg ' fortress,' ' city,' borg 'pledge,' ' security,' borgian ! borrow.'
a (æ, ea) . . . $\hat{\boldsymbol{\propto} .}$ bar 'he carried,' bêron 'they carried'; bầr 'bier.' sprac 'he spoke,' sprâcon 'they spoke'; sprîé 'speech.'
$\bar{i} . . . \overline{\mathbf{a}} . .$. i. wrītan ' write,' wrāt' he wrote,' writon ' they wrote'; gewerit 'writing' (noun). belīfan 'remain'; lăf ' residue,' ' remains,' whence by mutation lāfan 'leave.'
$\overline{\text { èo }}$ ( $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ) . . . ēa . . . u (o). iēosan 'choose,' cēas 'he chose,' curon 'they chose,' gecoren 'chosen'; cyre 'choice.' forlēosan 'lose'; lëas 'devoid of,' ā-tesan 'release'; losian ' be lost,' ' $p e r i s h . '$ būgan 'bend,' ' bow,' bēag, bugon, g̀ebogen ; béag 'ring'; boga 'bow' (noun), byht 'bending.'

## MIDDLE ENGLISH.

## Orthography.

151. In the ME period the OE was superseded by the Old French orthography - Norman at first, but afterwards Parisian.
152. Old French orthography was founded on the traditional pronunciation of Latin; but by the time French was
first written down-probably in the 9th century-the tradition of the Old Latin pronunciation had been partially lost.
153. In the 9th-century pronunciation of Latin, $y$ had lost its old value, having been unrounded into (i), and so had come to be a mere orthographic variant of $i$. So when Latin $\bar{u}$ was fronted to (yy) in French, as in lune (lyyna) from Latin luna, the $u$ was kept as the symbol of the new sound (y). And when the French orthography was introduced into England, the sound of $\mathrm{OE} y$ was represented by $u$, which we write $u$ to distinguish it from ME $u=\mathrm{OE} u$. Hence in early Southern ME sunne 'sun' and siinne ' $\sin$ ' $=$ OE synn were written alike. In Old French there was a diphthong $u i=(y i)$, which in Anglo-French was smoothed into ( $y$ y), and so was used--together with simple $u$--to express (yy) not only in French words, such as fruit, frīt ' fruit,' but also in E. words, such as fuir, fü̈r 'fire,' builden ' build' $=\mathrm{OE} f \bar{y} r$, byldan, bȳldan.
154. $y$, being thus superfluous, was almost completely disused for a time in Early ME, but in Late ME-as in Late Old French-it was written in many cases instead of $i$; because $i$ was written without any dot, and so was liable to be mistaken for a part of another letter, especially $n, m, u$. Hence it became usual to write $y$ in such words as bynden, weyues $=\mathrm{OE}$ bindan, wiffes. It also became usual to write $y$ at the end of words, as in many, day=Early ME mani, dai.
155. In Early Norman French $o$ in many words had a sound between close ( 0 ) and ( u ), and as $u$ represented the sound ( $y$ ) as well as ( u ) in ME as in French, it was found convenient to use $o$ for the sound (u)-in which case we write it $o$--especially in combination with such letters as $n$, $m, u(=v)$ where $u$ would cause graphic confusion, as in cömen 'come,' löue 'love' $=\mathrm{OE}$ cuman, lufu; also before
single consonants followed by a vowel, as in bŏte ' but,' cơräg̀e 'courage,' because the earlier ME spellings bute, curage seemed to suggest (yy).
156. In Late Parisian the older diphthong (ou) was smoothed into (uu), as in douz (duuts) 'sweet,' and so ou was introduced into Late ME as the symbol of (uu), as in hous =earlier hus $=\mathrm{OE}$ hüs 'house,' the actual sound remaining unchanged.
157. In Late Latin $e$ was written instead of $a e$, oe, which fell into disuse, the classical caelum, poena, for instance, being written celum, pena; and so in Old French $e$ was used to express open as well as close (e), and this usage passed into ME. We write the long ME open sound $\bar{\varepsilon}$ to distinguish dē $d$ 'dead' from dèd 'deed,' the latter having the close sound. So also we express the long open oby $\bar{g}$, as in stōn 'stone' distinguished from möne ' moon,' the two sounds not being generally distinguished-any more than the two es-in ME orthography. The Old French diphthong ie was smoothed into close (ee) in Anglo-French, and so came to express the latter sound in such words as meschief ' mischief,' lief ' dear.'
158. In Parisian French, Latin $c=(\mathrm{k})$ before front vowels, as in ciel, passed through (ts) into (s). In some cases it developed into ( t f ), which combination was expressed by $c h$, as in chien. Latin $g=(\mathrm{g})$ became 'soft' (dz) before front vowels, as in geste 'exploit' from Latin gesta. Latin $j=(\mathrm{j})$ also developed into (d3), as in $j a=$ Latin jam. Latin $q v, g v$ $=(\mathrm{kw}, \mathrm{gw})$ soon dropped their (w) in Old French, so that $q u, g u$ came to be regarded as symbols of 'hard ' $(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g})$ respectively, especially before front vowels, as in qui, langue from Latin qvī, lingva, the former being also expressed by $k=k i$.
159. Hence in ME the old $c$ was written $k$ before front
vowels, as in king, as also when doubled, as in bikke 'thick,' cw being expressed by the Early Old French $q u$, as in quene 'queen' $=\mathrm{OE}$ cwèn. $\quad$ c was kept before back vowels and generally before consonants, as in cumen, cömen, clęne 'clean.' The ME development of $\mathrm{OE} \dot{c}$ having nearly the sound of French ch, this digraph was used to express it, as in chirche $=\mathrm{OE}$ ciricie. $\quad c=(\mathrm{s})$ was used only in French words, such as fäce.
160. In ME the difference in form between the $\mathrm{OE} \delta$ (106) and the French $g$ was utilized phonetically. The letter $g$ was assigned to ( g ), as in god 'good,' and the soft French $g$, as in geste 'exploit,' and also to the ME development of OE stopped $\dot{g}$, which had nearly the sound of (d3), as in seng்en 'singe,' briğge 'bridge' $=\mathrm{OE}$ seng்an, brycg. Hard $g$ was also expressed by the French $g u$, as it still is in tongue $=\mathrm{OE}$ tunge. $j=(\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{\delta})$ was written only in French words, such as jugigen 'judge.' $\delta$, on the other hand, was restricted to the open sounds, both back and front, as in dazes, zung $=\mathrm{OE}$ dagas, geong, the latter sound being afterwards expressed by $y$, as in MnE : yŏng, young.
161. After much fluctuation OE strong $h$ was written $g h$, as in right, doghter.
162. Latin $z$ still kept its sound (dz) in Early Old French -where it was also used to express (ts), as in douz 'sweet'and did not become simple ( $z$ ) till a later period. Hence it is not till the end of the ME period that they began to write $z$ instead of $s=(z)$ in E . words, as in wezele 'weazel,' generally written wesele.
163. The Latin sound (w), which was expressed indifferently by the angular $v$ or the round $u$, became ( $v$ ) in Old French, the old symbol being kept, so $u, v$ became the symbol of voiced OE $f$ in ME, as in luve $=\mathrm{OE}$ lufu. The
sound (w) was introduced again into Old French from Old German in such words as warde, from Old Low German warda (=OE weard 'custody'), developing into (gw), later (g) in Parisian-guarde. In those Old French dialects which kept German (w) it was expressed by two angular $u$ s joined together, whence we still call the ligature 'double $u$.' In ME $w$ soon superseded the $\mathrm{OE} p(106)$. As $w$ in OE snäw 'snow' was practically an (u), in ME $w$ came into general use in diphthongs, as in snow, how $=\mathrm{OE} h \bar{u}$, the $o w=(\mathrm{uu})$ in the latter being only a written diphthong.
164. The other Runic letter $\beta$ was used throughout the ME period, but the digraph th soon came into use to express the voice as well as the breath sound of $\rho$, as in $b r \bar{g} \bar{b} e n$, brethen (breeđ̈ən) ' breathe,' bręp, breth (breep) 'breath.' In Old French th was written only in learned words, proper names, etc., and had the sound ( $t$ ), which it often kept in ME as well ; we still pronounce such words as Thomas with a ( t ), as in ME. Old French $p h=(\mathrm{f})$ was also used only in learned words and names, $f$ being often substituted for it; it was used in ME in such learned words as phisik 'physic,' also written fisik.

## Stress.

165. In ME the noun- and adjective-prefixes $a l$-, mis-, unthrow the stress forward, as in al'mihti, mis'dēd, un'cūp ' unknown' $=\mathrm{OE} \cdot$ ©elmihtig̀s, $\cdot m i s d \hat{c} d, \cdot u n c u ̄ \beta$.
166. In Old French the stress generally fell on the same syllable as in Latin, as in nature $=$ Latin nā $\cdot t \bar{u} r a m$. Through the dropping of final Latin syllables many French words thus came to have the stress on the last syllable, as in onour $=h o \cdot n o ̄ r e m$, pi te $=$ pie tâtem. When first introduced into ME French words kept their original stress : nā $\cdot t \bar{u} r e, ~ o n n \bar{u} r, p i t \bar{e}$;
but such words afterwards threw the stress back on to the first syllable by the analogy of the native E. words, such as -fader, bodi, becoming nātüre, etc.
167. In longer French words, where it would have been inconvenient to throw the stress back to the first syllable, it was drawn back from the end to the middle of the word, as in sŏvereyneté, con dicioun (kon•disiuun) and the other words in -ioun=Latin -iönem.
168. Many words of French origin compounded with particles, such as $a \cdot v o w(a \cdot v u u)$, de fense, dis'ēse (dis•eezə), keep their original stress by the analogy of native words such as arisen, be cumen.

## Quantity.

169. The first quantity-change that took place in ME was the lengthening of OE short consonants after a short strong vowel, so that OE in 'in' and inn 'dwelling' were levelled under the latter form; and as it was no longer necessary to mark the distinction, the OE double consonants were written single, as in al, man= OE eall, mann. But double consonants before vowels were kept in ME in pronunciation as well as spelling, so that, for instance, sunne 'sun' $=\mathrm{OE}$ sunne was kept distinct from sune 'son' $=\mathrm{OE}$ sunu, these two words never rhyming on one another in verse.
170. The OE group-lengthenings were kept up in ME, as in $\bar{g} l d, ~ l \bar{g} n g$, blīnd, dūmb, doumb=Old Anglian āld, lōng, blind, dūmb. Otherwise OE long vowels were generally shortened before two consonants, as in askien, wisdōm [compare ME wīs 'wise'], kepte 'kept' pret. $=\mathrm{OE}$ äscian, wīsdöm, cēpte. But length was often preserved before st, as in lēst 'least,' prēst 'priest' $=\mathrm{OE}$ lēest, prēost.

In the transition from ME to MnE the long vowels before $n g$ and $m b$ were shortened, whence MnE long, young (jey), dumb compared with old (ould), blind (blaind). Hence also OE -anc, -qnc appears as -ank in MnE, while OE -ang, -qng appears as -ong, as in lank $=\mathrm{OE}$ hlanc compared with long $=$ OE lang.
171. In Late ME short vowels before a single consonant followed by another vowel were lengthened, as in näme, mēte ' meat,' brōken 'broken'=Early ME name, mete, ibroken=OE nama, mete, gebrocen. We call these lengthened vowels ' newlongs' as opposed to the 'old-longs' in such words as winn ' wine' $=\mathrm{OE}$ win. But the high vowels $i, u, u$ were never lengthened, as in writen 'written,' diude 'did,' sune $=\mathrm{OE}$ gezeriten, dyde, sunu.
172. Vowels were not lengthened in final strong syllables, as in smal, swan, yaf ' gave,' God= OE smal, swan, geaf, God, because the final consonants had already been lengthened (169).
173. Short vowels are often preserved in Late as well as Early ME before a single consonant followed by the full vowel $i$, as in mani, peni, bodi, or weak $e+$ a vowel-like consonant (r, l, n, m), as in hamer, feter, coper ; sadel, hovel; seven, troden, all of which still have short vowels in Present English. This is called back-shortening. Originally long vowels are sometimes back-shortened in ME, as in laber from OE lëapor. But there are several exceptions to the general principle of back-shortening, as in Late ME āker, crādel, stōlen = OE acer, cradol, gestolen.

## Vowels.

174. In ME the OE weak vowels are generally levelled under $e$, especially when final: ME name, beren, sune $=\mathrm{OE}$ nama, beran, sunu. There was a tendency to drop weak $e$
altogether after another weak syllable, as in lādi, 'lady' from OE hlēffige.
175. Many words which in OE end in a consonant, take final $e$ in ME, which they get from the OE inflected forms; thus ME quène 'queen' comes not from the OE nom. sing. cwèn, but from the acc. sing. cwēne, plur. nom. cwēna, etc. Other examples are sinne 'sin,' dale 'valley,' bede 'prayer' $=\mathrm{OE}$ synn, deel, ġebed, plurals synna, dalu, g்ebedu. Such forms as narwe 'narrow,' yelwe 'yellow'= OE nearu, தंeolu, plurals nearwe, geolwe arose in the same way.
176. a. In the strong vowels the most marked and earliest change is the smoothing of the OE diphthongs, shown in Late ME hard, sterre 'star,' bręd 'bread,' dēp 'deep' $=\mathrm{OF}$ heard, steorra, brēad, dēop.
177. In Early ME ea became (æ), which was generally written $e$, which we write $\ell$, as in herd, wes $=\mathrm{OE}$ heard, woes. This broad (æ) was then still further broadened to (a), giving Late ME hard, was. OE a was kept throughout in such words as man, faren $=\mathrm{OE}$ mann, faran. ME $a$ in such words as al, half, comes from Anglian all, half, not from WestSaxon eall, healf.
178. i, ü. In North-Thames E. $i$ corresponds not only to $\mathrm{OE} i$, as in $s m i b=\mathrm{OE} \operatorname{smip}$, but also to $\mathrm{OE} y$, as in sinne, dide. But ( y ) was still preserved in the Southern dialect, as in sünne, düde, being represented by $e$ in Middle, as well as Old Kentish, as in senne. The London dialect generally has $i=\mathrm{OE} y$, but some words have the Southern, and the few the Kentish forms: sinne, büsi, kernel=OE synn, bysig̀ 'occupied,' cyrnel, 'kernel.' In some words (y) was broadened to (u), especially after lip-consonants, as in wŏrien 'worry,' mŏche ' much ' $=\mathrm{OE}$ wyrத்an, my $\dot{c} e l$, mic̈el.
179. e. OE close (e) became open (e) in Early ME, so
that $\mathrm{OE} e$ and $\varepsilon$ were levelled under the latter sound, which we write simply $e$ in ME, as in helpen, eten, rest, mete $=\mathrm{OE}$ helpan, etan; rest, mete. OE eo also became open $e$ in Late ME , as in erpe, hevene. All these es are liable to be lengthened in Late ME (171), as in ęten, męte.
180. u. OE $u$ was kept unchanged in ME, as in sune.
181. o. OE close $o$ became open in Early ME, as in folk, nose, bodien ' proclaim' $=\mathrm{OE}$ folc, nosu, bodian, being liable to lengthening in Late ME, as in nṑse, bēdien.
182. The OE long vowels $\bar{i}, \bar{e}, \bar{e}, \bar{u}, \bar{o}$ were generally preserved unchanged in ME, $\bar{e}, \bar{e}$ being also the representatives of $\mathrm{OE} \bar{e} 0, \bar{e} \bar{x}$ respectively (176) : wīn, kène 'bold,' dèp, sē 'sea,' hēved 'head,' hüs, hous, gōd 'good '= OE wīn, cène, dēop, s̄̄, hēafod, hūs, gōd. So also ME finden, fêld ' field,' hünd 'dog,' wörd 'word' = Anglian findan, fēld, hïnd, wörd (126). i is sometimes the result of raising Anglian $\bar{e}$ before open $\dot{g}$ and front $h$, as in $\bar{i} e$ 'eye,' hīh 'high ' $=$ Old Anglian $\bar{e} \dot{g} \dot{e}$, hēh, West-Saxon éage, hēah, the open $\dot{g}=(\mathrm{j})$ being absorbed. So also open $g$ was absorbed in ME by a preceding $u$ or $\bar{u}$, as in füel 'bird,' būen later bowen 'bend' $=\mathrm{OE}$ fugol, būgan. It is to be observed that ME $\bar{e}$ represents not only the common OE $\bar{e}$ in cene, but also the Anglian $\bar{e}=$ West-Saxon $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}$ and $\bar{\imath} e$, as in ēven 'evening,' dēde 'deed,' hēren 'hear,' isēne 'seen' =West-Saxon $\hat{e} f e n, ~ d \hat{e ̂ d, ~ h i ̀ e r a n, ~ g ' e s i ̀ e n e . ~ B u t ~} \bar{\varepsilon}=\hat{e}$ is frequent before and after $r$, as in $d r \bar{\varepsilon} d e n ~ ' d r e a d, ' ~ ’ \bar{\varepsilon} r$ 'there,' wèren 'were ' $=$ West-Saxon on'drêdan, b $\hat{c}$ êr, wâron.
183. In South-Thames E. $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{e}}$ when shortened pass through $a$ into $a$, while in Northern not only Anglian $\bar{e}=\hat{\boldsymbol{c}}$ but also $\bar{e}$ shorten to $e$, Midland generally showing the same tendency. Hence such words as OE hläefdige 'lady,' lädde 'led,' nê̂ddre 'serpent,' ondrêdde 'feared' appear in Southern
as lavedi, lädi, ladde, naddre, dradde, in Northern as lefdi, ledi, ledde, neddre, dredde. But Southern has $e$ in some words, such as flesh $=\mathrm{OE}$ flēsi.
184. OE $\bar{a}$ remained unchanged in the Northern dialect, as in $g \bar{a}$ ' go,' stän=OE gān, stän. In South-Thames E., and to a great extent in Midland, it was rounded into broad $\bar{g}: g \bar{g}$, stōn . So also in lōng $=\mathrm{OE}$ lāng. This change took place before the introduction of such French words as dàme, cơrāōg, which therefore kept their $\bar{a}$ in South-Thames E. as well as Northern.
185. OE $\bar{y}$ became $\bar{\imath}$ in North-Thames E., as also in the London dialect, but was preserved in the Southern dialect, as in für ' fire,' küjen 'make known' $=\mathrm{OE} f \bar{y}$, cypan, which also preserved Late West-Saxon $y=$ older $\bar{\imath} e$, as in hüren 'hear,' brüisen 'bruise' = Early West-Saxon hieran, briesan. Kentish kept its $\bar{e}$, as in mes 'mice.' $\bar{u}$ was brought into London E. in French words containing $u$, ui, as in diūc, cuire, fruit, frït; when final or before a vowel it became $\bar{e} u$, as is shown by such spellings as vertew, crewel=vertu, cruel.
186. Most of the ME diphthongs are the result of the weakening of OE $w$ and open $g$ and $\dot{g}$ after vowels, $w$ and open $g$ becoming $u$, as in $d \bar{e} u$, dew, drauen $=\mathrm{OE}$ dèarv, dragan, open $\dot{g}$ becoming $i$, as in wei ' way' $=\mathrm{OE}$ weg $\dot{g}$. The glide between a back vowel and a following $h$ developed into diphthongic $u$, which was sometimes written, sometimes not, as in broghte, broughte 'brought' $=\mathrm{OE}$ brohte. The following are the ME diphthongs :-
$\mathrm{ai}=\mathrm{OE} \propto \dot{g}$, as in dai, saide 'said ' $=\mathrm{OE} d a \dot{g}$, sag̀de.
$\mathrm{ei}=\mathrm{OE} \ell \dot{g}$, $\ell \dot{\delta}$, , as in wei, leide 'laid' $=\mathrm{OE}$ weg', leg'de.
$\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{i}=\mathrm{OE} \bar{e} \dot{g}$, as in $h \bar{e} \bar{i}$ 'hay ' $=\mathrm{OE} h \bar{e} \dot{g} . g r \bar{e} \bar{i}=$ Anglian gre $\bar{g}$, West-Saxon grâg. But OE $\bar{q} \dot{g}$ generally becomes $\bar{i}$ in ME (182).

oi occurs only in French words, such as joie, vois.
$\mathrm{au}=\mathrm{OE} a g$, as in drauen. In such words as laughter from Scandinavian hlahtr it is the result of glide-development. In words of French origin au corresponds sometimes to Old French $a u$, as in cause, sometimes to Old French nasal a before a nasal consonant, as in chaumbre, servaunt=Old French chambre (tjaanmbro), etc., the spellings chambre, etc. without $u$ occurring also in ME, where the pronunciation varied between pure (aan) and (au), which was an E. imitation of the former.
$\bar{e} u=\mathrm{OE}$ ērw, èorw, as in nêrve 'new'=Old Anglian nēorve, West-Saxon nizev. French $\bar{u}$ had this sound in certain cases (185).
$\overline{\text { ę }} \mathbf{u}=\mathrm{OE} \bar{a} r v, ~ e ̄ a r w, ~ a s ~ i n ~ d e ̄ ~ u . ~$.
ou $=\mathrm{OE}$ orw, og, as in tow, bowe $=\mathrm{OE}$ tow, boga.
$\bar{o} u=\mathrm{OE}$ ōw, as in stōu 'place,' blōwen 'bloom' $=\mathrm{OE}$ stōw, blöwan. In Early ME this diphthong also results from the development of a glide before $h$, as in inöuh-also written inöh-‘ enough,' from OE genōh, earlier g̀enög (143); this öu becomes $u u$ in late ME : ynough (i.nuux).
$\bar{q} u=\mathrm{OE} \bar{a} w, \bar{a} g$, as in $b \bar{g}$ weven 'blow' (wind), $\bar{\partial} w e n ' o w n$ ' $=\mathrm{OE}$ blāzuan, āgen.

## Consonants.

187. In Old French $h$ was silent in most words of Latin origin-being often dropped in writing as well as pronun-ciation-but was always pronounced in certain wordsmostly of German origin-which, of course, kept their $h$ when imported into ME both in spelling and pronunciation, the silent French $h$ being sometimes written, sometimes not ${ }_{2}$
but never pronounced. ME had silent French $h$ in such words as onūr, honour, hour, horrible.
188. OE $h r$-, $h l-$, $h n$ - became voiced in ME, as in ring, lüd, nŏte; hw- was kept, being written wh, as in what.
189. The hisses were voiced initially in all native words in South-Thames E., as shown by such spellings as volk, zingen, but not in French words, such as $f \bar{\varepsilon} s t e$ 'feast,' sauf 'safe,' because this change had been carried out before the introduction of French words. Southern $v$ was introduced into the London dialect in a few words, such as vixen $=\mathrm{OE}$ fyxen, feminine of fox, vat $=\mathrm{OE}$ fat' vessel.'
190. OE $\dot{c}$ and stopped $\dot{\delta}$ developed into the compound consonants ( $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{q}, \mathrm{qj}$ ) - that is, nearly into their MnE sounds

 secgan.
191. Open OE $g$ was rounded into ( $3 w)$, which passed into ( w ) and then ( u ) (186). $\quad w=\mathrm{OE} g$ was kept after a consonant, as in folwen 'follow' $=\mathrm{OE}$ folgian.
192. Strong $h$ was rounded into ( $\mathrm{x} w$ ) in the same way, as shown by its influence on preceding vowels (186). As final $h$ in ME often corresponded to medial $w$ in such pairs as inōh sing., inöwe plur. =Late OE gंenōh, ġenōge, OE final $h$ was changed by this analogy into $w$ when an $e$ was added —as was frequently the case (175): thus ME furwe 'furrow,' holwe 'hollow' $=\mathrm{OE}$ furh, holh. When final $e$ was dropped at the end of the ME period, a resulting final $w$ was changed to $u$ : folu, holu.
193. Open $\dot{g}$ was generally weakened to $i$ after consonants as well as in diphthongs: bürien 'bury,' beli' belly' $=\mathrm{OE}$ byrö́an, belġ.
194. Final OE front $h$ was voiced in ME when a vowel
was added; thus hïh ' high' has pl. hīze, hīe (182), from which a new uninflected form $h \bar{\imath}$ was formed.
195. In OE the Anglian dialects seem to have changed medial $c, g$ to $c, g$ before a back vowel, as in Anglian sécan $=$ West-Saxon sécan. Hence in ME we often find NorthThames $k$, as in sëke, corresponding to South-Thames $c h$, as in séche, MnE having the Northern form in seek, the Southern in beseech. So also MnE cold, gall point to Anglian cāld, galle, chalk to Southern cealc.
196. Scandinavian words keep their ( k ) and ( g ), as in ketel ' kettle,' gerp ' girth.' The Northern forms mikel 'great,' give, etc., $=$ Southern müchel; yiven, may also be due to Scandinavian influence.
197. In some cases the fluctuation between the two classes of consonants is due to change of vowvel in inflection. Thus the Standard ME gate 'gate' points to the OE pl. gatu, the Northern yate to the sing. (Anglian) giat. So also beginnen $=\mathrm{OE}$ beginnan owes its $g$ to the pret. and past partic. begann, begunnen.
198. $n g$ kept its (g) not only in such words as finger, English, but also in sing, singer, etc.
199. sc passed through (sj) into ( $($ ), written $s c h$, $s s h$, sh, as in short, shrūd, fish=OE siort, sirūd, fisci. Scandinavian sk was kept before all vowels, as in skin, ski$=$ Icelandic $s k \bar{y}$ ' cloud.'
200. The combinations $l r, n r$ are made into $l d r, n d r$ in ME by making the second half of the $l$ and $n$ into a stopped consonant, so as to facilitate the transition to the $r$, as in alder (the tree), bunder from OE aler genitive alre, bunor genitive punres. So also $m l$ became $m b l$ in bimbel 'thimble' from OE $\beta \bar{y} m(e) l e$ 'thumbstall,' literally ' little thumb,' from pūma 'thumb.'
201. Several of the consonants were liable to be dropped in weak syllables. Thus to the strong $i c h$ ' I ' $=\mathrm{OE} \dot{i}$ ' there corresponded a weak $\bar{i}$, which in Late ME almost supplanted the strong ich. Weak final $n$ was frequently dropped, as in gāme, bīnde infin., ibünde past partic. $=\mathrm{OE}$ gamen, bindan, gebunden. So also the dropping of $l$ in muche $=\mathrm{OE}$ miciel, $\bar{q} c h=\mathrm{OE} \overline{\bar{c}} l_{\bar{c}}$ 'each,' of the $w$ and $l$ in such=OE swelc', seems to have begun in weak (unstressed) forms of these words.

English Vowels.

| OE | ME | MnE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mann | man | men |
| sæt | sat | sæt |
| heard | hard | haad |
| nama | năme | neim |
| witan | witen | wit |
| helpan | helpen | help |
| heofon | hevene | hevn |
| stelan | stę̧len | stijl |
| sętan | setten | set |
| męte | męte | mijt |
| sunu | sune | sen |
| synn | sinne | sin |
| oxa | oxe | oks |
| open | $\overline{\text { q.pen }}$ | oupn |
| stān | stọn | stoun |
| d $\mathrm{x}_{1}$ | dęl | dijl |
| drēam | dręm | drijm |
| win | win | wain |
| grēne | grēne | grijn |
| dēop | dēp | dijp |
| hūs | hūs | haus |
| mōd | mōd | muwd |
| fȳr | fir | faiar |

Modern English Vowels.

| ME | fm |  | sMn | thMin | PE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | man | $\mathfrak{x}$, | æ | $\mathfrak{}$ | $x$ |
| $\cdots$ | path | æ, a | æ | ææ | $2 a$ |
| i | zioit | $i$ | $i$ | 7 | $i$ |
| e | end | $e$ | $e$ | $e$ | $e$ |
| u | SOn2 | $u$ | $\triangle$ | $\boldsymbol{e}$ | セ |
| - | $0 \times$ | 0 | 3 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| ā | name | ææ, аа | ee | ee | $e \mathrm{i}$ |
| 1 | wine | әi | әi | əi | ai |
| $\overline{\mathrm{c}}$ | green | ii | ii | ii , | ij |
| $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | deal | ce | ee | ee, ii | i) |
| ü | house | öu | әu | əu | au |
| $\overline{0}$ | 1720072 | uu | uu | uu | $u \mathrm{w}$ |
| $\bar{q}$ | stone | 00 | 00 | 00 | ou |
| ai | day | ai, ce | æi, eu \} |  | $e \mathrm{i}$ |
| ei | they | $e \mathrm{i}, e e$ | ee | ce | e1 |
| 0.1 | boil | oi, ui | oi, Ai | oi, zi | 0 i |
| ax | sazo | au, $n$ | 30 | 00 | 03 |
| ēu ( $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ) | new | y $y^{(1)}$ ), iu | y y , iu \} |  |  |
| $\overline{\varepsilon ̌}^{u}$ | fow | eu | $e \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{iu}$ | juu | juw |
| ou | grow |  |  | 00 | ou |
| $\overline{\text { qu }}$ | know | ou | ou, 0 | OO |  |

## MODERN ENGLISH SOUND-CHANGES.

202. The sound-changes in MnE are so great that their history requires a threefold division of the period into

| First MnE | . | . | . | . | ${ }_{1500-1600}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Second MnE | . | . | . | . | ${ }_{1600-1700}$ |
| Third MnE | . | . | . | ${ }^{1} 700-$ |  |

These divisions are necessarily somewhat arbitrary. In reality, First MnE extended some way into the following century.

## Orthography.

203. In First MnE weak $e$ was generally dropped-always when final-as in (naam, fal, stoonz)=ME nāme, falle(n), stēnes. At the same time double consonants between vowels were shortened, as in (jilin, fuler, sitin) = ME shilling, fuller, sittinge. But as the doubling served to show that the preceding vowel was short, the ME spellings were retained, and the doubling was extended to words which in ME had a single consonant, as in penny, herring, copper = ME peni, hering, coper. Final e being now silent was often omitted in writing, so that such words as ME belle were written bell with a final double consonant, which led to a frequent doubling of final ME consonants to show shortness of the preceding vowel, as in all, small, glass $=$ ME al, smal, glas . But this doubling was not carried out uniformly. So as the dropping of final $e$ in such words as hate (hat), hope (hoop)=: ME hätien, kīppien would have led to confusion with such words as hat, hop, final $e$ was kept in them, and came at last to be regarded as a mark of the length of the preceding vowel ; and accordingly was added to many words which
had no final $e$ in ME, as in wine, stone, foe $=$ ME win, stōn, $f \bar{l} . e$ was always kept after $v$ whether the preceding vowel was long or short, because $v$ was generally written $u$, and such a word as loue $=$ ME lŏve would have been mistaken for low if the $e$ had been dropped.
204. The writing of $y$ for $z$ was carried to great lengths in Early MnE. $y$ or $i e$ was always written finally as in many, manie, citie, but otherwise the two letters were written almost at random.
205. The close and open ME vowel-pairs $\bar{e}, \bar{\varepsilon}$ and $\bar{o}, \bar{\ell}$ diverged more and more in sound in Early MnE, so that it became necessary to distinguish them in writing. In ME ee, oo were used to express the close and open sounds indiscriminately, but in Early MnE they were gradually restricted to the close sounds, as in see, moon $=\mathrm{ME}$ sé, möne, $\mathrm{OE} \operatorname{se\overline {o}}(n)$, mona, the open sounds being expressed by the addition of the open vowel $a$, as in sea, boat = ME $s \bar{\varepsilon}, b \bar{q} t$, $\mathrm{OE} s \bar{e}, b \bar{a} t$. The latter sound was, however, more frequently expressed by single $o$ with length-e after the following consonant, as in stone. Single $e+$ length $-e$, on the other hand, expressed the close sound, especially in less familiar words, such as complete, extreme, ee being rarely written in such words.
206. In Early $\operatorname{MnE} i$ and $j, u$ and $v$ were still written almost indifferently both as vowels and consonants, so that, for instance, us, vine, join, could be written vs, uine, ioyne; but an arbitrary distinction began to be made, by which descending $i$ and angular $u$ were used only as consonants, as at present. This reform came from Italy through France.
207. In First MnE the orthography was still quite unsettled, but after a time it was found more convenient to keep one spelling for each word, even when there were differences of pronunciation; and as the number of books and readers
increased, the fixed orthography adopted by printers became more and more general, till in the Third MnE period it settled down into its present shape, except in a few isolated words such as cloathes, tyger, which in the beginning of the present century were made into clothes, tiger.
208. But as the sounds of the language went on changing with even greater rapidity than before, the difficulty of mastering the traditional spelling has increased year by year; so that although a knowledge of the standard orthography is the main test of education and refinement, few even of the upper classes have a perfect mastery of it.
209. We express this divergence between spelling and pronunciation by calling the present English spelling unphonetic. The orthography of Old English was, on the contrary, a phonetic one-in intention, at least, and as far as the defects of the Roman alphabet on which it was based would allow. Even in the Early MnE period the spelling was still in intention mainly phonetic : people tried to make their spelling represent their actual pronunciation, whereas now we learn the spelling of each word mechanically, by eye, without paying much regard to its pronunciation.
210. The first beginnings of intentionally unphonetic spellings appear at the end of the Old French period, when etymological spellings were introduced, by which, for instance, French dete, dette was made into debte by the influence of its Latin original debitum, and parfet, parfit (Modern French parfait) was made into parfaict by the influence of Latin perfectum. So also Old French autour (Modern French auteur) came to be written auctour by the influence of its Latin original auctorem. This Latinizing often led to etymologically incorrect spellings. Thus the Latin rhêtör 'orator' (from Greek rhétor) was written rethor, because th was a
more familiar combination of letters than $r$. By the influence of rethor, autour was made into authour, so as to give the word a more learned appearance. All these innovations made their way into English, where some of them were further developed. Thus the two spellings of autour were blended into the form aucthour by the side of auctour, authour, and ME parfit was latinized into perfit, perfect. None of these spellings had, at first, any influence on the pronunciation either of French or English. Modern French has, indeed, discarded these 'silent' letters in most of the above words. This writing of silent consonants in French was probably first suggested by $s$ having been dropped in pronunciation before another consonant in Old French itself in such words as isle 'island' from Latin insula, which in late old French was pronounced (iilo) = Early Old French (izlo), the vowel being lengthened, so that by degrees $s$ was often inserted without regard to etymology as a sign of length, as in pasle 'pale' = earlier pale from Latin pallidum. When the French isle was introduced into English, the silent $s$ was introduced in the native word iland, which was written island, the two words having really nothing in common except their meaning. Other native English words were misspelt in this way. Thus antem from OE antefn (from Greek antïphōna through some Low Latin form) was written anthem, to give it a more learned appearance.
211. In course of time these false spellings began to influence the pronunciation. Thus although in Early MnE perfect was still pronounced (perfet), by degrees the pedantic pronunciation (perfekt) came into general use. So also with many other latinized words.
212. In Latin th occurs only in words of Greek origin, and in the popular language it was made into ( $t$ ), so that
both in OE and. MnE th in Latin, and consequently in foreign, words generally was pronounced ( $t$ ), being often written so. Even in Early MnE this pronunciation was still very frequent, not only in such words as author, but also where the th was etymological, especially in proper names, such as Thomas. Even in Second MnE we still find such pronunciations as apothecary (potikəri), Catherine (kætərn). We still keep ( t ) in Thomas, and even write it in the shortened forms Tom, Kate ; but in most of the other words-including author, anthem, etc.-the influence of the spelling has introduced the ( p )-sound.
213. We are now able to answer the question, Why is English spelling unphonetic? The main reason is that it has not followed the changes of pronunciation. The present English spelling represents not the sounds of Present English but those of Early MnE or rather Late MnE. Such a spelling as knight is not in itself unphonetic; on the contrary, it is a phonetic representation-though an imperfect one-of the sound-group (kniçt), which in ME was the pronunciation of one of the words which we now pronounce (nait), the other one having been pronounced (niçt) in ME, and written accordingly night. Such a spelling as island is, on the other hand, unphonetic from every point of view, because it inserts a letter which is not pronounced now, and never was pronounced. Such a spelling as author was also originally unphonetic, though it has now become phonetic-but only by corrupting the pronunciation and obscuring the etymology of the word.

## Vowels.

214. The most convenient way of dealing with the MnE vowels is to take each Late ME vowel separately, and trace its history down to the present time.
215. a was gradually advanced to the broad (x), so that such words as man, sat had exactly their present pronunciation in Second MnE. But in First MnE the old (a)-sound was still kept by many speakers. Before $l$ not followed by. a vowel $a$ kept its back sound and the glide between it and the $l$ developed into an (u), so that such words as fall, calm became (faul, kaulm), being sometimes written faull etc. (a) was also kept after ( w , wh), as in was, what, where it was rounded in Second MnE, whence the present (woz, whot), although there was no rounding when a back consonant followed, as in wax, wag. In Second $\mathrm{MnE}(\mathfrak{x})$ was lengthened before ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{p}$ ) and in some other cases, as in glass, path (glææs, pææ). At the end of the Third MnE period this (ææ) was broadened into (aa), which is the present sound-(glaas, paap).
216. $\mathbf{i}$, e have generally remained unchanged. But in First MnE er final or before a consonant became (ar) as in star, hart, heart $=$ ME sterre, hert, herte. Not in the weak her.
217. $\mathbf{u}$ was preserved in First MnE , as in full, come (kum). In Second MnE it was unrounded to ( 1 ), which was afterwards lowered to its present sound (e)-(fel, kem). But before this lowering took place the ( $\Lambda$ ) was generally rounded back again to ( u ) between a lip-consonant and (l), as in full, wool=ME wolle, and in other words after lipconsonants, as in wood $=$ ME wöde, put.
218. $\ddot{\text { ü }}$ generally appears as $i$ in MnE , into which it had already been unrounded in the London dialect of ME. Thus

MnE has fill, sin= $\mathrm{OE} \dot{\operatorname{g}}$ efyllan, synn. But $(\mathrm{y})$ was preserved in First MnE in some words still written with the French $u$, such as busy, bury $=\mathrm{OE}$ bysiğŏ, byrg̈an.
219. o kept its ME sound (o) in First MnE, as in top, $o x$, and was broadened to its present sound in Second MnE, being lengthened before the same consonants which lengthen ( $x$ ), as in froth, cross, off. In Early MnE a glide-(u) developed between (o) and $l$ not followed by a vowel, as in bowl (boul) $=\mathrm{OE}$ bolla-where it was expressed in writing-folk (foulk) where it was not written any more than in the parallel fall (215).
220. ā underwent the same changes as $a$, being gradually narrowed till it passed from (ææ) into (ee), as in name, take, this last change being completed before the Second MnE lengthening of ( $x$ ) in path, etc. In Third MnE (ee) was further narrowed into close (ee), which in the present century was cleft into (ei, ei).
221. i was diphthongized in First MnE by lowering and retracting the tongue in the first half of the vowel (105) till it became ( $\mathrm{\partial}$ ), as in wine, vice, with a very high close ( $\mathrm{\partial}$ ), which was broadened in the next two periods, till the diphthong became almost (ai), as at present.
222. $\bar{e}, \bar{e}$. Late ME $\bar{e}$ probably had a very close sound between (ee) and (ii), and when in First MnE the old $i$ had become (ai), the old $\bar{e}$ developed into full (ii), as in see, field $=$ ME sè $(n)$, fêld, ME $\bar{\varepsilon}$ keeping its open sound (ee), as in sea, there, this (ee) being narrowed to (ee) in Second MnE, which by the middle of the Third MnE period was further narrowed to (ii), ME $\bar{e}$ and $\varepsilon$ being thus levelled, as in (sii) $=$ see, sea. But the change into (ii) was arrested by a preceding $r$ in break, great (breik, greit), which were, however, also pronounced (briik, griit) in the last century. In First $\operatorname{MnE} \bar{\varepsilon}$
was often shortened to (e), especially before stops, as in bread, heavy.
223. $\bar{u}$ was diphthongized in the same way as $\bar{i}$, becoming (öu) with very close (ö), as in house, crown, the first element being gradually unrounded and broadened into its present sound-between ( $\partial$ ) and (æ).
224. $\overline{0}, \bar{q}$. When $\bar{u}$ had become (öu), ME $\bar{o}$-which was probably a very close sound between (oo) and (uu)-was moved up into the place of the old $\bar{u}$, as in too, moon (tuu, muun). $\bar{g}$ kept its open sound ( $(o 0)$ at first, as in $g o$, stone, and was narrowed to close ( 00 ) in Second MnE, which in the present century was cleft into (ou, ou). The older sound has been preserved in broad (brod) through the influence of the (r). (uu) $=\mathrm{ME} \bar{o}$ was shortened in some words in First MnE, as in flood (flud), mother, gum $=$ OE fiod, möder, goma, whence the present forms (fled) etc. There was another shortening of (uu) in Second MnE, especially before stops, as in good (gud), book, bosom. These words did not change their (u) into ( $\mathfrak{e}$ ), because this change was already completed.
225. ai, ei. In MnE the ME diphthongs $\ddot{e} i, \bar{q} i$ shortened their first elements, and so were levelled under ei. As ai became (æi) in First MnE by the regular change of (a) into $(\mathfrak{x})$-which in this case was hastened by the fronting influence of the (i)-ai and $e i$ became very similar in sound, so that there was a tendency to level $e i$ under $a i$, as in way, $h a y, ~ c l a y=\mathrm{ME}$ wei, he $\bar{e}, ~ c l \bar{q} i=\mathrm{OE}$ claç $\dot{g}$. The weak they, their kept $e i$, as also several other words, especially before $g h$, as in neighbour, eight. In Second MnE these diphthongs were smoothed into (ee), so that tail and tale, etc. had the same sound, and went through the same changes.
226. oi was sometimes kept in First MnE, but in some
pronunciations the（i）raised the preceding（o）to（u），such words as boil having the two pronunciations（boil）and（buil）． In Second MnE this（u）underwent its regular change into （ $\Lambda, \mathfrak{e}$ ）；and the resulting（vi）was so similar in sound to the （ai）of wine，etc．，that it was levelled under it，and boil etc． was pronounced（bail）and（boil），the former being the more usual pronunciation．In the next period（boil）etc．again got the upper hand by the help of the spelling，and the noun $b i l e=\mathrm{OE}$ byle＇ulcer＇was mistakenly made into boil．

227．au was kept in First MnE，but soon passed into open（ $⿰ 丿 𠃌 ⿱ 一 土)$－the long of our vowel in not－as in sazu，fall（215）， which in the Third period was narrowed to its present sound． In some words au lost its（u），as in laugh，which in Second MnE passed through（læf）into（lææf），whence the present （laaf），half－also written haulf－halve．au＝French $a$ before nasals（i86）generally went through the same changes，as in aunt，comma（u）nd，la（u）mp．

228． $\bar{e} u$ ， $\bar{u}$ ； $\bar{e} u$ ．At the end of the ME period the cleaving of final $\bar{u}$ into $\bar{e} u$（185）had been extended to non－ final $\bar{u}$ as well，so that this sound was completely levelled under $\bar{e} u$ ，which in First MnE became（iiu，iu）by the regular change of $\bar{e}$ into（ii），as in duke，fruit，new，true－also written trewe $=\mathrm{ME}$ dū̄$c$ ，frīt，nēzwe，trēzue．ME $\bar{e} u$ remained in First MnE，but with the usual shortening of the first element， as in few（feu）＝ME fizwe，and became（iu）in Second MnE， all the three ME sounds $\bar{u}, \bar{e} u, \bar{\varepsilon} u$ being thus levelled under （iu）．In the Third period（iu）shifted the stress on to the second element，becoming（i．uu，juu）．The（j）was afterwards dropped after（ $\mathrm{r}, \int, 3$ ）and often after（ 1 ），as in true，chuse－ now written choose－juice，lute．In Cockney and New－Eng－ land American it is dropped after all the other consonants as well，as in new，duty，being kept only initially，as in union．
229. $\bar{o} u, \bar{q} \mathrm{u}$ both became (oou) or (ou) in First MnF, as in grow, know, soul $=$ ME grōwen, kn̄̄quen, sp̄ule, which in the Second period was smoothed into (00) and then narrowed into (oo), as in go (224), so that know and no etc. had the same vowel.

## Weak Vowels.

230. In First MnE long weak vowels were generally shortened, as in honour (onur), image (imad3, imæd3), nation (naasjun, nææsjun) $=$ ME onūr, imāge, nāciün. Weak diphthongs were kept, as in nature (naatiur) $=\mathrm{ME}$ nātüre, certain. Short vowels were generally kept, as in moral, person, sorrow (soru), but $e$ before $r$ was obscured to ( $\partial$ ), as in better, and occasionally other vowels as well in such words as scholar, honour, nature. But there was also an artificial pronunciation which tried to follow the spelling, pronouncing not only (skolar) etc. but also (naasjon, kondisjon) etc., although the 0 in nation was only another way of spelling ( $u$ ) as in son $=$ OE sunu. $\quad o u$, ow $=\mathrm{ME}(\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{uu})$ was also often pronounced (o) or even (ou) in honour, emperour, sorrow, etc.
231. In Second MnE the natural pronunciation got the upper hand again. Weak (u) passed by regular change into (e), as in (neefen) nation, and such pronunciations as (piktor) $=$ picture, which are now vulgarisms, were in general use. As (e) was very similar in sound to ( $\partial$ ), there was a tendency to make ( $\partial$ ) the general weak vowel, although the older clear weak vowels were still kept in many cases, as in (næfenæl, næfonæl) national, now pronounced (næjənəl). In Second MnE weak initial vowels wêre often dropped, especially in long words, as in apprentice (prentis), estate (steet), opinion (pinjon). We still keep the short form of
the first word in the expression 'prentice hand, but the vowel has generally been restored by the influence of the spelling.

## Consonants.

232. During the transition from ME to MnE the hisses $\beta$, $s, f$, became voiced in weak syllables, especially in inflectional -es, as in the gen. sing. mannes and the plur. stonnes, whence MnE (mænz, stounz), the breath sounds being preserved in strong monosyllables such as gés, pens $=\mathrm{MnE}$ (gijs, pens) contrasting with penies $=\mathrm{MnE}$ (peniz). The same change was carried out in weak monosyllables, so that numerous doublets were formed. Thus the emphatic adverb of $=\mathrm{MnE}$ off preserved its ( f ), while the preposition of was weakened to (ov). There were similar doublets of wip, is, his, etc. Initial $b$ was voiced in the weak forms of some very frequent-mostly pronominal words-such as $p e, b \bar{e}, p i n$,
 being now lost.
233. The voicing of weak ( t ) into ( d 3 ) in knowledge $=$ ME $k n \bar{q}$ wwlēche is quite parallel to the voicing of weak (s) in stones. We have the same weakening in the Present English pronunciation of such words as ostrich (ostrid3) and the ending -wich in Greenwich, Norwich.
234. Towards the end of the First MnE period (s) preceded by a weak vowel and followed by a strong vowel became ( $z$ ), whence the Present English distinction between exert (igrzoat) and exercise (•eksasaiz), the ( s ) being preserved unchanged in the latter word because it is followed by a weak vowel. Other examples are exhibit compared with exhibition, example, anxiety ( $¥ y$ 'zaiiti) compared with
anxious (æŋfəs), where the change of (s) into ( $(f)$ is a later one (241), dessert, disease, dissolve, transact.

Exceptions to this rule are the result of analogy. Thus to absent (əb)sent) owes its (s) to influence of the adjective absent (æbsənt), research to the influence of search.
235. Initial (h), which was preserved through First and Second MnE, began to be dropped at the end of the last century, but has now been restored in Standard E. by the combined influence of the spelling and of the speakers of Scotch and Irish E., where it has always been preserved. It is also preserved in American E., while it has been almost completely lost in the dialects of England, including Cockney E.-as also in vulgar Australian.
236. But (h) is always dropped in weak syllables when not at the beginning of the sentence, as in (-hij sed -ij wəz redi) he said he was ready, whence the distinction between the emphatic (•him) and the unemphatic (-im).

The dropping of $h$ in weak syllables is very old. Even in OE we find such spellings as eora, Eadelm=heora 'their,' Eadhelm (a man's name).
237. As we have seen, strong $h$ appears in ME in the form of ( c ) and ( $\mathrm{x} w$ ). In First MnE the former was weakened to a mere breath-glide, and then dropped, the preceding vowel being lengthened, so that ME night (niçt) passed through (niht) into (niit), whence by the regular change (nait). But the older (niht) was still kept up by some speakers, and the co-existence of (nəit) and (niht) gave rise to the blending (nəiht) or (nəiçt), which, although artificial, seems to have been not uncommon in speech. The $g h$ in high, nigh, weigh, etc. = ME high, hi was generally silent. The back-gh was kept in such words as laugh, thought, enough (lauxw, pouxwt, poxzwt, inuxw), and
in many words the lip element was exaggerated in Second MnE till it became (f)-(læf, lææf, poft, poot, inef)-which in draft by the side of draught-both from ME draght-has been adopted in the spelling.
238. $\mathbf{r}$ was kept unchanged in First MnE, being afterwards gradually weakened till it lost its trill everywhere. Towards the end of the Third period it began to be dropped everywhere except before a vowel, as in the present Standard E.
239. Already in First MnE (r) had developed a glide before it in such words as. fire, flower (fəiər, flöuər) $=\mathrm{ME}$ $f i r, f u \bar{u} r$, and had broadened a preceding $e$ into (a), as in star (216). In Second MnE it began to modify preceding vowels in the direction of ( $\partial$ ), so that er , $\mathrm{ir}, \mathrm{ur}$ came to be levelled under (ər) or (er), as in her (her) fir, bird, fur, turn. In Third MnE it modified preceding (ee) $=\bar{a}, a i, e i$ to (ee), as in care (keer), fair, their contrasting with name (neem), fail, veil; and towards the end of this period it broadened a preceding (æ) into (a), as in star, hard. ME $\bar{\varepsilon} r$, ōr appear in Third MnE sometimes as (iir, uur), as in fear, moor, being sometimes broadened into (eer, or), as in there, bear, floor. In the present century ( $r$ ) has been dropped everywhere except before a vowel, $r$ final or before a consonant being represented only by a preceding glide-(ə), as in (faiz) $=$ Early MnE (fəiər)=ME $f i ̈ r$. This (ə) $=r$ has broadened preceding (ij, uw) into (i, u), as in here (hia), poor, cure (kjua) contrasting with he (hij), pool (puwl). The glide-(ə) before ( $r$ ) was finally absorbed by a preceding mixed or broad vowel, (er) in her etc. passing through (еә) into (әә), (az, oz) into (aa, э), as in star, floor.
240. 1. Already in First MnE (l) began to be dropped between ( u ) and a following consonant, as in half (haulf,
hauf), folk (foulk, fouk); also in should (fuuld, fuld, fud), would, could, where the (l) was at first dropped only when these words were weak.
241. s, z. In Second and Third MnE the combinations ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{zj}$ ) became ( $(, 3)$, as in nation (neefen) = Early MnE (nææsjun) $=\mathrm{ME}$ nācioun (naasi-uun), sure (siur, sjuur, juur), usual (iuziuæl, juuzuæl), such words as nature, verdure passing through (næætjur, neetjor, verdjur, verdjor) into the present (neit $\int ə$, vəədzə).
242. w in First MnE was kept before (r), which it rounded, and was then dropped itself, as in write (rwait), the ( r ) being afterwards unrounded.
243. In Second MnE $w$ was dropped in weak syllables, especially in -ward, -wards, as in Edward (edərd), backwards (bækardz). We still drop the $w$ in towards (todz), but it has been restored in the other words through the influence of the spelling, except in vulgar speech. The weak ending -wich drops the $w$ in all familiar place-names, such as Greenwich (grinidg).
244. $\mathbf{k}$ was kept initially before ( n ) in First MnE ., as in know [compare acknowledge], the ( n ) being unvoiced, and the (k) afterwards dropped, so that in Second MnE (knou, knhou) became ( $\mathrm{n} h \mathrm{oo}$ ), this ( $\mathrm{n} h$ ) being afterwards levelled under the more frequent ( n ) in $n o$, etc.
245. g was dropped before ( n ) in Second MnE as in gnaw.
246. In First MnE medial ( ng ) was shortened to ( y ) in such words as singer (singr), singing $=$ ME (singer), etc. by the analogy of final ( y ) in sing; but ( ng ) was kept in the comparison of adjectives, as in longer, longest.
247. t, d. In Second MnE (t) preceded by the hisses ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{f}$ ) and followed by the vowel-like consonants ( $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}$ )
was regularly dropped, as in thistle (pisl), fasten (fææsn), chestnut, Christmas, often.
248. In First MnE (d) preceded by a vowel and followed by ( r ) was opened into ( $\delta$ ) in many words, such as father, together, hither $=\mathrm{OE}$ fader, Late ME fader, fäder (173), OE tö'gadre, hider. Conversely ( $(\mathbf{\delta})$ often became (d) in First MnE in combination with ( r ) and ( l ), as in murther, murder, rudder, fiddle $=\mathrm{OE}$ morbor, rōpor, fipele.
249. b. In First MnE final (b) was dropped after (m), as in lamb. Hence $b$ was added in writing to words which in ME had only $m$, as in limb, numb $=$ ME lim, inumen 'taken,' 'seized ' $=\mathrm{OE}$ g'enumen.

## PRESENT ENGLISH.

## Stress.

## Word-Stress.

250. The characteristic features of Present English stress are some of them of OE origin, while others developed themselves in ME and in the different periods of MnE , some being apparently of very recent origin.
251. In Present English, as in OE, the most general principle of stress is that subordinate words-especially form-words-have weak stress. Thus in he is a man of the world, the subordinate words $h e$, is, $a$, of, the all have weak stress. Hence the weakened stress in a :piece of bread, and the distinction between -some bread and some people.
252. The OE principle of putting the stress on the first syllable of a word generally resulted in the principal stress being on the root-syllable of inflected or derived words.

This principle is still maintained in MnE in native words, as in fearful, fearfully, fearless, fearlessness, fisher, fishery, fisherman (fifomən).
253. We have seen that already in ME many long words of French origin with the stress on the last syllable threw it back on to the first syllable by the analogy of the native stress (167). In MnE this tendency has become stronger and stronger, so that the first-syllable stress in such words as honour, pity, emperor, justify, which in Late ME was only occasional, has now become fixed. Even in the present century many of these words have thrown back their stress to the first syllable, such as balcony, crystalline, recondite, which in the last century were stressed on their second syllables.
254. Native words which had weak stress on the first syllable in OE and ME, such as arise, become, forgive, to-day, still keep this stress in MnE, as also those French words which preserved a similar stress in ME through their resemblance to the above native words, such as avow, defend.
255. Many other foreign words have also preserved their advanced stress. There are many foreign derivative endings -chiefly Greek and Latin, often modified in their passage through French-which regularly take the stress, such as -esque, -tion, -sion etc., -bility, -graphy, as in picturesque, grotesque, imagination, position, possibility, photography, in all of which the stress is taken away from the root-syllable, on which it falls in the shorter forms imagine, possible, photograph etc. Many words which were imported from French and other foreign languages in the MnE period keep their advanced stress even when the analogy of other words points to throwing it back on the first syllable, such as machine, caprice-which show their French origin by the pronuncia-
tion of $i$ as (ij)-champagne, canoe, gazelle. Words which were imported straight from Latin generally keep the Latin stress, as in pa.pyrus, even when the final syllable is dropped, as in create, severe. Words of Greek origin follow the Latin accentuation as well as the Latin spelling, so that the original Greek stress is preserved in English only when it happens to be preserved in Latin also, as in genesis, museum $=$ Greek génesis, mouseíon.
256. But foreign words even of recent introduction are always liable to have their stress thrown back on to the first syllable, or, at any rate, towards the beginning of the word, as soon as they become popular, which in Latin words is generally shown by their shortening or dropping their endings, as in $\cdot$ auditor $=$ Latin audìtor, $\cdot$ discipline $=$ Latin discip $\cdot \overline{\text { inna }}$, phi:losophy=Latin philo'sophia from Greek philosophíã.
257. When a foreign word is used in different senses, it often happens that in its more familiar meaning it throws the stress back, keeping the original stress in the less familiar meaning. Thus we keep the original Latin stress in the adjective aurgust and the name $A u \cdot g u s t u s=$ Latin au'gustus, but throw it back in the month-name 'August. So also the adjective minute keeps its Latin stress, which is thrown back in the more familiar noun minute.
258. In many cases where the same foreign word is used both as a noun and a verb in English, it keeps its end-stress when used as a verb by the analogy of the native verbs which have the same stress, while the corresponding noun- or adjective-form takes the stress on the first syllable, so that the distinction between such words as the noun accent and the verb to accent is really ultimately due to the analogy of the OE pairs forwyrd, forweorban etc., which analogy was greatly aided by the fact that many verbs of French and

Latin origin also threw forward their stress; thus the contrast between the foreign verbs in duce, invade etc. and the native nouns income, insight etc. led to the distinction between the noun rinsult and the verb in sult from Latin insultāre. The following are additional examples of such pairs:-

| - absent | to ab-sent | - compound | to compound |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - abstract | to ab-stract | - extract | to extract |
| - affix | to a.ffix | -frequent | to fre:quent |
| - object | to ob-ject | -produce | to produce |
| -present | to pre'sent | -rebel | to rebel |

In some cases, however, the noun- and adjective-forms keep the verb-stress, as in advice (to ad•vise), cement.
259. The normal stress of a word is always liable to be changed by considerations of emphasis, even a weak word or syllable being capable of taking strong stress if emphasized, as in that is the thing to do, especially in cases of contrast, as in to give and forgive, not subjective but objective, against the normal stress for give, subjective, objective.

## Quantity.

260. In MnE there is a general tendency to shorten long vowels. As we have seen (222, 224), long vowels are often shortened before certain consonants in native words, as in blood (bled) $=\mathrm{OE}$ and ME blōd.
261. There is also a tendency to shorten long vowels-or keep strong short vowels from being lengthened-when followed by a single consonant and a weak vowel, in words of French origin, whether popular or learned, as in cavern, cavity compared with cave; gratify, gratitude compared with grateful; perish, method, benefit, relative, astonish, philosophy,
astronomy, pleasure (plezo) compared with please, courage (kerid3), four ish.
262. But when the consonant is followed by two weak vowels, the preceding strong vowel is often lengthened, as in atheist, radiant, patient, tedious, especially in the derivative endings -tion, -sion, etc., preceded by a strong vowel, as in nation, admiration, adhesion, notion, corrosion, although $i$ is not lengthened under these circumstances, as in hideous, petition. Short vowels are also preserved when the two short vowels are preceded by certain consonants, such as $n$ and $s h$, as in companion, fashion.
263. There is also a variety of other exceptions, especially before certain endings, such as $-a l,-i v e,-y,-n$ and $-r$ preceded by weak vowels, as in fatal, decisive, navy compared with navigate, bacon, paper, labour, those in $-n$ and $-r$ being probably the result of the influence of native words, such as the preterite participles taken, shaken, etc., and the numerous derivatives in -er, such as maker.
264. But some of these words with long vowels shorten them when another syllable is added, as in national compared with nation, tyrannous compared with tyrant.
265. In words which have been imported direct from Latin and Greek, the vowels are generally long under the circumstances described above, as in basis, ether, regent, crisis, focus, strophe. But there are several exceptions, such as simile (simili), chemist, the quantity varying in some words, such as pathos (peipos, pæpos).

## ACCIDENCE.

## NOUNS.

## Old English.

## Gender.

266. There are three genders of nouns in OE-masculine, feminine, and neuter. The genders of nouns are most clearly shown by the accompanying definite article 'the'masculine se, feminine sēo, and neuter pat. The gender is partly natural, partly grammatical. It is to be noted that by natural gender names of children and young animals are neuter: pat cild 'child,' pat cealf 'calf.' In the same way diminutives are neuter: pat mag่d-en 'maiden,' ' girl.' Names of things and abstractions are often neuter, but as often masculine or feminine: pat hëafod 'head'; se here 'army'; sēo wynn 'joy.' Names of living beings sometimes have a grammatical gender which contradicts the natural gender ; thus pat wif 'woman,' 'wife' is neuter.
267. Compound nouns follow the gender of the last element. Hence se wifmann 'woman' is masculine, because se mann 'human being' is masculine.
Strong and Wear.
268. All nouns belong to one of two classes-strong and weak. Weak nouns are those which inflect mainly with $-n$, such as se steorra 'star,' plural nominative steorran. All
others are strong, such as se stān 'stone,' plural nominative stānas.

## Cases.

269. OE nouns have four cases, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, which are not always clearly distinguished.

## Declensions.

The following are the regular noun-declensions:-
Strong Masculine.

|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 270. Nom. ${ }^{1}$ stān | stānas | ende 'end, | endas |  |
| Dat. | stāne | stānum | ende | endum |
| Gen. stänes stäna | endes | gnda |  |  |

Strong Neuter.

|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 271. Nom: $h$ hūs | hūs | scipp'ship' | scïpu |  |
| Dat. hūse | hūsum | scipe | scipum |  |
| Gen. hūses | hūsa | scipes | scipäa |  |

272. Some neuters have a plural ending $-r u$, such as cild, plural cildru, cildrum, cildra. The neuter plural ending -u is dropped after a long syllable, that is, one containing a long vowel, as in hüs 'houses,' or containing a vowel followed by more than one consonant, as in folc ' nations.'

Strong Feminine.

| 273. Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. caru'care' cara | synn'sin', | synna |  |
| Acc. care | cara | synne | synna |
| Dat. care | carum | synne | synnum |
| Gen. care | carena | synne | synna |

${ }^{1}$ Wherever the accusative is not given separately, it is the same as the nominative.
274. The $-u$ of the nom. sing. is, like the $-u$ of the neuter plur. nom., kept only after a short syllable.

Weak Masculine.
275.

Sing.
Nom. nama 'name'
Acc. naman
Dat. naman
Gen. naman
Weak Neuter.
Sing. Plur.
Nom. éage 'eye' éagan
Acc. èage éagan
Dat. éagan éagum
Gen. éagan éagena

Plur. naman
naman
namum
namena
Weak Feminine.
Sing. Plur.
ïrice 'church' cirican
iirican iirican
airician iiricium
cirician ièrïcna
276. There are besides a number of irregular strong nouns. The most important of these are the mutationnouns, such as the masculine mann 'man,' föt 'foot,' tōp 'tooth,' plur. menn, fēt ( $f \bar{\alpha} t)$ ), tēp, the feminine gōs ' goose,' mūs ' mouse,' plur. gēs, mys.

Masculine Mutation-nouns.

| 277. $\quad$ Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. mann | męn | föt | fēt |
| Dat. menn | mannum | fēt | fötum |
| Gen. mannes | manna | fötes | föta |

> Feminine Mutation-Nouns. Sing.
278.

Nom. $m \bar{u} s$
Dat. $m \bar{y} s$
Gen. mūse
$m \bar{y} s$
mūsum
mūsa
279. The relationship-words in -er, -or, such as feder ' father,' mödor 'mother,' bröpor ' brother' are partly regular, partly indeclinable, the dat. sing. generally having mutation :-

| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fader | faderas | brōpor | bröpor, brōpru |
| fader | faderum | brēper | brōprum |
| fader, faderes | fadera | brōpor | brōpra |

280. Some nouns are indeclinable, such as the abstract fem. nouns in $-u$, such as ieldu 'old age,' streng'u 'strength.' The fem. nieht 'night' is indeclinable in the sing. and in the nom. plur., the masc. mōnap 'month' being also indeclinable in the nom. plur.; we still preserve these unchanged plurals in the compounds fortnight $=\mathrm{OE}$ fēowertiène nieht 'fourteen nights' and twelvemonth.

The inflection of nouns is attended by various modifications which fall under the general head of OE sound-changes :-
281. Nouns ending in weak -el, -ol, -en, -er, etc. often drop their vowel before an inflection beginning with a vowel, thus se fugol ' bird,' pat wâpen 'weapon' have plurals eng̀las, fuglas, wôpnu.
282. For the change of $a$ into $a$ in such nouns as se dag 'day,' gen. sing. dages, plur. nom. dagas, pat dal 'dale,' 'valley,' gen. sing. dales, plur. nom. dalu, see § 127.
283. For the dropping of $h$ in such nouns as se Wealh ' Welshman,' plur. Wëalas, see § 141.
284. In Late OE final $h$ and medial $g$ alternate in such words as se troh (earlier OE trog), plur. trogas, sēo burh, gen. sing. burge (143).
285. Final $u$ in the nom. sing. of some nouns, such as pat meolu 'meal,' sēo sīeadu 'shadow,' 'shade,' sēo sinu 'sinew' is a weakening of original $w$, which reappears before an inflection beginning with a vowel, as in the gen. sing. meolwes, sieadzee, sinwe. This $-u$ is dropped after a long syllable, as in sēo mêd 'meadow,' plur. mâdwa.
288. The dropping of $h$ before vowels (141) leads to contraction, as in pat feoh 'money,' gen. sing. fēos.

## Early Middle English.

287. In Early Southern the old gender-distinctions in nouns were still partially kept up. By degrees, however, the inflections of the adjectives and the definite article were dropped ; and when the Earliest Southern $p e, p_{\bar{e}} 0, p_{\varepsilon} t$ were levelled-as they soon were-under the uninflected $p e$, so that bēo sïnne $=\mathrm{OE}$ sēo synn and pgt hüs became pe sünne, be hūs, the old genders were gradually forgotten, simply because there was nothing to mark them.
288. The first great change in the old system of inflections was the levelling of weak vowels under $-e(174)$. By this change the distinctions of gender in the OE weak forms möna, sunne, éage were levelled in the Early Southern forms möne, sunne, èie as far as the endings were concerned. The distinctions of case were almost entirely effaced by this change in such words as OE caru, acc., dat., and gen. sg. care, nom. plur. cara. So also the inflections in OE stäne (dat. sing.), stāna (gen. plur.), scīpu (nom. plur.) were levelled under the same final $-e$.
289. The only endings which could withstand this levelling were the gen. sing. -es, the nom. plur. -as, which both became -es in ME, as in stōnes $=\mathrm{OE}$ stänes, stänas, the weak -an, which became -en, the gen. plur. -ena, which became -ene. The dat. plur. -um became -em; but as this was the only case ending in $m$, the consonant was levelled under the more frequent $n$, so that ME -en represented OE $-u m$ as well as -an, as in ivèren $=\mathrm{OE}$ g̀efèran, ġefêrum.
290. The general result of these changes was not only to obscure the distinctions of the cases, but also in some classes of nouns to obscure the distinction between singular and plural. The confusion was most marked in the feminine
nouns, where the changes we have been considering gave the following as the endings corresponding to those of the OE nouns caru, synn, sunne respectively :-

| Sing. Nom. | $-e$ | $-*$ | $-e$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Acc. | $-e$ | $-e$ | $-e n^{*}$ |
| Dat. | $-e$ | $-e$ | $-e n^{*}$ |
| Gen. $-e$ | $-e$ | $-e n^{*}$ |  |
| Plur. Nom. $-e^{*}$ | $-e^{*}$ | $-e n$ |  |
| Dat. $-e n$ | $-e n$ | $-e n$ |  |
| Gen. | $-e n e$ | $-e$ | $-e n e$ |

291. It is evident that the forms marked * in the above table are in the minority, while at the same time most of them obscure the distinction between singular and plural. They were accordingly got rid of by the analogical extension of those forms which were in the majority and more distinctive. The -e of care and sunne was extended to the OE nom. synn, which became ME sünne. The plural -en of sunnen $=\mathrm{OE}$ sunnan was extended to all feminine nouns-ME caren, sünnen $=\mathrm{OE}$ cara, synna. As -en was now the distinctive mark of the plural, it was given up in the singular of sunne, whose oblique cases took the same form as the nominative, as in the other two classes. The final result was that all feminine nouns were uniformly declined as follows:-

|  | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Nom. | $-e$ | $-e n$ |
| Acc. | $-e$ | $-e n$ |
| Dat. | $-e$ | $-e n$ |
| Gen. | $-e$ | $-e n e$ |

292. As might be expected, the gen. plur. -ene was often levelled under the other plural cases, becoming -en.
293. Weak masculines and neuters were declined in the same way-sing. name, èie, plur. namen, èien. The only
distinction between masculine and neuter weak nounsnamely in the acc. sing. (OE naman, éage) was thus lost.
294. $-\ell=$ the OE neuter plur. ending $-u$ was made into -en for the sake of distinctness, as in dëofen, children $=\mathrm{OE}$ dēoflu, cildru, sing. dēovel, chīld. In many of these words $-\ell=\mathrm{OE}-u$ was extended to the singular, as in dale 'valley,' bede ' prayer,' $=\mathrm{OE}$ dal, g̀ebed, plur. dalu, gebedu. These OE plurals became dalen, beden in ME.
295. The remaining masculine and neuter nouns kept their original strong forms. The dat. sing in -e was kept at first, but often dropped, because such forms as weie, wörde $=$ OE wege, worde suggested a weak singular, and so the dat. sing. was levelled under the nom. in such words-wei, wörd -in accordance with the general ME tendency. The dat. plur. -en $=\mathrm{OE}-u m$ was disused for a similar reason -because it suggested a weak plural. The gen. plur. $-\ell=\mathrm{OE}-a$ was sometimes kept, but the more distinct weak ending -ene was often used instead-kingene, as in alre kingene king ' king of all kings,' wördene instead of kinge, wörde-both of these forms being gradually supplanted by the nominative. In the neuter plur. the OE undeclined forms were still kepthūs, wörd-but the strong masc. ending was often extended to the neuters, so as to distinguish the two numbers-hïses, wördes.

The following are then the regular Early Southern ME noun-inflections, those which are liable to be dropped being in ( ) : -

## Strong Masculine and Neuter.


297. The neuter child has plur. children, corresponding to OE cildru.

Strong and Weak Feminine.
298. Sing. Nom. sünne, chirche Dat. sünne, chirche Gen. sünne, chirche

Plur. sünnen, chirchen sünnen, chirchen sünnen(e), chirchen(e)

Weak Masculine and Neuter.
299. Sing. Nom. ivēre ēie Dat. ivēre èie Gen. ivēre è̀e

Plur.

| ivëren | èien |
| :--- | :--- |
| ivēren | êien |
| ivēren(e) | êien(e) |

300. The relationship-words vader, möder, süster generally remained unchanged in the sing., having the regular plurals vaderes, mödren, süstren. bröper of course lost the OE mutation in the dat. sing., which became bröper. But this mutation was transferred to the plur. on the analogy of fēt, men, etc., so that bröpre $=\mathrm{OE}$ bröpru became brëpre, and then, by the usual change of plural $-e$ into $-e n$, brēpren.
301. Final $e$ was dropped after a weak vowel, as in lefdi ' lady'-OE hlāfdig̀e. The plural ending $-s$ without a vowel occurs only in long French words, as in parlürs 'parlours,' vestimenz ' vestments,' where $z=(\mathrm{ts})$.

In Old French such a word as vestiment is inflected thus-
Sing. Nom. vestimenz Acc vestiment

Plur. Nom. vestiment Acc. vestimens
As the distinction between nom. and acc. had been lost in ME., the French -s was naturally identified with the English plur. inflection ees.
302. In Early Midland and Northern the distinctions of grammatical gender were entirely lost during the transition from OE, the distinction between strong and weak forms
being also done away with, except in a few isolated forms. The natural consequence was that the ees of the genitive was extended to weak nouns and to all feminine nouns, the plur. -es being then extended in the same way, first to strong neuters, then to weak nouns and feminine nouns generally. The final result was that the only regular inflections left were gen. sing. -es, plur. nom. and gen. -es, the distinction between nom. and gen. plur. being kept up only in irregular plurals such as men, gen. mennes.

## Late Middle-English.

303. Standard ME follows the Early Midland dialect in its noun-inflections: it has only one case, the genitive; the original nominative, accusative, and dative being now merged in one 'common case' :-

| Sing. Common | wōrd, | sinne | man |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | wördes, sinnes | mannes |  |
| Plur. Common | wōrdes, sinnes | men |  |
| Gen. | wōrdes, sinnes | mennes |  |

304. The $e$ of -es-the gen. as well as the plur. endingis often dropped in English as well as French words after a weak syllable, as in fäders (also fädres), lādys (also lādyes), and after a strong vowel, in order to avoid hiatus, as in fors 'foes.' Also in pens $=$ earlier penies, of which pens was originally the weak form, the word having lost its stress in such combinations as tweg penies.
305. The whole ending -es is often dropped in French words and proper names ending in a hiss-consonant, as in the gen. sing. Troilus, Vènus, and the plurals cās 'cases,' vers (also verses).

This is the result of French influence, for in Old French such
a word as vers, whose $s$ is part of the body of the word, was necessarily indeclinable :-

| Sing. Nom. vers | Plur. Nom. vers |
| ---: | ---: |
| Acc. vers | Acc. vers |

306. Originally feminine nouns sometimes keep their earlier s-less gen. sing., as in pe chirche dōre, his lädy grāce. We still preserve this form in Lady-day compared with Lord's day.
307. Many originally neuter nouns with unchanged plurals still keep these, such as folk, dèr, hors, shëp, swìn, pound. It must be observed that most of these plurals have a collective meaning ; thus the plur. folk is oftener used in the sense of 'people in general ' than in that of 'nations,' and in MnE swine is used exclusively in the collective plural sense, not being used in the singular at all. föt when used as a measure was made invariable in the plural on the analogy of the old neuter pound, and the invariable night in fourte-night (280), etc.
308. In its general meaning fot keeps its mutation-plural $f e ̂ t$. So also man, wŏm(m)an (OE wífmann), töp, etc. have plurals men, wŏm( $m$ )en ( OE wïfmenn), tēp, etc.
309. The weak plural-ending $-e n$ is preserved not only in oxe plur. oxen, but also in other words which have now lost it in the spoken language, such as asche, aschen, hēse, $\bar{\imath} e$ 'eye,' ien, fō 'foe,' fōn, tō 'toe,' $\bar{\varrho} \bar{\eta} n$, schō 'shoe,' schōn. In other words this ending is a ME extension, as in brëpren, children, dohtren, sustren. cow has plur. $k \bar{y} n=\mathrm{OE} c \bar{u}$, plur. $c \bar{y}$, the northern dialect keeping the older form $k \bar{i}$.

## Modern English.

310. By the beginning of the MnE period the $s$ of inflectional es had been voiced (232), (s) being kept
only in monosyllables such as geese, pence. In Early MnE the $e$ was kept after a hiss-consonant for the sake of distinctness, as in horses (horsez), and was dropped everywhere else, the ( $z$ ) being necessarily unvoiced after voiceless consonant, as in beasts (beests) from beastes (beestez), while it was of course preserved after vowels and voiced consonants, as in days, heads (heedz).
311. The ME dropping of es after hiss-consonants is still kept up in a few phrases such as for old acquaintance sake, for Jesus' sake; but in the spoken language the -es is generally kept, as in St. James's Square, where it is also written. Such genitives as Eneas', Socrates' wife occur only in the literary language; in the spoken language the full ees is added, or else the construction of Eneas etc. is used.

One result of the contraction of inflectional es in MnE is that radical $s$ has been sometimes mistaken for the plural inflection, so that an original singular has been made into a plural, as in the case of alms, eaves, riches, summons: these 'apparent plurals' correspond to the OE singulars almesse, efese (plur. efesan) and the Old French singulars richesse, semonse.

Most of these apparent plurals are not used in the singular; but summons is used in the sing. without any change-a summons. There are some plurals which form a curtailed singular by throwing off the radical final $s$. Thus the collective plural pease $=$ the OE weak plural piosan has developed a singular pea, whence a new orthographic plural peas has been formed.

Inflectional plurals often come to be used as singulars by change of meaning, such as news, sixpence. They may then form new plurals, such as sixpences.
312. The ME (and OE) alternation of breath and voice consonants in the inflection of such native words as wiff,
gen. sing. wives, plur. zeives, has been kept up only partially in MnE. It has been entirely abandoned in the gen. sing., which is now formed afresh from the common case-wife's. We still keep the voice consonant in such plurals as wives, paths (paaðz), but such a plural as the earlier MnE turves has been made into turfs.

We still keep the gen. sing. calves in the compounds calveshead, calves-foot expressing articles of food; otherwise calf has the regular gen. sing. calf's.

The following are the main types of noun-inflection in Present English:-

| 313. Sing. Common | hวs | dog | kæt | waif | guws | mæn |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | hosiz | dogz | kæts | waifs | guwsiz | mænz |
| Plur. Common | hวsiz | dogz | kæts | waivz | gijs | men |
| Gen. | hכsiz | dogz | kæts | waivz | gijsiz | menz |

Like horse are inflected words ending in the hisses ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$; $\left.\int, 3\right)$, such as piece, box, size, adze, fish, church ( t วət f ), age (eidz).

Like dog are inflected nouns ending in a vowel or any voiced consonant except ( $\mathrm{z}, 3$ ), such as day, lady, neighbour (neibə), mile, dove, son, lord.
Dice (for gaming) and pence, the plurals of die and penny have (s) because they were shortened to monosyllables already in ME, dies (for coining) and pennies being new-formations from the singulars on the analogy of the regular plurals days, ladies, etc.

Like cat are inflected nouns ending in any breath consonant except (s, f), such as earth, cliff, clerk, bishop.
314. All the nouns inflected like wife-'voice-breath nouns'-show a long syllable before the inflection in Late ME, as in staves = Late ME stâves (Early ME staves), wolves
$=\mathrm{ME}$ wulves. Hence nouns with original short $i$ never make this change-piths (pips), cliffs. The only voicebreath noun ending in ( s ) is house, plural houses (hauziz). The chief voice-breath nouns in (p) are bath (baap), baths (baaðz)=Late ME bap, bäpes (bap, baaðes), path, oath, mouth. clothes was originally the plural of cloth, which now forms a regular plural of its own-cloths. The great majority of nouns in ( p ) keep the breath-sound in the plural ; such nouns are moth, death, hearth, health, birth. Some, such as lath, truth, youth, have both pronunciations, that with voice consonants in the plural being, of course, the older one. Nouns in $f$ show the change more frequently: after long Late ME vowels, as in life, knife, wife, thief, leaf, loaf; after $l$, as in kalf, calf, elf, self, shelf, wolf. Nouns in $-r f$, such as dwarf, scarf, turf, wharf, made this change in Early MnE -dwarves, etc.-but they now generally keep the $f$ in the plural-dwarfs, etc. Nouns in -oof also keep the $f$, as in hoofs, roofs. So also belief. But the French noun beef still keeps its plural beeves, which, however, is now isolated from its singular, through the latter having lost its original meaning 'ox.' staves was originally the plural of staff (Late ME staf, stāves), but having diverged from it in meaning, it has now developed a new singular stave, while staff itself has developed a new plural staffs, as in army staffs.

## Irregular Plurals.

315. The following mutation-plurals are still in common use: man, men; woman, women (wumon, wimin), this plur. being Southern in spelling, though Midland in pronunciation; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mouse, mice.
316. The only n-plurals in common use are ox, oxen; child, children. brother now has the regular plural brothers, the old plural brethren being used only in a metaphorical sense. cow also has a regular plural cows, the older kine occurring only in the higher literary language.
317. sheep and deer keep their unchanged plurals.
318. These are the only absolutely invariable words. In all other invariable words the unchanged plural implies either measure or collectiveness. As in Late ME, so also in MnE many nouns of measure have an unchanged plural only when preceded by a numeral, as in two dozen knives compared with dozens of knives; and many of them keep it only in groups or compounds such as ten-pound note compared with ten pounds, the earlier MnE ten pound being now obsolete or vulgar. It is only when a noun of measure is used also as an ordinary descriptive noun that it occasionally keeps its unchanged plural under all circumstances, as in how many stone does he weigh?
319. While the use of the unchanged plural of measure has been gradually restricted in MnE , the unchanged collective plural has been extended. swine has now lost its singular, the sing. and separative plur. being expressed by pig, pigs. But in most cases the collective and separative plurals are used side by side, as in to catch fish compared with the story of the three fishes.

## Foreign Plurals.

320. Many foreign words-especially Latin and Greekkeep their original plurals, but some of them have also regular English plurals; some have the two plurals in different meanings. Some are used only in the plural. Some are unchanged in the plural.
321. The most important Latin endings are :-
-a . . . -® : formula, formula.
-us . . . -i: fungus, fungi.
-um . . . -a : desideratum, desiderata.
-is . . .-es: analysis, analyses.
-es . . . . -es : species.
-ix, -yx, -ex . . . -ices : appendix, appendices ; calyx, calyces; vortex, vortices.

There are other isolated Latin plurals: genus, genera; stamen, stamina.
322. -on . . - -a is a Greek plur.: phenomenon, phenomena.
323. We have Italian plurals in bandit, banditti; dilettante, dilettanti' virtuoso, virtuosi.
324. The Hebrew plurals cherubim, seraphim are collective, and are occasionally used as singulars in Early MnEa cherubim.
325. The French plural ending $x$ in beaux, flambeaux, has the same sound as the regular $-s$.
326. The plural of $M r$. is expressed by the different word Messrs., in full Messieurs. Mr. is a weak form of ME meister from old French meistre, the corresponding strong form being master. Messieurs is the French mes Sieurs 'my Lords,' the sing. of which is Monsieur. The plural of the feminine Madam $=$ French ma Dame 'my Lady' is Mesdames $=$ French mes Dames ' my Ladies,' which, however, is not much used in English.
327. The tendency of the language now is to get rid of foreign plurals as much as possible, except where the foreign plur. marks a difference of meaning. Many words which have foreign plurals, form their plurals also regularly, sometimes with a distinction of meaning, as in appendixes and appendices.

## ADJECTIVES.

## Inflections.

## Old English.

328. In OE the adjectives have the three genders of nouns, and the same inflections, though with partially different forms, together with the distinction of strong and weak. Adjectives (as also pronouns) also show traces of an instrumental case, which is, however, generally expressed by the dative.
329. Adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case: hīe cōmon mid langum scipum, nā manig̀um' they came with long ships, not many.'
330. The weak form is used after the definite article and other defining words, as in se göda cyning 'the good king,' se hälga 'the holy (man),' whence the weak masc. noun hälga ' saint,' pās hälgan cyningas 'these holy kings,' compared with sunn göd cyning ' a certain good king,' hâlġe męnn 'holy men.'
331. The following are the strong inflections of $g \bar{d} d$, the forms which differ from those of the nouns being marked *:

| Sing. Nom. | Masc. gōd | Neut. gōd | Fem. göd |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Acc. | gödne* | godd | göde |
| Dat. | gödum* | gōdum* | gōdre* |
| Instr. | göde | gōde | göde |
| Gen. | gōdes | gōdes | gōdre* |
| Plur. Nom. | gōde* | $g \bar{d} d$ | gōde* |
| Dat. |  | gōtum |  |
| Gen. |  | gödra* |  |

332. The weak forms are identical with those of the weak
nouns, except in the gen. plur., which, however, sometimes appears as -ena with the same ending as in the nouns, instead of taking the ending of the strong adjectives :-

|  | Masc. | Neut. | Fem. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. Nom. | gōda | gōde | gōde |
| Acc. | gōdan | gōde | gōdan |
| Dat. | gōdan | gōdan | gōdan |
| Gen. | $\underbrace{\text { gōdan }}$ | gōdan | gōdan |
|  |  | goddan |  |
| Plur. Nom. | gōdum |  |  |
| Dat. | gōdra* |  |  |

333. The $-u$ of the strong fem. nom. sing. and the strong neut. nom. plur. is kept under the same circumstances as in the noun-inflections; thus sum ' some' has sumu in the above cases; as opposed to the long-syllable göd. Adjectives in -el, een, etc. drop the $e$ as in noun-inflection; thus hälig̀, mičel, aggen 'own,' have plurals hälge, mičle, ägne. Where final $-u$ is a weakening of $-w$, the $w$ is restored before an inflection beginning with a vowel, as in nearu ' narrow,' salu 'sallow,' geolu 'yellow,' plurals nearwe, salwe, geolvee. In late OE final $-h$ alternates with medial $g$ in such forms as genöh 'enough' [earlier g̀enög], plur. g̀enöge. The dropping of weak $h$ between vowels leads to contraction; thus hēah 'high,' Mercian hēh, has plural hēa (from hēahe).

## Middle English.

334. The levelling of noun-inflections in ME and the loss of gender distinctions naturally led to the disregard of concord. Hence the case-endings in the singular of strong adjectives began to fall off at the beginning of the ME period. The distinction between singular and plural and between strong
and weak inflection was preserved in the adjectives as well as in the nouns. gōd represented the strong singular, gōde the strong plural and the weak singular. As the weak form of the adjective was generally followed by a noun, it was superfluous to mark the distinction of number in the adjective, and consequently the weak singular ending $e$ was used also in the plural. The result was that in Late ME the adjective had only two inflections:-

\(\begin{array}{lr}Strong Sing. g \bar{o} d<br>Plur. g \bar{o} d e \& Weak Sing. gōde<br>Plur. gōde\end{array}\)

335. The weak form is used much as in OE : pe yonnge sŏnne 'the young sun,' pis ilke mŏnk 'this same monk.'
336. In the Northern dialect all adjectives became indeclinable already in the Early period through loss of final weak - .
337. The old cases were partially preserved in the Earliest ME. The gen. plur. ending $-r e=\mathrm{OE}-r a$, as in alre kingene king $=\mathrm{OE}$ eallra cyninga cyning, lingered longest, because of its distinctiveness. In Late ME alder, from earlier alre through aldre, became a sort of prefix to superlatives, as in alderbest 'best of all'; in Early MnE Shakespere still has alderliefest ' dearest of all.'

## Modern English.

338. In MnE the loss of final $-e$ made the adjectives indeclinable as far as case and number are concerned. Adjectives thus became formally indistinguishable from adverbs, except by their syntactical relations, the only change of form that was left to them-namely comparison-being shared by adverbs. But Early MnE still preserved a trace of the ME
inflections in the distinction between enough sing., enow plur. $=\mathrm{ME}$ inōh, inöve.

## Comparison.

## Old-English.

339. In OE the comparative is formed by adding $-r a$, and is declined like a weak adjective, as in lēof-ra 'dearer' masc., lēofre fem. and neut., the corresponding adverbs ending in oor: lēofor, heardor. The superlative is formed by adding -ost, and may be either strong or weak: lēofost 'dearest,' se lēofosta mann. The uninflected form of the superlative is used also as an adverb: lēofost, heardost. Some adjectives form their comparison with mutation, the superlative ending in est, as in lang ' long,' lęnġre, lęnǵest, nēah 'near,' superlative nīehst, nièxt (Anglian $n \bar{e} h, n \bar{e} s t, n \bar{e} x t)$. In some comparisons the comparative and superlative are formed from a word distinct from that which constitutes the positive: gōd [adverb weel], betera [adverb $\left.b_{\ell} t\right]$, $b e t s t$. The positive of some comparatives and superlatives is represented only by an adverb; thus to $\bar{\epsilon} r r a$ ' former' (in time) $\overline{\boldsymbol{c}}$ rest 'first' corresponds the adverb $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}} r$ 'formerly.' Many of these form the superlative with $-m$, which is an older form than -st. The original form of this superlative is seen in for-ma 'first,' the positive of which is represented by the adverb fore 'before.' But in most cases the meaning of this old superlative ending was forgotten, and the ending -st was added-generally with mutation-giving the double superlative -mest. Thus from forma the new superlative fyrmest ' most foremost,' ' first' was formed. Other examples are innemest, norpmest from inne 'inside,' norp ' $\mathrm{north}$. .'

## Middle-English.

340. In Early ME the endings are -re, -ere [adverbial -er], est: lēof, lēofre [adverbial lēover], lēovest. In Late ME the final -e of ere was dropped, so that the distinction between adjective and adverb was levelled.

## Modern English.

341. In MnE the endings are the same as in Late ME--er, -est. We have also a periphrastic comparison, which consists in prefixing the adverbs more, most, as in beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful by the side of hard, harder, hardest. Periphrastic comparison appears already in Early ME. At first the two methods of comparison were used indiscriminately ; but by degrees the periphrastic comparison has come in MnE to be applied chiefly to longer and more unfamiliar adjectives, the inflectional comparison being restricted more and more to the shorter adjectives.
342. In Early ME such comparisons as more sad, most sad, beautifuller, beautifullest were frequent ; and they are still used in poetry and the higher prose.
343. Double comparison was frequent in Early MnE, as in more braver, most unkindest. This now survives only as a vulgarism.

Irregular Comparison.
344. In ME and MnE the old mutation in such comparisons as OE lang (long, lēng), lenng̀re, lenġest was gradually got rid of by the introduction of the vowel of the positive, whence the MnE longer, longest. Mutation is preserved only in a few irregular and isolated forms. Other irregularities are the result of ME sound-changes-late, latter-of various
confusions and mixtures of originally distinct words and forms-far, further-and of the retention of different-word comparatives and superlatives-good, better.
345. The double superlative ending -mest was naturally associated with mēst ' most,' and already in Late OE we find such forms as $\bar{y}$ tmēst by the side of $\bar{y}$ temest from $\bar{u} t e$ 'outside'; in ME we find the endings -mest and -m̄̄st side by side, the latter ultimately getting the upper hand. In the few cases of mutation the vowel of the positive was gradually extended to the other two degrees; already in OE we find $\bar{u} t e m e s t$ instead of $\bar{y}$ temest. So also OE fyrmest was made into formest in ME by the influence of forma and fore, whence the MnE foremost. In OE the positives of aftemest ' last' and nibemest 'lowest' were represented by the adverbs after 'after' and niper, neopor 'downwards,' ' down,' these being themselves old comparatives. In ME the full forms of the positives after, neper were introduced into the superlatives, whence the MnE aftermost, nethermost, a new superlative undermost being formed on the analogy of nethermost. A superlative ending -ermost having thus established itself, other superlatives of place were formed directly from comparatives by adding -most, as in lowermost, uppermost in imitation of nethermost and undernost, uttermost by the side of utmost, innermost. So also from further was formed a superlative furthermost, from which again was formed a double comparative furthermore, perhaps partly by the influence of evermore. The OE midmest was made into middlemost, and on the analogy of this form superlatives such as highmost were formed direct from adjectives, highmost being perhaps regarded as a transposition of most high. To the OE superlatives norbmest, sïpmest correspond as positives the adverbs nor $p$, $\operatorname{su} \bar{p}$, which were also used as nouns. Hence
in MnE we have superlatives in -most formed directly from nouns, such as topmost, endmost.

The following are the irregular comparisons of MnE :-
346. old $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text { elder } & \text { eldest } \\ \text { older } & \text { oldest }\end{array}\right\}$

OE eald (āld), ieldra (eldra), ieldest (eldest). The comparisons elder, eldest are used to express differences of age from a more abstract point of view than older, oldest, as in elder brother compared with he is older than he looks.
347. late $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text { latter } & \text { last } \\ \text { later } & \text { latest }\end{array}\right\}$

OE lat 'slow' [adv. late 'slowly,' 'late'], latra [adv. lator], latost. latter $=$ ME later with back-shortening. last is a shortening of ME latest, not by phonetic change, but apparently by the analogy of best, least, etc. When latter and last developed special meanings, the new comparisons later, latest were formed directly from late.
348. out $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text { utter } & \text { utmost, uttermost } \\ \text { outer } & \text { outmost, outermost }\end{array}\right\}$

OE ìte adv. 'outside,' $\bar{y}$ terra [adv. ūtor], $\bar{y}$ tmest, $\bar{y}$ temest. Even in OE the vowel of the positive is extended to the other degrees: ùterra, ütemest, whence by back-shortening the MnE utter, etc., outer, etc., being new-formations from out.
349. far $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { farther farthest } \\ \text { further furthest }\end{array}\right\}$

OE feorr adv. and occasionally adj. 'far,' fierra [adv. fierr], fierrest. feorr became by regular change ME fer, MnE far. To the OE adverb fore 'before,' 'in front' corresponds the comparative furbra [adv. furbor], superl. fyrest, fyrst, forma, fyrmest. The comparative adverb fierr was
soon confused with the positive feorr in ME through the tendency to give up mutation in comparison, and the more distinct furbor took its place, fier and furbor having nearly the same meaning. When ME first=OE fyrst became the ordinal numeral corresponding to $\bar{g} n$ 'one'-taking the place of OE forma 'first'-a new superlative furbest was formed from furber $=\mathrm{OE}$ furbor. Lastly, the vowel of the positive was extended to the other degrees, giving farther, farthest. The old superlative forma being no longer recognizable as such, was regarded as a positive, whence a new comparative former was made in imitation of latter.
350. nigh $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text { near } & \text { next } \\ \text { nearer } & \text { nearest }\end{array}\right\}$

OE nēah (nēh) adverb (rarely adjective), nēarra [adv. nēar], n̄̄ehst, nīext (néxt). The MnE positive adjective and adverb near is the old comparative adverb, made into a positive on the analogy of here, there as well as far. It is compared regularly nearer, nearest, the old superlative next being isolated from it. The old positive is represented by the adjective and adverb nigh.
351. good (well) better best

OE gōd [adv. weel], betera [adv. $\left.b_{\ell} t\right]$, $b_{e} t s t$. The dropping of the $t$ in best is not phonetic, but is the result of the influence of $m \bar{e} s t$, etc.
352. bad worse worst

NE yfel, wiersa [adv. wiers], superl. wierrest, wierst, Anglian wyrsa, etc. In ME ill from Scandinavian illr came into use concurrently with ïvel, ivel, evel, our present evil being the Kentish form. In ME a new adjective with the same meaning-badde-was developed by change of
meaning and shortening from the OE noun $b \bar{e} d d e l$ 'effeminate person.' In MnE bad has gained the upper hand, though worse and worst are still comparisons of $\epsilon$ vil and ill as well as of bad. In the Southern ME zourse, zeurst, $u$ was developed out of $i z=$ Late West-Saxon or Anglian $y$ by the influence of the $w$. In Early MnE a new double comparative worser was formed. Both worser and the double superlative worsest occur in Vulgar MnE.


OE lȳtel, lēssa [adv. lēes], lēest. The new formation lesser is, of course, a double comparative like worser (352).
354. much more most

OE mïcel, māra [adv. mā], mäest. In Late West-Saxon micel became myicl by the influence of the $m$, whence Southern ME miuchel, muche $(l)$. In OE mā, originally an adverb, is used as a neuter noun governing the genitive in the sense of 'more in number,' as in mā pāra witena 'more of the councillors.' In ME $m \bar{g}=$ OE $m \bar{a}$ came to be used as an adjective, and in Early ME moe was regarded as the comparative of many $=\mathrm{OE}$ manig. moe has now been levelled under more $=\mathrm{OE}$ māra neut. māre, so that more, most are the comparisons both of much and of many. In ME-and already in Late OE-the $\bar{a}$ of $m \bar{a} r a, m \bar{a}$ was extended to the superlative, which became māst, m $\bar{\varrho} s t, \mathrm{MnE}$ most.

## PRONOUNS.

355. In OE the inflections of the personal pronouns of the first and second persons-ic ' I ' $p \bar{u}$ 'thou'-are altogether peculiar and anomalous. The personal pronouns of
the third person-hé 'he,' $h i t$ ' it,' hēo 'she '-have inflections similar to those of the adjectives : compare acc. sing. masc. hine, dat. sing. masc. him with gödne, gödum. So also the interrogative pronoun kwā, kwat 'who,' 'what,' and the demonstrative pronouns $s \bar{e}$ 'that,' 'the' and pes 'this' have inflections similar to those of strong adjectives. The main peculiarities of the pronoun inflections as distinguished from those of the adjectives are (a) that they are sometimes made up of different words, thus $i \bar{c}$ acc. $m \bar{e}, s \bar{e}$ acc. pone, and (b) that the neuter sometimes has a special ending $-t$, as in hit 'it ' compared with $h \bar{e}, h w a t$, , $b a t$, which in OE is the neuter of se. Some of the pronouns have an instrumental case.
356. The remaining OE pronouns have the inflections of ordinary strong adjectives, whether they are used as adjectives or nouns. Thus the adjective-pronoun sum in sum mann 'a certain man' and the noun-pronoun sum 'a certain one' both have plural sume, as in sume menn cwêdon, sume czê̂don 'some (people) said'; and there was a singular neuter noun-pronoun eall, as in sele eall pat pū hafst 'sell all that thou hast,' as well as a plural ealle, as in ealle werndrodon 'all wondered.' So also hwellc ' which,' swelċ 'such,' öper 'other,' $\bar{e} n i g$ 'any,' nän ' none,' ' no,' had the plurals hwelçe, swellce, $\overline{o p r e, ~ \bar{e} n i g ̀ e, ~ n a ̄ n e, ~ w h i c h ~ w e r e ~ u s e d ~ b o t h ~ a s ~}$ adjectives and nouns. OE pronouns only occasionally take weak inflection, as in ic selfa 'I myself' compared with ic self, acc. mē selfne.
357. In ME the old plurals in $-\ell$ were kept, as in alle men 'all men,' alle pat livep ' all that live.' But in MnE the - $e$ was dropped in accordance with the general rule, so that these pronouns became invariable in the plural, as in some think differently, beloved by all, of such is the kingdom of heaven.
358. The regularly inflected pronouns had a gen. sing. masc. and neut. in -es in OE. The OE noun-genitive ōpres 'another man's' survives in the MnE other's, another's. So
 MnE genitive one's is a new-formation. It is probably the old genitive other's-together with the desire of distinctnesswhich led to the formation of a new plural others instead of the invariable other, which was still preserved at the beginning of the Early MnE period, as in when other are glad, then is he sad. The plural ones of the prop-word one, as in the young ones, is, of course, a still later formation.

## Personal Pronouns.

Old-English.
359. The following are the inflections of the personal pronouns-including, for convenience, the interrogative $k w \bar{a}$ -later forms being in ( ):-

360. The change of the plur. him into heom is the result of the influence of the gen. plur. heora together with the
desire to distinguish between singular and plural. The late nom. plur. heo is the result of levelling under heom and heora.
361. Many of the above inflections had weak forms, in which long vowels were shortened, such as weak $b u$, heo $=$ strong $\overline{\bar{u}}, h \bar{e} o$.

## Middle-English.

362. In ME the genitive of the personal pronouns was gradually restricted to the function of a possessive pronoun, though it still retained something of its independence in such phrases as oure aller hęle 'the salvation of us all' $=\mathrm{OE}$ üre eallra hālu.
363. In ME the distinction between accusative and dative was done away with, these two cases being levelled under one which we call the 'objective' case, this objective case being really the old dative used also as an accusative. This extension of the dative began already in $\mathrm{OE}, m \bar{e}, p \bar{e}, \bar{u} s, \bar{e} o w$ being the regular accusatives even in Early West-Saxon. The explanation is that as the personal pronouns generally refer to living beings, we naturally think of ' I,' ' you,' etc. not as mere passive objects of striking, calling, sending, etc., but as being to some extent actively interested in these processes ; and hence we are inclined to use the interest-case or dative to express the personal complement even of purely transitive verbs. Hence even in OE they began to say he slōg $m \bar{e}$ 'he struck me' instead of $h \bar{e}$ slög meć in the same sense as hē slög pone stän 'he struck the stone,' but from a different point of view. In ME the change was carried out consistently, him supplanting hine and so on. But with the specifically neuter pronouns the process was reversed: it and what being mainly thought of as passive complements of verbs, not only kept their old accusatives-which was
made still more easy by these accusatives having the same form as the nominatives-but used them to express the much rarer relation of interest, and so the old accusative it has come to represent the dative as well as the accusative in MnE , while the old dative him serves as accusative as well as dative.
364. In ME-as also in OE-all the third person pronouns had weak forms without $h$-: uremphatic or weak im by the side of emphatic or strong him, although in writing only the emphatic form was used, just as in MnE we write I saze him, whether the him is emphatic (him) or weak (im). But even in the earliest Midland we find it written everywhere by the side of $h e$, etc., showing that this originally weak form had supplanted the strong one. The reason is that it was so rarely necessary to emphasize the impersonal pronoun that the strong hit was forgotten and disused. But hit was preserved in South-Thames English up to the end of the Late ME period.
365. OE $i c$ split up into the two forms $i c h$ (North-Thames $i c$ ) and $\bar{i}$. The latter-which was, of course, originally the weak form-gradually supplanted the fuller form, which became extinct in Standard ME, although it still survives in the dialects of the West of England.
366. So also the weak $u s$ (with short vowel) gradually supplanted the strong $\bar{u} s$, ous.
367. In ME weak eo often became $a$ through intermediate ea. Already in Early Old-Anglian we find weak heara by the side of the older strong heora. In Early ME heara passed into hare, and in the same way Late OE heom ' them' became ham. The weak OE heo 'she,' which in Late OE also expressed 'they,' passed through the same change, becoming $h a$. This weak $h a$ was then extended to the masc.
sing. So in Early Southern we find the strong and weak pairs with $a$ in the latter: $h \bar{e}(h a)$ 'he,' hēo ( $h a$ ) 'she,' ' they,' heom (ham) 'them,' heore (hare) 'their.' ha was liable to dröp its $h$ by still further weakening, whence the Early MnE $a=h e$ in quoth' $a, q u o t h a$, 'a must needs.
368. Strong hēo 'she ' passed through hēo into (hjoo, jhoo), which last is the Early Midland form, written zho parallel to wha 'who' =(whaa). But the feminine demonstrative seo 'that one,' 'she' gradually took the place of héo, at first in the Midland dialect, and then in the Standard ME. sēo passed through seō (sjoo) into shō in some dialects with the change of ( sj ) into ( f ). This shō, being a weak form, existed side by side with the strong séo, and in some Midland dialects the two were blended together into a new form shēo, which became she by the regular change of $\bar{e} o$ into $\bar{e}$. Strong hēo was soon discarded, because this vowel-change levelled it under the masculine $h \bar{e}$.
369. eow in its weak form passed through (joow) into (juuw), written $z^{\prime} w$, which then became yow $=(\mathrm{juu})$, the $(\mathrm{w})$ first changing the $\bar{o}$ into $\bar{u}$, and then being itself absorbed by the $\bar{u}$. Early Southern has $\bar{o} u$ with dropping of the $e$, just as in hore $=$ heore .
370. The Late OE tendency to confuse hēo 'she' and hiè 'they' under the common form heo led to a more extended use of the demonstrative plural $p \bar{a}$ 'they.' In the ME period this usage was especially developed in North-Thames English. But as $p \bar{a}$ also had the strong demonstrative meaning 'those ones,' ' those,' and as Scandinavian influence was strong in North-Thames English, $b \bar{a}$ in the sense of 'they' was made into bei by the influence of Scandinavian peir 'they,' where the $-r$ is only the inflection of the nom. masc. plur. The influence of the Scandinavian dat. and gen. plur.
beim 'to them,' beira 'their' also changed the old $b \bar{e} m, b \bar{a} r a$ into beim, peire, peir in North-Thames E. In Late ME pei found its way into the Standard dialect, which, however, still generally kept the Southern dative hem and the possessive here from the earlier Southern emphatic heom, heore.
371. The following are, then, the chief forms of the personal pronouns in Early ME, the North-Thames forms being in ( ):-

Sing. Nom. $i c h, \bar{\imath}(i c, \bar{\imath}) b \bar{u} \bar{u} \quad w h \bar{q}$ (whā), whęt (what)

Obj. mē $b \bar{e}$
Plur. Nom. wē
Obj. $\bar{u} s, u s$
Sing. Nom. $h \bar{e}, h a$ Obj. hine, him з $\bar{e}$
$\bar{o} u(弓 \bar{u} w, ~ \jmath \bar{u})$
hit (it) hēo, ha (zhō,shō)
hit (it) hire
heo, ha (bei)
heom, ham (beim)
372. The later forms of Standard ME are-

Sing. Nom. $\bar{\imath}$, ich $\quad$ bow $=$ (puu) whō what Obj. me $\quad b \bar{e}$
Plur. Nom. wē Obj. us
Sing. Nom. $h \bar{e}$
Obj. him
Plur. Nom.
Obj.
$y \bar{e}$
yoze $=(\mathrm{juu})$
hit, it shē
hit, it hire, hir, her
hem, beim
373. In Late ME the Early ME wham took the vowel of the nom. who , in which Early ME $\bar{\ell}$ was made into close $\bar{o}$ by the influence of the $w$.
374. In ME the plural $y \bar{e}$, yow was used in respectful and ceremonious address instead of the singular bow, $p \bar{e}$ by imitation of Old French.

Modern English.
375. In Early MnE the use of the ceremonious plural $y e$, you was so much extended that it became the usual polite form of address, the singular thou being used mainly to express familiarity and contempt, which latter use brought about its complete disuse in the spoken language of the present century, which therefore makes no distinction of number in the personal pronoun of the second person. But we still preserve the old thou in the poetical and liturgical language.
376. In Early MnE the objective form you came to be used as a nominative, and in Present English you has completely supplanted $y e$ in the spoken language. The change is partly the result of a general confusion between nominative and objective in MnE, partly of the influence of the singular pronoun thou. In Early MnE the ME pee, yē became ( $\delta \mathrm{iii}, \mathrm{jii}$ ), which were shortened into ( $(\mathrm{ij}, \mathrm{ji}$ ) when weak. So also ME pow, yow became Early MnE (סöu, jöu) by the regular change of (uu) into (öu), the short (u) of the ME weak forms being necessarily preserved unchanged in the Early MnE ( $\delta \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{ju}$ ). In Early MnE thou and $y e$ were liable to lose their vowels before another word beginning with a vowel or $h+$ vowel, so that thou art, ye are were shortened into th'art, y'are, just as the earth was shortened into th'earth. This gave the following Early MnE forms of the second person pronoun :-

|  | ( $\mathrm{jii}, \mathrm{ji}, \mathrm{j}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Obj. ( $\mathrm{c}_{\text {ii }}$, $\mathrm{Xi}_{\text {i }}$ ) | ( $\mathrm{jöu}, \mathrm{ju}$ ) |

377. It will be observed that each of these pronouns has two groups of endings which have exactly opposite functions, (-öu), etc. being the nominative ending in the singular thou,
but the objective ending in the plural you, while (-ii) is the objective ending in the singular, the nominative ending in the plural. The natural result of this was that the associations between form and grammatical function became unsettled, and when $y e, y o u$ came to be frequently used in a singular meaning, thou (ס̈̈u) and you (jöu) were associated together, till at last you came to be regarded as a nominative. This confusion was increased by the shortened forms $y^{\prime}$ are, etc., in which it was impossible to know whether the $y^{\prime}$ was a contraction of $y e$ or of $y o u$.
378. The phonetic similarity between thee and $y e$ led to the frequent use of $y e$ as an objective, especially in the weak form (ji), which was used indifferently as an objective or a nominative, being often further weakened by dropping the consonant, as in hark'ee, harkee, lookee, thankee. Such forms as Itell ye (ji) were still frequent a few generations ago, and (i) may still be heard in how do you do? (hau di duw), but such forms as (luki, pænki) survive only as vulgarisms.
379. As ( (סöu) and ( ( Cu ), ( $\mathrm{jöu}$ ) and ( ju ) diverged considerably in sound, one member of each pair was got rid of in the course of the Early MnE period, namely the weak (סu) and the strong (jöu), whose place was taken by (juu),a lengthening of the weak ( ju ). As this (uu) did not develop till after the change of ME (uu) into (öu) had been completed, it was, of course, preserved from that change.
380. We have seen that the ending $-e(e)$ in the second person pronouns is the mark both of the nominative ( $y$ e) and the objective (thee). The same cross-association runs through some of the other pronouns:-

> Nom. : he, she, we, ye
> Obj. : me, thee

The fact that in four cases out of six -ee is the nom. ending explains how $y e$ was able to maintain itself as a nom. in spite of the support given to you by the sing. thou.
381. Confusions between nominative and objective may occur in any language through misunderstanding grammatical categories. Thus in the Bible we find whom do men say that I am?, where what ought to be the nominative is put in the objective through attraction-through being regarded as the object of the verb say; and although OE is strict in its distinction between nom. and accusative, yet the OE version shows the same attraction: hwoane seicgap menn pat sy mannes sunu ? But as long as a language marks the distinctions of case with clearness, such confusions are confined to isolated constructions. In MnE, however, the distinction between nominative and objective was marked only in a few words, and even there was marked in a way which inevitably led to confusion; and even apart from this cross-association there was no uniformity: thus in the pairs $I, m e ;$ he, him; we, us the objective cases have no formal characteristic in common. Hence in MnE the linguistic sense for the distinction between nominative and objective has been almost as much weakened as that for the distinction between indicative and subjunctive.
382. In Early MnE the usage was more unsettled than it is now, the nominative being as freely substituted for the objective as vice-versa, as in such constructions as 'tzeen you and $I$. you and $I$ were so frequently joined together as nominatives-you and I will go together, etc.-that the three words formed a sort of group-compound, whose last element became invariable.
383. The tendency of Later MnE is to merge the distinction of nominative and objective in that of conjoint and
absolute, that is, to keep the old nominative forms only when in immediate connection with a verb-I am; said heso that, as the pronouns in the nominative generally precede the verb, $I$, he, etc., are felt almost to be inseparable verbforming prefixes, as in I call, compared with to call. When a pronoun follows a verb, it generally stands in the objective relation; hence, on the analogy of he saw me, tell me, etc., the literary it is $I$ is made into $i t$ is me in the spoken language, so that me is felt to be the absolute form of the conjoint $I$, being also used as the answer to the question who is there?, etc. In the vulgar language this is carried out consistently, the slightest separation from the verb being enough to elicit the objective form, as in me and John came home yesterday $=$ the polite John and I came home yesterday, them that is here= they that . . In Standard spoken English the absolute use of the objective forms is most marked in the case of me, which is put on a level with the old nominatives he, etc.: it is me, it is he, it is she. But the usage varies, and in more careless speech such constructions as it is him, it is us are frequent.
384. The tendency to use the nominative forms before the verb has had the contrary effect on the pronoun who. Already in Early MnE whom do you mean? was made into who do you mean? on the analogy of $I$ mean . ., you mean . ., etc. In Present spoken English whom may be said to be extinct, except in the rare construction with a preposition immediately before it, as in of whom are you speaking ? ${ }^{2}=$ the more purely colloquial who are you speaking of ?
385. The pronouns thou, thee and ye are now confined to the liturgical and the higher literary language. In the singular the distinction between nom. thou and obj. thee is
strictly maintained. In the Bible $y e$ is the nom. and $y o u$ is the corresponding obj., but in the present language of poetry there is a tendency to use; $e$ in the obj. as well as the nom., in order to avoid the prosaic you: ye see, I see ye.
386. In Early MnE them-which seems to be a weak form of ME peim-finally got the upper hand of ME hem, which has survived only as a weak form, being written 'em from the mistaken idea that it was a shortening of them. We still use (əm) as a weak form of them by the side of ( $(\partial m)$, but only in very familiar speech.
387. The MnE it, her are also equivalent to ME weak forms.
388. The ME weak $h a$ occurs occasionally in Early MnE in the form of ' $a, a$, but only in very familiar, careless speech.
389. The following are the present forms of the personal pronouns :-

| Sing. Nom. I | thou, you | who | what |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Obj. me | thee, you | whom | what |
| Plur. Nom. we | ye, you |  |  |
| Obj. us | ye, you |  |  |
| Sing. Nom. he | it | she |  |
| Obj. him | it | her |  |
| Plur. Nom. | they |  |  |
| Obj. | them ('em) |  |  |

390. The shortening $(-\mathrm{s})=$ us occurs only in let's. In Early MnE it was more general.

## Possessive Pronouns.

## Old English.

391. The OE possessive pronouns are the genitives of the corresponding personal pronouns: mīn 'my,' ūre 'our,' bin 'thy,' ēower ' your,' his 'his, its,' hire 'her,' hira, heora 'their.' The possessives of the third person-his, hire, hira-together with hwas 'whose,' are indeclinable, those of the first and second person-mīn, bīn, ūre, ēozer-being declined like strong adjectives: mid his frēondum ' with his, friends,' mid minum frēondum.

## Middle English.

392. In ME his was made declinable on the analogy of min, etc., that is, it took a plural ending $-e$, as in alle hise men compared with OE ealle his menn. This being the only inflection of the possessives in ME, those ending in -e necessarily remained or became indeclinable. The Early ME ōver, $\bar{u} \bar{u} r=\mathrm{OE}$ ēower took final $-e$ in Late ME by the analogy of üre, becoming youre.
393. $\min$ and $\operatorname{pin}$ dropped their final $n$ before a consonant in Early ME-m $\overline{\bar{c}}$ fader-keeping it before a vowel or $h+$ vowel: $\min$ arm, bin herte. In Late ME the $n$ was often dropped before a vowel as well. The $n$ was, of course, always kept when the possessives were used absolutely, or when they followed their noun: hit is min, bröper min!
394. In Late ME the possessives ending in -e generally take the genitive ending $-s$ when used absolutely: tō minn hous or tō youres; al pis gōld is oures $=\mathrm{OE}$ tō mīnum hūse
oppe to éororum; eall pis gold is ūre. This -s is an extension of the $-s$ of his: his göld, pat gold is his.
395. In the weak forms long vowels were sometimes shortened-min, $m i$-and final $e$ was dropped: hir, our, etc.
396. In North-Thames English bei brought with it the possessive beire $=$ Icelandic beira, which gradually made its way into the London dialect, where it also appears in the weak form bere parallel to bem=peim.
397. The following are the possessive pronouns in Standard ME, weak forms being in ( ):-

Conjoint: $\min m i \bar{\imath}(m i n, m i)$; $b \bar{i} n, p \bar{i}(b i n, p i)$; his (hes); hire, hir (her) ; oure, our ; youre, your ; here, her, beire, beir ( pere, per).

Absolute: min ; bin ; his; hires, hirs, heres, hers; oures, ours; youres, yours; heres, hers.

All those beginning with $h$ were, of course, liable to lose it in their weak forms.
398. The Early ME possessive whas became whōs in Late ME through the influence of who.

## Modern English.

399. In Early MnE his was still the possessive of $i t$ as well as he: it (the serpent) shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise his heel (Bible). But, already in the Midland dialect of ME the want of a special possessive for it was supplied by using the uninflected it as a possessive instead of his; and this usage appears also in Early MnE: the hedgesparrow fed the cuckoo so long that it's had its head bitten off by it young (Shakespere). Towards the end of the Early MnE period the present genitive its came into general use-
a form which does not occur at all in the Bible, and very rarely in Shakespere.
400. The ME distinction between conjoint mine, thine and $m y$, thy was still kept up in Early MnE, but the shorter forms were frequently used before vowels: mine eyes, my eyes. In the higher literary language the distinction is still kept up: mine eyes, mine host. But many modern poets drop the $n$ before sounded (h), as in my heart=Early MnE mine heart, keeping it only before vowels and silent $h+$ vowel, as in mine honour.
401. The following are the present forms of the possessive pronouns :-

Conjoint: my, mine; thy, thine; his; its; her; our ; your; their ; whose.

Absolute: mine; thine; his; its; hers; ours; yours; theirs; whose.

## Self.

## Old-English.

402. In OE the emphatic self is added to nouns and personal pronouns, being generally inflected like a strong adjective in agreement with its head-word: God self hit geveorhte 'God himself made it,' swā-swā hīe cwêdon him selfum 'as they said to themselves,' he forgeat his selfes 'he forgot himself.' In the nominative the weak-inflected selfa is used in the same way: God selfa, ic selfa.
403. In OE the personal pronouns are used also as reflexive pronouns, as they still are in such phrases as he looked about him compared with he must take care of himself. OE self does not make a pronoun reflexive, but simply
emphasizes one that is already so, as in wysiton him
 meaning ' wished for themselves.' Hence such a phrase as $h e \bar{e}$ of sticode hine might mean either 'he stabbed him' (someone else), or 'he stabbed himself.' By degrees he ofsticode hine selfne, which at first meant both 'he stabbed that very man' and 'he stabbed himself,' was restricted to the latter meaning, the simple hine, him, etc., being restricted more and more to the non-reflexive meaning, so that already in Early ME we find self used very much as in MnE.
404. In OE a personal pronoun in the dative is often added reflexively to a pronoun in the nominative, but without materially affecting its meaning, as in hè ondrēd him pone mann 'he was afraid of the man,' literally ' feared for himself,' hie gewiton him 'they departed.' This pleonastic dative is often added to self, selfa in this way: hē bip him self gंehwaper, sunu and fader 'he (the phœnix) is himself to-himself both (pronoun), son and father,' ic mé self gewāt 'I myself departed,' hē him selfa scieaf rēaf of tice 'he to-himself himself pushed the robe from the body' $=$ 'he took off his robe.'

## Middle English.

405. In ME the meaning and function of the datives $m \bar{e}$ and $p \bar{e}$ in the combinations $i$ ich $m \bar{e}$ self, $p \bar{u} p \bar{e}$ self, etc., were soon forgotten, so that these constructions became unmeaning, which led to the change of $m \bar{e}$ and $p \bar{e}$ into the possessives $m \bar{i}, p \bar{p}$, self being regarded as a noun, as shown in such constructions as $m \bar{\imath}$ self haveb 'myself has' compared with $p \bar{i}$ self havest 'thyself hast.' On the analogy of miself, pisself
 preserved in himself ' himself, itself,' plur. himself (Late ME
also pemself). hireself 'herself' could of course be regarded either as dative or possessive. The forms -selve, -selven also occur: miselve, mīselven, himselve, himselven. selven is probably the OE dat. sing. or plur. selfum, selve being either a shortening of selven or else $=\mathrm{OE}$ weak selfa.

## Modern English.

408. In Early MnE self came to be regarded more and more as a noun, which led to such constructions as the Shakesperian thy fair self, Tarquin's self. A new plural selves was now formed on the analogy of shelf, shelves, etc.: myself, ourselves, to your gross selves (Shakespere).
409. But the older dative was still preserved in himself, themselves. itself must also be regarded as containing the objective (=dative) case of it rather than as a contraction of it's self. In Present English we have the forms his self, their selves in vulgar speech; and even in the Standard dialect these forms are necessary when own is added: his owon self.
410. The following are the forms of the spoken lan-guage:-

Sing. myself; yourself; himself, itself, herself. Plur. ourselves; yourselves; themselves.

To these may be added the indefinite oneself.
409. It will be observed that yourself, yourselves make a distinction between sing. and plur. which is lost in the simple you, the sing. thyself being, of course, preserved only in the higher literary language. So also a form ourself occurs occasionally in older writers in the sense of 'myself'; but in the present literary language an author speaks of himself as ourselves, if he uses the plural.
410. In the literary language self is used as an independent noun: till Glory's self is twilight (Byron); then, all forgetful of self, she wandered into the village.
411. In the spoken language the emphatic and reflexive meanings of myself, etc., are distinguished by the stress, these forms having strong stress when emphatic, weak when reflexive, as in I did it my'self compared with he roused himself.

## Demonstrative.

Old English.
412. The OE demonstrative ${ }^{-\bar{e}}$ ' that, this, the, he,' etc., and $b \bar{e} s$ ' this, this one' are inflected as follows:-

Masc. Neut. Fem. Masc. Neut. Fem.
Sing. Nom. sè (se) pact sēo pès (pes) pis pēos

Gen. pas pāre pisses pisse(re)


The forms sé, pès are used only as noun-pronouns in the sense of 'this one,' 'he.'

Middle English.
413. In ME the $s$ of the $\mathrm{OE} s \bar{e}$, se, seo was made into $b$ by the influence of the more numerous forms beginning with $p$, and of pes, pis, pēos.
414. The resulting $b e, b a t$, $p e o$ was at first used, as in OE, both as a demonstrative and as a definite article. But by degrees the neuter sing. pat and the plur. $b \bar{a}$ were restricted to the demonstrative meaning. In Early Southern pet hüs $=\mathrm{OE}$ bat hius is still used in the sense of 'the house' as well as of 'that house'; but in Late ME pat is restricted to the more emphatic meaning, as in MnE. This restriction was still more marked in the plur.; already in the Earliest ME $\rho \bar{q}$ $m e n, ~ b \bar{g} h \bar{u} s$ were used only in the demonstrative meanings ' those men,' ' those houses.'
415. $\beta \bar{q}$ was now regarded as the plur. of $\beta a t$, and was completely disassociated from the definite article. Hence it became necessary to eliminate the old $b \bar{a}$-forms-acc. sing. fem. and nom. plur.-from the inflection of the definite article. This was done by extending the nom. sing. fem. first to the acc. sing. fem. - beo sünne $=\mathrm{OE}$ bā synne as well as seo synn-and then to the plur. nom.: beo sünnen $=\mathrm{OE}$ bā synna.
416. The old $p \bar{a} s$-the acc. sing. fem. and nom. plur. of $p e s-w a s$ now associated with the old $p \vec{a}$, till at last ME $p \bar{q}$ and $p \bar{\rho} s$ were completely confused, $b \bar{\rho} s$ being regarded as $\beta \bar{g}$ with the plural $-s$ added, so that $p \bar{g}$ men, $b \bar{g} s$ men both came to mean 'those men.'
417. The form $\bar{\rho} \bar{\rho} s$ was now eliminated from the inflection of bes in the same way as $p \bar{g}$ was eliminated from the inflection of $b e$, the fem. sing. nom. beos being extended first to the acc. fem. sing. and then to the nom. plur. : beos sünne $=\mathrm{OE}$ pēos synn and pās synne, beos sünnnen $=\mathrm{OE} p \bar{a} s$ synna.
418. The following are the full inflections of the Early Southern demonstratives corresponding to OE se and pes:

| $\text { Sing. Nom. pe }{ }^{\text {Masc. }}$ | Neut. pqt | Fem. beo | Masc. <br> pes | Neut. pis | Fem. peos |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Acc. pene | $p q t$ | peo | pesne | pis | peos |
| Dat. ben | ben | ber | pisse | pisse | pisse |
| Gen. pes | pes | per | pisses | bisses | pisse |
| Plur. Nom. | beo |  |  | peos |  |
| Dat. | pen |  |  | pissen |  |
| Gen. | ber |  |  | pisse |  |

419. But already in Early Southern there was a tendency to make the definite article indeclinable-be. The main causes of this were (a) the want of stress of the article, which made its endings indistinct, (b) the general loss of the sense of gender- and case-distinctions, and (c) the confusion which arose from using $p_{\ell} t$ both as an article and a demonstrative.
420. The new demonstrative pat was in like manner extended to the masc. and fem. sing. and then to the oblique cases of the sing., so that pat hūs, pat man were sharply distinguished from be man, pe hūs.
421. The neuter bis was extended in the same way: bis man, bis hūs, pis $c \bar{u}=\mathrm{OE}$ bes mann, bis hū̀s, pēos $c \bar{u}$.
422. At first the indeclinable pat was not always restricted to its demonstrative meaning, but was used also as an article in all three genders. This usage survived in Late ME in a few combinations: bat $\bar{g} n$ 'the one,' pat ober 'the other,' pat ilke 'the same' $=\mathrm{OE}$ se ilca, pat ilce, etc. The final $t$ of the pat was often regarded as the beginning of the next word, and the $a$ was weakened to $e$ so as to make the curtailed pat into the definite article $\beta$ e, the first two of the above combinations being written pe tōn, be töper. The tother has been preserved to the present day in vulgar English. In Early MnE the tother and the other were blended into t'other, which was still used in the literary language of the last century.
423. In the plural, where there was no distinction of gender, $p \bar{g}$, $p \bar{p} s$ and peos became indeclinable even sooner than the singulars pat, pis.
424. The plural peos 'these' was discarded in Late ME, and a new plural was formed direct from pis by adding the regular adjective plural ending $e$, giving bise, which also appears in the weak form bese, like hese=hise. pese may, however, be the result of the influence of the older pēos, peos, which in Late ME would become pēs, pes.

## Modern English.

425. Standard MnE finally settled down to the demonstrative forms-
Sing. that this
Plur. those these
426. In Early MnE the article the is often shortened to $t h$ ' before vowels and $h+$ vowels, as in th'enemy, th'hilt, and even before other consonants, as in th'world, where the $w$ was probably dropped.

## one, a; none, no.

427. In OE the numeral àn 'one,' which was inflected like a strong adjective (but with acc. sing. masc. $\bar{e} n n e$ ), was occasionally used also in an indefinite sense, which sometimes approached very near to that of the indefinite article: àn.mann $=$ ' a certain man,' ' a man'; although in most cases the indefinite article was not expressed at all : on alicre byrig bib cyning 'in each city there is a king.'
428. From $\bar{a} n$ was formed the negative nān ' none' $=$ *ne $\bar{a} n$ ' not one,' which was used both as a noun-nēnne ne
geheälb 'he heals no one'-and, more frequently, as an adjective: nān mann 'no man,' nān bing 'no thing,' 'nothing.'
429. In ME a $a n$ developed into a regular indefinite article. When used in this way it lost its stress and shortened its vowel, becoming an. As this shortening took place before the change of $\bar{a}$ into $\bar{g}$, the article an was isolated from the numeral $\bar{g} n$ ' one.'
430. In ME $\bar{\rho} n$, $n \bar{\rho} n$, an dropped their final $n$ in the same way as min and bin before a consonant, keeping it before a vowel or $h+$ vowel : $\bar{g}$ man 'one man,' $\bar{g} n ~ a r m, ~ s h e \bar{e}$ d $\bar{o} p$ n $\bar{\rho} n ~ h a r m ~ t o ~ n \bar{\rho} ~ m a n, ~ a ~ m a n, ~ a n ~ \bar{g} l d ~ m a n . ~ \bar{g} n$ and $n \bar{q} n$ kept their $n$ of course when used absolutely.
431. In MnE the strong words $\bar{g} n$ and $n \bar{q} n$ levelled these distinctions, but in different ways. In the case of one the shortened form was given up, one being used before vowels as well as consonants : one man, one arm. It is to be noted that in Early MnE one kept the sound (oon).
432. none went the opposite way, the fuller form being preserved only absolutely-I have none-the shorter no being used as the conjoint form before vowels and consonants alike: no man, no other.
433. The article an has kept the ME variation : a man, an enemy. In Early MnE the full form was also kept before $h$ : an house. We now say a house, a history, etc. But we generally use $a n$ before $h$ in weak syllables, where it is then dropped in pronunciation, as in an historical event. As one itself is now pronounced (wen), it takes $a$ before it: such $a$ one. So also $u=(j u w$, jua) now takes $a$ before it, as in $a$ unit, like a youth. But an unit, an useless waste of life are still found in the literary language, being traditions of the earlier pronunciation of $u$ as (iu).

In ME the distinction in meaning between $\bar{q} n$ and $a n$ was not always strictly carried out at first, the strong $\bar{\varrho} n$ being sometimes used as an indefinite article, and $a n$ being sometimes used in the sense of 'one.' This latter usage has survived to the present day in a few phrases, such as a day or two, they are both of an age.

## Interrogative and Relative.

434. The interrogative pronouns in OE are hwa, hwoct, whose inflections have been already given (359), hweelc, hwilc, Late West-Saxon hroylc' 'which' (implying 'more than one'), and hwaper 'which of two.' hwelci is a shortening of *hwalic, hrvili of ${ }^{*}$ hwilic (with the $a$ assimilated to the following $i$ ), where $h w a$ - is the original short form of $h w a \bar{a}$ (125), and -lic is a shortening of lic, the original meaning of the compound being 'who-like' or 'what-like.' hwaper was originally formed from *hwa with the same comparative derivative ending as in furbor (350). hregle is used both as a noun and an adjective, generally in a more definite sense than $h w a \bar{a}$, hwat, though it must sometimes be translated by who or what, especially when an adjective, hwelc being the only adjective form of hwā and hwat, as in hwelce méde habbe gंe ? ' what reward have ye ?'
435. In ME hweqli dropped the $l$, probably at first only when unstressed: Early Southern hwuich from Late WestSaxon hwylc, Late ME which being a Midland form.
436. In OE hwä and hwat were used only as nouns, but in ME what was used as an indeclinable adjective of all three genders : what bing, what man. This early use of what as an adjective was helped by its resemblance to pat. The OE use of hwot with a noun in the gen. plur., as in hwot manna? 'what kind of men,' 'what men,' also paved the way for the
later use of the word as an adjective, just as $m \bar{a}+$ gen. plur. developed into an adjective (354). When the language was able to distinguish between what thing and which thing, the latter pronoun was gradually restricted to its more definite meaning.
437. hwaper, Anglian hweper from *hwapir, was used both as a pronoun $=$ ' which of two,' and as an adverb and a. conjunction $=$ ' whether.' It now survives only as an adverb, which having taken the place of the pronoun. The pronoun whether still survived in Early MnE , as in whether of them twain did the will of his father? corresponding to the OE hwaper pāra twēgra dyde pas foder willan?
438. There were no simple relative pronouns in OE, there being only an indeclinable relative particle $p e$, which was generally joined to the noun-pronoun sē: se mann sē$p e$. 'the man who . . ,'pa menn p $\bar{e} m-p e$. . 'the men to whom . .' së by itself was also used as a relative: se mann sè . . , hē pat bēacen ġeseah pat him ġeīewed wearp' he saw the beacon that was shown to him.' In ME that became an indeclinable relative as in MnE : he that will . .
439. Although the OE interrogative pronouns were not used relatively, they were freely used conjunctively, a usage which naturally grew out of their interrogative meaning, hwat wilt pü? ' what do you wish?' for instance, suggesting such constructions as hē āscode pone cyning hwaper hē wolde 'he asked the king which of the two he wished,' he hordap and nāt hwām 'he hoards and knows not for whom.' In ME whō soon came to be used as a relative, as also in MnE: the man who . . , the woman who . . , what being still restricted to the conjunctive use.

## Definite.

440. Besides $s \bar{e}$ and $b \bar{e} s$ there was in OE a third demonstrative pronoun geon, which however became obsolete already in Early West-Saxon. It was preserved in North-Thames English, being still in. common use in the north of England and Scotland in the form of yon. In MnE yon has been confused with the adverb yond, yonder-yond cloud, yonder hill-of which it was supposed to be a shortened form, and was consequently written yon'. yond is now completely obsolete, and yonder is more frequent than yon in the literary language, both being obsolete in the spoken language.
441. The OE demonstrative of quality swelc, swilc, Late West-Saxon swyli=*swalic, *swilic 'so-like,' *swa being the older form of $s w \bar{a}$ 'so,' dropped its $l$ in ME in the same way as hwęli did, Southern swioch becoming swuch by the influence of the $w$, which was then absorbed by the $u$, giving such. The tradition of the Midland form szeich is still preserved in the vulgar sich.

## Indefinite.

442. The particle $\bar{a}$ ' always' was in OE prefixed to pronouns and adverbs-especially interrogative ones-to give them an indefinite sense, as in ähwêr 'anywhere,' ähwaper ' either of two.' Interrogative pronouns and adverbs were also used in an indefinite sense without any prefix, as in giff
 this book.' The indefinite meaning grows naturally out of the interrogative, such a question as 'who ?' being necessarily indefinite, for if we knew who the person was, we should not ask the question. The indefinite meaning was made more prominent by putting the interrogative word between swā . .
swā 'as . . as': swā-hwwā-swā 'whoever,' swā-hwot-swūa ' whatever,' swā-hwelci-swā ' whichever.' In ME the first $s w \bar{a}$ was dropped in these groups : wohō-sp,$w h a t-s \bar{q}$. In Late OE वैfre ' ever,' 'always' is sometimes added like the older $\bar{a}$-though more loosely-to express indefiniteness, as in eall peat äfre betst was 'whatever was best'; and in ME this usage was much extended, whence the MnE whosoever, whatsoever, and, with dropping of the now superfluous so, whoever, whatever, whichever, etc.
443. In OE the noun wiht ' creature,' 'thing,' came to be regarded almost as a pronoun, and when the indefinite $\bar{a}$ - was prefixed to it, the origin of the resulting noun-pronoun $\bar{a}$ woiht was forgotten, and it was contracted to $\bar{a} u h t, \bar{a} h t, a h t$. The prefix $\bar{a}$ - also appears in the form of $\bar{o}$-, whence the parallel forms ōwiht, oht. Hence ME has both auht, aht, and ouht, oht. In OE negative forms were obtained by prefixing $n$-: nāwiht, nāuht, naht, nōwiht, noht, whence ME nauht, naht, and nouht, noht. The fluctuation between $a u$ and $o u$ in these words still continued in MnE , even when the two spellings had come to represent the same sound ( $)$ ). We now write only $a u$ in aught, making an arbitrary distinction between naught and nought. In OE nauht, etc. were used as adverbs=' not at all,' ' by no means,' and in ME they became less and less emphatic, especially in the weak forms, which dropped the $h$, becoming nat, not, which at last became equivalent to the older ne 'not.'
444. $\operatorname{some}=\mathrm{OE}$ is still used as a plural noun-pronoun, the singular being represented by the compounds someone, somebody, something. In ME the two indefinite pronouns sum and what were combined in sumwehat to express the same meaning as something; somewhat is now used only as an adverb.
445. any =the OE noun and adjective $\bar{e} n i \bar{g}$, formed from $\bar{a} n$ 'one' by the derivative ending -ig', which causes mutation of the preceding vowel. In late ME $\bar{g} n i$ was back-shortened (173) to eni, which was often made into ani by the influence of an. Early MnE has both eny and any; and MnE keeps the former in speech, the latter in writing. The OE negative $n \bar{e} n i \dot{g}$ was supplanted by $n \bar{\varrho} n$ in ME. any is now used only as an adjective, the corresponding noun being represented by the compound anyone, anybody, anything. In Early MnE any was still used as a noun: who is here so vile . . . . if any, speak! (Shakespere).
446. other $=$ the OE strong noun and adjective objer: pas öpres nama 'the other man's name,' pā $\overline{o p r e} m_{\ell} n n$ 'the other men.' For the later inflections of other see § 358.
447. The reciprocal noun-pronouns one another, each other are now inseparable compounds, but their elements were originally separate words with independent inflections; they love each other meant originally 'they love, each-one (nom.) the-other (acc.).' In OE we find such constructions as $\bar{a} \bar{s} \dot{h} w a b e r$ öperne oftradlice $\bar{u} t d r \bar{a} f d e$ ' each the-other repeatedly drove out' (said of the five sons of a king); and even in Early MnE we still find reminiscences of the original construction: with greedy force each other doth assail (Spenser).

## Quantitative.

For much, more, most; a little, less, least, see §§ 353, 354. For enough see § 338.
448. both $=$ ME $b \bar{p} p e$ from OE * $b \bar{a}-p \bar{a}$ 'both those,' 'both the,' $b \bar{a}$ being the fem. and neut. form corresponding to the masc. bëg en ' both,' just as the fem. and neut. twā 'two ' correspond to the masc. tweggen.
449. each $=\mathrm{OE} \dot{a} l \bar{l}$ from *āgit̄c, literally 'ever each,' where the $\dot{g}$ g- has the same collective meaning as in geféra 'companion,' etc. $\bar{e} l \bar{c}$ in ME became $\bar{c} l c h$, and-with the same dropping of the $l$ as in which- $\bar{c} c h$, the Northern form being ilk, which was thus confounded with ilk 'same' $=\mathrm{OF}$ ilca. each is still a noun as well as an adjective, though there is also a compound noun-form each one.
450. every is a ME compound of $\bar{e} f r e$ (442) and $\bar{e} l \bar{l}$,
 Late ME was shortened to $\bar{e} v e r i$. every is now used only as an adjective, the noun being represented by the compounds everyone, everybody, everything.

451. either $=\mathrm{OE} \bar{a} \dot{g} b e r, \bar{a} \dot{g} h w a p e r ~ f r o m ~ * a g i h w a p e r . ~$ OE $\bar{e} \dot{g}$ ber has the meaning of Latin uterque 'each of two,' 'both of two,' the meaning 'one of two,' Latin alteruter, being expressed by ähwaper without the collective $\dot{g} e-$, which often shortened to |  |
| :---: |
| $u$ |
| $u$ |$e r, \bar{a} p e r$. The difference of meaning is seen in such sentences as on $\bar{a} \dot{g} \dot{b}$ bere healfe eas 'on both sides of the river' and góv hè āuber pissa forlêtt 'if he gives up either of these two things.' In ME the pronoun $\bar{\imath} u p e r=\mathrm{OE}$ $\bar{a} u p e r$ was gradually disused, and $\bar{\varepsilon} i b e r=\mathrm{OE} \bar{a} \dot{g} \dot{b} e r$ was used to express both meanings. In MnE either is now generally restricted to the alternative meaning alteruter.

In ME both $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{i} b e r$ and $\bar{q} u p e r$ continued to be used as conjunctions, weak $\bar{q} u p e r$ being contracted to $\bar{q} p e r, \bar{g} r$, or. $\bar{q} b e r .$. or 'either . . or'-in which the first member kept its fuller form because it kept the strong stress-was in Late ME made into दijer . . or, as in MnE.
452. In OE there was a negative form corresponding to āuper: nähwaper, nāuber, näper, nōhwaper, nöper. In ME it was preserved as a conjunction, the weak form being shortened to nor. The strong form n $\overline{\bar{q}} u \bar{j} e r$ was, on the other
hand, made into a new-formation nę $i j e r$ on the analogy of $\bar{q} j e r$, being used both as a pronoun and as the first member of the correlative conjunction-group nēeiper . . . nor, as in MnE .
453. In MnE either and neither are used both as adjectives and as nouns.
454. There are a few quantitative pronouns remaining, whose etymology and history deserve notice:-
several has the same form in ME and old French; it comes from the Late Latin sëparalis, corresponding to Old Latin sēparābilis 'separable.'
few $=\mathrm{OE}$ fēa, fēawe plur.
many $=$ OE manig̀, Late West-Saxon mēnig by the ana-
 MnE (mani, meni).

## NUMERALS.

## Cardinal.

455. The cardinal numerals $\mathbf{1 - 1 2}$ are expressed by the following isolated words:-
one. $\mathrm{OE} \bar{a} n$.
two. OE masc. twēgen, neut. and fem. twā. Already in the Earliest ME twā was extended to the masc. : twã men= OE twëg̀en menn. But twëien, twḕie $=\mathrm{OE}$ twègen was preserved, and, indeed, survives in the present literary English in the form of twain, but was used indiscriminately in all three genders. In Late ME $w^{w} \bar{g}=\mathrm{OE}$ wwà became $t w o \bar{o}$ by the same influence of the $w$ as in who (373). In. Early MnE the (w) of (twuu) was soon absorbed, giving (tuu).
three. OE prié, neut. and fem. prēo. In ME the latter form was extended to the masc., becoming prē in Late ME.
four. OE feower, which in ME became fower, four, the $e$ being absorbed by the two lip-consonants between which it stood.
five. OE $f_{\bar{i} f} f$, absolute $f_{\bar{i}}^{f} f$. $f_{i} f$, like the other isolated numerals above three, though uninflected when joined to a noun, is generally inflected when used absolutely : fïf menn, heora wêron fife 'there were five of them.' In ME both forms were kept, the conjoint $f_{i} f$ and the absolute $f_{i v e}$, the latter being by degrees extended to the conjoint use, whence the MnE five.
six. OE siex, six, Anglian sex.
seven. OE seofon.
eight. OE eahta, Anglian ahta, whence ME eighte.
nine. OE nigon. ME nizen, nīn, absolute nīne.
ten. OE tien, Anglian tén. ME ten with shortening.
eleven. OE endleofan. ME enleven, elleven, absolute elevene.
twelve. OE twelf, absolute twelfe. ME twelf, twelve.
456. The teen-numerals $133^{-19}$ are compounds of the units with -tīene, Anglian -tēne:-
thirteen. OE pritīene, 'pritīeñe, prēotīne. ME prittēne. The MnE form shows the same consonant-transposition as in third (466).
fourteen. OE fēowertiene.
fifteen. OE fiftiene. In ME fiftene the $\bar{\imath}$ was shortened before the consonant-group.
sixteen. OE sixtīene.
seventeen. OE seafontiene.
eighteen. OE eahtatiene, Anglian ahtatène. ME eightetène, contracted eightēne.
nineteen. OE nigontīene. ME nigentēne, nīntēne.
457. The ty-numerals $20-90$ are formed in OE by com-
bining the units with $-t \dot{g}$, which was originally a noun meaning 'a lot of ten,' 'half a score,' so that twenty originally meant 'two tens.' The numerals 70-90 also prefix hund-:-
twenty. OE twēntig from *twēgen-tig', twentig.
thirty. OE prittgr, prittig. ME. pritti, Late East-Midland pirti, with the same transposition as in third.
forty. OE feowertig.
fifty. OE fīftig. ME fifti.
sixty. OE sixtig.
seventy. OE hundseofontig. ME seoventiz, seventi.
eighty. OE hundeahtatig, Anglian hundehtatig.
ninety. OE hundnigontig.
458. In OE the ty-numerals are sometimes declined as adjectives, as in after brītig̀ra daga face 'after the space of thirty days.' When undeclined they are used in their original function of nouns governing the genitive: sixtig mīla brād 'sixty miles broad.'
459. The high numerals hundred and thousand are in OE neuter nouns, hund; hundred and püsend, governing the genitive: twā hund wintra 'two hundred winters (years),' püsend manna 'a thousand men.'
460. In OE there was no numeral higher than thousand. million, ME millioun, is the French form of Late Latin millio, acc. milliönem formed from Latin mille 'thousand.' billion, trillion, etc. are much later formations, in which the Latin prefixes $b i$ - and tri- (as in biennial, triennial) were substituted for the initial syllable of million, so that billion was regarded as a sort of contraction of *bimillion. milliard is a Modern French formation from Latin mille, or rather from million, by substituting the augmentative ending -ard for -on, so that the word means 'big million,' million itself originally meaning 'group of thousands.'
461. Numeral-groups are either cumulative, as in twenty-five $=20+5$, or multiple, as in two hundred $=2 \times 100$. In such cumulative groups as twenty-five the units always came first in $\mathrm{OE}-f \overline{\mathrm{I}}$ and twentiog manna-and we still say five-and-twenty as well as treenty-five, but only with the lower ty-numerals; thus we hardly ever say he is five and fifty.
462. In speaking we generally count by hundreds up to 1900 , especially in dates. Thus 1066, 1891 are called ten hundred and sixty-six, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, or, more briefly ten sixty-six, eighteen ninety-one.
463. The high numerals are not used alone, but require $a$ or one before them, the latter when emphatic, as in one hundred, not two hundred. $a$ in a hundred, a thousand, etc. may be the indefinite article, but is more probably the weak one, as in a day or two (433. 1).
464. In MnE all the numerals are treated as adjectives followed by nouns in the plural, a-hundred, etc. being a kind of group-adjective: ten men, twenty men, a hundred men, two thousand men.
465. But all the numerals can also be used as nouns with plurals in -s. They necessarily become nouns when their head-word is suppressed, as in units, tens, and hundreds, to go on all fours, there were ten of us; but even when the headword is expressed, the numeral may be made into a noun whenever it has any independence of meaning, as in thousands of people.

## Ordinal.

468. Most of the ordinal numerals are derivatives of the cardinal ones, but the first two ordinals are expressed by distinct words:-
first is the OE fyrest, which originally meant 'foremost' (349); but this meaning was sometimes so much weakened that fyrest became practically equivalent to forma, which is the regular OE ordinal corresponding to an.
second was introduced in ME, being the French form of Latin secundus. The OE word was öper, which was discarded because of the ambiguity resulting from it having also the meaning ' other.'
third $=\mathrm{OE} p r i d d a$, Late Northumbrian pirda, ME pirde.
The other OE ordinals below 20 are formed from the cardinals by adding $-p a$, the $p$ becoming $t$ after $s$ or $f$, and final $n$ of the cardinals being dropped :-
fourth $=\mathrm{OE}$ fēowerba, fēorpa, ME föurbe. [Cp. fourteen, forty.]
fifth $=\mathrm{OE}$ fifta, ME fifte, Early MnE fift. In later MnE the th was restored by the influence of the other ordinals, as also in Early MnE sixt.
sixth $=\mathrm{OE}$ sixta.
seventh $=\mathrm{OE}$ seofopa is a Late ME new-formation direct from the cardinal. So also ninth, tenth, eleventh.
eighth $=\mathrm{OE}$ eahtoba, Anglian $a h t o b a$, where the $o$ is the older form of the $a$ in the cardinal eahta, ahta.
ninth $=\mathrm{OE}$ nigopa.
tenth $=\mathrm{OE}$ tēopa with the unmutated vowel of the cardinal tī̀n.
eleventh $=\mathrm{OE}$ endleofta.
twelfth=OE twelfta.
469. The OE teen-ordinals end in tēeopa, which in ME was made in tènpe, a new-formation from the cardinal ending tène, as in fiftēnpe $=$ OE fiflèopa.
470. The OE ty-ordinals end in -tigoba, -tiogoba, which in ME became -teope, and then -tipe by the influence of the
cardinals: OE twentigopa, Late ME twentipe. In Early $\mathrm{MnE} e$ was introduced by the analogy of the verb-inflection -eth, but these ordinals were still pronounced (twentip, pirtip), etc., although the spelling has now altered the pronunciation into (twenti-ip), etc.
471. In Early MnE the ordinal ending - th was extended to the high numerals, which before had no ordinal forms: hundredth, which was pronounced (hundrep), thousandth, millionth.
472. The OE ordinals were inflected as weak adjectives.
473. In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal form, the others being left in the shorter cardinal form: twenty-fifth or five-and-twentieth, hundred and second. This usage prevailed already in OE , as in on $\overline{\operatorname{a}} \mathrm{a} m$ twä-and-twentigopan dagge, where twā is kept in the neuter, although dag is masculine, because it forms a sort of group compound with the ordinal.
474. The ordinals are used as nouns in MnE in the combination of two ordinals to express fractional numbers, as in two thirds of an inch.

VERBS.

## Old-English.

Inflections.
473. There are two main conjugations of verbs in OE, strong and weak, distinguished mainly by the formation of their preterites and preterite participles. If we compare these parts of the verb with its infinitive, we find that strong verbs, such as bindan 'to bind,' form their preterite by vowel-change
-band 'he bound'-and add -en in the preterite participle with or without vowel-change, ge- being often prefixed, in weak as well as strong verbs-j'ebunden 'bound'; while weak verbs, such as hieran 'hear,' form their preterite and preterite participle with the help of $d$ or $t$ : hïerde, gehēered.
474. The following are the chief verb-endings of the active voice, including the preterite participle passive. Where two endings are given, the second is that of the weak verbs. Observe that all three persons have the same ending in the plural, and that the imperative exists only in the second person.

| Present Singular | Indicative. | Subjunctive. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 -e | -e |  |
|  | 2 -st | -e |  |
|  | $3-p$ | -e |  |
| Plural <br> Preterite Singular | -ab | -en |  |
|  | 1 -, -de | $-e,-d$ |  |
|  | -e, -dest | $-e,-d$ |  |
|  | $3-$ - -de | $-e,-d$ |  |
| Plural <br> Imperative Singular | -on, -don | -en, -den |  |
|  | ar -, -, (-e, -a) | Infinitive | -an |
| Plural | -ab | Gerund | -enne |
| Partic | iple Present | -ende |  |

475. Verbs whose root ends in a vowel generally contract ; thus seon ' to see,' gān ' to go,' conjugate $i \dot{c}$ s $\bar{o} 0, i \bar{c}$ g $\bar{a}$, wē sēob, wē gā $b$ compared with $\dot{i c} b i n d e$, wé bindab.
476. For the plural ending $-a p$, both indic. and imper., $-e$ is substituted when the pronoun comes immediately after the verb : $\dot{g} \bar{e} \bar{e}$ bindab, but binde $\dot{g} \bar{e}$. So also gā $\dot{g} \bar{e}$ ! compared with $\dot{g} \bar{e} g a \bar{a} b$. These forms were originally subjunctives, binde $\dot{g} \bar{e}$ being a shortening of binden $\dot{\delta} \dot{e} \overline{\text { e }}$. So also in $g \bar{a} w \bar{e}$ 'let us go.' This change was often extended by analogy to.
the ending -on, as in mote wé ' may we,' sohte $\dot{g} \bar{e}$ ' ye sought' compared with we mōton, $\dot{g} \bar{e}$ sohton.
477. The passive voice, and many forms of the active voice as well, are expressed by the combination of auxiliary verbs with the pret. partic. and, more rarely, the pres. partic. The chief auxiliary verbs are wesan 'be,' weorpan 'become,' and habban 'have,' as in hēwas g̀ $e f u n d e n, ~ h e ̄ ~ w e a r k ~ g ' e f u n d e n ~ ' h e ~$ was found,' hē is ġecumen 'he has come,' hē hafp gefunden 'he has found.'
478. But besides the pret. partic., there is a trace of the old Germanic passive in the form hätte from hatan, which is both pres. ' is named, called,' and pret. 'was called.'
479. The infinitive was originally an indeclinable abstract noun formed from the corresponding verb, so that bindan originally meant ' binding,' 'act of binding.' The gerund is a similarly formed noun in the dative case governed by the preposition tō, which always precedes it, as in he is tō cumenne 'he is to come' = Latin ventürus est. It often takes the $a$ of the infin.-to cumanne.
480. The pret. partic., as already stated, generally takes $\dot{g} e$ - before it; but not if the verb already has $\dot{g} \ell-$ or a similar inseparable prefix, as in forġiefen 'forgiven,' ālīesed 'redeemed.' In West-Saxon hieran generally takes g'e- throughout: g̀ehīeran, 广̇ehīered.
481. Both participles are declined like adjectives: we sindon gecumene, hè hefp hine g'efundenne 'he has found him,' literally 'he possesses him found.' But in the later language the pret. partic. in combination with auxiliary habban became indeclinable through the original meaning having been forgotten : hē hafp hine g'efunden.
482. In the older language the second person sing. ends in $-s$ : pū lufas 'thou lovest,' pū lufades. But already
in Early West-Saxon the regular forms are lufast, lufadest.
483. In Late Northumbrian inflectional $\beta$ became $s: h \bar{e}$ bindes, wè bindas.
484. In Late OE the subj. plur. ending -en was made into -on by the influence of the indic., as in $\dot{g} y f h \bar{y}$ wâron 'if they were,' compared with Early West-Saxon gíl hīe wâren.
485. In Late OE the $-s t$ of the 2 nd pers. sing. pret. indic. of weak verbs is extended to the subj.: $\dot{\delta} y f f \bar{u}$ lufodest 'if you loved'=Early West-Saxon gg̀if pū lufode.

## Strong Verbs.

486. In the strong verbs the plur. of the pret. indic. often has a vowel different from that of the sing. : ic band, wé bundon. The and sing. pret. indic. and the whole pret. subj. always have the vowel of the pret. plur. indic.: $p \bar{u}$ bunde, g̀if ic bunde, gif wé bunden. The following are the Early West-Saxon inflections of the strong verb bindan:-

487. Some strong verbs are inflected like weak verbs every-
where except in the preterite forms. Thus swerian 'swear,' pret. swör, is inflected like ferian (504) : pres. indic. sweriğe, swerest, swerep, sweqriap; subj. pres. sweriğe, swerig̀en; imper. swęre, sweriap; pres. partic. sweriġende. Many strong verbs with double consonants, such as biddan ' pray,' 'ask' pret. bød, are inflected like settan (503): pres. indic. bidde, bitst (bidest), bitt (bideb), biddap; subj. pres. bidde, bidden; imper. bide, biddap; pres. partic. biddende.

All of these verbs, both strong and weak, had a $j$ before their endings in Germanic (148)-*swarjan, *farjan, *bidjan, *satjan; and hence all of them mutate their root-vowels. The strong verb wépan 'weep' is also a ' j -verb,' as shown by its mutation, the Anglian form being wāpan, and is declined like the weak verb hieran, which however has the same endings as a strong verb in the infinitive and present tenses, and so there is nothing to distinguish the inflections of wëpan from those of the ordinary j-less strong verbs: pres. wëpe, wēpst (wēpest), wēph (wèpep), wēpap; imper. wēp, etc.
488. The Germanic forms of the endings $-s t,-p$ were $-i s$, $-i p$, which are still preserved in the oldest English: bindis, bindip. In West-Saxon these endings mutated a preceding vowel and then dropped their own vowels, as in $p \bar{u} l \bar{y} c s t$, hit grēwp from lücan 'close,' 'lock,' gröwan 'grow.' The resulting consonant-combinations were modified in various ways (147): $t b, d p, d d p$ were made into $t t, t$, as in lêtt ' lets,' bītt ' waits,' bitt ' asks,' stęnt 'stands' from lêtan 'let,' bī̀dan, biddan, standan; and sp became st, as in ciest' chooses' from céosan. Similar changes took place in the 2nd pers. sing. : būu bitst ' you ask,' $p \bar{u}$ cièst. In Anglian the full endings -es ( - est $t$, $-e \beta$ were restored, the unmutated vowels being at the same time restored: lètep, bīdep, bidep, biddep, st̄̄ndep; biddes, cièoses.
489. The vowel-changes in the strong verbs are generally due to gradation (150), which is often accompanied by consonant-change, as in weorpan, geworden (146). But in some verbs the vowel of the pret. is the result of contraction of Germanic and Arian reduplication; thus heold 'held' (infin. healdan) is a contraction of *hehold, *hehald. Traces of this reduplication are preserved in a few OE preterites, such as $h \bar{e}-h t$, later hēt (infin. hātan 'call,' ' command ')= Germanic *hehait (Gothic haihait).
490. The following are the classes under which the strong verbs fall according to their vowel-changes, each class being named after a characteristic verb. A few examples only are given of each class. The special Anglian forms are given in ( ). The forms are given in the order infin., pret. sing., pret. plur., pret. partic.

## I. Reduplicative or fall-class.

491. The pret. sing. and plur. has $\bar{e} o$ or $\bar{e}$, the pret. partic. keeping the vowel of the infin.:-

| feallan (fallan) 'fall' | fēoll | fēollon | feallen (fallen) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| healdan (hāldan) 'hold' | heold | hēoldon | healden (hälden) |
| cnārwan 'know' | cnêow | cnēowon | cnāwen |
| grôwan 'grow' | grēow | grēowon | grôwen |
| bēatan 'beat' | bēot | bēoton | beàten |
| hātan 'command' | $h \bar{e}(h) t$ | $h \bar{e}(h) t o n$ | hāten |
| lâtan 'let' | lēt | lèton | lâten |

## II. Shake-class.

492. These verbs have in the infin. $a$, ea, or, in j -verbs the mutations $\varepsilon$, $i e$, in the pret. sing. and plur. $\bar{o}$, in the pret. partic. $a, \boldsymbol{a}:-$
faran 'go' för föron faren

| siacan 'shake' | siō̄c | siōcon | siacen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hebban (148) 'raise' | hō | höfon | hafen, hafen |

III. Bind-class.
493. In the infin. $i, i e, e$, eo followed by two consonants one at least of which is nearly always a vowellike con-sonant- $r, l, n, m$; in the pret. sing. $a, a, e a$; in the pret. plur. $u$; in the pret. partic. $u, o$.

| bindan 'bind' | band, bqnd | bundon | bunden |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ġieldan (ġeldan) | gieald (gāld) | guldon |  |
| helpan 'help' | healp (halp) | hulpon | holpen |
| berstan (144) | bar | burston | borsten |
| weorpan 'become' | wearb | , | zoorden |
| feohtan (fehtan) 'fight | feaht (faht | fuhto | fohten |

IV. Bear-class.
494. In the infin. $e, i e, i$ followed by a single consonant which is generally vowellike; in brecan the vowellike consonant precedes the vowel; in the pret. sing. $a, a, e a$; in the pret. plur. $\hat{e}, \bar{e} a, \bar{o}, \bar{a}$; in the pret. partic. o, $u:-$ beran'carry' bar bâron boren brecan'break' brac brâcon brocen sïeran (sieran) 'cut' siēar (sìar) sièaron (sièron) sioren niman 'take'
nōmon, nämon numen

## V. Give-class.

495. In the infin. $e, i e$, and, in the $j$-verbs $i$, followed by a single, non-vowellike consonant, this class differing from the last only in the pret. partic., which keeps the vowel of the infin., the mutated $i$ of the $j$-verbs returning to $e$ :-
sprecan'speak' sprac sprâcon sprecen

sittan'sit' sat sâton seten
liçgan'lie' lag̀ lāgon,lâgon leġen

## VI. Shine-class.

496. In the infin. $\bar{\imath}$; pret. sing. $\bar{a}$; pret. plur. and pret. partic. $i:-$

| drïfan'drive' | drāf | drifon | drifen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sī̄nan'shine', | sciān | siinon | scinen |
| wrītan'write' | wrāt | writon | writen |

## VII. Choose-class.

497. In the infin. $\bar{e} O, \bar{u}$; pret. sing. $\bar{e} a$; pret. plur. $u$; pret. partic. $o$ :-

| bēodan'command' | bēad | budon | boden |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cēosan'choose', | c̄ēas | curon | coren |
| frēosan'freeze', | frēas | fruron | froren |
| bügan'bend' | bēag, bēah | bugon | bogen |

Weak Verbs.
498. The weak verbs fall under two main groups, according as the vowel of the infin. is mutated or not. The mutation-group comprises two classes, the hear-class (hieran) and the wean-class (wenian), the unmutated verbs constituting the third or love-class (lufian).

## I. Hear-class.

499. The following are the Early West-Saxon forms :-

Indic.
Pres. Sing. I hīere
2 hierst
3 hierp
Plur. hierap
Pret. Sing. I hīerde
2 hīerdest
3 hierde Plur. hīerdon

Subj.
hïere
hīere
hiere
hīeren
hièrde
hīerde
hierde
hīerden

| Imper. Sing. | hīer | Infin. hīeran |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plur. | hīeraß | Gerund tō hīerenne |
| Partic. Pres. | hierende |  |
|  | Pret. | hīered |

500. This class adds $-d e$ in the pret. and $-e d$ in the pret. partic., where the $e$ is liable to be dropped when an inflectional vowel is added, as in the nom. plur. gehēerde. Verbs ending in $t, d, c$ drop the $e$ in the uninflected form also, as in äsend 'sent' (infin. āsendan), where $d$ is a shortening of $d d$. After the breath-consonants $t, c$ the inflectional $d$ is unvoiced, and $c$ becomes $h$ : mètan 'find,' 'meet' gemètt, tēècan 'show' gंetēht. But the full forms āsended, gemèeted also occur, especially in Anglian. Similar changes take place in the pret. -tde, $-p(p) d e$ become -tte, $-p t e$, as in gemétle 'found,' dypte 'dipped' (infin. dyppan). The inflectional $d$ is also unvoiced after ss and the other breath-consonants, as in missan 'miss' miste, compared with $r \bar{e} s d e ~ ' r u s h e d ' ~ f r o m ~$ $r \bar{e} s a n$, where the $s=(\mathrm{z})$. In dypte the $p$ is, of course, a shortening of $p p$. There are similar shortenings in sendan, sende, fyllan, fylde, etc.
501. Ib. Seek-class. In this subdivision of the hearclass the vowel of the infin. is unmutated in the pret. and pret. partic., the inflections being the same as in the other verbs of the hear-class :-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { sellan 'give' } & \text { sealde (sālde) } & \text { g̀seald ('̆gesāld) } \\
\text { sēcan (sācan) 'seek' } & \text { sōhte, sohte } & \dot{\text { gesōht, gesoht }}
\end{array}
$$

502. Those with $n$ followed by $\dot{c}$ or $g-p e n c a n$ 'think,' bringan 'bring'-drop the nasal and lengthen the preceding vowel and modify it in other ways: penian, pohte, gंeboht $=$ Germanic *pankjan, *panhta, an before $h$ having been regularly changed to nasal $\bar{a}$, which in OE as regularly
became $\bar{o}$. Long vowels were shortened in OE before $h t$, so that pōhte, etc. became bohte. Seek-verbs in - eqic carry the mutated vowel $\varepsilon$ into the pret. and pret. partic. in Late WestSaxon: stręcian, 'stretch,' streahte, streaht (strahte, straht) later strehte, strght.
503. It will be observed that all verbs of the hear-class have long syllables in the infin.-either a long vowel, as in hieran, or a vowel followed by two consonants, as in sendan, fyllan. In the latter verb the $l l$ is Germanic [cp. the adjective full], and is therefore kept through all the inflections of the verb, except where $l$ is written for $l l$ before a consonant in contracted forms: pres. indic. fylle, fyllest (fylst), fyllep ( $f y / b)$, fyllap; imper. sing. fyll, etc. But most of the verbs of this class with double consonants in the infin., such as settan 'set,' are inflected like strong $j$-verbs such as biddan (487), the double consonant being also shortened in the pret. and pret. partic. : pres. indic. sette, setst (setes), sett (setep), settap; subj. sette (n); imper. sete, settap; pres. part. settende; pret. sette $={ }^{*}$ setede, pret. partic. jंeseted, gesestt. Some of these verbs belong to the seek-division, such as seicigan 'say':
 sege, seiçab; pres. partic. seicigende; pret. saǵde, pret. partic. gesagd. So also sellan has pres. indic. selle, selp (selep), sellap, imper. sele, sellap, \&c.

## II. Wean-class.

504. All of these verbs have infin. -ian and a short rootsyllable with a mutated vowel. They form their pret. in -ede, and their pret. partic. in -ed, which is never contracted. The following are the Early West-Saxon forms of wenian 'accus-tom':-


So also ferian ' carry' [faran 'go'] styrian 'stir.'

## III. Love-class.

505. In Germanic these verbs had infinitives -an, -ōn, of which -ian is a later development and therefore does not cause mutation like the -ian of the wean-class, which is of Germanic origin. The following are the Early West-Saxon forms:-

| Pres. Sing. I | Indic. lufige |  | Subj. lufige |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | lufast |  | lufige |
| 3 | lufap |  | lufige |
| Plur. | lufiap |  | lufigen |
| Pret. Sing. I | lufode |  | lufode |
| 2 | lufodest |  | lufode |
| 3 | lufode |  | luefode |
| Plur. | lufodon |  | lufoden |
| Imper. Sing. | lufa | Infin. | lufian |
| Plur. | lufiap | Gerund | lufigenne |
| - Pa | ic. Pres. | lufigende |  |

So also āsician 'ask,' macian 'make,' and many others.

## Irregular Weak Verbs.

506. Some weak verbs, such as libban 'live,' show a mixture of the inflections of the hear- and the love-class: pres. indic. libbe, leofast, leofap, libbap; subj. libbe(n); imper. leofa, libbap; pres. partic. libbende; pret. lifde, pret. partic. g̀elifd.

Preterite-present Verbs.
507. These verbs have for their presents old strong preterites; thus the preterite-present verb wät 'I know' was originally a strong preterite of the shine-class. The present of these verbs differs however from the strong preterites in the 2nd sing. indic., which ends in $t$ or $s t$, a $t$ before the inflectional $t$ also becoming s: ici sceal 'I shall,' p $\bar{u}$ sciealt ; $\dot{i c}$ cann 'I know,' pū canst; ic̀ wāt 'I know,' bū wāst.
508. From these presents new weak preterites are formed with various irregular changes: sceolde, cūpe, wiste.
509. Many of these verbs are defective, the infin., imper., and participles being often wanting. The subj. is often substituted for the imper. sing. The following are the inflections of witan'know':-

|  | Indic. | Subj. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| Pres. Sing. I | wāt | wite |
| 2 | wāst | wite |
| 3 | wāt | wite |
| Plur. | witon | witen |
| Pret. Sing. I | wiste | wiste |
| 2 | wistest | wiste |
| 3 | wiste | wiste |
| Plur. | wiston | wisten |

$$
\begin{array}{rcc} 
& \text { Indic. } & \\
\text { Imper. Sing. } & \text { wite } & \text { Infin. witan. } \\
\text { Plur. } & \text { wita } & \text { Gerund to witenne } \\
\text { Partic. Pres. } & \text { witende } \\
& \text { Pret. } & \text { witen. }
\end{array}
$$

## Middle-English.

## Early Middle English.

510. The ME levelling of weak vowels under $e$ had a comparatively slight effect on the verb inflections, especially in Early Southern, where the OE verb-inflections were preserved very faithfully. But the inevitable change of $-a,-a s t$, $-a p$, -ode into $-e$, -est, -e $p$, -ede, as in luve, luvest, luve $\beta$, luvede $=\mathrm{OE}$ lufa, lufast, lufap, lufode, necessarily led to a complete levelling of the old wean- and love-classes of weak verbs, the ME love-class including all the OE ian-verbs whether accompanied by mutation or not.
511. The Southern tendency to drop final $n$ first affected the infin. and pret. partic.: Early Southern bīnden, bīnde; ibünden, ibünde.
512. The tendency to shorten double consonants in weak syllables made the OE gerund to bindenne into ME tō bindene.
513. The tendency to drop final weak $e$ after another weak syllable (174) led to the shortening of to bindene into to binden, which made it liable to be confused with the infin. So also luvie $=\mathrm{OE}$ lufige, lufian was often shortened to luziz.

In the South-Thames dialects this $-i$ afterwards came to be regarded as the special mark of the infin., being sometimes extended to strong verbs as well as weak verbs with OE infin. -an.
514. In Early Southern the pres. partic. ending is -inde, as in bindinde, hérinde, which probably owes its $i$ to the influence of the verbal nouns in -inge, -ing $=\mathrm{OE}-$ ing, $-u n g$, such as lerninge $=\mathrm{OE}$ leornung.
515. Early Southern keeps the prefix $\dot{i}=\mathrm{OE} \dot{g} \varepsilon$ e-: ibūnden, ihëred $=\mathrm{OE}$ ġebunden, g̀ehēred.
516. The most important change in the strong verbs is that many of them became weak. Already in OE such verbs as stapan sleep, ondrêdan 'fear,' had the weak preterites slâpte, ondrcêdde by the side of the strong slëp, ondrēd; in Late West-Saxon hebban 'raise' has the weak pret. hefde by the side of strong $h \bar{\sigma} f$, and so on. In ME this is carried much further. Thus even in the earliest ME we find the OE strong preterites lēt 'let,' wēop 'wept' represented not only by lēt, weop, but also by the weak lette, wepte, although such forms as wëp still survive in Standard Late ME. Many other weak and strong forms existed side by side for a long time ; and although in MnE the weak forms have nearly always prevailed, this was not always the case in ME, where, for instance, such a weak pret. as hefde 'raised' was in the Late ME period discarded in favour of the new-formed strong pret. haf, the old höf being also preserved.
517. The inflections of the strong verbs that remained were modified by various levelling influences. The mutation in the contracted forms of the OE presents was got rid of by bringing in the unmutated vowel of the infin., etc., as in berp ' carries,' tret ' treads,' stont ' stands,' infin. beren, treden, stēnden = Early West-Saxon bierb (birep), tritt, stęnt.
518. The gradation of consonants in the OE ceosan, gecoren, etc. was got rid of by carrying the $s$ through: cheosen, chēsen, chēs, ichosen.
519. In this last verb we can also observe the extension
of $c h=\mathrm{OE} \dot{c}$ to the original $c$ of the pret. partic., so as to make initial $c h$ uniform throughout the whole verb. We can observe the opposite levelling of $c h$ under $c$ in such verb-forms as kerven, karf $=\mathrm{OE}$ ceorfan, cearf, which have taken their back-consonant from the OE pret. plur. curfon and pret. partic. corfen.
520. But in some verbs the old consonant-gradations were preserved, as in forlësen 'lose,' forlës, forloren.
521. Some of the ME changes had the contrary effect of creating new distinctions. Thus $\mathrm{OE} \overline{\boldsymbol{e}}, \hat{e}$ was regularly shortened before consonant-groups, and the resuiting $a$ was afterwards broadened to $a(\mathbf{1 7 7})$, as in the OE pret. tēhte 'showed,' which in ME passed through tahte into tahte, whence MnE taught. In many preterites and pret. participles these changes gave rise only to divergence of quantity, as in mēten, mette, imel $=\mathrm{OE}$ gemētan, etc., and in Northern ledde $=$ Southern ladde from lēden 'lead' $=$ OE l̄̄edan, l̄̄̄dde.
522. The following are the inflections of the strong verb binden, and of the weak verbs hèren 'hear' and luvien, as representatives of the two classes of weak verbs in Early Southern:-

| Pres. Indic. Sing. I binde | hēre | luvie |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 bindest, bintst | hèr (e)st | luvest |
| 3 bindep, bint | $h \overline{e r}(e) p$ | luvep |
| Plur. bīndep | herep | luviep |
| Pres. Subj. Sing. binde | hēre | luvie |
| Plur. binden | hēren | luvien |
| Pret. Indic. Sing. I b̄̆nd | herde | luvede |
| 2 buinde | herdest | luvedest |
| 3 b n $n d$ | herde | luvede |
| Plur. bünden | herden | luveden |


| Pret. Subj. Sing. I būnde | herde | luvede |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 buinde | herdest | luvedest |
| 3 bünde | herde | luvede |
| Plur. bünden | herden | luveden |
| Imper. Sing. bind | hēre | luvie |
| Plur. bindep | herep | luviep |
| Infin. binden | hēren | luvien |
| Gerund bindene | hērene | luviene |
| Partic. Pres. bīndinde | hèrinde | luviinde |
| Pret. ibienden | ihēr $(e) d$ | iluved. |

523. In the forms binde $\bar{g} \bar{e}, b \bar{u} n d e ~ g \bar{e},-e$ is substituted for $-\ell \beta$ (476).
524. It will be observed that the distinction between the two classes of weak verbs is very slight, the $i$ of the love-class being often dropped- $\bar{i}$ luve, we luvep, \&c.-while the imper. sing. hère has taken the $e$ of luvie, luve.

## Midland.

525. In Early Midland many levellings which are only just beginning in Early Southern are fully carried out. The love-class lost their $i$ entirely, and as the hear-class generally had the full Anglian endings -est, $-e p$, there is only one set of inflections for the two classes: hëren, lufen= Southern hëren, luvien. On the other hand, the contracted forms of the hear-class are extended to the love-class, as in birp 'befits,' 'becomes' pret. birde $=\mathrm{OE}$ gebyrep, gebyrede, infin. ġebyrian (wean-class).
526. The characteristic feature of the Midland verb is its extension of the plur. ending -en of the subj. pres. and of the pret. indic. and subj.-gif bei lufen, bei còmen 'came,' gif bei comen, bei brohten-to the present indic. plur.: wé lufen, bei cumen $=$ Southern we luvie $p$, heo cume $\beta$. But the older $-(e) \beta$
is kept in the imper. plur. : cumeb !, bēp ! ' be ye' $=$ Southern cumep, bēop.
527. In Early Midland the gerund was completely levelled under the infin. : to bīnden, to hëren.
528. In Midland the pres. partic. keeps the old ending : bindende, hèrende, lufende. The $n$ of the infin. and strong pret. partic. is never dropped as in Southern. The pret. partic. loses its prefix g ge-.
529. The distinction between single and double consonant forms in the old j -verbs, such as hebban, hefep, hoff, hafen and libban, leofap, lifde, which was still kept up in Early Southern-hebben, hevep; libben, levep, livep-began to break down in Early Midland through the extension of the single consonant forms; thus in Early Midland we find pres. plur. indic. lifen = Early Southern libbep, although the older infin. libben is still kept in Early Midland; but hefen is used not only as a pres. plur., but also as an infin.

## Northern.

530. In the Northern dialect inflectional $\beta$ had been changed to $s$, and final $n$ had begun to drop off already in the OE period: Old Northumbrian bindes, bindas, binda $=$ Mercian bindep, bindap, bindan. In the Early Middle period weak final $e$ was dropped, so that the infin. binde $=$ Old Northumbrian binda became monosyllabic bind, under which the gerund tō bind was levelled. The subj. binde $=$ Old North. sing. and plur. binde was reduced to the same monosyllable. Hence also the pret. plur. herden was reduced to the same form as the sing.-herd. The effect of these changes on a strong pret. such as that of bind was to leave only two forms -bänd ist and 3 rd pers. sing. indic., and bünd 2nd pers.
sing. and plur. and subj. generally-and the vowel-change was soon got rid of by extension of the vowel of the rst and

531. In Late Old Northumbrian the old ending of the 2nd person pres. -es, -as, etc. was preserved by the influence of the new 3rd person $-e s,-a s=-e p,-a p$. Hence in Early Northern -es became the common ending of the and and 3 rd persons indic. pres. sing. In the pres. indic. plur ees=older -as, -ias was dropped when the verb was immediately preceded or followed by its pronoun : wè pat bindes, men bīndes; wè bīnd, pai bīnd. The 'absolute' form was afterwards extended to the ist pers. sing. as well; i pat bindes.
532. The $n$ of the strong pret. partic. was not lost in Old Northumbrian because of the inflected forms gebundene, etc., by whose influence the $n$ was restored in the uninflected form ; hence it was always kept in the ME Northern dialect as well.
533. The Northern form of the pres. partic. is -and: bïndand, hërand=Mịdland and OE bīndende, hērende, Southern bindinde, hèrinde. This $a$ is the result of Scandinavian influence: Icel. bindandi, heyrandi.
534. The following are then the most distinctive verbinflections of the three dialects in their Early Middle periods:-

|  | Southern. | Midland. | Northern. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indic. Pres. Sing. I binde | binde | bīnd |  |
| 2 | bindest, bintst | bindest | bindes |
| 3 | bindep, bint | bindep | bindes |
| Plur. | bindep | binden | bind(es) |
| Imper. Sing. | bind | bind | bind |
| Plur. | bindep | bindep | bind(es) |
| Pres. Partic. bindinde | bindende | bīndand |  |

## Late Middle English.

535. The most important change in Standard ME and in Late South-Thames English generally is the further assimilation of the pres. partic. to the verbal nouns in -inge by which the earlier bindinde became bindinge, a change of which we see traces already in Early Southern, as in heo riden singinge 'they rode singing'- OE hie ridon singende. But as the verbal nouns also occur without final e, the distinction between lerninge partic. and lerning noun was not entirely lost.
536. Early ME $d$ was changed to $t$ in the weak pret. and pret. partic. of verbs in $r d, l d, n d$ : girte, girt, infin. girden; bilte, bilt infin. bilden; wente, went infin. wenden = Early Southern gürde, gürd; bülde, büld; wende, wend. This change served to distinguish such forms as hē sende pres. subj. and he sente pret., which in Early ME were both expressed by the first form. But it is also carried out in some words with $l, l l, n, n n: f e ̄ l e n ' f e e l ' f e l t e ; ~ d w e l l e n, ~ d w e l t e ; ~ m e ̨ n e n, ~ m e n t e ; ~$ brennen 'burn,' brente; and after $s=(z)$ and $v$, where it unvoices these consonants: losien $=\mathrm{OE}$ losian, loste; lẽven $=\mathrm{OE}$ Lëfan, lefte, lafte.
537. In Standard ME we see the same levelling and simplifying tendencies at work as in Early Midland and Northern. The old vowel-change in such preterites as bōnd is still kept up, but the short form $b \bar{q} n d$ is often extended throughout the pret.: $b \bar{u} b \bar{q} n d, w \bar{e} b \bar{q} n d$ as well as $b \bar{u} b o u n d e$, we bounde ( $n$ ).
538. In some verbs of the bear- and give-class the $\bar{e}$ of the plural is sometimes extended to the sing. as in $b \bar{e} r$, sēt by the side of $b \bar{a} r, ~ s a t=\mathrm{OE} b a r$, sat plur. bêron, séton, Anglian bèron, sēton.
539. Influence of the strong plur. pret. on the sing. is
also seen in such sing. preterites as slōw, saw=Early Southern slöh plur. slōwen, Late OE slōh, slögon, OE seah, sāzon.
540. In Late ME the pret. partic. begins to influence the pret. plur. As a general rule the old pret. plurals were preserved in Late ME only when they had the same vowel as the pret. partic., as in bei bounden, bei drŏnken, bei wŏnnen (class 3 ), riden, writen (class 6 ); otherwise the plur. pret. took the vowel of the pret. partic.: bei holpen, foghten, chēsen.
541. The sing. of the imper. began to be extended to the plur. : bind ' bind ye' by the side of bindep.
542. In the love-class of weak verbs the $i$ was dropped entirely, and the pret. ending -ede was often shortened to -ed in accordance with the general principle of dropping weak $e$ after a weak syllable : hē lơvep, hē lŏved.
543. Some of the above changes may be the result of Midland influence, of which we have an undoubted example in the substitution of $-e n(-e)$ for $-e \beta$ in the plur. indic. pres. -e $\beta$ was, of course, kept in the plur. imper., although here also the Midland ending seems to occur in its shortened form $-\ell$ : binde.
544. The following are the Standard ME inflections of the three verbs whose Early ME inflections have been given already : -

| Pres. Indic. Sing. I binde | hère | love |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 bindest | hèr (e)st | lozest |
| 3 bindep, bint | $h \overline{e r}(e) \beta$ | 12000 |
| Plur. binde( $n$ ) | hēre( $n$ ) | lơve( $n$ ) |
| Pres. Subj. Sing. binde | hère | love |
| Plur. bînde( $n$ ) | hēre(n) | lơve( $n$ ) |
| Pret. Indic. Sing. I bönd | herde | loved ( ) |
| 2 bounde, bōnd | herdest | lovedest |
| 3 bēnd | herde | lơved'(e) |
| Plur. bounde( $n$ ), bepnd | herde' $n$ ) | lovede( $n$ ), 18ved |


| Pret. Subj. Sing. r | bounde | herde | lŏved'( ${ }^{\text {e }}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | bounde | herde'st) | lơvede(st), lơved |
|  | bounde | herde | lơved(e) |
| Plur. | bounde'(n) | herde(n) | lơvede( $n$ ), lovved |
| Imper. Sing. | bind | $h \overline{e r}(e)$ | lobve |
| Plur. | bīnde( $\beta$ ), bīnd | hère' $(\beta)$, hēr | lơve ( $\beta$ ) |
| Infin. | bünde ${ }^{\text {n) }}$ | hēre( $n$ ) | lŏve( $n$ ) |
| Gerund | bïnden(e), binde | hèren(e), hère | lovenen(e), love |
| Partic. Pres. | bindinge | hèringe | louvinge |
| Pret. | (i)bounde( $n$ ) | (i)herd | (i)lơv'e) $d$. |

The following examples will show the regular development of the different classes of strong verbs:-

## I. Fall-class.

545. fallen hōlden
grōwen
knḡซucn .
fell
held
grēw
knēw

| fellen | fallen |
| :--- | :--- |
| hēlden | hōlden |
| grēwen | grōwen |
| knēwen | Rñ̄̄en |

## II. Shake-class.

546. shāken wāken
laughen drawen
shōk
wōk
laugh, low drough, drow
shōken
wōken
lowen
drowen
shäken wāken laughen drawen

Observe that the preterites of this class have split up into two groups, one with $\bar{\sigma}$, the other with (uu) [186].
III. Bind-class.

| 547. binden | bōnd | bounden | bounden |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| singen | sōng | söngen | söngen |
| drinken | drank | drŏnken | drŏnken |
| winnen | wan | wŏnnen | wönnen |
| kerven | karf | korven | korven |
| helpen | halp | holpen | holpen |
| fighten | faught | foghten | foghten |

IV. Bear-class.
548.

| stēlen | stal |
| :--- | :--- |
| bęren | bär, bēr |

V. Give-class.
549. gğten gat gēten, gat gḡten sitten sat, sēt sēten, sat sēten
VI. Shine-class.
550. riden
writen
551. crēpen chēsen

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { stēlen, stal } & \text { stōlen } \\
\text { bēren, bār } & \text { b̄̄ren }
\end{array}
$$

rōd
surğt
VII. Choose-class.
crēp crāpen crōpen
chēs chōsen
chōsen

## Modern English.

552. The main innovation in the MnE verb-inflections was the introduction of the Northern $-s$ in the 3 rd pers. sing. pres. indic.-he calls-which was introduced into Standard English through the medium of the Midland dialect. It did not entirely supplant the older -th-he calleth-which still survives in the higher literary language.
553. The MnE verb is further characterized by the development of a gerund. When the pres. partic. ending -inge lost its final vowel, the last vestige of a formal distinction between such a pres. partic. as lerning and the verb-noun lerning disappeared. In OE the number of verb-nouns in -ung, -ing was limited, especially in the earlier stages of the language. In ME their number increased, and when the pres. partic. in -inge was fully established, and became indistinguishable in form from the ing-nouns, these could be
formed at pleasure from any verb; or, in other words, every pres. partic. could be used as a verb-noun. At first-in Early MnE as well as ME-these words were used entirely as nouns-taking the article the before them and the preposition of after them, etc.-as in he thanked him for the saving of his life, where saving is used exactly like the abstract noun preservation ; but by degrees they were treated like infinitives, the article being dropped and the following noun joined on to them as to the corresponding finite verb; so that the above sentence was shortened to he thanked him for saving his life. In such constructions, which began in Early MnE, saving etc. are true noun-verbals or gerunds.
554. In MnE the dropping of weak final $e$, together with the ME tendency to drop final weak $n$, had a great effect in simplifying the verb-inflections. The monosyllabic bind became the representative of the following ME forms: pres. indic. ist pers. sing. ì binde, plur. wè binde(n), etc., pres. subj. binde, binde ( $n$ ). The levelling of the distinction between the pret. and pret. partic. which had begun in ME was completed in the MnE forms herd (heard), loved representing ME herde, löved (e) and ( $i$ )herd, ( $i$ )löved. Such weak verbs as set and cast became invariable in the pret. and pret. partic.: infin. set, pret. set, pret. partic. set=ME sette( $n$ ), sette, ( 2 ) set. Moreover in such verbs the distinction between strong and weak conjugation is effaced: compare set pret. set with let pret. let= OE sęttan, sętte ; lêtan, lēt.
555. The weak vowel of the endings -est, -eth, ees, ed was dropped in Early MnE in the spoken language, except that full -est, -es was always kept after the hiss-consonants ( $s, z ; \int, 3$ ), being subject to exactly the same rules as the noun-inflectional -es (310), as in missest, misses, risest, rises, wishes, singes. Full eed was preserved after the point-stops
$t, d$, as in hated, wanted, wedded, wounded $=$ ME hätede, etc. Otherwise all these endings were shortened in speech without regard to the ME forms-in loves (luvz), lovest, loveth (luvp), as well as heares, hears, hearest, heareth. In this way the distinction between the two classes of weak verbs was finally done away with as far as the endings were concerned, the distinction being only partially recognizable in the sound-changes in such verbs as hear, heard (hiir, hard); feel, felt; teach, taught.
556. But in the higher language the full endings -est, -eth, eed were freely used after all consonants indifferently, especially in poetry, for the sake of the metre. -es was not used in this way because the less familiar -eth could always be substituted for it. Some very common verbs were, however, used only in the short forms, such as dost, doth, mayst, wouldst, especially the contracted hast, hath, had=ME havest, hast etc. -est was generally shortened in weak preterites, as in lovedst, criedst. -est and -eth are obsolete in Present English except in the higher language, in which they naturally keep their full forms, except in dost, hath etc. The higher language also keeps full -ed in many forms where the spoken language contracts, as in beloved (billevid) compared with loved (levd), blessed are the peacemakers.
557. The vowel of the full endings is now weak (i), as in (raizist, raiziz, raizip, heitid), and in Early MnE as well as Late ME it was often written $i, y$ instead of $e$, as in Early MnE thou spekyst, he dwellith, puttyth, passid, armyd.
558. In writing, the silent $e$ of ees was generally omitted in Early MnE , as in sits, binds; but not after v, as in loves, nor, of course, where required to show the pronunciation of a preceding letter, as in shines.
559. The consonant of shortened -es was assimilated as
regards breath and voice to the preceding consonant in the same way as in the noun-inflections: lets, leads (leedz), loves (luvz). The same assimilations took place with shortened -ed: loved (luvd), breathed (bree ©d), thanked (paykt), blessed. $-e d$ being thus used to express ( t ), this spelling was often extended to such preterites as burnt, smelt, which were written burned, smelled, although they come from ME brenie, smelte. But the phonetic spellings thank't, thankt (thank'd), dropt, crost (cross'd), accurst also came into partial use, and some of them have become fixed, such as past in half past one compared with the time has passed quickly.

The above are organic changes. We have now to consider the internal changes in the verb-inflections, beginning with those of a levelling character.
560. The change of strong to weak verbs which we observe in ME went on in the transition from ME to MnE, and, in some cases, in MnE itself. Thus the Early MnE preterite clomb and the pret. partic. molten have now become climbed, melted. But some of the weak forms that arose in Early MnE have now been discarded, such as the Shakesperian pret. participles comed, becomed.
561. On the other hand, several weak verbs have been made strong by the analogy of strong verbs, such as stick, stuck ( OE stician, sticode) by the analogy of sting, stung; wear, wore, worn (OE werian, werede) by the analogy of swear, swore, sworn. So also several weak verbs in -ow have taken pret. participles in -own by the analogy of know, known, etc., keeping the original weak pret.: show, pret. showed, pret. partic. shown (OE sīēawian, sīāawode).
562. The levelling of the short quantity of the vowels in the sing. of strong preterites under the long quantity of the
pret. partic. and infin. seen in Late ME $b \bar{a} r=$ Early ME $b \varepsilon r$, bar is carried much further in MnE, as in brake, spake = Late ME brak, spak, pret. partic. bröken, infin. brēken etc. When a certain number of preterites in $a$ had been thus lengthened, others were lengthened without regard to the length of the other parts of the verb, such as came, bade $=\mathrm{ME}$ cam, bad, infin. cömen, bidden, although the latter had a long vowel in the pret. partic. będen.
563. There is also a regular process of voice-levelling in the MnE strong verb, by which final ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{f}$ ) in the pret. sing. becomes voiced as in the infin. and pret. partic., as in rose, chose, gave, drove $=\mathrm{ME}$ rōss, chēs, gaf, drōf, infin. rīsen, drīven etc., pret. partic. driven etc.
584. The distinction between pret. sing. and plur. was levelled, as we have seen, in the MnE weak verbs by phonetic changes. In the strong verbs it was levelled by external, analogical changes. Already in ME strong verbs the vowel of the sing. was often carried into the plur., especially when the plur. had a vowel different from that of the pret. partic., as in pei stal instead of pei stēlen (pret. partic. stōlen). Hence such Early MnE preterites as bare, brake, gave, sat correspond to ME singulars.
565. In many cases, however, MnE strong preterites have the vowel of the ME pret. plur. We have seen that in Late ME there was an intimate connection between the vowel of the pret. plur. and of the pret. partic. in strong verbs, so that at last the pret. plur., when it differed from the pret. sing., almost always had the vowel of the pret. partic. Hence in MnE the vowel of the pret. plur. when thus supported by the pret. partic. was often able to supplant the original singular-vowel. This was carried out consistently in those verbs of the bind-class which had ME (uu) in the pret. plur.
and pret. partic.: bound, found=ME bōnd, fōnd, plur. bounden etc. The same change took place in other verbs of the bind-class, and in some of the shine- and choose-class, many verbs having two preterites in Early MnE , one representing the ME pret. sing., the other with the vowel of the plur.: began, begun ; sang, sung; stang, stung ; faught, fought=ME bigan, sīng, stōng, faught-bit; rode, rid; wrote, writ=ME $b \bar{g} t, r \bar{g} d, w r \bar{g} t$. The present forms of these preterites are began, sang, stung, fought, bit, rode, wrote, the tendency evidently being to favour the original sing. forms.
566. But there has been in MnE a further assimilation of the pret. to the pret. partic., which has affected nearly all verbs of the bear-class with ME $\bar{q}$ in the pret. partic. : already in Early MnE we find the preterites bore, broke, spoke by the side of bare, brake, spake= ME bār, brak, spak, ME stal being represented by stole only in Early MnE. In Present English bare etc. survive only in the higher language.
567. When a direct association had thus been established between the pret. and pret. partic. the two parts of the verb began to be confused-a confusion which was helped by the pret. partic. in I have seen etc. having nearly the same meaning as the pret. $I$ saw etc.-so that the pret. began. to be substituted for the pret. partic. in some verbs, especially when the older form of the pret. partic. was liable to be forgotten through not being in very frequent use-as in the case of ME shinen from shinen-or ambiguous-as in the case of ME stōnden, which was both pret. partic. and infin.-or anomalous and irregular in any way, as in sęten compared with the infin. sitten. Hence in MnE the original preterites shone, stood, sat have supplanted the older pret. participles. In Early MnE this was carried still further than in Standard Present English, as in took, shook, arose = taken, shaken, arisen.
568. In the above examples the pret. participles shone etc. lost their final $n$ through the substitution of a form with a different vowel. Such pret. participles as bound, begun= ME bounden, bigönnen may be considered either as the result of extension of the MnE pret. forms bound etc., or of dropping the $e$ of the curtailed ME forms (i)bounde, etc.

It sometimes happens that the pret. partic. ending een is dropped in a verb, but preserved in an adjective formed from the pret. partic. before it had lost the -en, as in the adjectives drunken, bounden, (in bounden duty) compared with the pret. participles drunk, bound.
569. In Early MnE the ending -est was extended to the pret. indic. of strong verbs: thou boundest, thou spakest $=\mathrm{ME}$ bounde, bōnd, spak. The rare Early MnE dropping of -st in weak as well as strong preterites, as in thou saw, thou maked, thou had is probably the result of Northern influence. But in Present English, poets often instinctively drop this harsh and heavy inflection, especially when the verb is separated from its pronoun: where thou once formed thy paradise (Byron). Verbs whose pret. is the same as the pres.-especially those in -st-frequently drop the inflectional $s t$, or else add it with an intervening -ed for the sake of distinctness: thou castedst or thou cast.
570. The following is the Early MnE conjugation of the strong verb see and the weak verb call:-

| Indic. Pres. Sing. I | see | call |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | seest | call $(e)$ st |
| 3 | seeth, sees | call(e)th, calls |
| Plur. | see | call |
| Subj. Pres. | see | call |
| Pret. Indic. Sing. I | saw | call(e)d |
| 2 | saw(e)st | calledst |
| 3 | saw | call $(e) d$ |
| Plur. | saw | call(e)d |


| Pret. Subj. | saw | call(e)d |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| Imper. | see | call |
| Infin. | see | call |
| and Gerund | seeing | calling |
| Pret. Partic. | seen | call( $($ e) $d$ |

Besides the above inflections there are others which occur only as isolated archaisms. The contracted $-t=-e$ th has left a trace in the form list 'wishes,' 'likes,' as in let him do it when he list $=\mathrm{OE}$ lyst (lystep) from the weak verb lystan. All three ME indic. plurals are found in the Early MnE literary language, the most frequent of which-the Midland -en-survives in the Shakesperian they waxen in their mirth. The Southern -eth and the Northern es are much less frequent. The infin. or gerund in -en survives in Shakespere : to killen.
571. The following examples will show the regular development of the different classes of strong verbs in literary MnE. It will be observed that the best-preserved classes are the $3^{r d}$ and the 6th, the others being so reduced in the number of their verbs, and there being so much divergence of form, that they retain hardly a trace of their OE characteristics:-

## I. Fall-class.

| 572. fall | fell | fallen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hold | held | held, beholden |
| grow | grew | grown |
| know | knew | known |

II. Shake-class.
573. shake take
shook
took
shaken
taken

The Late ME preterites in (-uu) $=\mathrm{OE}-\bar{o} h$, such as drow, slow, were in Early MnE levelled under the more numerous ew-verbs of the fall-class: draw, drew; slay, slew.

## III. Bind-class.

574. sing
drink
sting
swing
bind
find
fight

| 575. bear | IV. Bear-class. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| steal | bare, bore <br> stole | born(e) <br> stolen |
|  | V. Give-class. |  |

VI. Shine-class.
577. drive
rise
write
bite
shine

| sang | sung |
| :---: | :---: |
| drank | drunk |
| stung | stung |
| swung | swung |
| bound | bound(e)n |
| found | found |
| fought | fought |
| IV. Bear-class. |  |
| bare, bore | born(e) |
| stole | stolen |
| V. Give-class. |  |
| gave | given |
| wove | woven |
| sat | sat |
| VI. Shine-class |  |
| drove | driven |
| rose | risen |
| wrote | written |
| bit | bitten |
| shone | shone |

The occasional Early MnE preterites drave, strave, etc., are probably Northern forms.
VII. Choose-class.

| 578. freeze froze frozen |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| choose | chose | chosen |

Present English.
579. In the present Spoken English the earlier substitution of you see, you saw for thou seest, thou sawest, and of he sees
for he seeth has been completely carried out, so that the older -st and -th survive only in proverbs and in phrases taken from the higher literary language, where the older forms still survive.

Having traced the English verb down to its most reduced MnE form, it will now be more instructive to regard it from a purely descriptive, unhistorical point of view.
580. If we examine the Present English verb from this point of view, the first thing that strikes us is that the traditional distinction between strong and weak verbs can no longer be maintained: without going back to ME we cannot tell whether such preterites as sat, lit, led, held, infinitives sit, light, lead, hold, are strong or weak.
581. We are therefore compelled to make a new division into consonantal and vocalic. Consonantal verbs are those which form their preterites and pret. participles by adding $d$ or $t$, such as called, looked, heard, burnt, infinitives call, look, hear, burn. Vocalic verbs are those which form their preterites or pret. participles by vowel-change without the addition of any consonant, except that the pret. partic. of some of these verbs adds -en: sing, sang, sung; bind, bound, bound; run, ran, run-drive, drove, driven; speak, spoke, spoken; see, saw, seen. Under the vocalic verbs we must also include the invariable verbs: let, let, let; cast, cast, cast. Mixed verbs show a mixture of consonantal and vocalic inflection: crow, crew, crowed; show, showed, shown.
582. The great majority of verbs belong to the regular consonantal conjugation, their pret. and pret. partic. ending being-
a. (-id) after (t) and (d): delighted, nodded.
b. (-d) after the other voice sounds: played, raised, saved, turned, dragged.
c. (-t) after the other breath consonants: hissed, pushed,

## looked.

583. Compared with these verbs those of the vocalic class must be regarded as irregular, although many of them fall under more or less uniform classes. There are also irregular consonantal verbs, such as burn, burnt, compared with the regular turn, turned. There is also a small class of specially irregular or anomalous verbs, such as $b e$, was, been, some of which-mostly comprising the old preterite-present verbsare defective, such as ( $I$ ) can, could, which has no infin. or participles. The irregular verbs therefore comprise all the vocalic and anomalous verbs together with some of the consonantal, all regular verbs being consonantal. All newly formed verbs are conjugated consonantally, the consonantal inflections being the only living or productive ones.
584. The following are the inflections of the consonantal verb call and the vocalic verb see in Spoken English:-

| Pres. Indic. Sing. I call | see |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| 2 call | see |  |
| 3 calls | sees |  |
| Plur. | call | see |
| Pres. Subj. | call | see |
| Pret. (Indic. and Subj.) | called | saw |
| Imper. | call | see |
| Infin. | call | see |
| Pres. Partic. and Gerund calling | seeing |  |
| Pret. Partic. called | seen |  |

## Irregular Verbs in Modern English.

585. In the following sections the vowel-changes are arranged in the alphabetic order of the vowels of the preterites in their phonetic spelling, to which the alphabetic order of the vowels of the infinitive is subordinated, thus
(ei ...e) as in say, said, and then (ij . e), as in flee, fled, precede (iz . . әә), and this is followed by (uw . . o), etc. Forms that occur only in the higher literary language are marked *. Obsolete forms are marked $\dagger$.

## Consonantal Verbs.

## With Vowel-change.

Verbs which take the regular consonantal inflection (d, t), but with vowel-change:-
Vowel-change (ei . . e).
586. say, said (sei, sed). OE weak I b sę $\dot{g}$ g̀n , sağde, sag̀d. In ME the $i_{g} \dot{\sigma}$-forms of this verb were preserved in SouthThames English; but in the North-Thames dialects the $g^{\circ}-$ forms seg'est, seġep, imper. seg'e were extended to the original $\dot{g}$-forms: $\bar{i}$ seie, infin. sein, seien, pres. partic. seiende. These became the Standard ME forms also. The OE pret. saǵgde became saide in ME. In MnE saide became (seed), which was shortened to (sed); and the same shortening took place in says. All the other OE $\dot{c} \dot{g}$-verbs show a similar extension of the $\dot{g}$-forms in MIE, so that the OE infinitives licgan, leqigan, byigan appear in MnE as lie (ME lièn), lay (ME leien), buy (ME bien), which correspond phonetically to the OE imperatives lig̀e, leg'e, by'ge.
Vowel-change (ij . . e).
587. flee, fled (flij, fled). OE strong VII fièn (Oldest English fiēohan), fēah, plur. flugon, pret. partic. flogen. There was another OE verb of the same class, some of whose forms were identical with forms of flèon, namely flègan 'fly,' fēag (fleah), pret. plur. flugon, pret. partic. flogen. As the two
verbs were similar in meaning also, they were frequently confounded in Late West-Saxon, the distinctive forms of fleogan being used in the sense of 'flee' as well as in that of 'fly,' and fleon being used in the sense of 'fly.' This confusion has lasted to the present day, in as far as many modern writers use fly consistently in the sense of 'run away.' In ME the confusion between the two verbs was often avoided by using the weak verb fièden=OE fēdan (ftēedan) 'flow,' 'be at high tide' (said of the sea) from OE $f \overline{0} d$ 'flood' in the sense of 'flee,' its pret. fledde coming gradually to be regarded as the pret. of the old strong $A \bar{i} o n$, fèn. This development was probably helped by the Scandinavian weak verb fīja 'flee,' pret. $\nexists \bar{y} p i$.
588. creep, crept (krijp, krept). OE strong VII crēopan, crēap, cropen. In ME crēpen developed a weak pret. crepte by the side of the strong crēp. leap, lept; sleep, slept; sweep, swept; weep, wept have developed in a similar way from the OE strong verbs hlēapan, hlēop I; slâpan, slëp I; swäpan, swēop I; wēpan, wēop I. OE swäpan became by regular change swöpen in ME; the form sweep is the result of confusion with other verbs of similar meaning.
Vowel-change (iə . . өө).
589. hear, heard (hiər, həəd). OE weak I hieran, hïerde, Anglian hēran, hērde, whence ME hēren, herde with the usual shortening. In Early $\operatorname{MnE}$ the (e) of the pret. was regularly broadened to (a) before the (r), giving (hiiər, hard). The spelling heard shows the not unfrequent lengthening of ME $e$ before (r)-combinations, which, of course, preserved it from the change into (a); (heerd) was then shortened to (herd), whence the Present English (həəd).
Vowel-change (uw . . o).
590. shoe, shod (fuw, fod). OE siōian, siōde, j̀esiōd. ME shöin, pret. partic. ishōd. The MnE shortening is parallel to that in rod compared with rood, both $=\mathrm{OE}$ rod. shod is now used chiefly as an adjective, shoe being conjugated regularly shoed.
Vowel-change (e . . ou).
591. sell, sold (sel, sould). OE weak I b sellan, sealde, Anglian sälde 'give.' ME sellen, sōlde, isōld. In OE the meaning 'sell' was only occasionally implied in the more general one of 'give,' as in sellan wib weorpe 'give for a value (price)' $=$ 'sell.' So also tell, told from OE weak I b tellan.

## With $t$ instead of $d$.

* 592. burn, burnt. In OE the intransitive 'burn' was expressed by the strong verb III biernan, Late -West-Saxon byrnan, Anglian beornan, pret. born, barn, pret. plur. burnon, pret. partic. geburnen; the transitive by the weak barnan, barnde. In these two verbs the $r$ had been transposed, the Germanic forms being *brinnan, *brannjan, with which compare the Scandinavian strong brinna, pret. brann, pret. partic. brunninn, and the weak brenna, brendi. In ME the originally transitive and intransitive forms came to be used indiscriminately in both senses, the weak forms gradually getting the upper hand. In Standard ME the Northern-originally Scandinavian-form brennen, brente was used both transitively and intransitively, the strong Northern form-also originally Scandinavian-brinnen occurring less frequently, generally in its original intransitive sense. The other dialects show a
great variety of forms: Early Southern beornen, bęrnen, bernen, Early Midland bęrnen, bernen, brennen, Early Northern brin (transitive as well as intrans.), bren. The infin. burnen seems to occur first in Late Midland ; the $u$ is probably the result of the influence of the lip-consonant $b$ on the following eo of Anglian beornan. The pret. brent survived for some time in Early MnE.

593. dwell, dwelt. ME dwellen, dwelte from Scandinavian dvelja ' remain.'
594. learn, learnt. OE leornian, leornode; ME lern(i)en, lernde, later lernte. The adjective learned preserves the fuller form of the pret. partic. So also pen, pent; smell, smelt; spell, spelt; spill, spilt from the OE weak verbs pennan, smellan 'strike,' spellian ' relate,' spillan ' destroy.'
595. spoil, spoilt. ME spoilen, despoilen from Old French spolier, despoiller [from Latin spoliäre 'strip,' 'plunder'] was associated with spillen from OE spillan, so that when spillen took the special sense 'waste liquids,' 'spill,' spoilen took the old meaning of spillen, namely 'destroy,' and formed a pret. spoilte on the analogy of spilte. spoil in the sense of 'plunder' is regular.
596. feel, felt from OE fêlan (fōlan), fêlde. kneel, knelt from ME knēlen, knelde, knelte of Scandinavian origin.

## With t instead of d and Vowel-change.

Vowel-change (ij . . e).
597. (be)reave, *bereft, bereaved. OE (be)rëafian, rëafode. ME birę̀ven, biręvde, birefte, birafte, the last being the Standard ME form.
598. cleave, cleft 'divide,' 'adhere.' OE strong VII clēofan, clēaf, clofen 'divide'; ME clêven, clộ, clọven. OE weak III cleofian, clifian 'adhere'; ME clèvien, clęvede.

There was also a strong verb VI in OE clîfan ' adhere,' ME cliven pret. partic. cliven 'adhere,' 'climb.' In ME clōf, Northern cläf, originally pret. of cliven, was used also as pret. of cleven, whose pret. partic. clāven had in Late ME the same vowel as $c l \bar{g} f$. A new weak pret. clefte was then formed from clèven. In the Earliest MnE cleeve 'divide' kept (ii)=ME close $\bar{e}$, but was soon confused with cleave (kleev) 'adhere' $=$ Early ME clevien, Late ME clęvien, so that it was written with ea. The MnE pret. clove may be regarded either as the descendant of the OE pret. cläf or as the ME pret. clēf (from OE clēaf) levelled under the pret. partic. clēven. The other MnE pret. clave is of course the Northern form of OE cläf. The following are the forms of the two verbs in MnE :-
cleave 'divide '; clove, tclave, cleft ; cloven, cleft, +cleaved. cleave' adhere'; tclave, cleaved; cleaved.
599. deal, dealt (dijl, delt). OE dēlan, dēlde. leave, left; mean, meant from OE läfan, lēfde; mēnan, $m \bar{e} n d e$.
600. dream, dreamt, dreamed (drijm, dremt, drijmd). OE drīeman, Anglian drēman ' modulate ' [drēam 'melody,' ' joy']. The ME drèmen, drende, $\operatorname{drem}(p)$ te got the meaning 'dream' from the Scandinavian dröyma 'dream.' In Early MnE the verb was levelled under the noun dream, the ME pret. being however kept in spelling-drent-as well as pronunciation by the side of the new pret. dreamed. The spelling dreamt is, of course, a blending of dremt and dreamed.
601. lean, leant, leaned (lijn, lent, lijnd). OE hleonian (hlinian), hleonode; ME lęnien (linien), lęnede. The pret. leant comes from another OE verb meaning 'to lean,' namely hlēnan, hlē̄nde; ME lēnen, lende, lente.
Vowel-change (ai . . o).
602. buy, bought. OE byiğan, bohte. ME biğġgen, bīen (586), pret. bohte, bouhte.

## Vowel-change (uw . . o).

603. lose, lost. OE strong VII forlēosan, forlēas, forloren 'destroy,' ' lose,' weak III losian 'go to waste,' 'get lost.' ME lēsen, forlēsen 'lose,' lēs, forlēs, loren, forloren. The dropping of the for-is due to the influence of losien $=$ OE losian, whose transitive use, as in he losede al his folc 'he lost all his people (army)' is due to the influence of forlèsen. Hence the pret. partic. ilosed, later lost, came to be used as the pret. partic. of lēsen, when the old pret. participles loren, forloren had come to be isolated from their verbs in meaning, so that MnE *lorn in love-lorn, etc., forlorn, are now used only as adjectives. In Early MnE lese took (uu) from the adjective loose and verb loosen [ME $\overline{0} s, l o ̄ s n e n$ from Scandinavian louss 'free,' 'loose,' lqusna 'get loose'], being at first written loose, then lose, to distinguish it from the adjective loose.

## With t instead of -ded.

604. gird, girt, girded. OE gyrdan, gyrde. So also build, built, †builded; gild, gilt, gilded; bend, bent, tbended; rend, rent; send, sent; tshend, tshent; spend, spent, *wend, went from the OE weak byldan, gyldan, bendan, rendan, sendan, siendan 'put to shame,' spendan, wendan 'turn.'
605. blend, tblent, blended. OE strong I blandan ' mix.' Weak OE blęndan has only the meaning 'blind.'
606. lend, lent. OE lēnan, lēnde. ME lęnden, lenden is a new-formation from the OE preterite-forms; from lenden
a new pret. lende, lente was formed on the analogy of senden, sente, etc.

> With Consonant-loss.
607. make, made. OE macian, macode. ME makien, makede, imaked, Late ME mākien, contracted māde, (i)mād.

> With Consonant-loss and Vowel-change. Vowel-change (ou . . æ).
608. clothe, clad, clothed. OE clāpian, clāpode [clā $\beta$ 'cloth']. Scandinavian klāpa, klṓpdi, whence ME clēpen, cladde Northern cledde, as well as clopp(i)en, clöpede.

> Vowel-change (æ . . o).
609. catch; caught. ME cacchen, caughte from Old French cachier [Low Latin captiāre = Latin captāre, a frequentative of capere 'seize']. cackier is probably a NorthEast French (Picard) form; the Parisian form being chacier (Modern French chasser), whence the MnE chace, chase. ME cacchen having the same meaning and the same termination as lacchen, laughte from OE lē̄ičan, g'elēhte 'seize,' 'catch' [compare MnE latch], naturally formed its preterite in the same way.
610. distract; tdistraught, distracted. OE strecican 'stretch,' pret. streahte, strehte, appears in ME in the form of strecchen, straughte, streighte, the pret. partic. streight being still kept in MnE as an adjective—straight literally 'stretched out.' In Late ME the Latin distrāctus was imported as an adj. distract (French distrait). which was made into distraught by the influence of straught. When distract was made into a verb in Early MnE, distraught was naturally regarded as its participle. Through further confusion straught itself was
used in the sense of 'distracted,' and a new partic. +bestraught was formed on the analogy of beset.

> Vowel-change (әə . . ○).

* 611. work; *wrought, worked (wəək, rot). OE wyrian, Anglian wircan, the corresponding noun being weorc, Late West-Saxon worc, Anglian werc, which in ME influenced the verb. The ME forms are: Southern weir chen, wörchen with the usual change of wii- to wu-, Midland werken, Northern wirk. The OE pret. worhte underwent the usual r -transposition in ME, becoming wrohte, MnE wrought, which in ordinary speech survives only as an adjective, as in wrought iron.
Vowel-change (i . . o).

612. bring; brought (brij, brot). OE bringan, brohte.

*613. think; thought. In OE there were two weak I a verbs of allied form and meaning : penian, pohte 'think'; bynian, buhte 'seem,' which was impersonal, me bynib 'it seems to me' having much the same meaning as ic pencic. In ME penian became regularly penchen in South-Thames English, benken in North-Thames English; and Byncan became pünchen, binchen in South-Thames English, binken in NorthThames English. The pret. puhte was soon disused, $p o(u) h t e$ taking its place: he pohte 'he thought,' him pohte 'it seemed to him.' In Standard ME the two verbs were still kept apart in the infin. and present tenses, which had the Midland forms benken, i benke; pinken, mé pinkep, etc.; but in the compound bipinken 'consider' $=\mathrm{OE}$ bepencan, the latter had already begun to encroach. In Northern bink completely supplanted penk, as in MnE. Hence MnE think is historically $=\mathrm{OE}$ pyncan, and its pret. thought $=\mathrm{OE}$ pohte, the pret. of the lost penian.
Vowel-change (ij . . o).
614. seek; sought; beseech; besought. OE sëcian (sāican), sohte. ME South-Thames sēchen, bisḕchen, NorthThames sëken, bisëken. The MnE seek and beseech are therefore from different dialects of ME. Shakespere has the Midland form not only in seek, but also in beseek.
615. reach; traught, reached. OE rāian, rähte. ME rēchen, ra(u)shte, Northern reghte. So also teach, taught from OE weak tēeian 'show.'

> Invariable Verbs.
> (aa).
616. cast. ME casten from Scandinavian weak kasta, kastapi. In Early MnE there is also a regular pret. casted.
(ai).
617. *dight 'adorn' as in storied window richly dight (Milton). OE dihtan 'arrange,' 'appoint' from the Latin dictāre.
(8).
618. cut. ME kutten.
619. shut. OE siyttan 'lock,' 'bolt' [gesiot 'shot,' 'dart'; siēotan strong VII 'shoot']. ME schiitten, schutten.
620. thrust. ME priisten, prusten from Scandinavian prȳsta.
621. let. OE strong I lêtan, lêt, lêten. ME lêten, pret. strong lèt, and weak lette from *lètte. In MnE the short vowel of this weak pret. was extended to the infin., etc. The obsolete verb let 'hinder,' still preserved in the phrase let or
hindrance, is the OE weak lettan, lette, connected with lat 'slow,' late adv. 'late.'
622. set. OE settan, sette, connected with the strong verb V sittan, pret. sat.
623. shed. OE strong I sīādan, siēadan, siēd 'separate,' a meaning still preserved in the noun watershed. ME schēden formed a weak pret. schadde, schedde, and developed the new meaning 'separate into drops,' 'shed.' In MnE the short vowel of the pret. was extended to the pres., etc., as in let.
624. shred. OE sirēadian, sirēadode. ME schręden, schredde, the short vowel being afterwards extended to the pres., etc. So also spread (spred) from weak OE sprēedan.
(әə).
625. burst. OE strong III berstan, barst, burston, geborsten. The $u$ of burst is the result of the influence of the lip-consonant $b$ on the eo of ME beorsten, as in burn (582), the $u$ being afterwards extended to the pret. partic. bursten, which survived in Early MnE.
626. hurt. ME hiirten, hurten.

## (i).

627. hit. ME hitten from Scandinavian hitta 'find.'
628. knit. OE cnyttan 'tie' [cnotta 'knot']. The invariable pret.-form is now preserved only as an adjective in well-knit, etc. Otherwise the pret.-form is regularknitted.
629. quit. ME quĭten pret. quitte from Old French quiter from Latin quiètus. In MnE the shortened vowel of the pret. was extended to the rest of the verb. The derivative requite keeps its original length, having a pret. partic.
requit in Early MnE. acquit is invariable in Early MnE. All these verbs are now regular.

* 630. rid. ME redden, rüdden, ridden 'rescue,' 'separate fighters' is apparently a blending of OE hreddan 'rescue' and Scandinavian rypja pret. rudda 'clear away.'

631. slit. OE strong VI slītan, slāt, sliten. ME has both strong slìten, pret. partic. sliten, and a weak verb slitten, which may have existed in OE.
632. split. ME splatten, of which Early MnE splette is probably a Northern form. splet seems to have been made into split by the influence of slit.
(0).
633. cost. ME costen from Old French coster (Modern French coûter) from Latin cōnstāre.
(u).
634. put. ME putten.

> Vocalic Verbs.

Vowel-change (ai . . au).
635. bind; bound. OE strong III bindan, band, bunden. The older pret. partic. is still preserved in bounden duty. So also grind, ground; wind, wound from OE strong III grindan, zeindan.
636. find; found. OE strong III findan, fand-more generally weak funde-funden. ME pret. fōnd, founde.

$$
\text { Vowel-change (ai . . } \mathfrak{e} \text { ). }
$$

* 637. strike; struck. OE strong VI strīcan, strāc, stricen 'move about,' 'touch lightly.' ME striken, strōk (Northern
strāk), striken. Early MnE strike, pret. stroke, strake, struck, pret. partic. stricken, strucken, struck.


## Vowel-change (æ . . $\mathfrak{e}$ ).

* 638. hang; hung, hanged. OE strong I hōn (from earlier *hōhan), hèng, hangen, the $g$ being a weakening of the $h$ of the infin., where $\bar{o}=$ Germanic an (502), so that hon=Germanic *hanhan. There was also a weak intransitive hangian, hangode, hōn itself being used transitively. In Early ME the consonantal variation in the strong verb was soon levelled: sometimes the infinitive form was extended to the pret. partic. which was made into (a)hōn; but afterwards the ng-forms got the upper hand, being supported by the weak verb hangien, and a new strong infin. hangen was formed, pret. hèng, pret. partic. hangen. In some dialects the pret. was shortened to heng with short close (e), which being an unfamiliar sound in ME was made into $i$. This new pret. hing, which is frequent in some Midland dialects, was made into an infin. in Northern by the analogy of the bind-class, with pret. hang, which afterwards made its way into the Standard dialect in the form of $h \bar{q} n g$ parallel to segng 'sang.' A pret. partic. hung was further developed on the analogy of sing, sang, sung, and hung was then extended to the pret. sing. in the same way as clung, etc. (565), the older infin. hang being preserved in the Standard dialect. In MnE the strong form hung is both transitive and intransitive, hanged being used only transitively, contrary to the OE usage.

Vowel-change (i. . $\boldsymbol{e}$ ).
639. dig ; dug, †digged. ME diggen, diggede, equivalent to OE dīian [dīc 'ditch'], of which it seems to be a
modification by some analogical influence. The vocalic pret. $d u g$ developed itself towards the end of the Early MnE, period; it is not found in the Bible.
640. cling; clung. OE strong III clingan, clang, clungen 'wither.' ME clingen, clēng, clungen 'shrivel,' 'adhere,' 'hang.' So also slink, slunk ; spin, + span, spun ; sting, stung ; swing, swung; win, won ; wring, wrung from OE strong III slincan, spinnan, stingan, swingan, த̇ewinnan, wringan.
641. fling; flung. ME strong III fingen from weak Scandinavian fengja [compare ME wing from Scandinavian vengr]. fingen was, of course, made strong on the analogy of sting and the other strong verbs in -ing.
642. sling; slung. ME strong III slingen from Scandinavian slöngva, which passed through slengen into slingen, and then became strong in the same way as fing. The pret. slang occurs in the Bible.
643. stick ; stuck, †sticked 'pierce,' ' adhere.' OE stician (stiocian), sticode 'pierce,' 'adhere.' ME strong V steken, slak, steken and stoken [like spoken $=\mathrm{OE}$ specen] ' pierce,' 'imprison,' which may represent an OE strong verb. stuck may owe its $u$ to the influence of stung.
644. string ; strung, stringed. This verb is a MnE formation from the ME noun string from Scandinavian strengr, with the usual change of Scandinavian - $\ell n g$ into -ing. We keep the older consonantal inflexion in stringed instruments.
Vowel-change (e . . ¥ . . в).

* 645. run; ran; run. OE strong III irnan, iernan (eornan), Late West-Saxon yrnan, pret. grn, arn, pret. partic. urnen, with the same transposition of the $r$ as in burn, the older
forms being preserved in ǵerinnan 'coagulate,' literally 'run together,' gerann, gerunnen. The ME verb was influenced by the two Scandinavian verbs, the strong rinna, rann, runninn and the weak renna, rendi, the Standard ME forms being indeed entirely Scandinavian: rennen, ran, irunnen. The Early Southern forms of the infin. are irnen, eornen, urnen probably=ürnen from Late West-Saxon yrnan. The infin. run appears in Northern by the side of the Scandinavian rin. The $\boldsymbol{u}$ cf the infin. seems to have been originally a Southern development out of uirnen, perhaps by the influence of burn.
Vowel-change (i . . æ).
* 646. sit; sæt. OE strong V j-verb sittan, saf, seten. ME sitten, sat, seten and also siten with the vowel of the infin. From the ME partic. siten is derived the obsolete MnE pret. and pret. partic. sit, which made the verb invariable. The obsolete MnE pret. sate is due to the analogy of came, spake, etc., the short sat being kept up at the same time by the short vowel of the infin. sit.

647. spit; spat. There were in OE two weak verbs of the same meaning spittan, spitte and spētan, stētte, both of which were kept in ME, where the pret. spētte became regularly spatte. The MnE spit, spat is, therefore, a mixture of two distinct verbs.
Vowel-change (i . . æ . . ex).
648. begin ; began ; begun. OE strong begi innan. So also drink, drank, drunk(en) ; shrink, shrank, shrunk; sing, sang, sung; sink, sank, sunk(en) ; spring, sprang, sprung; stink, stank, stunk; swim, swam, swum
from OE strong III drincan, sirincan, singan, sincan, springan, stincan, swimman.
649. ring; rang; rung. OE (h)ringan, which is apparently weak.
Vowel-change (i . . æ . . i-n).

* 650. (for)bid; -bad; -bidden. OE strong V j-verb biddan, baed, beden 'pray,' 'ask'; strong VII bēodan, bēad, boden 'offer,' 'command.' The corresponding ME forms are bidden, bad, bēden and-by the analogy of the infin.bidden; bēden, bḕd, bṑden. But already in Early ME the two verbs began to be confused. bidden in the special sense of ' ask to one's house,' 'invite' soon got confused with béden, which eleveloped the meaning 'offer an invitation,' the confusion being aided by the weak verb $b \bar{q} d(i) e n=\mathrm{OE}$ bodian 'announce'-itself connected with bēodan. Hence even in Early ME we find iboden used in the sense of 'invited.' It was still more natural to soften down the command expressed by beden by the substitution of the milder bidden. The pret. bad soon supplanted $h \bar{e} d$ by taking to itself the meaning 'commanded,' except in the emphatic forbeden, which in Standard ME only rarely has the pret. forbad instead of forbèd. The following are the Standard ME forms-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { bidden, bēden; bad ; bēden, b̄̄den. } \\
& \text { forbēden; forbēd (forbad) ; forbąden. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the transition to MnE the bid-forms were gradually extended till they entirely supplanted the others. The relation between the two forms bad and bade is the same as that between sat and sate (562). In Early MnE the pret. partic. was often shortened to bid, which was used also as a pret., so that the verb became invariable.

## Vowel-change (ij . . e).

651. bleed; bled. OE weak blēdan (blōdan), blēdde. [blod 'blood']. So also breed, bred; feed, fed; lead, led; meet, met; read, read (rijd, red) ; speed, sped from the OE weak brēdan, fédan, lēēdan, mètan, rêedan, spēdan.
Vowel-change (ij . . e . . ij-n).

* 652. eat; ate ; eaten. OE strong $V$, with exceptional (Germanic) lengthening in the pret. sing., etan, ĉt, pret. plur. $\hat{\text { êton, }}$ pret. partic. eten. ME egten, êt, at, ğten, the pret. at being of course due to the influence of the other verbs of the same class.
Vowel-change (ou . . e).

653. hold; held. OE strong I healdan, hāldan; hēold; ġehealden, g̀ehälden ME hölden; hêld, held, hild; ihölden. We still preserve the fuller form of the pret. partic. in beholden.
Vowel-change (o . . e . . o-n).
654. fall; fell ; fallen. OE strong I fealian, fallan; feoll; feallen, fallen. ME fallen; fêl, fel, fil; fallen.
Vowel-change (ai . . ei . . ei-n).
655. lie; lay; lain. OE strong V j-verb lị̆ğan, laġg, gelegen, imper. sing. lig̀e, etc. The ME development of this verb is analogous to that of the other $\dot{c} \dot{g}$-verbs (586). In Early Southern the infin. ligg gen was preserved by the side of the imper. lie; but in the North-Thames dialects it was levelled under the $\dot{g}$-forms, becoming lin, Lien. The Standard ME forms are lien, lai, pret. partic. leien, lein.
Vowel-change ( ( . . ei . . © ).

* 656. come ; came; come. OE strong IV, with anomalous weak vowel in the pres. and infin. and exceptional extension of the vowel of the pret. plur. to the pret. sing. : cuman; cwöm, cōm; c(w)ōmon ; cumen. The pret. cōm was preserved in Standard ME, but was partially supplanted by the new formation cam on the analogy of the strong verb IV nimen ' take,' nam, nömen. cam underwent the usual lengthening into came in MnE .
Vowel-change (i . . ei . . i-n).

657. give; gave; given. OE ğ̀iefan (śefan); ṡeaf


> Vowel-change (ai . . i).

* 658. light; lit, lighted. OE weak lihtan, lihte 'illuminate' and 'make light,' 'alleviate ' [leoht adj. 'light of colour' and ' light of weight']. There was a third OE weak verb lihtan, ālihtan 'alight from a horse.' The MnE verb light in light on must be referred to this last. The consonantal preterite-form lit does not, of course, appear till light had become (lait), that is, in the MnE period, when it arose from imitation of bite, bit, etc. The verb alight still keeps the older consonantal inflexion, which is also used in the other verbs.
Vowel-change (ai . . i . . i-n).

659. bite; bit; bitten. OE strong VI bitan. The shortened pret. partic. is still kept in the phrase the biter bit. 680. chide; chid; chidden. OE weak cīdan, cïdde. ME chiden, chidde. In Early MnE the verb was made strong
-chide, chode, chidden-on the analogy of ride, rode, ridden. The pret. partic. was then shortened to chid, and extended to the pret. The verb is nearly obsolete in the present spoken English. hide, hid, hidden is a strong verb of similar recent formation, except that it does not seem to have developed any pret. analogous to Early MnE chode: OE• $h \bar{y} d a n, ~ h \bar{y} d d e$, ME hiden, hidde.
Vowel-change (ij . . ij . . ij-n).
660. beat; beat; beaten. OE strong I bēatan, bēot, béaten.
Vozeel-change (ai . . o).
661. shine ; shone. OE strong VI sīnan, siān, scinen.
Vowel-change (e . . o . . o-n).

* 663. (for)get; forgot; forgotten, got. In OE the strong V verb ġietan, ġytan (ǵetan); ġeat (ǵat); ġieten, ġyten (ǵeten) occurs only in the compounds beġietan 'get,' onšietan 'understand,' forġzietan 'forget' and a few others. In ME begiten, begeten was shortened to giten, geten through the influence of the Scandinavian geta, gat, getinn 'get,' or rather the Scandinavian word was substituted for it.

664. tread; trod; trodden. OE strong V tredan, trad, treden. ME tręden, trad, trēden and-by the analogy of broken, etc.-tröden, troden.
Vowel-change (ij . . O . . o-n).
665. seethe ; tsod, seethed; sodden, tsod, seethed. OE strong VII sēoban, sēap, soden.
Vowel-change (uw . . o).

* 686. shoot; shot. OE strong VII siēotan, siēat, sioten.

Standard ME schēten, schēt, schoten. There is also an infin. schuten in ME, whose $u$ probably $=\bar{u}$ from $\mathrm{OE} \bar{e} 0$, as in choose (680), which afterwards became (uu) and was written 00 in Early MnE.
Vowel-change (ai . . ou).
667. climb; †clomb, climbed. OE strong III climman, clamm, clummen and also climban, clamb, clumben, although the latter is found only in late texts. ME climmen, clam, clŏmmen and clīmben, clōmb (clamb), clömben.
Vowel-change (ai . . ou . . i-n).
668. (a)bide; †bode, †bid, bided; †biden, †bid, bided. OE strong VI bīdan 'wait,' ābīdan 'endure.' ME (a)bīden, bē̆d, biden, there being also a weak pret. abidde.
669. drive; drove, tdrave; driven. OE strong VI drīfan. So also ride, rode, ridden; rise, rose, risen; shrive, tshrove, shrived, shriven; smite, smote, smitten; stride, strode, tstridden, strode; write, wrote, written from OE strong VI rīdan, ärīsan, sirīfan, smìlan ' smear,' strīdan, wrītan.
670. strive; strove; striven. ME strong VI strīven, strōf, striven, which is the Old French estriver [from Old Low-German strīb 'strife '] made into a strong verb on the analogy of driven.
671. thrive ; throve; thriven. ME priven from the Scandinavian strong reflexive verb prïfask.
Vozvel-change (ei . . ou).

* 672. wake; woke, waked. OE strong II wacan, wöc, wacen, generally compounded with on- : onwacan, awacan. (on)wacan and the weak ā(wacnian), wacian 'keep awake'
§6；8．］VERBS：IRREGULAR（VOCALIC）．
are intransitive．The corresponding transitive verb is wecican，weahte，wehte．ME has（a）waken，wok，waken and wakien，wakede；wakenen，wak（e）nede．The（ou）instead of （uw）in the MnE woke is probably due to the influence of the numerous preterites of the shine－class－rose，etc．

673．stave；stove，staved．This verb was first formed in MnE from the noun stave＇piece of a cask，＇itself a late formation from staves，plur．of staff．Its vocalic inflexion is of course the result of analogy．
Vowel-change (ei . . ou . . ou-n).

674．break；broke，tbrake ；broken，†broke．OE strong IV brecan，brac，brocen．

> Vowel-change (ij . . ou . . ou-n).

675．freeze；froze；frozen，tfrore OE strong VII frōosan，frēas，froren．
＊678．heave；hove，heaved；thoven，hove，heaved． OE strong j－verb II hębban，hōf，hafen．ME hebben，hęven； $h \bar{o} f, h a f ; ~ h \bar{q} v e n, ~ h \bar{q} v e n, ~ t h e ~ l a s t ~ f o r m ~ b e i n g ~ d u e ~ t o ~ t h e ~ i n-~$ fluence of the infin．，while haf，h⿹勹龴ven are due to the influence of regven，waf，wigen（670）．There was also a weak ME pret．hefde，herede．The MnE hove probably points to a ME pret．$h \bar{g} f$ with the vowel of the pret．partic．

677．speak；spoke，tspake；spoken，tspoke．OE strong V sprecan，sprœc，sprecen．In Late OE this verb began to drop its $r$－especially in the Kentish dialect． In ME the $r$ disappeared entirely，and the pret．partic． took $o$ on the analogy of broken，etc．：spēken，spak，sp $\bar{q} k e n$, spōken．

678．steal ；stole ；stolen．OE strong IV stelan，stal， stolen．
679. weave ; wove, weaved ; woven, weaved. OE strong V wefan, waf, wefen. ME wēven, waf, węven, wāven.
Vowel-change (uw . . ou . . ou-n).

* 680. choose ; chose; chosen. OE strong VII cēosan, iēas, coren. ME chèsen, chēs, chosen. There was also a WestMidland infin. chuilsen with the regular West-Midland change of $\mathrm{OE} \bar{e} o$ into $\bar{u}$. In Early MnE ( t iuz) became (tfuuz), which was written phonetically choose, although the older spelling chuse survived till the end of the last century. chese also occurs in Early MnE.
Vowel-change (ai . . o).

681. fight; fought. OE strong III feohtan (fehtan); feaht (faht); fohten. ME fighten, faught, foughten. In the pret. Early MnE fluctuates between $a u$ and ou.

> Vowel-change (ea . . จ . . Ј-n).
682. bear; bore, tbare; born(e). OE strong IV beran, bar, boren. MnE makes a distinction between born in the sense of French né and borne='carried' which did not exist in OE or ME.
683. swear; swore, tsware ; sworn. OE strong jverb II swerian, swor, swaren, sworen, the $o$ of the last form being due to the influence of the preceding w. ME swerien, swęren; swör, swär; swören. swär is, of course, due to the analogy of bèren, bār.
684. tear ; tore, ttare; torn. OE strong IV teran.
685. wear; wore, tware; worn. OE weak werian, werede 'wear clothes.' The vocalic forms were first developed in Early MnE by the analogy of bear.
Vowel-change (ei . . o).
686. freight; *fraught, freighted. The Late ME weak verb fraughten [imported from Dutch ?] was made into freight in Early MnE by the influence of the synonymous fret, and fraught itself came to be regarded as the pret. of this new verb freight by a vague association with work, wrought, etc. But fraught was still used as a pres. in Early MnE : the good ship . . . and the fraughting souls within her (Shakespere).

> Vowel-change (iə . . o . . o-n).
687. shear; tshore, tshare, sheared; shorn, tsheared. OE strong IV scieran (sieran); siear (siar); sioren.
Vowel-change (ij . o . . ij-n).

* 638. see ; saw ; seen. OE strong V sēon; seah (sah); säwon (sëgon); sezven (seǵen). In Late Northumbrian the adjective g'esène $=$ West-Saxon gesiene 'visible' was used as the pret. partic. Early ME sēon, sēn; seih (Southern), sah, sauh pret. plur. sèzeen, sèien; pret. partic. seien, sein. In Late ME the pret. sing. forms dropped the $h$ by the influence of the pret. plur. and pret. partic., giving sei, sai and saw, the last being the usual North-Thames form, especially in Northumbrian, which also kept the Old-Northumbrian pret. partic. in the form of sēn. The Standard ME inflections are $\operatorname{se}(n)$; seigh, sai; (i)sein. In MnE the Northern pret. saw and pret. partic. seen were introduced into the Standard dialect.
Vowel-change (æ . . . u).

689. stand; stood. OE strong II with $n$ inserted in the pres. etc.: standan, stöd, standen.
Vowel-change (ei . . . u . . . ei-n).
690. forsake; forsook; forsaken. OE strong II forsacan 'renounce,' 'deny.' So also shake, shook, shaken from OE strong II siacan.
691. take; took; taken, *ta'en. ME strong II tāken, $t \bar{k} k$, tāken from Scandinavian taka, tōk, tekkinn. In Northern this verb was contracted like make, and the pret. partic. ta'en passed into Standard MnE.
Vowel-change (ai . . . uw . . . ou-n).

* 692. fly; flew; flown. OE strong VII flēggan (flēgan, flìgan); fièag, fīah (fīh); flugon; flogen. ME fī̀n, flièn; fleigh, fley-with the same dropping of final $h$ as in sei=OE sesch-fī̀; pret. plur. flowen, fl̄̈wen (influence of pret. partic.); pret. partic. fī̀wen. The Early MnE pret. flew (fliu) probably arose in the same way as drewe, etc. (573).

> Vowel-change (ei . . . uw . . . ei-n).

* 693. slay; slew; slain. OE strong II slēan (from sleahan); slög, slōh; slagen, slaġen, sleġen. ME Southern slēn, Midland slōn, Northern slā; slōh, Late ME slough, slow $=$ (sluu); pret. partic. slawen, sleien, slain. In MnE , the ai of the pret. partic. was extended to the infin., and the ow of the pret. underwent the usual analogical change into ew. The archaic forms slee $=$ slea, pret. slue still lingered in Early MnE.
Vowel-change (ou . . . uw . . . ou-n).

694. blow ; blew; blown, blowed. OE strong I bläwan ' blow' (of wind), blēow, blāzven and blōwan 'bloom,' blēorv, blōwen. ME blōwen, blēw, blāwen and blöwen, blēw, blōwen.
695. crow ; crew, crowed; †crown, crowed. OE strong I crāzean, crēow, crāwen. grow, grew, grown; know, knew, known from OE strong I grōwan, cnāwan.
Vowel-change (0 . . . uw . . . o-n).
696. draw; drew; drawn. OE strong II dragan; drōg, drōh; dragen.

## Mixed Verbs.

697. There are several verbs which have a strong pret. partic. in een with a regular consonantal pret. Some of these are old strong verbs which have become partially consonantal; but others are weak verbs which have taken the partic. ending -en by the influence of old strong verbs which they happen to resemble. In the following list the latter class are marked $\ddagger$.
698. go; went ; gone. OE strong I gān, gangan; gēong, ēode (weak); த்egān, த்egangen. ME ḡ̄(n), gange $(n)$; $y \bar{d} d e$, wente; $g \bar{g}(n)$, gangen. In ME the longer form gang was gradually restricted to the Northern dialect. The curtailed Southern pret. partic. $g \bar{g}$ is still preserved in the adverb $a_{g} \sigma=O E \bar{a} g \bar{a} n$ ' passed' (of time).
699. grave, graved; graven, graved. OE strong II grafan, grōf, grafen.
700. hew; hewed; hewn, hewed. OE strong I hēawan, hēow, hēawen.
701. tlade, load; tladed, loaded; laden, †laded, $\dagger$ loaden, loaded. OE strong II hladan, hlöd, hladen, hladen. The MnE change of lade into load is through the influence of the noun load, ME lōde $=\mathrm{OE}$ lād (fem.) 'leading,' ' way,' connected with lēedan 'lead,' which had also the meaning
' carry,' so that in ME lide came to mean 'load,' and was at last confused with the verb läden.
702. melt; melted; molten, melted. OE strong III meltan. molten is now used only as an adjective.
703. mow ; mowed; mown, mowed. OE strong I māwan, mēow, mä̃en.
704. rive ; rived; riven, rived. ME strong VI riven, $r \bar{g} f$, riven from the Scandinavian rīfa.
705. †saw ; sawed; sawn, sawed. ME weak sazu(i)en. MnE sawn by the analogy of drawn.
706. shape ; shaped; shapen, shaped. OE strong II j-verb sicieppan, sìpppan (sięppan); siöp; siapen, sicapen. In ME this verb was influenced by the Scandinavian verb skapa, skōp.
707. shave ; shaved ; shaven, shaved. OE strong II siafan, siōf, siafen.
708. $\ddagger$ show; showed; shown, showed. OE weak siëazvian, scèazvode 'survey,' 'look at.' ME schęw( 2 )en, schōrvien, Northern schaw. Early MnE shew and show. shown by the analogy of known, etc.
709. sow ; sowed; sown, sowed. OE strong I sāzan, sēow, säzven.
710. $\ddagger$ strew ; strewed ; strewn, strewed. OE weak strewian, streowian. ME strewen, strō̄wen, strawen. strewn by the analogy of hewn.
711. swell; swelled; swollen, swelled. OE strong III swellan.

Isolated Forms.
712. Some obsolete verbs occur only in isolated forms, namely quoth, hight, iclept, wont.
713. quoth. OE strong V cwepan, cwaç, cwểdon,
gecweden 'say.' In ME the strong consonant of the infin. was kept throughout: cwepen, cwap, icwepen; so also bicwepen 'bequeath,' which in MnE is consonantal-bequeathed. In Late ME the simple cwepen was gradually disused except in the pret. sing. As cwab was often unstressed in such combinations as $c w a p \cdot h \bar{e}$, it developed a weak form cwod, quod through the regular rounding of unstressed $a$ into 0 after a lip-consonant, as in OE Ōswold=earlier O Ōswald. The explanation of the $d$ is that cwob he etc. were made into (kwapee) which became (kwað'ee, kwo ${ }^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{ee}$ ); and when (kwoð) was detached and received strong stress-as it naturally would-the final ( $\delta$ ), being an unfamiliar sound in strong syllables, was changed into (d). The form quoth is a blending of strong quath and weak quod.
714. hight 'is named, called,' 'was called,' ME highte is a blending of the OE passive form hätle (478) and heht, the active pret. of the same verb hātan.
715. iclept $=\mathrm{ME}$ iclēped, OE gecleopod 'called' the pret. partic. of the weak verb cleopian, clipian.
716. wont 'accustomed' $=\mathrm{OE}$ geweunod, pret. partic. of the weak verb ṡezvunian ['்̇erwuna 'custom,' 'habit.']

## Anomalous Verbs.

717. Most of the MnE verbs that we class as anomalous are old preterite-present verbs. Two of these preteritepresent verbs-dare and owe $=\mathrm{OE}$ dearr, $\bar{g} g$-have been made regular in certain meanings. The original inflections of these verbs have been much curtailed in MnE, most of them having only the inflections of the finite present and preterite. The only one which has an infin. is dare, which seems to have taken it from the regularly inflected verb dare. Two of
the old preterite-present verbs-must and ought-occur now only in the OE preterite forms, which have taken the place of the OE present $m \bar{o} t$ and $\bar{a} g$, so that these verbs are incapable of marking the distinction between pres. and pret.
718. can, canst; could, couldst. OE cann, canst, plur. cunnon ; pret. cübe ; infin. cunnan ' know.' ME can, canst, plur. cŏnnen, can; coupe, coude; infin. cŏnnen. coude probably owes its $d$ to the influence of wolde and scholde (723, 724). In Early MnE coud (e) it was made into could on the analogy of should and would= OE soolde, wolde.
719. dare, darest, (he) dare, tdares; durst; infin. dare. OE dearr, dearst, durron; dorste; ME dar, dār (as in the pret. bār), darst; dorste, durste with the $u$ of OE durron; infin. durren, dären, of which the former represents the probable OE infin. durran, the latter being a new-formation from dār. In MnE dare in the transitive sense of 'challenge' has become quite regular: he dared him to do it. The intransitive pres. partic. daring is used only as an adjective.
720. may, mayst; might, mightst. OE mag', pū meaht (maht), miht, plur. magon; pret. meahte (mahte) mihte ' be able.' [Compare maġen, meaht, miht 'power,' ' force.'] The ME forms seem to have been influenced by another OE preterite-present verb of similar meaning, namely dēag, dēah 'avail' plur. dugon; pret. dohte; infin. dugan. The ME forms are: mai, miht, and, very late, mayst, plur. mawen, muwen, moun; pret. mahte, mihte, mohte.
721. tmote (muut); must. OE mōt, mōst, mōton; mōste ' may.' ME mōt, mōst, mōten; mōste. The pres. survived only as an archaism in Early MnE : as fair as fair mote be (Spenser). Already in ME the pret. was used in the sense of the pres., and in Early MnE this usage became
fixed. It began with the use of the pret. subj.-which was practically indistinguishable from the pret. indic.-to express mild command, so that pou möste=' you would be able,' 'you might' was understood to mean 'you will have to,' ' you must.' The vowel of mōste passed through (uu) into (u) in Early MnE , the shortening having probably begun in the weak form.
722. (owe); ought. OE $\bar{a} g, \bar{a} h, \beta \bar{u} \bar{a} h t, a h t$, plur. $\bar{a} g o n$; pret. ähte, ahte; infin. ägan 'possess.' The adjective āgen 'own' is an old pret. partic. of this verb. From agen is formed the weak verb aggnian, 'appropriate,' 'possess.' In Early ME ahte developed regularly into $a(u) h t e$, but afterwards $\bar{g}$ was introduced from the infin. etc., giving $\bar{g}(u)$ hte. In ME $\bar{q} w e n$ in the sense of 'possess' soon took regular weak inflection- $\bar{i} \bar{q} w e, ~ w \bar{e} \bar{g} w e b$, etc.-still keeping the older $\bar{\Omega} u h t e$ as its pret. The meaning 'possess' gradually developed into that of 'have a debt,' ' owe,' which, again, developed the abstract meaning 'ought,' especially in the pret., which by degrees took the function of a pres. in the same way as must (721).
723. shall, shalt; should, shouldst. OE sieal (sial), siealt (sicalt), siullon; siolde, Northumbrian sialde by the analogy of walde $(\mathbf{7 2 4})=$ wolde. ME schal, schalt, schulen, schullen (by the analogy of zeillen); scholde, schulde (by the influence of schulen).
724. will, wilt; would, wouldst; imper. will. This verb was in OE originally a strong subjunctive preterite, with which pres. indic. forms were afterwards mixed: wile, wille, wilt, willap; wolde, walde (originally weak?); infin. willan. In OE this verb has, together with several other verbs in very frequent use, special negative forms, the result of contraction with a preceding ne 'not': ic nyle, pū nylt, hè nyle, wè nyllap;
nolde, etc. One of these negative forms is still preserved in the phrase willy nilly, Early MnE will he, nill he=OE wile $h \bar{e}, n y l e ~ h e \bar{e} . ~ T h e ~ M E ~ f o r m s ~ a r e: ~ w i l e, ~ w o ̆ l e, ~ w i l l, ~ w o ̈ l t, ~ w i l l e p, ~$ willen, woŏllen; wolde, walde, wölde, whose ( $\mathbf{u}$ ) is the result of the influence of the pres. forms wŏle, etc., which were probably at first weak forms, in which the $w$ rounded the following vowel and gradually assimilated it to itself.
725. twot; twist. OE wāt, wāst, witon; wiste; witan; witende. The adjective $\dot{g}$ gewiss 'certain' is an old pret. partic. of this verb. ME wāt, wḡst, witen; infin. witen; pres. partic. witinge. In Early MnE wot was sometimes made the base of a regular verb: he wotteth, wots, pret. wotted, pres. partic. wotting. The old pres. partic. still survives in the adverb unwittingly, and the infin. in the adverb phrase to wit= viz.

The ME adjective $i w i s=O E$ gewiss has in MnE been often wrongly divided $i w i s$, as if it were the pronoun $I$ with a verb equivalent to wot, a view which has been further supported in recent times by the chance resemblance of the Modern German equivalent of wot, namely weiss, plur. wissen.
723. need. This verb agrees with the preterite-present verbs in having no $s$-inflection. The loss of the $s$-which seems to have begun in the transition from ME to MnE-is apparently partly the result of similarity of meaning to that of the preterite-present verbs; but the absence of the inflectional $s$ is partly due to the verb need 'require' being formed directly from the noun need through the ambiguity of such sentences as Early MnE what need all this waste ?

We now come to the anomalous auxiliary verbs be, have, do.
727. The verb be in OE is made up of three distinct roots; that seen in (a) is, are, (b) was, and (c) be : -

Indic.
Pres. Sing. I eom (eam); bēo
2 eart (earb); bist
3 is; bip
Plur. sind, sindon (earon); bēob
Pret. Sing. I was
2 wâre
3 was
Plur. zê̂ron
Imper. Sing. wes; bēo
Plur. wesap; bēop

Subj.
sīe, $s \bar{y} ; b \bar{e} o$
sīe, $s \bar{y} ; b \bar{c} o$
sīe, sȳ; bēo
sien, sȳn; bēon
wêre
wêre
where
wâren
Infin. wesan; bēon
Gerund to wesenne; tö bēonne

Partic. Pres. wesende
728. The ea in eart and the Anglian eam, earon is a weakening of eo (368), preserved in the West-Saxon com and the occasional eort, corun. In Late Northumbrian this $e a$ undergoes the usual further weakening into $a$ : am, arb, aron.
729. The Standard ME forms are: am, art, is, bè (n); subj. $b \bar{e}, b \bar{e}(n)$; pret. was, wèr $(e)$, was, wère $(n)$; pret. subj., $w_{e}^{e} r(e)$, węre $(n)$; imper. $b \bar{e}, b \bar{e} p$; infin. bē $(n)$; participles bēinge, bē $(n)$. The ME pret. partic. is, of course, an analogical new-formation. The North-Thames plur. $\operatorname{ar}(n)$ is still rare in Standard ME, but is firmly established in Early MnE , which inflects: am, art, is, are; subj. be; pret. was, wast, wert, plur. were; subj. pret. were, wert, were; infin. be; partic. being, been. The use of be in the pres. indic. is still kept up in Early MnE: I be, thou beest, they be, etc.; the form he bes is, however, very rare. There is in MnE a tendency to get rid of the distinctively subjunctive inflections
of this verb not only by using thou beest as if it were a subjunctive-if thou beest $=$ if thou be-but also by substituting if $I$ was for if $I$ were, etc. was $=$ were was frequent in the last century not only as a subjunctive, but also in the indic. you was. In the present Spoken English the distinction between was and were is strictly maintained, the substitution of was for were being a vulgarism. The subj. pres. is, on the other hand, extinct in the spoken language, except in a few phrases.
730. have. The OE inflections resemble those of libban (506) : habbe, hafast, hafst, hafap, hafp, plur. habbap; subj. habbe, habben; pret. hafde; imper. hafa, habbap; infin. habban; partic. habbende, gehafd. In ME the old $b b$ was gradually supplanted by the $v=\mathrm{OE} f$ of the other forms, the $v$ itself being often dropped by contraction. The Standard ME forms are: hāve, weak hav, hast, hap, plur. hāve(n), hān, han; pret. hadde; pret. partic. had. In ME the weak short-vowel forms gradually supplanted the longvowel ones; but we keep the long-vowel forms in the derivative behave, pret. behaved=ME behäven. The MnE literary forms are: have, hast, hath, has plur. have; subj. pres. have; pret. indic. had, hadst; pret. subj. had; imper. and infin. have; partic. having, had. Early MnE still kept the shortened infin. ha, $a=$ MIE han: she might a been (Shakespere).
731. do. OE dō, dēst (d $\bar{c} s t)$, dēp (d $\bar{c} \beta)$, plur. d $\bar{\beta} p ;$ pret. weak $d y \cdot d e$; imper. $d \bar{o}, d \bar{o} p$; infin. dōn; partic. dōnde, $\dot{g} e d \bar{o} n$. The mutation in dēst, dēp is common to all the dialects. In Standard ME the $\bar{o}$ of the other parts of the verb supplanted the older $\bar{e}$ : d $\bar{o}$, dōst, d $\bar{o} \beta$, plur. dōn; dide; imper. dō, dō $\beta$; partic. döinge dō(n). In MnE (uu)= ME ${ }^{\circ}$.

## PARTICLES.

732. All the OE particles are either primary or secondary. The secondary particles are formed from other (declinable) parts of speech; thus hām in hē eode $h \bar{a} m$ 'he went home' is formed from the masc. noun ham 'home,' 'homestead.' Primary particles, such as be 'by,' swa 'so' are not formed from other parts of speech. There is no strict division between the three classes of particles, most of the prepositions being used also as adverbs, some adverbs being used also as conjunctions. Thus $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}} r$ is a preposition in $\bar{e} r$ dagंe 'before day(break),' an adverb in $h \bar{e}$ eft was pāpa swā hē $\bar{e} r w_{\text {es }}$ 'he was pope again as he was before,' and a conjunction in $\bar{a} r$ bat flōd com 'before the flood came.'
733. Some of the particles are simple, some derivative, such as uf-an 'above,' some compound (group-compounds), such as be-neopan 'beneath,' which is compounded with the preposition $b e$. The above are primary adverbs. Secondary particles also admit of the same divisions, such as hām, sōplīce 'truly,' ealne-wegg' 'always,' literally 'all (the) way.'

## Adverb-endings.

734. In OE, adverbs are regularly formed from adjectives by adding $-e$, a preceding $a$ being generally changed to $a$ : dēope 'deeply,' hearde 'strongly,' 'severely,' nearwe 'narrowly,' late 'slowly,' ' with delay' from dèop, heard 'hard,' 'strong,' 'severe,' nearu, lat 'slow.' Adjectives with a mutated vowel often have an unmutated vowel in the adverb, as in söfte 'gently,' 'luxuriously,' swöte 'sweetly' corresponding to the adjectives sēfte (sल्कfte), swēte (sw̄̄êe). The numerous adjec-
tives in -lic form their adverbs in -licie, the original length of the vowel being kept, as in eġestice 'terribly,' gesâlig̀tice 'blessedly,' 'happily' from egeslić, ġeséliğ̀lic [ g g esa 'terror,' sál 'favourable time,' 'luck']. But gesesálig̀licic occurs also in the shorter form gesâligg; and hence in this and similar cases the adverb could be regarded as formed directly from the shorter adjective-g̀esâlig̀-Tlice from geseséliğ. In this way -lice came to be regarded as an independent abverb-ending equivalent to $-e$, which, through being more distinct, it gradually supplanted in many words. Hence -līe was sometimes added directly, without there being any adjective in -lic.
735. In ME the two endings -e and -liche were both kept, the latter appearing as -like in Early Midland, as in dèplike compared with Early Southern dèopliche.
736. When final -e was dropped in North-Thames English the distinction between the adj. hard and the adverb hard(e), etc. was lost. By degrees also the adverb-ending - $\bar{i} k e$ was levelled under the adjective-ending $-l i=$ Southern -lich, and -li then became a regular adverb-ending. In Late ME it was introduced into the Standard dialect, where it supplanted the Early Southern -liche, as in dēply, hardly, openly. But -ly was also retained as an adjective-ending, as it still is in such a word as goodly $=\mathrm{OE}$ godllic, ME gödlich, godli. Some of the MnE adverbs which have the same form as adverbs, as in pull hard, speak loud, talk like a foreigner compared with a hard pull, etc. are, of course, the descendants of the OE adverbs in $-e$, such as hearde, hlūde, g̀ stice; but others are new-formations on the analogy of these traditional ones, especially those in $-y=\mathrm{OE}-i \dot{g}$, as in pretty well, mighty fine, for the OE adjectives in -ig formed their adverbs in -iğlice (mihtiğlīce) to avoid the ambiguity of -iğe, which might be mistaken for the plur. etc. inflection.
737. In Old French the uninflected forms of adjectives -originally the neut. sing.-were used as adverbs, which were introduced into ME, whence such MnE adverbs as in just ready, shut close [Old French clos from Latin clausum], quiet [Latin qviètum], very=ME verrai 'true,' 'truly,' Old French verai [Modern French vrai] from Latin vērāx, vèrācem.
738. In Present English, adverbs in -ly are formed freely from all kinds of adjectives, as in deeply, foolishly, willingly, affectedly. The addition of $-l y$ is attended by various changes of spelling, as in merrily, gaily, fully, nobly from merry, gay, full, noble. Adverbs in -ly are not often formed from adjectives that already end in -ly, these adjectives generally forming their adverbs by periphrases, such as in a lively manner, in a friendly way. Some MnE adverbs in -ly are formed direct from nouns, such as namely; but such adverbs as daily, yearly, quarterly in he is paid quarterly are old adjectives used as adverbs.

A less frequent adverb-ending in OE was -unga, -inga, by which adverbs were formed from adjectives: eallunga 'entirely,' ierringa 'angrily,' from eall, ierre. There was also in OE a class of adverbs formed from nouns-mostly names of parts of the body-by adding -ling and prefixing the preposition on, such as on bacling 'backwards.' By blending these two endings a new ending -lunga, -linga was formed, as in grundlunga 'from the foundations,' ' completely.' In ME the ending -linge is frequent, the adverbial -es (742) being often added, as in hēglinge(s) 'headlong,' n̄̄̄selinge(s) 'on the nose,' 'at full length,' sïdelinge(s) 'sideways.' In MnE this ending has been confused with the adjective long. Hence in Early MnE we find sideling, sidelong 'sideways,' flatling and flatlong, as in the blow felt flatlong, that is, 'was given with the flat of the sword instead of the point.' In Present English headlong is still an adverb, sidelong being an adjective-a sidelong
glance. The older sidelinge was regarded as a pres. partic., and from it was formed a verb to sidle (up to). So also the ME adverb grövelinge 'grovellingly' was made into the verb grovel.
739. In ME and MnE some new adverb-endings arose out of OE adverbial phrases. Thus the OE on öpre wīsan 'in another way' [wīse weak fem. 'manner,' 'way'] was shortened and hardened into the group öprewise, öperwise; and in MnE -wise was used to form new adverbs, such as likewise, nowise. The noun way was used in like manner to form adverb-groups such as midway, noway, whence noways with the usual addition of $-s$. -wise, and -ways were often confused, as in lengthwise=lengthways, endwise, coastwise. The nouns time and while $=\mathrm{OE}$ weak masc. tima and strong fem. hwoil ' time,' have also come to be used as adverb-endings in such words as meantime, sometime(s), ofttimes, oftentimes, meanwhile, somewhile, otherwhile(s), the last two being now obsolete.

## Adverbs formed direct from Nouns and Adjectives.

740. Many OE adverbs are formed direct from nouns or adjectives, either inflected or uninflected. The following are uninflected, being formed from nouns in the acc. sing. and adjectives in the neut. sing.: hām, nor $b$, s $\bar{u} p, \bar{e} a s t$, west; eall ' entirely,' nēah ' nearly,' genōg' ' sufficiently.'

The most important inflectional endings are $-u m$ and -es:-
741. -um : hwizlum 'sometimes,' stundum 'at intervals' [stund strong fem. 'period']. -mêlum from the neut. noun mâl 'mark,' ' point of time' is a frequent adverb-ending, as in styçcemálum 'piecemeal,' floccmâlum ' in troops.' From
adjectives are formed miclum 'greatly,' l̄̄tlum and lȳtlum 'by little and little,' 'by degrees.' The isolated ME whīlŏm is still preserved in the higher language. -málum in ME passed through -mèlen into -mèle, as in dropmèle, pècemèle, where stycice was replaced by its French equivalent.
742. -es in OE was extended to fem. nouns as an adverbending: dacres and nihtes 'by day and by night,' sumeres and wintra [wintra masc. gen. like suna], niedes 'of necessity' [nīed fem.]; ealles 'entirely,' elles 'otherwise' from a lost adjective. The adverb-ending -weardes interchanges with the uninflected -zveard, as in hämweard(es) 'homewards.' In ME and MnE this ending was dropped in some words, as in Late ME day and night; but it was more often extended, especially to adverbs which in OE ended in a vowel or $n$, in order to make them more distinct, as in always=Early MnE alwai, OE ealneweg', $\bar{o} n e s$ ' once' $=\mathrm{OE} \overline{\bar{a}} n e$, the mutated $\overline{\bar{\alpha}}$ being supplanted by $\bar{g}=$ the $\mathrm{OE} \bar{a}$ in $\bar{a} n$, twiès 'twice,' prīes 'thrice' $=$ OE twizwa, prizwa. OE heonone 'hence' (747) became he(o)nne in Early MnE , and by the addition of $-s$, hennes, OE panon 'thence,' kwanon 'whence' becoming Late ME pennes, whennes by the influence of hennes. So also OE sippan (749) 'since' passed through sippen, sin into sijens, sins. This extension of $-s$ went on in MnE also, as in sometimes=earlier MnE sometime, which is still preserved in the higher language.

Some adverbs in es took final $t$ in Early MnE or Late ME, as in amidst, betwixt, whilst, amongst $=$ ME amiddes-a blending of OE onmiddan and tōmiddes-betwixt(t), whìles, amēng.
743. The following are examples of OE group-adverbs: ealneweg', ealneg 'always,' georstandag' ' yesterday,' on weg' 'away,' on bac 'backwards,' 'back,' ofdūne 'down,' literally
' off the hill,' todagg 'today,' where tō governs an exceptional form of the dative. All the above show isolation either of form or meaning, and therefore approximate to compounds. Such collocations, on the other hand, as on liffe 'alive' literally 'in life,' on slẹpe 'in sleep, asleep,' on eornost 'in earnest' show no isolation either of meaning or form. But in ME there was a tendency to shorten weak of and on to $a$ whenever they were closely associated with the following word. Hence the ME forms adūne, adūn 'down' adv., awai, abak, alive, aslëpe, the $a$ having been dropped in the MnE adverbs down, back. The same weakening took place in ME and Early MnE combinations, as in aclock, now written o'clock=of (the) clock, and also in freer combinations, as in go a fishing $=\mathrm{OE}$ gān on fisinop, twice a day $=\mathrm{OE}$ twizva on dage.

In MnE this $a$ was taken for the indef. article, so that in jackanapes=jack-of-apes it was made into an before a vowel.

Some French group-adverbs formed with the preposition a were introduced in ME, where they were of course put on a level with the similar native combinations: apart, apās $=\mathrm{MnE}$ aрасе.
744. In ME the OE preposition be became $\overline{b i}$ (770), but the old be was kept in compounds such as beforen $=\mathrm{OE}$ beforan, and also in some traditional collocations such as OE be sìdan 'by the side,' ME beside, which was now completely isolated from $b \bar{i} p e(r e)$ side, just as alive was isolated from in al his līf etc. But the new preposition $b \bar{\imath}$ was sometimes introduced into these groups, being however shortened to $b i$ : bifore, biside. On the analogy of the older compounds the new-formation $b \bar{i}$ cause ' by the cause' was made into bicause, because.
745. In ME and MnE the place of a lost or obscured
ending was sometimes supplied by a preposition, giving rise to new group-adverbs, such as of a truth $=\mathrm{OE}$ söpes, of right $=\mathrm{OE}$ ryhtes, bī pēcemèle $=\mathrm{OE}$ stycicemıâlum, by little and little $=$ OE lytlum and $\bar{y}$ tlum.

Sometimes a preposition was added even when the ending was clear, as in at unawares.

## Pronominal Adverbs.

746. Among the OE primary adverbs there is a symmetrical group of adverbs of place, connected with the pronouns $h \bar{e}, \phi a t, h w a t$, their endings expressing respectively rest, motion to, and motion from :-

Rest Motion in Motion from
hër'here' hider'hither'
pâr'there' pider'thither'
hwwêr 'where' hwwider 'whither'
heonon 'hence' panon'thence' hwanon 'whence'

The ME th in hither etc. is due to the influence of the $r$ (248).
747. The ending -er, -an, -on of the other primary adverbs has no very definite meaning: of-er 'over,' expressing both motion and rest, und-er, aft-er ; inn-an ' within,' uf-an 'above' [connected with ofer], hindan 'behind,' foran 'in front.' The ending -an was, however, extended to the noun-derived adverbs norb etc., where it kept its definite meaning : norban 'from the north,' süpan 'from the south.' -on, -an often takes final -e: heonone, ütan(e) 'outside.' The adverbs ponne 'then,' 'than,' hwonne 'when' are also pronominal.
748. Many OE adverbs are formed directly from pronouns. The neuter $b a t$ is used as a conjunction exactly as
in MnE: hē saǵgde pat; hē sag̀de pat hè wâre gearu, literally ' he said that: (namely) he was ready.' So also the pronoun hwaper is used in the same way as whether. The indeclinable be is used as a relative pronoun, both alone and in combination with $s \bar{e}$ (438), and is used also as a particle in a variety of meanings-' when,' 'because' etc. It is also added to particles to make them into conjunctions, or mark them more distinctly as such, as in bēah-pe 'although' conjunction, beah 'though' being an adverb, patte 'that' conj. =pat pe (147). Inflected pronouns are also used as particles. $b \bar{y}$, the instrumental of $p a t$, is used in the sense of 'therefore,' - because,' and to express measure and proportion, as in $p \bar{y}$ $m \bar{a}$ 'the more,' correlative $\bar{p} \quad \ldots b \bar{y}=\mathrm{MnE}$ the $\ldots$ the in the more the merrier. The change of $b \bar{y}$ into the is the result of loss of stress and confusion with the indeclinable $p e$. $h w \bar{y}$, the instrumental of hwat, is used in the sense of its MnE descendant why.
749. There are many group-particles in OE consisting of a preposition governing a pronoun in the dat. or instr. The combination with the preposition alone generally forms an adverb-for $\overline{\bar{e}} m$, for kon, for $b \bar{y}$ 'therefore'-the corresponding conjunctions being formed by the addition of $b e$ -for b̄̄m be, for bon be, for by be 'because,' ār b̄̄m pe 'before,' after p $\bar{e} m p e ~ ' a f t e r ' — o r ~ p a t: ~ t o ~ p \bar{e} m ~ p a t, ~ t o ̄ ~ p o n ~$ pat 'in order that.'
sippan, seoppan 'since' contains an obsolete preposition *siz 'since'-sippan=sij-pon with shortening of the $\bar{i}$.
750. There are similar group-particles formed by combinations of pronouns with nouns and adverbs formed from adjectives, such as $\overline{\beta a}$ hwïle $b e$ 'while,' literally 'the time

' notwithstanding,' literally 'not by-that less,' $b \bar{y} l \bar{e} s p e$ 'lest,' literally 'by-that less that.'
751. The group-adverbs for- $\beta \bar{\imath}$, for- $\beta$ an, for-hwì continued in use throughout the ME period, but became obsolete in MnE. The groups in -be were modified in various ways. In the Early MnE the ambiguous pe was generally made into pat, as in for-bī-pat, pe-whille-pat, or dropped entirely, as in pëih, pouh conj. = OE pēah pe. pat often took the place of the inflected pronoun, as in for-pat, $\bar{\varepsilon} r-p a t$, after-pat, and the new-formations til-pat, before-pat. But even in the Earliest ME the pronouns were dropped, so that the bare prepositions for, $\bar{\varepsilon} r$, before etc. were used as conjunctions, as in $\operatorname{MnE}$, this shortening being helped by the fact that even in OE the prepositions $\bar{e} r$ 'before' and bütan 'without' were used also as conjunctions, the latter in the sense of 'except,' ' unless.' be-hwīle-be was shortened to be-hwzille and then to hwīle, whence the later whiles, whilst, the older the while, while still surviving in the higher language. OE $p \bar{y}$ l $\bar{e} s$ be dropped the $p \dot{y}$ in Early MnE , and $s \beta$ was made into st (147), giving lēste, shortened leste, lest.

## Correlative Particles.

752. OE correlative particles are: $b \bar{y}$. . . (748) ; swā . . . swā, as in swā hwīt swā snāw' as white as snow'; $p \bar{a} \ldots$ $p \bar{a}$, ponne . . . ponne 'then . . . when' as in $p \bar{a}$ he cōm, $b \bar{a}$ ēode $\dot{i} \dot{c}$ ' when he came, I went,' the second (demonstrative) $\bar{b} \bar{a}$, ponne being omitted in MnE. Indefinite adverbs are formed like indefinite pronouns (442) with correlative sw $\bar{a}$-sw $\bar{a}$ $h w e ̂ \hat{r} s z \bar{a}$ 'wherever.'
753. In ME the first two groups were preserved in the form of pe . . . pe and alsw̄̄ . . . ase, as . . as, alsw $\bar{g}$ being a strong, as(e) a weak form of the OE group eall-swā 'entirely
so.' In the other correlative groups one of the members was generally omitted in ME, as in the ME and MnE equivalents of the $\mathrm{OE} p \bar{a} \ldots p \bar{a}$, ponne . . . ponne, where the relative when was substituted for penne $=\mathrm{OE}$ ponne, the second member being omitted.

So also swā hwâr swā appears as whèr sḡ in ME.

## Pronominal Conjunctions.

754. In OE the neuter pronouns äuber, näuber, $\overline{\text { a }} \dot{g}$ ber $(442,451)$ are often used adverbially in connection with the correlative conjunction-pairs $\dot{g} e .$. ge 'both . . . and,' oppe . . . oppe 'either . . . or,' ne . . . ne 'neither . . . nor,' standing in a kind of opposition to them: hie cūbon $\bar{a} \dot{g} p e r$, ge göd ge yfel 'they knew each-of-the-two,' both good and evil'; sé geswencied bip āuper, oppe on mōde oppe on līchaman 'he who is afflicted either-way, either in mind or in body'; hīe ne cübon nän-bing yfeles, näber ne on sprê̂cie ne on weorce 'they knew nothing of evil, no-way, neither in speech nor in action.'
755. In Early ME the first correlative conjunction was dropped in such combinations, so that the adverbial pronoun was brought into direct correlation with the second conjunction, OE näber ne . . . ne being made into nāber . . . ne, neiper . . . ne (452) etc. : nöper on spéche ne on werke. The original pronoun afterwards supplanted the second conjunction as well, where, 'being unstressed, it was liable to shortening, whence the pairs $\bar{q} p e r(e i b e r) .$. or, nōper (neiber) . . . nor: g̀veri man schal have $\bar{g}$ ber gōd $\bar{g} b e r ~ u i v e l-e i b e r ~ g o ̄ d ~ o r ~ u ̈ v e l . ~$. The weak or, nor were only rarely introduced into the first clause as well; but in the higher language we still use or .. . or instead of either ... or. The new conjunctions soon came to be used without any correlative, as in the Early MnE he
mihte rīden $\bar{g}$ ber g $\bar{g} n$. The correlative both . . . and arose in the same way as either . . . or etc., the beginning of it being seen in such an OE construction as hīe bū gesēop, bat hē hīe generede, and him éac forgeaf ēce lif,' they see both (neut. sing.) that he has saved them, and has also given them eternal life.'

## Negation and Affirmation.

756. The negative particle in OE is $n e$, which drops its vowel in some combinations before a vowel, or $h$ or $w$ followed by a vowel, these consonants being also dropped, nwi- being made into $n y$-; thus eom 'am,' haff 'has,' hafde 'had,' wät 'knows,' wiste 'knew,' wile ' will,' wolde 'would' have the negative forms neom 'am not,' naffp, naefde, nāt, nyste, nyle, nolde. Some pronouns and adverbs have similar negative forms, such as nän ' none,' nāhwoaper, nāuber 'neither,' näwiht,
 (ōwiht), $\bar{a}$ ' ever.' In sentences the $n e$ is prefixed to the verb, being contracted with it if possible, and to all the other words in the sentence that admit of contracted negative forms: nān ne dorste nān bing āscian ' no-one durst ask anything.' If the sentence does not contain any such contracted negatives in addition to the negatived verb, the stronger $n \bar{a}$ or $n a h t$ is added to support the ne before the verb: bat hus nā ne fêoll ' the house did not fall.'
757. In ME the usage is often the same as in OE: hē nēver nadde nāping. But the weak form of nāwiht, namely nat, not (443) from being a mere strengthening of the ne, began to supplant it, as in tō mé schē wŏl nat dō pat grāce, although ne is often kept, as in $D_{\bar{e}}\langle$ ne wöl nat hān $m \bar{i}$ lif.
758. In MnE ne disappeared entirely. At the same time the influence of Latin grammar led to the adoption of the
logical principle that 'two negatives contradict each other and make an affirmative,' which is now strictly carried out in the Standard language, spoken as well as written, though the old pleonastic negatives are still kept up in vulgar speech, as in I don't know nothing about it=the educated I do not know anything about it or $I$ know nothing about it.
759. Although OE naht was preferred to $n \bar{a}$ as the auxiliary negative in ME, the latter held its ground in certain collocations, especially before comparative adjectives and adverbs, and is still kept in such phrases as he is no better; no more of this! And no is always used as the absolute nega-tion-in answer to questions etc.-together with nay, which is the Scandinavian nei 'no,' literally 'not-ever.' nay is now obsolete in speech.
760. The OE particles of affirmation are $\dot{g} \bar{e} a$, Anglian $\dot{g} \bar{\alpha}, \dot{g} \bar{e}, \mathrm{ME} y \bar{g}, \mathrm{MnE} y e a$, which is now obsolete; and yes= OE gise, Anglian gese, ME and Early MnE yis, yes. gise is an old group-compound of $\dot{g} \bar{e} a$ and the subjunctive sie 'be it '; it was therefore originally an emphatic affirmative.

## Comparison of Adverbs.

761. The comparison of adverbs has already been treated of under Adjectives (339). In OE the regular forms of adverb-comparison were -e, -or, -ost and -lìe, -licor, -liocor, -licost,-liocost: dēope, deoplī̀e; dēopor, Late OE dēoppor (149), déoplicor; dēopost, dēoplicost. There was also a smaller class with mutation in the higher degrees, the endings being $-e,-$, -est, as in lange 'for a long time,' leng̈', lengest. Most of the adverbs which admit of comparison are formed from adjectives; but primary adverbs also adinit of direct comparison, with and without mutation : oft 'often,' oftor, oftost; $\overline{\boldsymbol{a}} r$ 'before,' $\bar{e} r o r, \bar{e} r e s t . ~$
762. In MnE the comparison -er, -est is, as a general rule, applied only to those adverbs which have no special adverbial ending in the positive, especially those which have the same form as the corresponding adjectives, such as hard-as in pull harder, pull hardest-loud, quick, fast, long. The comparison of primary adverbs, as in often $=\mathrm{OE}$ oft, oftener, oftenest, has in some cases been carried further than in OE, as in soon, sooner, soonest, seldomer, the OE sōna, seldon not admitting of comparison. Adverbs in -ly are compared periphrastically : fully, more fully, most fully. But in the spoken language these adverbs often form their comparisons by inflection from the corresponding adjective: easy, easier-as in easier said than doneeasiest; cheaply, cheaper, cheapest-as in where it can be done cheapest.
763. The following adverbs are compared irregularly in MnE:-
well; better; best. OE wel; bet; betst, which dropped its $t$ in ME best on the analogy of $m \bar{a} s t$, etc.
badly (evilly, ill); worse, worst. OE yfle; wiers (wyrs); wierrest, wierst (wyrrest, wyrst).
much, more, most. OE mic̈le; mā(re); mēest.
little, less, least. OE l̄$t l e, ~ l \bar{y} t ; ~ l \bar{e} s ; ~ l \bar{e} s t . ~$
far; farther, further ; farthest, furthest. OE feorr ; fierr; fierrest.

There are besides various isolated forms which have been treated of under the comparison of adjectives. From the comparative adverb rather $=\mathrm{OE}$ hrapor 'quicker,' 'sooner' a positive adjective rathe was formed in $\operatorname{MnE}$-the rathe primrose (Milton) - which is now obsolete.

From some of the isolated comparatives and superlatives, whose meaning has been forgotten and which have come to
be regarded as positives, adverbs have been formed by adding -ly: formerly, latterly, lastly.

## PREPOSITIONS.

## Old-English.

764. Of the OE prepositions some are simple, some compound. Most of the latter are made up of prepositions -especially be-and place-adverbs ending in -an, -on, bebecoming $b$ - before a vowel, such contracted forms as bufan 'above' $=$ *be-ufan, being made into new compounds, such as onbufan ' above.' The following are the most important of these compound prepositions:-
be 'by': beforan 'before,' beġeondan' 'beyond,' behindan, 'behind,' binnan ' within,' beneopan 'beneath,' bufan 'above, būtan ' outside.'
on : oninnan ' within,' on-būtan 'around.'
tō: tōforan 'before.'
under: underneoban 'beneath.'
wip 'towards': wipinnan ' within,' wipuitan ' without.'
ymb ' around' : ymb-ütan ' around.'
765. Other compound prepositions are formed of prepositions + nouns or adjectives in the four cases governed by OE prepositions-the acc., dat., instr., gen.: onǵemang 'among,' literally 'into the crowd'; ong'ēan, Anglian ongegn, ongèn, 'against,' and tṑjēanes, Anglian tōgegnes, togēnes 'towards,' 'against' contain an obsolete noun of uncertain meaning; tōmiddes 'amidst' is formed from the adj. midd 'middle'; betwēonum, betwix are formed from an obsolete adjective connected with twizva ' twice.'
766. Those OE prepositions which govern both acc. and
dat., generally take the acc. to express motion, the dat. (or instr.) to express rest: hée eode on bat hūs 'he went into the house'; hé wunode on $b \bar{a} m$ hüse 'he remained in the house.'
767. As we see in the last examples the preposition on does duty for $i n$, which became extinct in Later OE.
768. The OE prepositions are closely allied to the adverbs. Most of them can be used as adverbs without any change of form. Thus on is an adverb in he dyde on his byrnan 'he put on his corslet,' the MnE don and doff being contractions of $\mathrm{OE} d \bar{o}(n)$ on, $d \bar{o}$ of. So also in hē him tō czuap ' he said to him' compared with hé cwocb to him. Some prepositions however, such as for, are not used as adverbs, while others undergo change of form. Thus the adverbs corresponding to be and in (on) are $b \bar{i}$ and $i n n$ : hē stōd $b \bar{i}$, hē stōd him bū, hé èode inn compared with hē stöd be him ' he stood by him,' hé ēode in (on) bat hūs. The preposition be is, of course, the weak form due to want of stress, $b \bar{i}$ being the original strong form.
769. In such combinations as pêron, pêertō, which in OE are regularly used to express on it, to $i t$, etc. on and tō must, of course, be regarded as adverbs. therein, herein are, indeed, often expressed by pârinne, herinne with the pure adverb inne = innan.

It is to be observed that the prepositions were originally all adverbs, which could modify either verbs (he stood $b y$ ) or nouns. Adverbs were originally added to inflected nouns to express more definitely the meanings already indicated by the inflection. Thus 'motion to' was originally expressed by the acc. alone, as we see in the Latin domum venit ' he came home' and also in the adverb home itself, and the prepositions on, in, through, etc. were put before the acc.
of motion to define it more exactly. So also in on būem hūse the idea of 'rest in a place' was primarily expressed by the dative, which here represents the Arian locative.

## Middle and Modern English.

770. In ME the adverb $b \bar{\imath}$ was extended to the function of a preposition-a change which had already begun in OE -so that be was preserved only in compounds and traditional groups such as beforen, beside. By the change of an, -on into -e the OE adverb foran and the preposition fore 'before' were levelled under the latter, and by the analogy of the adverbs inne, 'üte =innan, ūtan, the preposition mid 'with' when used as an adverb was made into mide, as in bērmide $=$ OE pârmid. So also for, which had no corresponding adverb-form in OE, developed a ME adverb fore, as in pegrfore, whèrfore. The confusion that thus arose between OE for and fore was avoided by an extended use of the compound before $(n)$.
771. In ME innan 'inside' came into general use as a preposition so as to avoid the ambiguity of OE on=' on,' 'in.' Being generally unstressed, it was shortened first to ine and then to $i n$, the original distinction being thus restored.
772. In ME frō from Scandinavian frā and from $=\mathrm{OE}$ fram were used both as adverbs and prepositions. We now use fro only as an adverb in the phrase to and fro.
773. In ME the preposition mid ' with ' got confused with wip 'against'-a confusion which would easily arise in such phrases as fight with ( OE feohtan wip), deal with, where the relation between the parties might be considered either from its original point of view as ' towards,' ' against,' or from that of ' participation,' ' having in common.' By degrees the more
marked meaning of OE wip was expressed by against, and ME wip took the meanings of mid, which then became extinct.

For the differentiation of OE of, wip into MnE of, off, (wir, wip), see § 232.
774. In ME the rare construction of prepositions with the genitive was soon given up-except of course in isolated groups such as tomiddes-and when the distinction between the other oblique cases and the nom. was lost in the nouns, and nothing was left but the distinction of nom. and objective in some of the personal pronouns, the only trace left of case-government by prepositions was that they were sometimes followed by a personal pronoun in the objective case.
775. In OE the adverbial ending -weard is sometimes used detached in connection with the preposition tō in such constructions as wip hire (dat.) weard 'towards' her.' In ME this is often carried further, as in tō wöde ward, tō Troie wardes= tōward be wơde, tōwardes Troie, frō Bordeux ward compared with framward Teukesbüri, where framward is a new formation on the analogy of toward. In Early MnE the Bible still has to God ward.
778. In ME the $a$ of amiddes was restored to its full form on, for which in was afterwards substituted. The body of the word was then regarded as an independent noun, so that at last inmidst developed into in the midst (of).

## INTERJECTIONS.

777. Interjections are primary and secondary. Primary interjections are mostly imitations of sounds that accompany emotions: $a h, o, o h, p a h, p o o h$, hush. From them
other parts of speech may be formed; thus hush is used as a verb-to hush. Such interjections as what! dear me! are secondary. There are also mixed interjections, made up of primary interjections combined with other parts of speech, such as alas from Old French halas, alas [Modern French hélas], made up of the interjection $a$ and las $=$ Latin lassum 'weary.'
778. The OE lā! ēalā! 'oh!' seem to be primary. wā! 'woe!' is the same word as the noun wāwā, wā 'misfortune.' wālā! wālāwā!' 'alas!' are therefore mixed interjections.
779. Interjections may stand in various grammatical relations to other words. Hence in OE, $w \vec{a}$ sometimes governs a dat., as in $w \bar{a} p \bar{e} m$ menn! 'woe to the man!' wãlā governs a gen. in such phrases as wālā p̄̄ere iermpe! ' alas for the misery,' on the analogy of the gen. after verbs of repenting, \&c. As we see from the above examples, interjections are frequently connected with prepositions in MnE.

## COMPOSITION.

## Old-English.

780. The normal way of forming compounds in OE is by joining together two words-which may be themselves compound or derivative words-the former word being uninflected, the latter, if declinable, keeping its power of inflection, and, if a noun, determining the gender of the whole compound. Thus the neuter noun gold and the masculine noun smib can be combined to form the compound masculine noun goldsmip 'goldsmith.' So also âfen-tid' 'evening time' is feminine because its last element is a feminine noun.

These compounds of noun + noun are the most frequent. There are also compounds of adjective + noun, such as hāliơodagg 'church festival' literally 'holy-day,' cwic-seolfor 'mercury'; of noun + adjective, such as win-sed 'satiated with wine,' and of adjective + adjective, such as widcūp ' widely known.'
781. In the above examples the part of speech of the whole compound is determined by that of the last element. But there is a class of adjective + noun compounds having the function of adjectives, such as gled-mōd 'having a glad mood,' blīp-heort ' blithe of heart,' ' cheerful,' formed from the adjectives glad, blīpe and the nouns möd, heorte. As we see from the last example, the noun is sometimes shortened in such compounds. We call these compounds conversioncompounds, because they involve the conversion of a noun into an adjective. They are very old formations, such con-version-compounds as the Greek dus-menés 'having an evil mind,' having apparently been formed in Parent Arian.

The OE ending -lic is really the obscured second element of old conversion-compounds (844).
782. The form-isolation of compounds in OE consists in the indeclinability of the first element. It is only by this criterion that we can distinguish such compounds as göddéed 'benefit' from the word-group gōd dêd ' good action,' as in the dative plural gōddâdum compared with gōdum dêdum.
783. Normal OE compounds take the stress on the first element; but as word-groups beginning with the genitive of a noun or an inflected adjective do the same, stress is in OE no criterion of composition as opposed to mere grouping. Hence there is in OE no formal distinction between such a word-group as 'cyninges sunu 'king's son,' in which the mean-
ing of the whole follows from that of its elements, and one in which there is isolation of meaning, such as the plantname 'gंēaces-sūre 'sorrel,' literally 'cuckoo's-sour.' But as most of the latter class developed into true compounds in MnE through keeping their uneven stress (786), it is convenient to regard them as 'genitive-compounds' in OE as well. The following are examples of such OE genitive compounds, many of which, it will be observed, have been obscured in MnE :-

Tiwes-dag ${ }_{g}^{\text {‘ }}$ Tuesday,' literally ' day of the war-god' (Tizw), the name being a translation of the Latin diés Märtis (French Mardi), Enğla-land 'England,' literally 'land of the Anglians' [Fingle plur. 'Anglians,' 'English']. These combinations are especially frequent as place-names, such as Sēoles-iègeg 'Selsey,' literally 'seal's island,' Oxena-ford 'Oxford,' literally ' ford of oxen.'
784. Verbs are very rarely compounded directly with nouns or adjectives in OE. But the frequent combinations of verbs with prefixes, such as mis-dōn 'act amiss,' 'do wrong,' led to combinations with certain adjectives in similar adverbial meanings, such as full in fullfyllan 'fully fill,' 'fulfil,' full-zeyrian 'fully work,' 'complete,' and efen 'even,' 'equal,' which in composition expresses the idea of community or association, as in efen-browian 'sympathize,' literally 'suffer in common with.' The want of stress in the first elements of these compounds shows that they are felt as mere prefixes.

## Modern English.

785. In MnE some compounds are formed by adding to the first element the Latin and Greek connecting-vowel 0 , but only when the first element is in a Latin or latinized
form, as in Anglosaxon, Anglo-Indian, Franco-German, a concavo-convex lens.

The connecting vowel $o$ is very frequent in Greek compounds, such as hippo-dámos 'horse-taming,' philo-sophia 'philosophy,' literally 'loving wisdom.' In such forms as hippo-, phillo- is preserved one of the most frequent forms of uninflected nouns and adjectives in a primitive stage of Parent Arian. When inflections were fully developed, these old uninflected forms survived only as the first elements of compounds.

The $n g$ in the MnE nightingale may be due to the influence of evening. In MnE handiwork the $i$ is the OE prefix $\dot{g} e-$, preserved in enough $=\mathrm{OE} \dot{g} \mathrm{~g}_{\mathrm{o}} g$, the OE form of the compound being hand-geweorc. The $i$ - was preserved in MnE probably through association with the adjective handy. handicraft $=\mathrm{OE}$ handcraft probably owes its $i$ to the influence of handiwork and handy.
786. One of the formal tests of composition in MnE as well as in OE is the inseparability and indeclinability of the first element. But owing to the scantiness of the inflections in MnE and its more rigid word-order, these tests are not so decisive in it as in OE, especially when an adjective is the first element. The only certain test by which we can distinguish between compounds and mere word-groups in MnE is stress, the former throwing the stress on to one of the elements, while in the latter the stress is equal. This is how we distinguish between the compound blackbird and the group black bird.
787. One result of this further development of stressdistinctions in MnE is that we are able to recognize a special class of MnE genitive-compounds, distinguished from mere genitive-groups in the same way as compounds beginning with an adjective are distinguished from the corresponding word-groups, namely by having uneven instead of even
stress, as in the compound crow's-foot (a plant) compared with the group a crow's foot.
788. Hence also the OE compounds goldfcet, göddád have in MnE been separated into the groups gold vessel, good deed, such OE compounds as goldsmip, cwicseolfor being preserved as compounds in the form of goldsmith, quicksilver by their uneven stress; while the OE groups dōmes dag̀, blac berige have been made into the compounds doomsday, blackberry.
789. Some compounds of MnE formation have a noun in the plural as their first element, but only when this noun in the plural has developed a meaning of its own different from that of the singular, so that it is isolated from its singular, the connection between them being sometimes forgotten. Such compounds are clothesbrush, clothes-basket, etc., newsboy, newespaper.
790. As regards the use of the different parts of speech in composition, the most noticeable difference between OE and $\operatorname{MnE}$ is the greater freedom with which in $\operatorname{MnE}$ verbs enter into composition with nouns and adjectives, the result of the combination being sometimes a noun, as in break-water, clasp-knife, sometimes a verb, as in browbeat, whitewash, according as the last element is a noun or a verb. But such compounds are still comparatively rare, the main combination of verbs being with particles, as in OE.

## Meaning of Compounds.

791. The general rule of English-as also of Parent Arian-composition is to put the adjunct-word before the head-word, on the same principle of putting the modifier before the modified word as we follow in the group adjective

+ noun. Hence the order in the compound blackbird is the same as in the group black bird.

In such groups as man-of-war, bread-and-butter, on the contrary, the modifying element follows, instead of preceding, and accordingly the stress is thrown on to the second element.
792. In many cases the logical relation between the elements of a compound may be defined with certainty and accuracy. Thus it is perfectly clear that in goldfish the first element defines the second one by stating something that the second element resembles, the compound being equivalent to 'gold-resembling fish,' or more definitely 'gold-coloured fish.' So also it is evident that sight in sightseer stands in the same relation to seer as it does to the verb see in he saw the sights, and that the elements of churchgoer stand to one another in the same relation as church and go do in he goes to church.
793. But in many cases these logical relations are less definite. Thus a water-plant might mean a plant growing in the water, or a plant growing near the water, or, on the analogy of zeater-melon, we might suppose it to mean a plant containing a great deal of moisture, and perhaps growing in a comparatively dry place. The logical relations between the elements of causal and phenomenon-compounds are often difficult to define accurately, even when the meaning of the compound itself is definite, as in sundial, which might be explained either as a 'dial for showing the position of the sun,' or as a 'dial worked-as it were-by the sun instead of by clockwork, etc.'
794. It must, indeed, be borne in mind that this very vagueness is the chief reason why composition is resorted to: it is only by leaving open the logical relations between the elements of compounds that we are able to form them
as we want them without stopping to analyze exactly the logical or grammatical relations between the words we join together, as we might have to do if we connected them together by more definite means, such as prepositions or inflections.
795. An important general distinction between compounds as regards their meaning is the closeness of the logical connection between them. We may from this point of view distinguish between coordination- and subordinationcompounds. Thus in a causal compound the relation between the two elements is an intimate one, like that between the clauses of a causal complex sentence. There are hardly any pure coordination-compounds in English, such a combination as deaf-mute $=$ ' a person who is deaf and dumb' being an even-stress group-compound and not a pure compound.

## DERIVATION.

## Native Elements.

## Prefixes.

796. Some of the OE prefixes are strong (strong-stressed), some weak (weak-stressed). Noun- and adjective-prefixesthat is, prefixes added to nouns and adjectives respectivelyare generally strong, as in 'mis-dêd 'misdeed,' un-ciū 'unknown'; while verb-prefixes are generally weak, as in for $\dot{\delta}$ iefan 'forgive.' When the same prefix is used both with nouns (and adjectives) and with verbs, it generally takes a shortened and weakened form in the latter combination, which is the natural result of its weak stress. The follow-
ing are examples of such pairs of originally identical prefixes:-
-and-ġiet'intelligence' on'gietan 'understand ' -af-punca 'grudge' - or-panc 'device' -bī-gang ' circuit'
of byncian'to grudge'
$\bar{a}$-bencian'devise'
$b e \cdot g \bar{a} n$ ' practise'
797. When a verb is formed direct from a noun or adjective, the strong form of the prefix is preserved unchanged, as in 'andswarian (andswerian) 'to answer' from the noun 'and-swaru 'answer.'
798. Conversely, in a noun formed from a verb the verbprefix is preserved unchanged, as in $\bar{a}$ Thesednes 'redemption,' literally ' loosenedness,' from $\bar{a} \cdot$ līesan 'release,' ' redeem.'

It sometimes happens that a noun which originally had a strong prefix takes the corresponding weak one by the influence of a verb of similar meaning. Thus bigang is often made into be gang by the influence of be gän.
799. In some cases older distinctions between the strong and weak forms of prefixes have been levelled. Thus the weak for- in for dōn 'destroy,' forweorpan 'perish' appears in the earliest OE as fer-, for- being then used only as the corresponding strong form in such nouns as forwyrd 'destruction,' from which it was gradually extended to verbforms. So also tō- in tō•brecan 'break to pieces' is represented by $t e$ - in earlier OE .
800. In the case of these two prefixes the weak stress was kept in the originally weak forms in spite of the adoption of the strong forms. But in some cases the prefix not only kept its strong form when transferred to a verb, but also its strong stress; thus the prefix mis- has strong stress in $\cdot m i s d \bar{o} n$ as well as in misdêd.
801. The prefix $\dot{g} \ell$-, on the other hand, always has weak
stress, not only before verbs, as in géeseon 'to see,' but also in nouns, such as geesihb 'sight,' where it has supplanted an older strong form.
802. Prefixes to pronouns and particles are sometimes weak, sometimes strong.

The following are the most important of the OE prefixes, the strong being marked ( $\cdot$ ).
803. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ - (strong form or-). The original meaning of this prefix was 'out,' ' from,' 'forth,' which may still be traced in such verbs as ārīsan 'arise,' while in many cases it is practically unmeaning-or, at most, emphatic-as in äberan ' carry,' 'endure.'
804. ' $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ - is a shorter form of $\bar{a} w a$ 'always.' It is a strong prefix which is used only with pronouns and particles to give them an indefinite meaning, as in 'ahwwaper ' either of two,' ähwêr 'anywhere,' from hwaber 'which of the two?' and hwồr 'where?'
805. ‘ $\mathfrak{x} \dot{g}$ - was originally $\bar{a}$ 'always' followed by the prefix $\dot{g} e-$ in its older form $\dot{g} i-(808)$, whose $i$ mutated the preceding $\bar{a}$ into $\bar{a}$, and was then dropped, giving $\overline{q_{g}} \dot{\bar{c}}$-. The $\bar{a}$ in this prefix served merely to emphasize and generalize the collective meaning of the $\dot{g} \varepsilon$-, so that $\overline{\sigma_{\delta}} \dot{g}$ - is equivalent to 'all' or

806. be- has $b i$ - for its strong form. It was originally the same word as the preposition be 'by,' whose strong form is the adverb $b \bar{i}$ 'by.' $b e$ - and $b \bar{i}$ - preserve the meaning 'around,' kept also in Greek amphi-, which represents the fuller Arian form of which $b \bar{\imath}$ is a shortening. This primitive meaning is seen in būgang, begän, in which 'going round' developed into the meanings 'worship,' 'cultivate.' The most general function of $b e$ - is to specialize the meaning
of transitive verbs, as in behōn 'hang with,' besettan 'beset,' and to make an intransitive verb transitive, as in bewèpan 'bewail,' bepencian 'consider' from wēpan 'weep,' pencian 'think.' In some cases it is privative, as in beniman 'deprive' [niman ' take '], behēafdian ' behead.'
807. for- is quite distinct from the preposition for; it expresses destruction, loss, etc., as in fordōn 'destroy,' forweorpan 'perish' from dōn 'do,' weorpan 'become,' originally 'turn' [compare Latin vertere], being sometimes only intensitive, as in forbarnan ' burn up.'
808. ge-, which is prefixed equally to verbs, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and particles, has primarily a collective meaning, as in g̀efèra ' companion,' originally 'fellow traveller,' from för ' journey' [faran, 'go,' 'travel'], sebbröpru ' brothers' [bröpor, 'brother'], g̀ehwä 'each one' from hwā ' who?' It is often only intensitive, and often practically unmeaning, as in gemynd 'memory,' 'mind.' As a prefix to the preterite participle of verbs, as in g'ebunden 'bound,' it is really a grammatical inflection.
809. mis- is a prefix both to verbs and nouns, as in mistician ' displease,' misdêd ' misdeed.'
810. of- is cognate with the preposition and adverb of ' off, of.' The strong form $a f$ - has been supplanted by the weak form in such words as 'ofspring 'progeny.' In this word the original meaning of the prefix has been preserved, but in most cases it is only intensitive, as in ofslēan 'kill' [slëan 'strike'], or unmeaning, as in the preterite participle ofbyrsted ' thirsty.'
811. on-, strong and-, as in and-zeyrde 'answer,' literally ' against-wording,' where it still preserves its original meaning of 'against,' being cognate with the Greek anti ' against.' In some words it expresses 'separation,' 'change,' as in on-
bindan 'unbind,' onlūcan 'unlock,' 'open,' onwęndan 'overturn,' 'change to the worse.' In many words it is unmeaning, as in ondrêdan 'dread.'
on-derivatives such as the above must be carefully distinguished from compounds with the preposition or adverb on 'on,' such as 'on-winnan ' make war on,' 'assail', ong'ēan ' against.'
812. tō-: as in tōbrecan 'break to pieces', tōdēlan 'distribute' [dēl 'portion,' 'share']. This prefix always keeps its original meaning of 'separation,' 'destruction,' and is thus easily distinguished from compounds with the preposition $t \bar{o}$ 'to,' such as 'tocyme 'arrival' [cyme 'coming'], to'gadre ' together.'
813. 'un- 'un-' is a prefix to nouns, adjectives, and secondary adverbs, and is generally purely negative, though sometimes intensitive in the sense of 'bad': und $\hat{e} d$ ' wicked deed,' ' crime,' uncūp 'unknown,' unsōfte 'ungently,' 'severely.'
814. In ME $\dot{g} \ell$ - was weakened to $i$-, as in ivére, ibünde $(n)$. It soon began to be dropped in the North-Thames dialects, as in līc' like'=South-Thames ilīch, OE getīc. In Standard ME it seems to have been preserved in poetry for the sake of the metre after it had become extinct in the spoken language. But it has been kept to the present day in enough=ME inōh, OE genög, handiwork (785. 2), ywis $=\mathrm{OE} \dot{\text { g.twiss 'certain,' }}$ and in the preterite participles $y$ clept $=\mathrm{OE} \dot{g}$ geleopod ' called,' yclad. Also through confusion with every in everywhere from OE *äfre ġehwâr.
alike must be referred to the OE ontīc, which had the same meaning as gelūc.
815. In ME the prepositions of and on were liable to be
weakened into $a$ (743). The same change took place with the prefixes of- and on-, and as OE $\bar{a}$ - was shortened to $a$-, all three prefixes were often levelled under one form. This levelling was helped by the fact that already in OE there was a certain confusion between these endings through the vagueness of their meanings in many words. Thus we find in OE $\bar{a} b \bar{z} d a n$, onbīdan 'await,' onwacan and āwacan 'awake,' ondrêdan 'fear,' ofdrâdd pret. partic. 'afraid.' of- was preserved in ofspring through its strong stress. So also and- in andsware, answare. Towards the end of the ME period the prefix $a$ - was dropped in many words, partly through its vagueness of meaning, partly through its indistinctness of sound. It is now preserved only in a few words, such as arise, awake, awaken $=\mathrm{OE}$ ärīsan, äwacan, äwecnian, acknowledge $=\mathrm{ME}$ akn $\bar{o} u l \bar{c} c h e n, ~ t o ~ w h i c h ~ c o r r e s p o n d s ~ O E ~ o n c n a ̄ z e a n, ~$ ashamed $=\mathrm{OE}$ ofsicamod, abide $=\mathrm{OE}$ onbīdan 'wait,' and the obsolete athirst $=\mathrm{OE}$ offyrsted.
816. But those verbs in on- which expressed a definite reversal of the meaning of the verbs they were formed from, such as onbindan, saved their prefixes from being weakened into the ambiguous $a$ - by identifying it with the almost synonymous noun- and adjective-prefix $u n$-, whence the MnE unbind, unlock, and many new-formations, such as unhook, unchain.
817. tō- was preserved in ME, as in tōbreken, tōrenden, but has become obsolete in MnE , though the Bible still has all tobrake his skull, where all is adverbial.
818. for- is still preserved in MnE , as in forbid, forswear, forlorn $=\mathrm{OE}$ forloren, preterite participle of forlēosan 'lose'; but many of the ME derivatives have become obsolete, and for- is no longer a living prefix.

In forego $=$ OE forgān 'go without,' 'forego' the prefix has
been confused with the separable prefix or adverb fore $=$ OE fore ' before.'
819. The mainly noun- and adjective-prefixes mis- and ${ }^{u} n$ - are still living prefixes, being freely used to form new derivatives, such as misadventure, misrepresent, unrest, unlimited.
820. The only old verb-prefix that can be regarded as still living is be-, with which an immense number of new verbs have been formed in MnE as well as ME. Many of these have been formed directly from nouns-French as well as English—such as befriend, benighted, besiege. The noun byword still keeps the strong form, being formed on the analogy of ME bīspel=OE bīspell 'parable'; but such nouns as bystreet, bystander, may be regarded rather as compounds with the adverb $b \bar{i}$. Some nouns have taken $b e$ - from the corresponding verbs, such as belief $=\mathrm{OE}$ gelëafa, the corresponding verb being believe $=\mathrm{OE}$ ġelīefan, Late OE belīefan.

## Suffixes.

821. Of the OE endings some, which contained $i$ or $j$ in Germanic, cause mutation of the preceding vowel, as in gylden 'golden.' When the same ending sometimes mutates, sometimes not, the mutated forms are generally the original ones, the unmutated forms being the result of later influence of the unmutated word from which the derivative was formed. Thus beren 'belonging to a bear'=earlier biren owes its e to the influence of the noun bera 'bear.'

## Noun-forming.

## (a) Concrete.

822. -end '-er' is the noun-form of the present participle ending -ende, and forms nouns denoting agents from verbs, such as hēlend 'healer,' 'Saviour,' sicōotend 'shooter,' ' warrior.' It became extinct in ME, its place being supplied by the ending -ere. But it still survives disguised in friend $=$ OE frēond literally 'lover,' and fiend $=\mathrm{OE}$ fēond 'enemy,' literally 'hater.'
823. -ere, -æ̂re, masc. '-er' forms agent-denoting nouns from verbs: fiscere 'fisher,' leornere 'learner,' from fisician 'fish,' leornian 'learn,' fisiian itself being formed from the noun fisc. bōcere 'scribe' seems to be formed directly from $b \bar{o} c$ on the model of the Latin librārius. In ME the $\hat{e}$ in the form - $\hat{e} r e$ was shortened, and underwent the regular change into $a$, so that in Early ME we find such forms as fischare by the side of fischere. In Late ME there was a good deal of confusion between these endings and the French and Latin endings -er, -ier, -eer, -our, -or, which often had the same meanings as the native ending (915). This confusion was increased in Early MnE by the levelling of -er, -ar, -or, etc. under (ər) [230]. Hence such forms as liar=OE lēogere, sailor compared with a fast sailer [OE ses'lan 'sail'].
824. -estre fem. '-ess': bacestre 'female baker' [bacere ' baker'], teppestre ' female tapster.' In ME this ending, being unstrest, soon lost its final $e$, and the resulting -ster came to be regarded as an emphatic form of eer, and consequently was applied to men as well as women, so that the Early ME feminines bakstere, tappistere developed into the Late ME
masculines baxter, tapster. Many of these trade-names in -ster survive only as proper names, such as Baxter, Brewester, Webster. In MnE this ending is also used to express 'one who does a thing habitually,' generally with an implication of contempt, as in punster, trickster. The only noun in -ster which is still distinctly feminine is spinster, which has, however, lost its meaning of 'female spinner,' being now used only in that of 'unmarried woman.'
825. -ing masc.: earming 'poor wretch' [earm 'poor'] lÿtling 'little one' [l̄̀tel' little']. This ending is specially used to form patronymics, such as apeling 'son of a noble,' 'prince' from apele 'noble,' 'aristocratic,' cyning 'king,' literally 'son of a king,' the underived cyne being preserved only in compounds such as cynehelm 'crown,' literally ' kinghelm.' These patronymics are formed freely from personal names: Scielding, EXelwulfing, Elising 'son of Elisha.' Many of them are preserved as proper names, such as Manning, Harding, especially in place-names, such as Billingsgate, Islington, Reading, so called from the clans of the Billingas 'sons of Bill' etc.

This ending is also found in names of animals, as in haring 'herring,' and in names of things, especially coins, such as scilling, pqning, fëorping (fēorpung, fēorpling) ' farthing,' literally 'fourth part (of a pening) ' from fēorpa 'fourth.'
826. -ling masc. in OE generally expresses affection, familiarity, or contempt: dēorling 'favourite,' from dēore 'dear,' 'precious,' ME derling, MnE darling, hÿrling ' hireling,' underling. There are many others in MnE, most of which are new-formations, such as starveling, worldling, changeling. This suffix is frequent in names of animals, generally expressing youth or smallness, as in youngling 'young animal,' also used in the sense of 'young human
being,' nestling, gosling. Some of these may be of OE origin.
827. -en fem. with mutation: gyden 'goddess,' fyixen 'vixen' from god, fox.

## (b) Abstract.

828. -nis(s), -nes(s) fem. is the regular ending for forming abstract nouns from adjectives: gōdnis 'goodness,' getīcnis ' likeness,' beorhtnis 'brightness.' This ending is still in living use in MnE , being added to foreign as well as native adjectives, as in closeness, graciousness.

Words in -ness only rarely take concrete meanings, as in witness, wilderness.
829. -u fem. with mutation forms abstract nouns from adjectives : len'் $u$ 'length,' br $\bar{e} d u$ ' breadth,' h $\bar{e} t u$ ' heat,' ieldu ' old age,' archaic MnE eld, wr $\overline{\bar{c}} p(\beta) u$ 'anger,' ME wrappe, MnE wrath, from the adjectives lang, brād, hāt, eald, wrāp.
830. -up, -p fem. with and without mutation: treowp ' fidelity,' pīefp ' theft,' ME pēfpe, pefte, from trēowe ' faithful,' pēof 'thief,' slēwp 'sloth,' which in ME became slōupe by the influence of the adjective from which it was formed, namely OE slāw, ME slōw 'indolent.' To ġeogub ' youth ' corresponds the adjective geong 'young.' In ME the ending $-\beta e=\mathrm{OE}$ $-\beta$ was substituted for the equivalent $-e=\mathrm{OE}-u$, as being more distinct, whence the MnE length, breadth $=\mathrm{ME}$ lengpe, OE leng்u, etc. Similarly OE diepe from dēop 'deep' has become depth. So also ME wele, MnE weval=OE wela ' prosperity,' ' wealth,' has developed a secondary form wealth on the analogy of health from OE $h \bar{a} l u$. In ME and MnE some new derivatives in $-t h$ have been formed, not only from adjectives, as in warmth, dearth, but also directly from verbs,
as in growth, stealth, the latter on the analogy of ME peffec 'theft.'
831. -ung, -ing, fem. forms abstract nouns from verbs: bletsung 'blessing,' leornung, leorning 'learning,' rêding 'reading,' from the verbs bletsian, leornian, rêdan. In OE this ending is restricted in its use, and is very rarely used to form derivatives from strong verbs because these are generally provided with other derivatives, such as cyme 'coming,' gang 'going' corresponding to the strong verbs cuman, gān. In ME the use of -inge, -ing was so much extended that at last abstract nouns could be formed with it from any verb, till it finally developed into a purely grammatical form-the gerund (553). In MnE many words in -ing have assumed concrete meanings, such as being $=$ ' creature.' In most cases these concrete words in -ing express either the result of the action expressed by the verb, as in building 'what is built,' ' edifice,' dripting, leavings, or the instrument of the action of the verb, as in clothing, covering, footing 'ground to put the foot on.' In some words -ing has a collective meaning, as in paling, shipping. Some of these words, such as shipping, seem to be formed directly from nouns.

The following endings were originally independent words in OE itself:-
832. -dōm masc. is from the noun dōm 'judgment,' 'authority,' and expresses first 'rank,' and then condition generally : cynedōm 'royal authority,' ' kingdom,' king having been substituted for the less familiar cyne (825) in ME, martyrdōm, crīstendōm, wīsdöm. In MnE there are a few new-formations, such as dukedom. christendom and heathendom have now become concrete. In OE itself lầedōm 'medicine' from lếce 'leech,' ' physician' had a concrete meaning.
833. -hād masc. from the noun hād 'rank,' 'condition,' ' character,' 'nature ': biscophād ' rank of bishop,' ' episcopacy,' prêosthād ' priesthood,' cilldhād, magģbhād ' virginity,' the more familiar magglen being substituted for mag'b 'virgin,' 'maid' in the ME maidenhōd. widwan-hād 'widowhood' is really a group-compound of hād and the genitive of the weak noun widwe. In ME this ending became -hōa with close $\bar{o}$ instead of $\bar{g}$, whence the MnE-hood. The frequent ME form -hē $\bar{d} e,-h \bar{q} d$ is the result of the influence of another ending of similar meaning, namely -ręde from OE -rē̈den (834), the form -höde being another result of these blendings. In OE -hād is used only with nouns, but its ME and MnE representatives form derivatives from adjectives also, such as hardihood, likelihood, falsehood. Many of the derivatives from nouns have taken concrete-mostly collective-meanings, as in priesthood and the new-formations brotherhood, neighbourhood. The ME form -hède is now almost extinct, surviving only in maidenhead and Godhead.
 'regulation,' 'agreement' [connected with ġerēdan 'put in order,' 'arrange' and the MnE ready]: ṡefèrrē̈den 'fellowship,' 'agreement,' frēondrē̈den 'relationship,' ' friendship.' In OE this ending was applied only to nouns. ME keeps many of the OE derivatives, frëndrēde, sibręde 'relationship' $=\mathrm{OE}$ sibbrēden, and on the analogy of these forms the new derivative haterēde, hatrēde 'hatred' [ME hate is a blending of the OE noun hete 'violence,' 'hostility' and the corresponding verb hatian]. The analogy of sibręde, etc. also led to the ME change of OE cynren ! line of descendants,' 'family' [-ren=ryne, ' course,' connected with iernan 'run'] -into kinręde, whence, by the usual insertion of $d$ (200), the MnE kindred.
835. -scipe masc. '-ship,' from a lost noun connected with the verb scieppan 'shape,' 'create': hlāfordscipe 'lordship,' ' authority,' frēondsicipe, weorpscipe 'honour' [weorp noun and adjective 'worth,' 'worthy']. This ending is frequently used in MnE to form new derivatives, especially from personal words, as in ownership, consulship, relationship. In OE it is used to form derivatives almost exclusively from nouns, but in MnE we have such derivatives as hardship, courtship from the adjective hard and the verb to court.

## Adjective-forming.

836. -ede forms compound adjectives from names of parts of the body preceded by a modifying word: sürēagede ' blear-eyed,' literally ' sour-eyed,' brihēafdede ' three-headed.' In MnE this ending has been necessarily shortened to eed, and so has become indistinguishable from the preterite participle inflection.
837. -en with mutation generally denotes material, being also used in the more general sense of 'belonging to': $\bar{e} c i n$ 'of oak' [āc 'oak'], gylden 'golden,' wyllen 'woollen' [wulle 'wool'], hāpen 'heathen' [hēp 'heath']. In beren from bera 'bear,' as in beren fell 'a bear's 'skin,' earlier biren, the $e$ has been brought in from the noun; so also in lèaden 'leaden' [lēad 'lead']. In MnE these adjectives restore the unmutated vowel everywhere, as in golden, woollen, on the analogy of which new derivatives had been formed, such as wooden, hempen. The similarity of meaning between material nouns and adjectives has in some cases led to the conversion of adjectives in -en into nouns, as in linen $=\mathrm{OE}$ İnen 'flaxen' from lin 'flax,' and the tree names aspen $=\mathrm{OE}$ cespe, linden $=\mathrm{OE}$ lind fem.

Some adjectives in -en with mutation were originally preterite participles of strong verbs: druncen 'intoxicated,' ăgen 'own,' fagèn 'glad,' whence MnE fain, from drincan, ägan ' possess,' gefêon 'rejoice.'
838. -ig ' -y ’ corresponds sometimes to Germanic $-i g$, $-\mathrm{i} g$, sometimes to Germanic -ag, etc., causing mutation in the former case, but not in the latter: hālig̀ 'holy' [hāl ' entire,' 'sound '], mōdiog 'proud,' isig 'icy'; hefig' 'heavy' [connected with hebban, preterite participle hafen, 'lift'], bysiğ 'busy,' dysig' 'foolish,' whence MnE dizzy. In MnE this ending has been widely extended, and in many words it has taken the place of the material -en, as in fiery $=\mathrm{OE}$ fyren [fyr 'fire'], clay'ey, gluey, where the Early MnE spelling -ey is preserved, as it regularly is after yowels.
$-i g$ is also a noun-ending, as in bodig ' body,' $\overline{i f g} \dot{g}$ ' ivy ,' hunig 'honey.'
839. -ise '-ish' with mutation-which is sometimes got rid of by the influence of the underived word-is most frequently used to form names of nations, but also in derivatives from common nouns : Eng lisc', Frencisc ‘ French'[Francland ' land of the Franks,' ' France '], Siyttisc 'Scotch' [Siottland, ' Ireland,' afterwards 'Scotland '], Welist 'Welsh '; cierlisie menn 'serfs' [cieorl 'serf ']. folcisi 'popular,' 'vulgar.' In ME some of the names of nations were contracted by omission of the vowel of the ending, whence the MnE French, Scotch by the side of the fuller Scottish, in both of which the unmutated vowel has been restored by the influence of Scot, Scotland. In the other words formed from nouns -ish generally expresses contempt, as in mannish, womanish compared with manly, womanly, childish compared with childike, brutish. -ish added to an adjective expresses simple
diminution, as in oldish, longish, especially with names of colours, such as reddish, yellowish.
840. -sum '-some' forms adjectives from nouns, adjectives, and verbs; wynsum 'pleasant' [wynn 'joy']; langsum 'tedious'; hīersum 'obedient' [hīeran 'hear,' 'obey']. 'There are many ME and MnE new formations : handsome, troublesome; wholesome, wearisome.

The following endings were independent words in Ger-manic:-
841. -feald '.fold' [compare the verb fealdan 'fold'] forms adjectives from adjective-words, especially numerals: manig̀ feald 'manifold,' 'various,' seofonfeald, hundfeald, 'hundredfold.'
842. -full '-ful,' from the adjective full 'full,' forms adjectives from abstract nouns: carfull 'careful,' sorgfull 'sorrowful,' synnfull 'sinful.' 'There are numerous newformations in ME and MnE -some from concrete nouns: artful, powerful, masterful.
843. -lēas '-less' from the adjective lēas 'deprived of,' 'without' [compare forlēosan 'lose'] forms adjectives from nouns and verbs: gelēaffēas 'unbelieving,' slâplēas 'sleepless'; récicelēas 'careless,' from ręcican 'reck.' In ME this ending appears both as -less and as -les with the vowel shortened, which may be due to the influence of lesse 'less,' It is frequently used in new-formations, such as fearless, useless.
844. -lice '-ly': corblic 'earthly,' frēondlic 'friendly,' s'earlicं 'annual.' These derivatives were originally con-version-compounds with lic 'body,' the weak vowel being afterwards shortened, so that wīfic 'feminine,' for instance, meant originally 'having the body or form of a woman'
(781). Derivatives in -lic from adjectives and adverbs are less frequent: lāblic 'hateful,' üplic, upplic 'sublime.' This ending is freely used in new-formations in ME and MnE, as in princely, quarterly, sickly.
845. -weard, '-ward,' from an obsolete adjective connected with weorban $=$ Latin vertere (807), forms adjectives from nouns, adjectives, and adverbs: hāmweard, inneweard from hām 'home,' inne ' wïlhin.'

## Verb-forming.

846. -na is a Scandinavian suffix forming weak intransitive verbs, mostly inchoative and from adjectives, as in Icelandic hvitna 'become white,' harbna ' become hard'' Many of these verbs were imported in ME, such as harpna, which became hardnen by the influence of the ME adjective hard. There have been many new-formations in ME and MnE, some from adjectives, such as giadden, redden, some from nouns, such as lengthen.

The native verbs awaken, fasten are not formed direct from wake and fast, but the OE weak verbs äwacnian, festnian were formed from the nouns weacen 'watching,' fasten 'fastness,' 'fort,' which are, of course, derivatives of wacan ' wake' and fast ' fast,' ' firm.'
847. -sian with mutation : clēnsian 'cleanse,' blocdsian, bletsian 'bless,' from blōd 'blood,' with shortening of the $\bar{x}$, the original meaning being 'to sprinkle (the altar) with blood.' In Scandinavian this ending appears as -sa, as in hreinsa 'purify' [hreinn ' pure '], whence our rinse.
 MnE only in wedlock $=\mathrm{OE}$ weddlāc [wędd 'pledge,' 'con-

'correct.' In ME a new verb cn $\bar{p} u l \bar{q} c h e n$ was formed with this ending from OE cnāwan 'know,' whence in Late ME a noun cnēulē̆che was formed which, by the change of weak ch into (dz) gave MnE knowledge.

## Foreign elements.

849. The foreign derivative elements in English are mainly of French, Latin, and Greek origin. Many which were at first introduced into English in their popular French forms were afterwards latinized, at first in spelling only, but afterwards, in many cases, in pronunciation also. In some cases they were wholly or partially latinized in French itself, though sometimes-in Late Old French-in spelling only. In some cases false etymological spellings of derivative elements of Latin origin were introduced either in French or English, some of which have corrupted the pronunciation.
850. Although foreign derivatives are often so disguised as no longer to be recognizable as derivatives, yet many foreign derivative elements have remained as distinct as the native ones. Many of them are freely used to form new derivatives from words of native as well as foreign origin. Some of them are even detached and used as independent words, such as extra.

## Prefixes.

851. In Latin many of the prefixes are liable to various changes according to the nature of the initial consonants of the word they modify, the full form of a prefix ending in consonants being generally preserved before a vowel, while before consonants the final consonants of the prefix are
liable to assimilation and loss; and these variations have generally been preserved when the words containing them were imported into French and English.
852. The foreign prefixes will now be treated of in their alphabetical order. Specially French prefixes are marked *, Greek prefixes are marked $\dagger$, Latin prefixes being left unmarked.
853. ab-, abs-, a-, 'from, away': ab-erration, ab-rupt; abs-tinent; a-vert. The above are formed from verb-roots. abnörmis, which in English was made into abnormal on the analogy of the Latin adj. nōrmālis, is an example of an $a b$ derivative from a noun-Latin nörma 'pattern.' All the above words were taken directly from Latin or from learned French. In popular French $a b$ - became $a v$-, but the Latin form was generally restored, as in abus from abūsum, whence MnE abuse.
854. ad-, a-, also in the assimilated forms $a g$-, $a f-$ etc., according to the consonant that follows, ' to.' In Old French this prefix was shortened to $a$-, as in aventure 'adventure' from Latin rès adventūra 'a thing about to happen.' The double consonants in such Latin words as aggraväre, assentāre=adgravāre, adsentāre were shortened both in pronunciation and writing in Old French-agrever, asenterdouble $s$ being, however, often kept (assenter) to show that the $s$ was pronounced ( s ) and not ( z ). But in Late Old French the $d$ was often introduced again by the influence of the Latin orthography, whence the spellings adventure, etc. Hence many of these words appear in ME in a variety of forms, one, of early introduction, pure Old French, the other or others more or less latinized, while in some cases the latinized form does not appear till after the ME period. Thus in ME we have aventure and a contracted form aunter,
in Early MnE adventer, which in the Present English has been further latinized into adventure. The double consonants were restored in the same way, sometimes in ME, but generally no̊ till later; thus we have ME agréven, asenten (also assenten) $=\mathrm{MnE}$ aggrieve, assent. Sometimes the prefix $a$ - was made into $a d$ - from a mistaken etymology, as in advance, advantage $=\mathrm{ME}$ avancen, avantäg̀ , Old French avancer being a verb formed from the particle avant = Latin *ab-ante.
855. amb-, -am, an-, 'around': amb-ition; per-ambulate; an-cipital 'two-headed,' ' doubtful.'
856. †amphi- 'around': amphi-bious, amphi-theatre.
857. tan- before vowels and $h+$ vowel, a- before other consonants, 'un-': an-archy [compare mon-archy], anhydrous 'without water'; a-theist.
858. tana- 'up,' 'again,' 'apart,' 'according to,' 'reversal,' etc.: ana-thema, originally 'thing put up or dedicated,' ana-baptist, 're-baptist,' ana-logy ' according to proportion,' ana-gram ' transposition of letters,' ana-chronism.
859. ante-, anti- 'before': ante-cedent; anti-cipate. Freely used in new-formations, such as anteroom, antedate.
860. tanti-' against': Anti-christ, anti-pathy, anti-podes. Freely used in new-formations, such as anti-radical, antispasmodic.
861. tapo-, before vowels ap-, before $h$ aph., the $h$ itself being dropped: 'from,' ' away,' 'forth,' etc. : apo-cope literally 'cutting away,' apo-stasy; aph-orism.
862. bi- 'half,' 'twice': bi-ennial [compare annual], bi-sect. bi-cycle is a newly formed hybrid from Greek kúklos ' circle.'
863. tcata-, cat-, cath-, 'down,' 'through,' etc.: cataract, catastrophe, catalogue; cat-echize; catholic.
864. circum-, circu- 'round': circum-navigate, circumstance, circumspect, circumvent; circu-itous.
865. cis-' on this side of': Cisalpine.
866. com-, con-, co- 'with,' 'together,' being another form of the preposition cum ' with'; often merely intensitive. In Old French the vowel of this prefix was made into $b$ through the influence of cum, which was often lengthened in ME words taken from French, whence the MnE ( $\mathfrak{e}, \mathrm{au}$ ) in comfort, council, counsel etc., the (o) in such words as conduit, earlier MnE (kendit) being due to the spelling. In Old French-as also occasionally in Latin itself-the final consonant of this prefix was often dropped before consonants, whence the MnE covent=convent in Covent Garden [Latin conventiō], covenant. The following are further examples of this prefix: commit, comprehend, comfort [Oid French cŏmforter, cönforter]; convince, conclude, concern, conduct; coincide, cohere; col-league, connect, corrupt. This prefix is used in new-formations, such as com-mingle, compatriot, especially in the form of co-: co-exist, co-tenant. The predominance of the latter ending has led to the change of contemporary into cotemporary; but the former is now preferred, as being nearer the Latin form.
867. contra-, contro-, *counter- 'against,' originally used only to form verbs. The Old-French form is cuntre-, cơntre- with the $o$ made into $o \check{o n}$ the analogy of Old French cŏm-, cŏn-, out of which English counter- has developed in the same way as in counsel etc. But in Old French cŏntrewas often made into contre- by the influence of the Latin spelling. The Latin forms are less frequent than the French : contradict, contravene; controversy, controvert. The form counter- is used not only in French words, such as counterfeit, counterpart, counterpoise, but also in new-formations, such
as counier-attraction, counterbalance, counter-revolution. counter is also used as an independent adverb, as in to run counter. to, being partly the Old French adverb and preposition conntre, partly the detached prefix.
868. de- is partly the Latin (and French) $d \bar{e}$ ' from,' ' away,' also expressing ' difference,' ' negation,' ' completion,' being often only intensitive, which is both a preposition and a prefix; partly French des-, $d e$ - from Latin dis- 'asunder,' 'apart,' which often develops the same negative meaning. de-=Latin dē-: degrade, devious, literally 'out of the path,' dethrone. de=Latin dis- (also dī-, and assimilated dif-): defeat [Latin *disfacere, disfactum], depart, detach.
869. *demi- 'half' from Latin dimidium: demigod, demisemibreve. demy (dimai) is used as an independent word.
870. †di- 'twice': digraph, di-phthong, diploma. The double ss in dissyllable was introduced in French through confusion with the Latin prefix dis-.
871. †dia-, di- 'through': diadem, diameter; diocese, diorama.
872. dis-, di-, assimilated dif- 'asunder,' 'apart,' ' privation,' 'negation.' The Old French form des- [Modern French dés-, dé'] is still preserved in descant 'tune with modulations.' In the other derivatives taken from Old French the Latin dis- has been restored, as in disarm=Old French desarmer, disdain [compare Modern French dé daigner], dishonest, disease. The following are of direct Latin origin: discreet, dissolve, distant; different, difficult. The form $d i$ - is rare in words of French introduction, such as diminish, and not very frequent in words of Latin form, such as divide, dilate, divert. dis- is freely used in new-formations, such as disconnect, disburden, disheartened. In dislike $=\mathrm{ME}$
misliken it has been substituted for a similar-sounding native prefix ; so also perhaps in disbelieve, distrust.
*en-, *em- 'in': see in-, im-.
873. †en-, em-, assimilated el-, 'in': encyclopedia, energy ; emblem, emphasis ; ellipse.
874. †endo- 'within': endogamous 'marrying within the tribe,' endogenous 'growing from within.'
*enter-' between'; see inter-.
875. †epi-, ep-, eph- 'upon': epigram, epidemic; ephemeral.
876. ex-, e-, assimilated ef- 'out of.' The Old French form is es-, Modern French é-. es- has been preserved in English only in a few obscured words, such as essay, escape. Wherever the meaning of the prefix has been kept clear it has been restored to its Latin form in English: exchange from Old French eschangier, extend, extinguish. The other Latin forms are seen in elegant, evade; effect. As $x=(\mathrm{ks})$, an initial $s$ is often dropped after ex-, as in ex-pect [compare re-spect], exude, extirpate [from Latin sūdāre 'sweat,' stirps 'stem']. ex-is frequently used in new-formations to express 'one out of office' etc., as in ex-president, ex-secretary; so also in the adjective ex-official.
877. †ex-, ec- 'out of': exodus ; ec-stasy.
878. †exo-'outside': exogamous 'marrying outside the tribe,' exoteric 'suitable for outer world, for people in general.'
879. extra- 'beyond' is used in Latin chiefly with adjectives: extraordinary, extravagant; so also in the newformations extra-official, extra-parochial. extra by itself is used in English as an adjective and adverb, being either the Latin adverb and preposition extrā 'beyond,' or else the detached prefix. Hence such combinations as extra work,
extra careful, extra-superfine are not derivatives, but wordgroups or compounds.
880. †hyper- 'over,' 'beyond': hyperbole, hyperborean, hypercritical.
881. †hypo-, hyp-, hyph- 'under': hypodermic 'belonging to the parts under the skin,' hypothesis; hyphen.
882. in-, im-, in-, i-, assimilated il- etc. 'un'- with which it is cognate as well as with Greek an--is joined to adjectives and occasionally to nouns. The following are examples of words which had this prefix in Latin itself: insane, insipid, injury ; impious, ignorant; illiberal, immortal. In English this prefix is applied only to foreign words of some length, as in inequality, injustice compared with unequal, unjust. If new words are formed from foreign words by means of English endings, $u n$ - is prefixed, as in ungrateful, undecided, compared with ingratitude, indecisive. But $u n$ - is also prefixed to some words with exceptionally familiar Latin endings such as -able, as in uneatable, unconquerable compared with intolerable, invincible.
883. in-, im-, il-, etc. 'in,' 'into' is mainly a verbformer. The French form of this prefix is en-, em-, preserved in English in such words as endure, engage, envoy; embellish, employ. But in many words of French introduction the Latin form has been restored, as in indite, ME enditen, inquire, imprint. As the spelling makes no difference in the present pronunciation-en-, em- $=(-\mathrm{in},-\mathrm{im})$ it fluctuates in some words between the Latin and French forms, the Jatter being now preferred in such cases of doubt, as in encage, enjoin, entitle, embark, formerly written also incage etc., although impeach now follows the Latin spelling. The following are examples of purely Latin words with this prefix: inaugurate, invade; impel; illuminate, immerse, ir-
ruption 'breaking in.' There are many new-formations with the French form of the prefix : enlarge; embody, enliven. In impoverish and improve the Latin form of the prefix has taken the place of the less distinct $a$-from Latin $a d$-, the former word being the Old French apovrir [Latin *appauperīre], while the latter is a variation of approve=aprove. In a few words, such as inborn, income the prefix is of English origin.
884. inter-, *enter- 'between.' The French form is preserved only in enterprise, entertain, the Latin form having been substituted in all other words of French introduction: intercede, interpret, interval. In intellect, intelligent and their derivatives the Latin assimilation before $l$ is kept, which is disregarded in other words, such as interlude. This prefix is frequently used in new-formations, such as international, intertwist.
885. intro- ' within,' 'into ': introduce, introspection.
886. †meta-, met-, meth- 'with,' 'after,' 'change': metaphysics 'the study that comes after physics,' metamorphosis; method.
887. ne- 'not': nefarious, ne-uter, neutral,
888. non- ' not.' The adverb nōn ' not' is not used as a derivative in Latin, occurring only as the first element of a few group-compounds such as nōn-n̄̄llī 'some,' literally ' not-none.' In Modern French and English it is used as a prefix in such words as nonsense, nonentity, as it already was in Late Latin in nōn-entitās, It is freely used in newformations, such as non-conductor, non-intervention.
889. ob-, o(b)s-, o-, assimilated occ- etc., 'towards,' 'against': ob-stacle, obviate; os-tensible; omit; occur, offend, opposite. In some cases the full $o b$ - has taken the place of an assimilated form, as in obfuscate.

## *par- see per-.

890. †para-, par-, parh- 'beside,' 'against': paradox, paragraph; parenthesis, parody; parhelion.
891. per- 'through,' occurring also as a preposition. The assimilated pel-is preserved in English only in pellyucid. The French form both of the prefix and of the preposition is par, preserved in English only in pardon [Late Latin perdonāre] and parboil. In other words the Latin form has been restored, as in perfidy, permit, pervade. ME parfit from Latin perfectus through French parfait was latinized in ME first into perfit, then into perfect.
*por-, see pro-.
892. post- 'after': posthumious, postpone, postscript.
893. pre- Latin prae- ' before,' French pre-: precept, precede, prefer, prescribe, present, pretend. It is freely used in new-formations in the sense of 'before in time,' as in preconceive, pre-engage, presuppose.
894. preter- Latin praeter- 'beyond': preter-ite, pretermit, preternatural.
895. pro-, prod- 'before,' ' forth,' 'away from,' 'deprivation,' as in profane literally 'away from the temple,' prohibit ' acting as substitute,' as in proconsul, 'relation,' as in proportion. prō 'before,' 'for' etc. is also an independent preposition. There was in Latin an allied prefix por-, as in portendere 'portend.' The popular Old French form of prōand the preposition prō was pur, pör [modern French pour], which was probably a blending of prö and per. This form is preserved in such words as purchase [Latin *pröcaptiàre], pursue; portrait; poursuivant, pursuivant 'state messenger or attendant.' The following are examples of the Latin form : pro-duce, progress, provide; prod-igy, prodigal.
896. †pro-'before': problem, programme, prologue.
897. †pros- 'towards': pros-elyte literally 'coming towards,' prosody.
*pur-, see pro-.
898. re-, red-, 'back,' 'repetition,' as in repeat, 'opposition,' as in resist, having often only an intensitive force, as in rejoice. In French re- often became $r$ - before a vowel, but the full form was restored in English, as in reenter from French rentrer. The fuller form red- is preserved in redeem, redolent, redintegrate. re- is freely used in new-formations, such as reconsider, reintroduce, recover an umbrella distinct from the traditional recover.
899. retro- 'backwards' : retrograde, retrospection.
900. se-, sed- 'apart,' 'away': secede, select, separate; sedition.
901. semi- 'half' : semicircle, semicolon. Also in newformations, such as semi-detached.
902. sine- 'without' : sinecure.
903. sub-, assimilated suc- etc. 'under,' whence a great variety of secondary meanings-' near,' 'behind,' ' following,' ' inferiority,' ' diminution,' ' approaching,' 'help,' ' completion,' the primary meaning also developing into that of 'stealth,' 'secrecy': subscribe, suburb, subsequent, subordinate, subdivide, subvention, suborn; succumb, support, suffice, supply, succour, surreptitious. sub- is freely used in new-formations, such as subcutaneous, subway, especially to express subordination etc., as in sub-committee, sub-editor, sublet, and diminution, as in the adjectives sub-transparent, sub-tropical.
904. subter- 'under': sublerfuge.
905. super- 'above,' 'beyond' became sur- in Old French, which is frequently preserved in Englisb, as in surmount, surpass, surface by the side of its Latin original superficies. It expresses 'beyond in time' in survive, super-
annuated. Its most frequent metaphorical meanings are 'addition,' 'excess,' ' superiority,' as in surname [which is an Anglicised form of French surnom]; surfeit, supernatural, superfluous; surpass, supereminent. The Latin form of the prefix is freely used in new-formations, generally to express 'excess': super-sensual 'beyond the reach of the senses,' super-phosphate.
906. supra- 'above,' ' beyond ': supramundane.
*sur-, see super-.
907. sus- has the same meaning as sub-, being a contraction of subtus: susceptible, suspend, sustain [Latin sustinere through French]. Shortened to su- in su-spect, suspicion.
908. tsyn-, sy-, assimilated syl- etc. ' with,' 'together': synagogue, syntax ; sy-stem ; syl-lable, symmetry.
909. trans-, tra- 'across,' 'through,' ' beyond.' The Old French form is tres-, preserved in English only in trespass, compared with the Latin form of the prefix in transgress. transs- is shortened to trans- as in transcend. Various shades of the primary meaning are seen in such words as transient, transitory, transpire, tra-duce. trans- often expresses ' change,' both of place as in transplant, transpose, and of quality as in transform, translate, travesty. It is used in new-formations, as in Transatlantic, tranship.

## *tres-, see trans-.

910. ultra- ' beyond,' both of place and of quantity and superiority : ultramontane 'beyond the mountains,' that is, 'belonging to the Italian party in the Church of Rome,' ultramarine 'a colour brought from beyond the sea,' ultramundane. Freely used in new-formations to express excess: ultra-radical, ultra-clerical, whence the detached ultra has come to be used as an independent adjective in the sense
of 'extreme,' as in ultra measures, whence the derivatives ultraist, ultraism.

## Suffixes.

911. The foreign suffixes will now be treated of under the general heads of 'noun-forming' etc., and the subdivisions 'personal,' 'abstract,' the suffixes under each section being arranged so that those which consist entirely of vowels come first, and are followed by those that contain consonants in the alphabetic order of those consonants.

## Noun-forming.

## Personal.

912. *-ee is the strong form of French - $e$ from Latin - $\bar{a} t u s$, and denotes the person who takes a passive share in an action or agreement, the corresponding active agent being denoted by -or, -er. Thus lessee is the person to whom a house is let on lease, as opposed to the lessor; so also grantee, legatee, mortgagee. Some of these derivatives have no special active word corresponding to them, such as patentee, referee, trustee. In these words the passive meaning is less prominent, and patentee, for instance, may be taken to mean either 'one to whom a patent is granted,' or 'one who takes out a patent'; and in some cases -ee is a purely active suffix as in absentee, devolee, refugee.

The weak form of this suffix is $-y,-\varepsilon y$, as in attorney $=$ Old French atŏrné 924).
-iff, see -ive under 'Adjective-forming.'
-an, -ean, -ian, -ine, -nt, see under 'Adjective-forming.'
913. -ar, -er, -eer, -ier from Latin -ārius, -āris, Low Latin
-erius, whence the Old French -ier, which in ME became -èr. In ME -èr was shortened to -er when weak, whence such MnE derivatives as officer, prisoner, stranger. In ME it was often levelled under the English suffix -ere, as in scolere, templere. Many words took the ending -ar through the influence of the original Latin forms, some already in ME, such as vicar, others later, such as scholar, Templar. The MnE -eer, -ier comes from the strong form of the French suffix, both forms being freely used in new-formations, especially -eer: cavalier, cuirassier, muleteer, pamphleteer, volunteer.
914. -or from Latin or, *-our from Latin -ōrem, through Old French -ŏr. In Latin this ending is preceded by derivative $t$, which under certain conditions becomes $s$ : imperātor, professor. In Old French the $t$ was weakened and then dropped, leaving a hiatus, as in empereör, sauveŏr (Latin salvätörem). The $t$ was of course kept in learned words of later importation into French, and was reintroduced into popular words when they were latinized, whence the MnE forms autour, author (210), creditor, orator. In Early MnE the spelling -our was still preserved, but we now write the Latin -or even in words that have not been otherwise latinized, such as emperor, tailor, conqueror $=$ earlier emperour etc., though we still write saviour.
915. -or has in many words taken the place of French -er (as also in some English words, § 823): bachelor [Early MnE bacheler], chancellor, warrior $=\mathrm{OE}$ bacheler, Modern French bachelier etc. This is partly the result of -or and -er having the same sound (or) even in Early MnE (230). In some words the opposite change has taken place, as in miner, robber $=$ ME minour, robbour.
-ary, see under ' Adjective-forming.'
916. -ard, -art. Although introduced into English from French, this suffix is of Germanic origin. In the Germanic languages -hard 'hard' in the sense of 'strong,' 'brave,' was a frequent termination of proper names of men, many of which were introduced into Old French, whence they passed into English, such as Richard, Reynard; Renard was originally a man's name-Old High German Reginhart-which was given to the fox in the story of 'Renard the fox,' which was introduced into France in the twelfth century from Flanders. In Flemish the name of the fox is Reinaert, which in French became Renart; and the story became so popular in France that renard is now the only French word for fox, the Old French goupil 'fox' surviving only as a proper name. The name-suffix -ard, -art was soon used in Old French and the other Romance languages to form personal nouns, which were at first nicknames, and had a depreciatory sense. Thus from the Romance forms of Latin cauda 'tail' was formed Italian codardo, Old French cŏart ' coward.' Other examples are bastard, wizard, which were imported from French, and English formations such as braggart, drunkard, sluggard. This suffix is used to express nationality in Spaniard, Savoyard, probably at first with an idea of ridicule. It was also used to form names of animals, as in buzzard, mallard 'wild drake' [formed in French from the adjective male]; rarely to form names of things, as in petard, poniard [Old French poing ' fist'].
-ese, see under 'Adjective-forming.'
917. *-ess, French -esse from Latin -issa denotes female persons and-more rarely-female animals : goddess, priestess, countess, shepherdess, patroness lioness, tigress. Exceptional formations in point of meaning are Jewess, negress; mayoress $=$ ' wife of mayor.' Final weak and silent vowels are omitted
before this suffix, as in princess, negress, votaress from prince, negro, votary. Nouns in -er, -or often throw out the vowel when -ess is added, as in tigress, actress from tiger, actor. Nouns in -erer, -eror, and some in -urer drop the second of these two weak syllables before -ess, as in sorceress, conqueress from sorcerer, conqueror. Similarly in governess from governor. Some words show further changes: abbess, anchoress from abbot, anchorite; duchess (duke), marchioness (marquis), mistress (master).
918. t-ist, Latin -ista from Greek -istês, generally expresses 'trade,' 'pursuit,' or adherence to a party, dogma etc.: artist, florist, chemist, communist, royalist, deist. It is used in a more general sense in such derivatives as bigamist, copyist, provincialist. In tobacconist from tobacco an $n$ is inserted on the analogy of botanist, mechanist etc., in egotist by the side of egoist a $t$ on that of dramatist, both insertions being prompted by the desire to avoid hiatus.

The parallel $t$-ast in phantast, enthusiast.
919. $\uparrow$-ite, Latin -īta from Greek -itès, is used to form names of nations, sects etc: Canaanite, Israelite, Carmelite; jacobite.
920. -trix is the Latin fem. of -tor: executrix, testatrix from executor, testator.

## Diminutive.

921. -ule, -cule: capsule, globule; animalcule-also in the fuller Latin form animalculum-corpuscule. The latter ending was shortened to -cle in French in most words where the diminutive meaning was not prominent, whence the English article, miracle, spectacle etc. But several of them retain the diminutive meaning, especially where $i$ precedes: cuticle ' outer thin skin,' particle.
922. -et, -let. -et forms diminutive nouns and adjectives: circlet, islet, cygnet; dulcet, russet. On the analogy of circlet from circle etc., where the $l$ came to be regarded as part of the suffix, a new diminutive -let has developed itself, which is freely used in new-formations, such as leaflet, streamlet, troutlet. In many words these suffixes have lost their diminutive meaning.

## Abstract.

923. *-y, -ey. -y represents Early MnE, ME and Old French $-i e$ from Latin $-i a$, and is chiefly used to form abstract nouns, as in fury, modesty, perfidy, and in more popular French words, such as company, courtesy, fancy. Some of these words have more special and concrete meanings, such as comedy, family, navy.
$-y=$ Latin $-i a$ is frequent in names of countries, as in Italy, Germany, Normandy, although in most cases the full Latin ending has been restored, as in Asia, India, Austria. $-y$ also corresponds to the Latin neuter ending -ium, as in monastery, remedy, study, forming concrete as well as abstract words.
924. $-y$ is also the MnE representative of weak ME $-\bar{e}$, which when strong becomes -ee in MnE (912). $\quad-y=\mathrm{ME}$ $-\bar{e}$ from French $-e^{\prime}=$ Latin $-\bar{a} t u s$ (945), is sometimes abstract, but generally concrete in a collective sense or in names of districts: treaty ; clergy; county, duchy.
925. It often answers to Old French -ée from Latin (generally Late Latin) -ăta with the same meaning as -ātus: destiny, entry; army, jury; country.
926. The spelling $-e y$ is a mere variety of $-y$, as in Turkey (ME Turkīe), attorney (French -é), journey (French -ée).
$-y$ and -ey represent a variety of other French vowels in isolated words.
927. -ice, *-ess, ${ }^{*}$-ise from Latin -itia, -itiēs, Late Latin -icia, which in Latin were used chiefly to form abstract nouns from adjectives : avarice, malice, notice. The popular Old French form was eesse, kept in ME words such as largesse ' largess' [large ' liberal '], richesse 'riches' (311. r). These suffixes were also used in Old French to form derivatives from nouns, whence the MnE cowardice, merchandise, which has a concrete meaning. There are some English new-formations in -ice, -ise: practice, practise, treatise.
928. -cy, -sy. These suffixes were first developed from the Latin combinations $-t-i a,-c-i a$ in such words as constancy, fallacy from Latin cönstantia (Late Latin constancia): fallācia, themselves formed from the derivative adjectives cōnstāns (cōnstantem), falläx (fallācem). In MnE they are still associated with derivative $t$ and $c$, often taking the place of other endings of Latin origin, especially tion, as in conspiracy [compare conspirator], degeneracy [degenerate], obstinacy $=$ Latin cōnspīrātiō etc. They have the same abstract meaning in many other new-formations, such as intricacy, intimacy, lunacy. from intricate, intimate, lunatic, where the second suffix -ic is disregarded. In these words the $c$ is still felt to be a modification of the derivative $t$, but in the still more recent formations idiotcy [also idiocy], bankruptcy the $t$ is kept before it, so that the $-c y$ has developed into an independent, primary suffix. A special use of these suffixes is to denote rank and office : curacy, magistracy, ensigncy; minstrelsy. Some of the above have also a collective sense. legacy has a concrete meaning.
929. $\dagger$-ad, -id were used to form titles of epic poems, as in Iliad 'the tale of Ilium or Troy,' Aeneid 'the adventures
of Aeneas,' whence many new-formations in modern times, such as Lusiad, Columbiad, the suffix -ad being often used to form titles of satirical poems, such as The Dunciad ' epic of dunces.'
930. The Greek -ad occurs also in other functions, being used especially to form abstract nouns from numbers, as in monad, triad, myriad, and decade with the French form of the suffix.
931. *-ade is a French adaptation of Italian -ada from Latin -ata, of which -ée is the regular French form, as in armée, whence the English army [compare the Spanish armada]. -ade generally forms collective nouns from other nouns: balustrade, barricade, colonnade; sometimes from verbs, as in cavalcade [Italian cavalcare ' ride ']. It also forms abstract nouns from nouns and verbs: blockade, promenade, serenade.
932. *-age from Latin -āticum forms nouns from various parts of speech with a great variety of meanings, the most marked of which are (a) collectiveness, as in baggage, bandage, plumage; (b) profit or charge in relation to the root-word, as in mileage ' payment or allowance for travelling per mile,' also collectively 'aggregate of miles,' postage; (c) action or state (rank, quality): coinage, tillage, voyage: bondage, courage, peerage.
-al, see under 'Adjective-forming.'
933. -ment, Latin -mentum, forms nouns from verbs. It forms abstract nouns expressing action, state, or result, as in argument, emolument, which in Latin means both 'labour,' and 'gain.' So also in many new-formations: agreement, employment, treatment, which are formed from French verbs, and bereavement, fulfilment, which are formed from English verbs. In concrete words -ment expresses sometimes the
means of an action, as in instrument, ornament, sometimes its result, as in fragment, segment.
934. From -ment is formed the adjective-suffix -mental (958), as in experimental, instrumental, whence again is formed the abstract noun-suffix -mentality (047), as in instrumentality.
-in, -ine, see ' Adjective-forming.'
935. -ion (-sion, -tion) from Latin -iō (-iōnem), which forms abstract nouns from verbs: opinion, rebellion; compulsion, passion; education, action. Some have developed concrete meanings, such as nation, legion. The popular Old French form of this suffix was -ŏn, the $i$ being absorbed into the preceding sound in various ways, whence MnE reason [compare the more learned ration], treason. In less familiar words the Latin $i$ was restored, whence the ME forms opiniün, condicioun etc.
936. -ana is used in new-formations from names of persons to signify literary gossip about them, as in Johnsoniana 'sayings of, or anecdotes about Dr. Johnson,' Walpoliana; also publications bearing on them and their literary works, as in Shakesperiana. This suffix is the Latin neut. plur. of adjectives in -änus (963), as used in such phrases as dicta Vergiliàna 'sayings of Virgil' (Vergilius). The detached ana has come to be used as a noun to signify 'collection of anecdotes of celebrities' etc.
937. -ance, -ence from Latin -antia (-ancia), -entia (-encia), which form abstract nouns from the present participle endings -āns, -èns, acc. -antem, -entem (970), as in arrogance, ignorance; experience, penitence. The above words preserve their Latin roots, but most of the derivatives in -ance are of French formation : entrance, grievance.
938. These endings often take on the suffix $-\boldsymbol{y}$ (923),
giving -ancy, -ency, as in brilliancy, consistency by the side of brilliance, consistence. In the case of excellence, excellency there is a difference of meaning. Some occur only in the. longer form, such as infancy, agency.
939. -or, *-our from Latin -or, -örem forms abstract nouns, chiefly from verbs. In MnE the French spelling -our is preferred to the Latin -or, especially in more popular words, the usage being the contrary of that which prevails with the personal ending or (914); but in America the shorter -or is consistently extended to the abstract or-derivatives as well, as in honor=British English honour, parallel with author. The following are examples of this suffix: colour, honour; liquor, splendor. There are some newformations: demeanour, behaviour.
940. The lengthened ending -ory = Latin -örius, -ōria, forms adjectives and abstract nouns-in which $t$, ( $s$ ) precede the ending-such as obligatory, compulsory ; history, victory.
941. *-ry, Old French -rie, arose from the addition of the abstract suffix -ie (923) to the French ending -(i)er (913), as in chevalerie, chivalerie 'body of knights,' 'chivalry' from chevalier 'rider,' 'knight' [Late Latin caballārius]. In English also it was associated with the personal suffix eer through such derivatives as fisher-y. In MnE this suffix is mainly used in derivatives from nouns, and occasionally from adjectives, expressing (a) actions or qualities, as in bigotry, drudgery, pleasantry; (b) condition, as in outlawry, slavery; (c) occupation, trade, art etc., as in casuistry, chemistry, heraldry; (d) the place of actions, occupations etc., as in nunnery, nursery; (e) the result or product of action etc., as in poetry, tapestry; $(f)$ collectivity, as in peasantry, yeomanry.
942. -ure from Latin -üra, which is generally preceded
by derivative $t$, (s). In popular Old French forms the $t$ disappeared, in the same way as in -é (812); thus Latin armātüra becomes in Old French armeure, which in MnE has become armour by the influence of the suffix -our. The $t$ is of course preserved in learned words, such as nature. The chief function of this suffix is to form abstract nouns, generally from verb-roots: figure; departure; composure. It also forms concrete nouns, such as furniture, picture. In some words it has taken the place of $-i r$, -or, as in pleasure, treasure $=$ Old French leisir, pleisir, tresor.
-ese, see under 'Adjective-forming.'
943. $\dagger$-ism, Latin -ismus, from Greek -ismbs is freely used to form abstract nouns expressing action, habitespecially habits of language or pronunciation-as attachment to some creed, party etc.: Anglicism, archaism; despotism, patriotism; Calvinism, conservatism. egotism by the side of egoism owes its $t$ to egotist (918).
944. In Greek this suffix is added to adjectives in -ikos forming the compound suffix -ikismos, Latin -icismus, whence English -icism, as in Atticism, fanaticism, Scotticism, witticism. In the last two -icism must be regarded as a simple derivative, there being no corresponding adjective in -ic.
945. -ate from Latin -ätus, gen. -ātūs expresses office, function, as in consulate, episcopate and the new-formations professorate, being sometimes used to express the holder of the office, as in magistrate, and also in a collective sense, as in syndicate, electorate 'body of electors' (also 'dignity of Elector').
946. -itude from Latin -itūdō forms abstract nouns from adjectives: fortitude, sollicitude. In multitude it has developed a concrete meaning.
947. ${ }^{*}$-ty Latin -tās, -tātem, Old French -te, ME -tē-forms
abstract nouns from adjectives: liberty; variety; antiquity, vanity. -ity is often added in this way to adjective-suffixes, so that, for instance, -city corresponds to -cious, as in capacity (capacious), -idity to -id, as in timidity, -ality to -al, as in reality, -ility to -il and -ile, as in civility, fertility, -arity to -ar, as in regularity, the most regular and frequent correspondence being that between -ble (948) and -bility, as in nobility, durability. The above are all of direct Latin origin. Others have passed through French changes, such as certainty, plenty, pity, property. In some words this suffix has a concrete meaning, as in city, university.

## Adjective-forming.

948. *-ble from Latin -bilis, as in nōbilis ' noble,' tolerābilis 'tolerable,' terribilis 'terrible.' In English -ble is generally preceded by $a$ or $i$-these being the vowels that most frequently precede it in Latin-only exceptionally by other vowels, as in soluble. In Latin it has no very definite meaning, and is used both in an active and passive sense; but in English the passive meaning prevails, -ble being associated with the adjective able from Latin habilis, navigable, for instance, being regarded as equivalent to 'able to be navigated.' So also in admirable, legible, soluble. In some however the suffix has an active meaning, as in durable, favorable; forcible, sensible. There are many new formations in -able, such as unbearable; reliable formed from rely on.
949. There is another suffix -ble of French origin, from Latin -plex (-plicem) '-fold,' which we have in the English word double, treble, the $p$ of the Latin form being restored in triple and in formations from the higher numbers, such as quadruple, and in multiple.
950. -bund, ${ }^{*}$-bond: moribund, rubicund; vagabond, which is also a noun.
951. -ic, French -ic, -ique from Latin -icus and Greek -ikos, forms adjectives, generally from nouns, many of these derivations being also used as nouns, some exclusively so. Thus we have the Latin domestic, public, the Greek catholic, tonic. This suffix also forms part of the Latin compound suffix -atic, as in aquatic, lunatic. There is also a Greek ending -tic preceded by different vowels, in which the $t$ is part of the body of the word : emphat-ic, despotic.
952. -ic is also used to form names of races and languages, as in Celtic (Keltic), Germanic, and new-formations such as Finnic, Hanseatic, formed from Hansa, Hanse-towns on the analogy of Asiatic from Asia.
953. Of the nouns in -ic some denote persons, such as catholic, rustic and the collective public, all of which are also adjectives, and lunatic, which is now used chiefly as a noun; while others denote things, such as tonic, others language, such as Cellic, Gaelic, which however is generally expressed by -ish (985). There are also many which denote arts and sciences, such as arithmetic, logic, music, especially in the plur.: mathematics, optics. In Greek logic was called $h \bar{e} \log i k e ̀ ~ l e ́ k h n e \bar{e}$ 'the reason science,' where the adjective logikos is in the fem., agreeing with tékhne $;$ afterwards logiké by itself was used as a fem. noun, which was adopted into Latin, either unchanged-logice--or with the Latin fem. ending-logica; and from Latin this and the other words of the same kind passed through French into English. In Greek these adjectives were also used as nouns in the neut. plur., as in tà mathematiká, literally ' the mathematical (things).' The MnE use of the plur. mathematics is an imitation of this usage, aided by the English habit of
making adjectives into nouns by adding the plur. $-s$, as in greens, news.
954. Derivations in -ic often take on the adjective suffix $-a l$, the new -ical and the shorter -ic being often used almost indifferently, as in generic(al), mythic(al), poetic(al), while in other cases the addition of $-a l$ is accompanied by a marked divergence of meaning, as in politic $(a l)$, comic $(a l)$. When a word in $i c(s)$ is used exclusively as a noun, the corresponding adjective always takes -al for the sake of distinction, as in music (al), mathematical.
955. $\dagger$-iac forms adjectives-which are sometimes also used as nouns-from nouns, the ending -al being often added, as in the case of -ic (954): maniac, demoniac(al), Syriac.
956. -id forms adjectives from adjectives, verbs, and nouns : acid, fluid, intrepid, morbid, splendid. Some of these, such as acid and fuid, are also used as nouns.
957. t-oid. Greek -eidès from eîdos 'form' makes nouns into adjectives, such as anthröpoeidès's 'having the form of a man.' In Latin Greek $e i$ is written $\bar{i}$, and as the ending was generally preceded by $o$, oid has come to be regarded as an independent suffix in such words as anthropoid ' resembling man,' rhomboid; on the analogy of which there are numerous new-formations, such as alkaloid, aneroid, most of which are nouns.
958. -al. Latin -ālis is a very frequent adjective-ending, as in equal, natural, royal, which is the French form corresponding to the learned regal, both from Latin rēgälis. So also -ial: essential, pestilential.
959. -al is often added to the adjective-suffix -ic (951), the resulting -ical being often regarded as an independent suffix, whence such new-formations as whimsical.
960. -al also forms nouns with a great variety of meanings, such as individual, general; animal; mineral, journal, capital, all of which were originally adjectives, many of them being still used as such.
961. -al is especially used in MnE to form abstract nouns, mostly from verbs, such as arrival, funeral, trial. Some of these-such as funeral-had the same ending in ME, while others had the ending -aille, which is the old French form of the Latin adjective neut. plur. -allia from -ālis. Thus victuals appears in ME in the form of vitaille, which is also the Old French form, from Latin victuālia, which afterwards influenced the spelling of the word.
962. -il, -ile, Latin -ilis, -illis, the former being mainly from verb-roots, the latter from nouns. From -ilis: fertile, fragile. From -ilis: civil, hostile. In gentle we have an English sbortening of French gentil, which was re-introduced into MnE in the form of genteel, gentile being a third doublet which represents the original Latin form gentilis 'belonging to a gèns or family.' The shortening is French in humble, subtle, also written in the more learned form subtile.
963. -an, -ane from Latin -ānus forms adjectives denoting persons, such as human, republican, veteran, many of which are also used as nouns. Others, such as publican and the French artisan, are used only as nouns. This suffix is used especially to form adjectives and nouns denoting religious sects etc., such as Anglican, Mahometan, and nations, as in Roman, American; it has a similar function in Elizabethan.
964. The popular French form of this suffix was -ain, which is preserved in a few English words, such as captain, villain.
965. -ane, as in humane, mundane was in Early MnE a
mere orthographic variant of -an, human and humane being written at random without any distinction of meaning.
966. -ean, French -een, which has the same meaning as -an(e), is a lengthened form of Latin -aeus, -eus, the lengthening -aeānus occurring in Latin itself in some words. By the influence of the English pronunciation of Latin the ending is in most words pronounced (ion), but the older pronunciation, in which the suffix is short and weak, is still kept up in such words as Mediterranean, herculean. Strong -ean in Pythagorean; Chaldean, European.
967. -ian=Latin -iānus also has the same meaning as -an, being especially frequent in adjectives and nouns expressing occupation, rank etc.: historian, musician, tragedian; patrician, plebeian; Christian, presbyterian; barbarian, Italian.
968. -ine, -in from Latin -inus, -inus forms numerous adjectives, some of which are also used as nouns: Alpine, crystalline, elephantine; divine, feminine ; Philistine ; clandes-tine-Latin. The pronunciation (-ijn) in marine, machine is an imitation of modern French.
969. There are many original nouns in Latin -in(e), such as libertine, medicine; dolphin, resin. There is a large number of chemical words in -ine, -in, such as casein(e), iodine. When such words become familiar they are generally written -ine and pronounced with the French ( -ijn ), as in gelatine, glycerine. So also in numerous newly formed tradewords, such as brillantine, butterine.
970. -ant, -ent from the Latin pres. partic. endings -āns (-antem), -ēns (entem), form adjectives and nouns from verbs. Adjectives: arrogant, ignorant; eminent, innocent. Nouns: dependant [adjective dependent], inhabitant, student; torrent; instant, accident. Many words in -ant are French formations:
brilliant, Early MnE, Old French brillant; pleasant; merchant, servant.
971. -lent, from Latin -lentus and -lēns (-lentem); opulent; pestilent, violent.

From these must be distinguished adjectives formed from present participles (969), such as benevol-ent, insol-ent.
-ple, see -ble.
972. -ar from Latin -āris: familiar, regular, similar. The popular Old French form of this suffix was eer, and some of the above words were introduced in ME English with it, such as singuler, but the ending was latinized in MnE .
973. -ary from Latin -ärius forms adjectives and personal nouns: extraordinary, necessary; dignitary, incendiary.
974. -ior. In Latin -ior (-iörem) is the comparative ending of adjectives, which are also used as nouns : inferior, superior, junior, senior.
975. -ese from Latin -ènsis, -èsis forms adjectives and nouns from names of countries: Chinese, Maltese, Portuguese.
976. -ose, *-ous from Latin -ōnsus, -ōsus, which was used to form adjectives from nouns: bellicose, verbose; fabulous, furious, glorious. So also in the new-formations mischievous, murderous.
977. In MnE many Latin words were imported into the written language in the nom. masc. sing. inflection, because that was the one that came first in the dictionaries and grammars, -us-which is the most frequent form of this case in Latin-being written -ous on the analogy of ous=Latin $-\bar{o} s u s$; thus in MnE we have barbarous from Latin barbarus (fem. sing. nom. barbara etc.), the popular Old French barbar
being also the ME form; so also in credulous, obvious. The less frequent nom. sing. masc. ending -is is made into -ious, as in illustrious, scurrilous.
978. *-esque from Italian -esco, Latin -iscus, forms adjectives and nouns: arabesque, picturesque, statuesque. The noun burlesque is also used as a verb.
979. -t, -te, -ate, -ite, -ute. -t often represents the ending of the Latin pret. passive partic., preceded sometimes by a consonant, but generally by the vowel $\bar{a}$, and occasionally by other vowels. Thus the following English adjectives come from Latin passive participles in $-t$ : content [generally made into contented], abrupt; accurate, private; complete; definite; absolute. Others come from Latin passive participles with the Latin change of $t$ into $s$ in certain combinations: dense, diverse. Some of these-such as content-existed as popular words in Old French, the others being afterwards -in English as well as French-formed directly from the Latin passive participles on the analogy of the popular forms. In Latin, adjective-participles in -ätus were sometimes formed directly from nouns, as in the Latin words corresponding to caudate ' tailed,' insensate; and in MnE many more adjectives of this kind have been formed directly from Latin nouns, even where there are no such formations in Latin itself; thus we have lunulate 'shaped like a little moon,' 'crescentshaped' [Latin lünula 'little moon'], angustifoliate 'with narrow leaves.' -ate was also substituted for the French ending of the passive partic., as in affectionate.
980. Many of these adjectives naturally developed into nouns. In Latin itself we have personal (masc.) nouns such as lēgātus 'one deputed,' ' legate'; and in Late Latin cūrātus, which in Classical Latin is used only as an adjective 'careful,' has developed the meaning 'curate.' In Latin we have also
neuter nouns in -um formed from these participle-adjectives, such as mandätum 'what is commanded,' 'mandate,' and Late Latin manüscrīptum ' hand-written,' 'manuscript.' Many others have been formed in modern times, some of which are used only as nouns, some also as adjectives: delegate, favourite; extract, duplicate. Some of these nouns are formed from the Latin pret. partic. of deponent verbs, which have an active meaning, such as adept ' one who has attained proficiency,' from the deponent verb adipīscor 'obtain.'
981. The chemical noun-suffix -ate arose from the Latin technical terms of the older chemists, who called the result of the action of vinegar (Latin acètum) on lead (Latin plumbum) plumbum acêtātum 'vinegared lead,' or simply acêtātum, which was regarded as a noun, whence we now say acetate of lead, nitrate of soda, shortened into mitrate. To express a less degree of chemical action the ending -ite has been arbitrarily formed from -ate-nitrite of soda.
982. In accordance with the general tendencies of English, many of these adjectives were made into verbs; thus, as the adjectives $d r y$ and clear (OE dry $\bar{j} e^{\prime}$, Old French cler) had become indistinguishable from the verbs to dry, to clear (OE $\bar{a} d r \bar{y} g a n$, Old French clairier) so that the verbs seemed to be formed directly from the adjectives, so also such adjectiveparticiples as content, corrupt, separate came to be used as verbs. At first the ending $-t(e)$ did duty for the passive partic. of these new verbs, as in he was contract to Lady Lucy (Shakespere), they have degenerate, but they soon began to take the English inflection -ed, so that a distinction was made between the land was desolate (adj.) and the land was desolated (earlier desolate) by war. By degrees some of the new participles came themselves to be used as adjectives, such as contented, situated $=$ the older content, situate. The
ending -ate having now the function of a verb, it became usual to adopt Latin verbs into English in the form of their passive participles, especially when these were formed in -ătus; hence such verbs as asseverate, venerate were formed direct from the Latin verbs assevëräre etc. without the intervention of an adjective-partic. in -ate, although, of course, it is not always certain in individual cases whether there was such an intervening form or not. This verb-forming -ate was extended to verbs imported from French, as in isolate [French isoler from Latin insuläre, whence the more learned form insulate], felicilate. Lastly -ate has been used to form verbs from Latin words where there was no corresponding Latin verb in -äre, as in incapacilate, formed from Latin capācī̄ās, incapāx, substantiate. -ate is also used to form verbs from words of non-Latin origin, such as assassinate.
983. -ive from Latin -ivus forms adjectives and nouns: active, furtive, primitive; captive, native; allernative, motive. The popular Old French form of this suffix was -if, preserved in MnE caitiff-of which captive is the learned doubletplaintiff. In some of these the ending was afterwards Latinized as in plaintive from plaintif.

## Verb-forming.

984. *-fy, French -fier from Latin -ficäre, a weakening of facere 'do,' 'make,' forms causative verbs from nouns and adjectives (pronouns) : deify, modify; fortify, purify.
985. ${ }^{*}$-ish. Many French verbs in -ir conjugate partly with -iss before the inflections, which is taken from the Latin ending -scō (-ēsco, -īscō etc.) of inchoative verbs. In Old French this $s s=$ Latin $s c$ had nearly the sound ( () , and in ME it was extended to the infin. and all the other parts of the verbs that had it, as in finisshen'finish,' förisshen 'flourish' $=$

Old French fenir [Modern French finir], flörir, ist pers. plur. pres. indic. fenissons, förissons from Latin finire, *finiscere, fiōrēre, flörēscere. So also in abolish, nourish, punish. From such as these it was extended in ME to many French verbs which never had any iss-forms, as in astonish from Old French estoner, distinguish, publish. It was also used in purely English verb-formations, such as famish from famine.

The original Latin inchoative -scere occurs only in words taken directly from Latin or which were Latinized in French : acquiesce, effervesce, efforesce(nt).
-ate, see under ' Adjective-forming.'
988. $\dagger$-ize, -ise, French iser, Latin -isāre, issāre from Greek -izein, is used to form verbs from nouns and adjectives. It occurs in Greek formations, such as agonize, crystallize, theorize ; forms derivatives from Latin words, such as civilize, patronize, realize; from French words, as in authorize; and is freely employed in new-formations, such as galvanize, hypnotize. The spelling -ize in imitation of the Greek form of the suffix has now supplanted the older -ise.

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