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## THE DIALECT OF HACKNESS <br> (NORTH-EAST YORKSHIRE)

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# THE DIALECT OF HACKNESS (NORTH-EAST YORKSHIRE) 

WITH ORIGINAL SPECIMENS, AND A WORD-LIST

## BY

G. H. COWLING, M.A.

Author of A Yorkshire Tyke, Music on the Shakesperian Stage, Eoc.

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## PREFACE

THE following Grammar is an attempt to investigate a modern Yorkshire dialect on a scientific plan. It has been a huge task and has presented many difficulties, all of which I do not pretend to have solved. The basis for my investigation has been the Yorkshire dialect of the fourteenth century, not Old English; for in spite of many modern dialect grammarians, no Northern English dialect is derived from Old West Saxon. I have been able to illustrate its development phonetically by Brokesby's Letter to Ray (pub. 1691), and by Marshall's Provincialisms of East Yorkshire (Rural Economy, p. 303 et seq., pub. 1788); and diplomatically by the Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 and 1684, George Newton Brown's York Minster Screen (1833), reprinted by W. W. Skeat in his Nine Specimens of English Dialects (1895), and by the dialect poems of John Castillo (1792-1845). The result is, I think, a clear proof of the antiquity of the bulk of the dialect, although, as in all modern English dialects, the vocabulary is blended with words borrowed both from the fashionable spoken language ("Standard English") at various periods, and from adjacent dialects.

The dialect offers many interesting instances of local soundchanges, and I believe the phonology will be of value to all who are interested in the development of the English language.

My chief difficulty in the work was to bridge the gap between Rolle's phonology and the dialect of the eighteenth century. Rolle and Marshall are fairly clear, but there is no exact guide
to the sound-values of the vowels in the seventeenth century dialogues. Harder still is it to fix the changes which the dialect underwent in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the absence of dialect grammarians-and it is obvious that the oldtime schoolmaster lacked both the will and the need to teach the correct pronunciation of dialects-all description of voweldevelopment must be largely hypothetical.

When the phonology of modern English dialects has been sufficiently well worked for a comparative grammar of the various groups to be made, our knowledge of the pronunciation of early Modern English, and its dialects, will necessarily be immensely increased. But I do not think this the be-all and end-all of a philological work on an English dialect. A dialect is interesting in itself, and for its peculiar word-forms. An Englishman need not despise the "purer and more historical" dialects of his tongue, "any more than the Greeks despised their own various dialects." I quote from an article on "Classical Education in Modern Yorkshire" by Professor Rhys Roberts (Times Educ. Supt., 7 Jan. 1913). To present an interesting living English dialect, to reveal some of its philological riddles, to trace its ancestry, and, if possible, to create an interest in dialect literature, is the aim of this book.

In conclusion the author gratefully records his debt to his teacher Professor Moorman, to Professor Dibelius of the Kolonial Institut at Hamburg for his friendly inculcation of German thoroughness, and last but not least to Professor Wyld of Liverpool, who, as External Examiner to the University of Leeds, read the original MS., and has since read the proofs of Part I, and made several valuable corrections.

G. H. C.

October 1915.

TO

## FREDERICK W. MOORMAN

POET, PHILOLOGIST, AND FRIEND OF YORKSHIRE
DIALECTS, THIS WORK IS THANKFULLY
DEDICATED BY HIS PUPIL

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Yorks. Dial. The Yorkshire Dialogue, of 1673.
Y. M. Screen. The York Minster Screen, 1833.

York. Mys. The York Plays (ca. 1450).

## ABBREVIATIONS, etc.

| adj. | = adjective | O.Fr. | = Old French |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| adv. | = adver ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | O.H.G. | =Old High German |
| Angl, | = Anglian | O.I. | $=$ Old Icelandic |
| Dan. | $=$ Danish | O.N. | = Old Norse |
| dial. | $=$ dialect | O.North | =Old Northumbrian |
| Fr. | =French | pl. | = plural |
| gen. | =genitive | p.p. | = past participle |
| Germ. | $=$ German, Germanic | pret. | = preterite |
| int. | = interjection | s., subs. | =substantive |
| It. | =Italian | Scot. | = Scotch |
| Lat. | = Latin | sg., sing. | = singular |
| lit. | = literally | Span. | =Spanish |
| lit. Eng. | = literary English | str. | =strong verb |
| L.L. | = Low Latin | Swed. | $=$ Swedish |
| low G. | =Low German | vb. | = verb |
| M.Du. | = Middle Dutch | W.Germ | $=$ West Germanic |
| M.E. | = Middle English | wk. | = weak verb |
| Mod. Eng | = Modern English | W.S. | = West Saxon |
| N.Fr. | $=$ Norman French | $>$ | = became |
| N.M.E. | = Northern Middle English | $<$ | = derived from |
| O.E. | = Old English | * denot | a a theoretical form |

## PHONETIC SYMBOLS

The following list of phonetic symbols may be useful:-

- = the vowel heard in the following words, when in an unemphatic position in a sentence: a, the, of, and, or in the first syllable of alone, aright, across.
s = ' open' $o$ in 'broad,' ' fall,' ' corn.'
- = 'close' $o$ in 'road,' 'foal,' 'cone.'

E =' open' e in 'whers,' ' hair,' 'their.'
e = 'close' $e$ in 'wain,' 'hate,' 'thans.'
$\mathbf{j}=y$ in literary English 'youth,' 'young,' etc.
$\boldsymbol{\eta}=n g$ in 'sing,' ' ring,' etc., or $n$ before $k$ in 'drink,' ' Bink.'
§ $=8 \mathrm{~h}$ in 'shall,' 'ship,' 'wash,' 'lash,' etc.
$t \int=c h$ in 'cheap,' ' choose,' or tch in 'watch,' 'match.'
$\theta=$ th in 'thin,' 'through,' ' lath,' 'with.'
$\boldsymbol{\delta}=\boldsymbol{t h}$ in 'thou,' 'then,' 'this,' ' father.'
$3=8$ in 'pleasure,' 'measure.'
$d_{3}=j$ in 'just,' ' judge.'
$(r)$ indicates that $r$ is silent before a following consonant.
: after a vowel or consonant denotes length.

- after a vowel or consonant denotes half-length.
' indicates that the following syllable bears the ohief stress.
- nnder a consonant indicates that the consonant is syllabic.


## INTRODUCTION

Tre dialect which is here set down is that spoken by agriculturists and their labourers on the Wolds and in the Dales of North-Eastern and Eastern Yorkshire. The district where I have heard the dialect lies within the triangular strip between Whitby, Pickering and Filey. Most of my dialect comes from the neighbourhood of Hackness, a small village on the upper reaches of the Derwent, six miles from Scarborough, and agrees, as far as my ear is a judge, with that which I have heard in Staintondale, Fylingdales, Goathland, and Brompton. The fact that this dialect is widespread proves that we have a genuine dialect to consider, and not a local patois.

The growing subdivision of English dialects is to be regretted in the interests of the dialects themselves. For no local patois can survive in literary dress, without the stimulating influence of a standard dialect which is not only spoken, but read by those who speak it. In order to have a living dialect there must be standard ways of writing and speaking it, and not innumerable deviations. East Yorkshire is luckier than the West Riding in this respect, though it is not owing to dialect literature but to this, that it is a land of grass and tilth where the labouring population changes from farm to farm every Martinmas. A Sherburn lad may find himself at Ayton, a man from Hunmanby may hire himself into Harwood Dale. Nearly the whole male labouring population shifts yearly. On any farmstead the half-dozen labourers come from different heaths, and speak the dialect together. This annual out-wandering has happily tended to keep the dialect fairly uniform over large stretches of the North and East Ridings.

The tillers of the soil who speak this dialect dwell in a pleasant upland country broken by woodland and mere, dale and moorland. On such a countryside one would expect peasants as merry as the Bavarians, or as artistic as the Swiss. Far from this, they are to all outward seeming dull and uncreative. They have no music save the melodion or its modern substitute, the gramophone; and little literature beyond the newspaper. Their houses are severely plain-four square walls of avelong stone on which the old-fashioned 'thack' upheld by wooden 'forks' is now replaced by pleasant red tiles. No carved wood nor decorative colour delights the eye. Whitewash is the only ornamentation. Rough, clean and simple like their indwellers, they stand in a land where every prospect pleases, but where scarcely any manifestation of art exists except plaited horses' manes and tails, artificial flowers and flycatchers made of 'seaves,' or of wheatstraws, and wooden picture-frames for texts or lithographs ornamented with 'chats' and acorns. Even their religion has produced no hymns nor tunes like the melodious harmonies of the Welsh Methodists, or the Manx fishermen, or like the curly Handelian imitations so dear to the chapel-choirs of the West Riding.

Their dialect is like themselves, frosty but kindly. Kindly in its music, its 'ahs' and 'oos,' its 'eeas' and 'ows'; kindly in its use of 'lass,' ' missus,' and 'bairn,' and in such hospitality as is expressed by 'lowance' and 'drinkings,' and 'come thy ways in!' and 'Tak hod and sup, lad!' Frosty is it in its naked directness. "Why do you smoke so much? Don't you know that tobacco is merely a deodoriser and not a disinfectant?" said a pious old maid to a labourer engaged in cleansing a cow-house. "Happen thou's reet, missus," was the reply, "but if thou had to grave amang this cow-cazan and muckment, I lay thou wad want a bit o' bacca to slek t' stour, and all." Frosty is its extreme sobriety of expression. The dialect-speaking Yorkshireman has a horror of committing himself. Perhaps some forgotten Puritan teaching lurks here, the spirit which prefers understatement to even a shade more than truth. The dialect has nothing corresponding to the French épouvantable, or ravissant, to the German kolossal, or to the fashionable English dreadful, perfectly sweet, and the
like. Its nay is nay, but its yea is all being well, happen, or may be. Nothing is 'good' or 'smart,' or even 'fair.' It is goodish, smartish, or middling. Swearing is rarely heard. Bon! Bonnel it on't! Deng! are the limits of profanity, but such spadelike words as belly, bitch, stallion, and the like, are used without a blush. Every labourer knows which is t'arse-end of a cart. Frosty too its hatred of diminutives. Although so like lowland Scotch in some respects, it reveals no affection such as is expressed by lassie, mannie, bairnie, or bithe. A lass is a lass, and no more. Except in familiar names such as Billie, Allie, and the like, this the only living diminutive suffix is never used.

Curious is the multiplicity of words denoting rustic qualities and actions. And each word has its own fine shade of meaning which distinguishes it from its fellows. A fool may be sackless, or gaumless, or gawly, or fond, or soft, or daft, or dased. He is a naffhead, a calfhead, a fondhead, a gawvison, a gaupsimon, a lubber, or a fuzock. Is he conceited, he is cruse, chuff, set-up, or trimmed; is he clumsy, he splauders, bawters, stackers, claims, lumbers, or merely lolls about. There is an immense number of verbs denoting 'to chastise.' Here are some of them-bang, bash, bazock, baste, bat, bencil, bounce, bray, bunch, clout, crack, dab, daub, esh, fillip, hammer, hezle, jowl, nail, naup, nevil, pash, plate; plug, punch, skelp, slug, swipe, tan, thresh, trounce, twilt, welt, wallop, whack-and doubtless others. Perhaps they owe their rise to the flytings which usually take place before a fistic battle. "I'll plate thee" must be countered by "And I'll tan thee," and so on, till the limit of vocabulary is reached when, either the parties close, or the interest is felt to be exhausted, and the rivals hie them home in different directions. Almost equally numerous are the verbs which convey the idea of noisy shouting, though roar, bellow, and'blubber are nearer tears than beil, steven, mal, youl, and skriek.

It is this power to reveal rustic character which makes dialects worth study. More than all the points of linguistic interest, fascinating as many are-the mutations and variations of vowel sound, the fossilised words of dead and gone generationsit is this illustrative strength which caused great writers like

Burns and Scott, Barnes and Hardy, Tennyson and George Eliot, to introduce dialect in order to portray the intense realism of local character. If a race is worthy of literary consideration, its characteristics are revealed in its folk-speech. Actions may speak louder than words, but speech defines character surer than action, for action is common to all men, but dialect is the property of the tribe. Hence a study of dialect becomes a study of human nature.

The scientific interest need not be overlooked. When we read old texts and compare with modern English, we find marked differences in vocabulary, pronunciation and syntax. Dialects often contain missing links in the chain of development from the old language to the new, vowels which have become diphthongs or have otherwise changed in quality and quantity, words which once were fashionable but which are now dead in the literary language. When once the development of a dialect's vowel sounds has been traced, it affords great help in estimating the pronunciation of its ancestral Middle English dialect. But after all, these are trivialities. It is the dialect, as vowel-music, as a rich vocabulary of suggestive and forceful words, which matters. And pity 'tis that it is slowly dying. The causes are obviousschool, snobbishness, the rush to the towns, the lack of dialect literature. It is idle to bewail them.

But, however it may stand with other dialects, the East Yorkshire dialect of the Wolds and Dales will not die immediately. It is too firmly rooted in the soil and its tillers. It may alter in character. It will lose some of its northern characteristics and become more like Tennyson's Lincolnshire dialect, but it will still live on, perhaps eventually merely as a broadened form of Northern English with its long vowels ending in an obscure glide. The dialect has developed beside the standard English of parson and squire; and it is evident that when a dialect word falls into oblivion, it will be replaced by one drawn from standard English. This case needs no proof. If proof were needed, one might instance such vowel developments as are seen in [mi $\cdot \boldsymbol{2 n}$ ] moon; or [bri•ad] broad. These words are now felt to be either too uncouth, or to cause confusion with the similar words mean and bread; and are therefore superseded by the literary forms in
their broad provincial dress. Rolle's will (1340) has fallen and is superseded by the standard which; sike (such) will share its fate; weud (Chaucer's wode) has gone, and mad has taken its place; owther and nowther are retiring in favour of either and neither. The possessive case is coming back into use, and in time broth and podish will cease to be grammatical plurals requiring the plaral pronoun ' they,' instead of ' it.'

The good old Northern words are dying. The only hope for the dialect now is that it shall live beside the English of the educated, or rather that the educated will condescend to be bilingual. The English of the village school must live and let live. As separate languages the dialects are dead already. The only way to revive interest in dialect, at least so it seems to the writer, is to encourage dialect literature. Only literature, and the word is used wittingly to mean the work of men who can write with "fineness and force," can preserve the beauty and just meanings of the rich and powerful dialect words which the present age is forgetting. A knowledge of etymology and rootmeaning is needful, not only to enable one to write a terse and rich dialect diction, but to keep dialect pure from the host of unwarranted colloquialisms, misnamed dialect by the uneducated. Colloquialisms are not dialect, though local glossaries and books on dialect teem with them. Vulgarity is not dialect, though this is a truth which modern writers in dialect do not appear to have grasped. Local familiarity and slang bear the same relation to dialect English as does the dialogue of two patter comedians to literary English. Vulgar idiom is not dialect, it is the debasement of dialect. Dialect exists only where speakers or writers used their native words with deliberate intention and direct meaning. If dialect is not to sink to the banality of local familiar speech, it must be raised by a literature in which dialect is used with truth, vigour, and realism in the representation of homely and domestic scenes.

And now to examine the dialect of Eastern Yorkshire more closely. After an examination of its peculiarities there can be no doubt that it is the descendant of Northumbrian Middle English. The present indicative plural of verbs always ends in -s, when the subject is a noun, as in such a sentence as

T' cloggers comes ivry back-end (autumn). The present vowel representing Old English $\bar{a}$ shows that it was retained into the Middle English period as a:, and not lowered and rounded to the open 0: as in midland and southern English. The equivalent of Old English ō shows a Middle English variation characteristic of the northern dialects. Northern are sal, sud, wad, and mun for shall, should, would, and must; and the use of at as a relative pronoun. Northern are $k$ and $g$ in such words as sike (such), pik (pitch), kist (chest), leaff (chaff), brig (bridge), rig (ridge), and the like. Minor characteristics are the dialect's lack of an adjectival possessive case, except that of the possessive pronouns. Its lack of close long $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{\delta}$, and its love of an obscure glide after long vowels, have given it that rough quality which has won for it the title of "Broad Yorkshire." The peculiarity that it has no close, or diphthongal, $\bar{e}$ or $\bar{o}$ causes substitution of the open sounds in borrowed words; rotation for instance becomes roi'te'afn, commotion becomes ko'mo: $\mathbf{n}$, Another point of interest is that when a word began with a diphthong, whose first constituent was $i$ or $u$, the stress shifted from the first constituent to the second, and the first became consonantal. Thus from iabl came jabl (able); iak (O.E. $\bar{a} c$ ) became jak (oak); urats (M.E. $\overline{\text { otes, }}$ O.E. ātas) became wuts (oats); and iu:k (O.E. hōc) became juls (hook), with a derivative verb, meaning to hook, to pull with a jerk. Perhaps the most curious of its vowel developments is the frequency of i-s This sound represents not only M.E. opeu $\bar{\varepsilon}$ (derived from O.E. $\bar{x}$, éa, and lengthened $e$ ), but also M.E. $\bar{a}$ (from O.E. $\bar{a}$ and lengthened $a$ ), and M.E. close $\bar{\sigma}$ from O.E. $\bar{\sigma}$. This coalescing of six Old English sounds must cause confusion, and is probably one of the reasons for the dialect's decay. Another Northern idiosyncrasy is that O.E. $a$, $e$, and o have not become long in open syllables, as in English, when a suffix containing $l, m, n$, or $r$ followed. This accounts for the short accented vowel in dialect words like water, ladle, fader, brazen, wesel, hesel, broken, and proven. This independent development of vowel sound, has caused many words to differ which in English are pronounced alike. The dialect distinguishes yard (O.E. geard) from yed (O.E. gerd), three feet ; mon (O.E. murnan) mourn, from morn; reet (O.E. riht) right,
from reit (O.E. writan) to write; steel from steal, tail from tale, wark (O.E. weore) work (subs.), from work (O.E. wyrcan), to work.

The basis of the dialect is Old English with a strong blend of Scandinavian words. Romance words of more than two syllables are felt to be foreign. The labourer who imagined that felicity was "summut oot $o^{\prime} t$ ' inside of a pig" may be a fiction, but Saxon simplicity and bluntness is still preferred to the polished diction of "book-learning." Like English, the dialect has lost its power of compounding words-Rolle's wanhope (despair) and umlap (envelop) are dead-partly because of a rooted objection to all prefixes whether English or foreign. The modern shortenings 'bacca, 'taty,'lotment,' 'lowance, are perhaps due to the analogy of such old forms as Rolle's liver (deliver), pistel (epistle), pleyn (complain). English is its love of stock comparisons, like "As breet as a bullace," "As fast as a thief in a mill," "As ram as a fox," "As sour as verjuice," "As brant as a houseside," "As croose as Kit's wife"-whoever that hussy was? English too is its love of letter-rime in such pairs "rack and ruin," " bold as brass," " thick (friendly) as thieves," " top to toe," "chopping and changing," and the innumerable rest.

The bulk of its vocabulary is English, and many words which the literary language has forgotten still live on. In literary English, the Old English word mōd (mind) has become 'mood'; a similar change in meaning has taken place in the dialect in the synonym hycge, which remains as hig, meaning 'sulks,' badtemper. Contrarywise, the dialect has preserved the meaning of rig (O.E. hrycg), our 'ridge,' as back-probably because of the influence of the Scandinavian form hryggr. Old English verbs which survive are remen to remove; steven to shout; chavel to chew; sam to gather; braid to resemble; sweal to gutter; threap to contradict. English are the adjectives dwiny delicate; wankle tottering ; brant steep; and the nouns balk a beam; hollin holly; ivin ivy; lop a flea; neb a beak; trod a path. English too is the use of the verbal infinitive with passive meaning, as $t^{\prime}$ job's to $d o$ for "the work is to be done," and the dialect shows the same freedom as familiar English in its weak forms for the pronouns and prepositions, and the enclitic not, in an unemphatic position in a sentence.

The Scandinavian element is somewhat difficult to distinguish. When the Danes settled in the -bys and -thorpes of East Yorkshire at the end of the ninth century, they found a speech in the Anglian -tons and -hams which differed but little from their own. It is certain that neither race had much difficulty in understanding the other. An enormous number of words were practically identical, and their idiom and syntax were very much alike. Words differed where Scandinavian had ei and au, corresponding to the English long $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{e} \bar{a}-$ O.E. st $\bar{a} n$ against steinn (stone); O.E. lēas against lauss (loose)-or where Scandinavian had th where English had d, as in swarth for sward, or a stopped (hard) $g$ where English had a spirant (soft) $\dot{g}$, as in $d r a g$ for $d r a w$, egg for ey, give for yive ; or $s k$ against English $s c$, as in harsk for harsh, skuttle for shuttle; or a stopped (hard) $k$ instead of a spirant (palatal) $\dot{c}$ as in kirk for church. Practically the only certain signs of Scandinavian origin in the dialect are the ou (from an earlier au) in loup (leap), lous (loose), etc., and the th in words like garth (yard), swarth (sward).

But though not always apparent, Scandinavian exerted an influence in keeping alive English words; dale and bairn for example might have been ousted by the French valley, and infant, or at least by the English child, had not the Scandinavian cognate and similar words given new life to them in the North of England. The Scandinavian pronunciation superseded the English in word-pairs such as snile snail, give yive, slike such, get yete, skrike shriek, gaum yeme. Doubtless both forms existed side by side for generations, and who shall say what subtle choosing preferred the form now in use in the dialect? Sometimes the English word remains, but with its meaning altered by the corresponding Scandinavian word. The word gift, for instance, as Professor Jespersen points out ${ }^{1}$, meant a marriage settlement, or a wedding, in Old English; its present meaning, "something given," is due to Scandinavian influence. Plōh in Old English meant a measure of land, as the name of an implement pleäf corresponds to the Old Icelandic plōgr. Bread was a fragment, dream was joy in Old English, their present meaning is Scandinavian.

[^0]The Norsemen appear to have practised agriculture in North East Yorkshire. A great number of nouns denoting objects connected with the farm are Scandinavian, such as the following names of implements : hesp (a fastening), heck (a hayrack), skuttle and skep (trenchers), poke (sack), stang (shaft), and perhaps wagon too, stee (a ladder); and names of outhouses such as lathe (a barn), and dairy, with its sile for filtering milk, and ken for churning its cream. Connected with sheep-breeding are gavelock (bar used in making folds), gimmer and hog, rig-welted (lying on the backof a sheep), and clip (to shear); relating to tillage are mig (manure), skuffle (to harrow); and the plant names, awn (of barley) and kale. From the Scandinavian, too, come gilt (a sow), whye (a heifer), gelding, and steg (a gander). The Danes have left their mark too on the place-names of East Yorkshire, slack (valley), swang, ing (meadow), keld (spring), beck (brook), how (hill), foss (waterfall), are Scandinavian words, and will last longer than the rest of the Scandinavian element, for literary English is driving unwritten provincialisms out of the field.

Of the Romance element, there is little to be said. Words like natur, pictur, cabbish, manish (manage), pleashur (pleasure), 'liver (deliver), 'plean (complain), seär (sure) are now genuine dialect forms, even though they may represent archaic pronunciations; but for the most part the Romance element in all dialects is borrowed from modern literary English, and needs little consideration in a work on dialects. French and Latin words in English owe their introduction to educated people, and dialect is the speech of the uneducated. Learned words and technical terms must be ruled out at once. At the same time some distinction must be made. It would be absurd, for example, to pretend that words like 'air,' or 'mountain,' or 'bacon' were foreign to the English dialects. And it would be equally absurd to pretend that ' atmosphere,' or 'volcano,' or 'caviare' were native. One general rule is obvious. The speech-feeling of the English calls for words of one or two syllables. It dislikes polysyllabic words. Hence bus, cab, lift (for elevator), wire (for telegram). It is not patriotic like the German. It does not deliberately choose English rather than foreign words. It has lost the will to make compound words of native origin for modern things and thoughts. So of our dialect
we can say that it has readily assimilated French words of one or two syllables, when the literary or 'standard' language has made them popular. It still prefers back-end to autumn, dale to valley, sweat to perspiration ; but it has perpetuated no Germanisms like meal for flour, swine-flesh for pork, or kinsman for relative; and, because it lost its power of forming verbs with adverbial prefixes such as for-, to-, or-, um-, with-, etc., it has accepted without question the numerous Freuch verbs which superseded English compound verbs in the 'standard' language. To give a complete list would be too long a task. My meaning will be clear from such pairs as escape (O.E. æt-windan, to 'atwind'), destroy (O.E. for-dōn, to 'fordo'), conquer (O.E. ge-winnan, to 'ywin'), pervert (O.E. mis-wendan, to ' miswend '), obey (O.E. gehiersumian, to be 'hearsome'). We must rule out of the dialect all technical and scientific terms, legal and political jargon, and philosophical abstractions. What remain are divisions of time, such as season, hour, minute; names of plants and their properties, such as salery (celery), carrot, cabbish, pansy, lily, violet, orange, fruit, flower, branch, juice; names of birds and fishes (beast = animal, must be included here), such as heronsew, cook, pigeon, salmon, trout; food, like vittles, flour, pork, beef, bacon, pie, pastry; names of parts of the house, such as table, chair, carpet, chamber; of dress, such as pocket, cap, beät (boot), trousers, front; of kinship, like niece, cousin, parents, uncle, aunt, family; of trade, like 'prentice, clerk, mason, joiner, labourer, partner, hostler; simple medical terms, such as stumak. (vice belly), vein, nerve, digest; many theological terms, such as sanctify, sperit, save, redeem, salvation; and names of qualities, the introduction of which is perhaps partly due to the pulpit, such as passion, temper, power, conscience, remorse, etc. To these must be added a number of verbs of French origin denoting common actions which superseded more cumbersome English verbs in the Middle English period, e.g. bate, beat, catch, chass (chace), claim, close, cover, create, count, deny, depend, fend, form, grant, join, measure, move, nourish, offer, proffer, pay, part, pass, paint, please, press, purge, rule, strain, tend, trace, vex, etc. Such words as these are felt to be English. They come to the lips as naturally as the most commonplace Teutonic word. They are natural to all modern

English dialects. But the literary English language is exceedingly rich. It possesses a large number of dictionary words, only used in writing. The speech-feeling of our dialect, as I believe of all regional English dialects, is to bar out learned words in favour of the simplest term. It is difficult to set limits. Acquaintance with the living dialect is the only true guide. It is better to undervalue the Romance element in the dialect than to overvalue it. We must not be lured into the Serbonian bog of the development of the Romance element in literary English. Simple colloquial talk must be our guide, and will provide enough examples to reveal the phonology of the dialect.

## PART I

## CHAPTER I

## THE PEONOLOGY OF THE MODERN DIALECT

The Vowels.

1. The Hackness dialect uses the following vowel sounds:

Short a e i o u $\quad$, Long a: i: o: u:, Half-Long $\mathbf{E P D}^{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{u}$,
These half-long vowels only occur in combination with an obscure glide as diphthongs: $\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$.

Diphthongs ai, ei, oi, ou, iu,
Triphthongs eia, iue, oia, vue.
All diphthongs and triphthongs, with the exception of iu [ju•], are 'falling,' that is to say the main stress falls on the first component.
2. The customary tone of the dialect is monotonous and dull. The speed of conversation is drawling, but with strong stress on emphatic words, as in standard English. The 'colour' of dialectspeakers' voices is usually harsh and rough. Intonation follows the Midland rather than the Northern fashion. There is no trace of the characteristic final 'lift' of the Lowlands of Scotland, or the sing-song of Tyneside. The pitch of intonation does not rise and fall so much as in standard English. Long vowels are very long, and are not so tense as the long vowels of standard Euglish. a: and o: are followed by a very short obscure glide, which is not sufficiently marked to call for representation in phonetic spelling. The short vowels are pure and have relatively the same length as their cognates in standard English. Both long and short vowels are longer before voiced than before voiceless consonants. The
c. $\mathbf{H}$.
diphthongs $\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}, \mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, and $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$ are peculiar. Their first constituents are half long and tense. They represent older and presumably 'pure' long vowels $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ :, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ :, and $\mathbf{o}$ :, which have been partly shortened owing to the development of a following glide.

## Short.

3. a mid back lax, like the a in German Mann. Some speakers front this sound to a low front lax retracted, but this is probably due to the influence of standard English. Even in educated speakers the sound is very far from the low front lax æ of standard English, e.g. kæb cab, which sound a Northern Englishman always finds difficult to produce satisfactorily.
bras money; las girl; nasti nasty; jam home; jat gate; t $\int a p$ chap; t $\int a s$ chase; vari very; wad would.
4. e mid front lax, like the e in German Fett.
elp to help; efte(r) after; ket carrion; mebi perhaps; skelp to flog; 日re $\int$ to thrash; we $\int$ to wash.
5. i high front lax, like the $i$ in English bit. The two vowels in piti pity are alike, except that the former is stressed.
brit fiz breeches; find to find; fligd fledged; in to hang; kitlin kitten; stidi steady; wik alive.
6. o mid back lax rounded, like the o in Scotch top, hot, nod, etc. The lips are only slightly rounded. The tongue position is slightly lower than for the o in standard English kout coat, but higher than for the $o$ in hot hot. The muscles are lax.
bon to burn; fotni0 fortnight; frozn frozen; moni many; nobat only; sori sorry; wold world; work to work.
7. $\mathbf{u}$ high back lax rounded, like $\mathbf{u}$ in German und; but without lip protrusion as in standard English put, butcher. This sound is a pure $u$. It is never unrounded to $\partial$ or $\Delta$.
bud but; muסə(r) mother; mun must; nut not; sud should; sum some; $\theta$ ruf through; uni honey; wud wood.
8. a mid mixed lax unrounded, as in standard English bata butter; or $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ wei away. It occurs in unaccented syllables, or as a glide vowel in stressed syllables.
jistedə yesterday; ə'li•ən alone; ə'we'ə away; sakləs silly; $\boldsymbol{a m a}(\mathbf{r})$ hammer.

## Long.

9. a: mid back tense unrounded, like the $\mathbf{a}$ in German Vater, or in standard English father, but somewhat longer. After this vowel there is a short glide $a:^{*}$ which need not be represented in spelling.
a:dn to embolden; ba:d to endure ; ba:li barley; ga:是 yard ; ma:l mile ; wa:d wide ; wa:k (subst.) work.
10. 1: high front tense, as in standard English meet or meat. It is usually a diphthong beginning with lax I and ending in tense j, e.g. myjt meet, might. The representation i: is faithful enough for philological purposes.
di: to die; filld field; i:d to heed; nist night; rist right; sti:pl steeple; wi:l (adv.) well.
11. o: low back tense, slightly rounded, like the long 'open' o: in standard English law, sore. It is followed by a short glide $0^{\circ}$, which is not sufficiently prominent to require representation in spelling. In emphatic syllables the tongue-position is somewhat higher, but the vowel is always 'open'; never the 'close' sound of German Not.
bi'o: to own ; fo:t fault; fosd fold ; los low; no: to know; o:los always; o:d old; 0:l all; so:t salt.
12. u: high back tense rounded, as in standard English brood. It is usually a diphthong beginning with lax 0 and ending in tense w, e.g. duwt doubt. For philological purposes it is better to write this sound as us.
bru: hill ; bu:ns conceit; nu: now; fust to shout; tu:n town; \%u: thou; u:t out.

## Diphthongs.

13. $\varepsilon \cdot \rho=\epsilon$, low front half-tense, followed by a mixed lax glide. In emphatic syllables, the tongue is often raised, but never so high as to produce the $\mathbf{e}$ in standard English eim aim. This $\varepsilon$ is always an 'open' sound.
 graze; me'əst̨ə(r) master; re'ən rain; sle'əsṭo(r) to dawdle.
14. $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{=}=$ half-tense $\mathbf{i}$ followed by a mixed lax glide. The $i$ is almost as tense as the $i$ in Scotch feet.
di•e to do; a'gi'ən again; kli•əz clothes; mi•a(r) mare; mi'əl meal; ni•obodi nobody; pi $\cdot \boldsymbol{\rho}(\mathbf{r})$ pear; si•on soon; ti'ol tale.
15. $u \cdot a=$ half-tense $u$ followed by a mixed lax glide.
bru•at $\int$ brooch; fu•al foal; ku•on corn; nu•atif notice; pu'a(r) poor; pu•at $\int$ poach; $\theta$ ru•at throat; $\mathbf{u} \cdot a l$ hole.
16. $a i=a+i$. This diphthong only occurs finally.
dirai dry; kai cows; skai sky; wai to weigh.
17. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i}=\operatorname{short} \varepsilon+\mathbf{i}$. The first element is lower than the $\mathbf{e}$ in standard English dei day, and fronted further than the a in tai tie. For practical purposes it may be identified with the $\varepsilon$ in Northern English or Scotch pen, bed, pet, etc.
kei key; neiba(r) neighbour ; neis particular; seip to ooze; swsip to strike; reit to write.
18. $\mathbf{o i}=\mathbf{o + i}$. The first element is produced with a higher tongue position than the $o$ in standard English oi, as in point point.
boil to boil ; dzoint joint; koit quoit; oil oil ; point point.
19. $\boldsymbol{o u}=$ short $\rho+\mathbf{u}$. Here the first element is an 'open' back 0, as in standard English not not. The lips are slightly rounded. The diphthong differs from the standard English au in haus house in that the initial sound is produced lower and further back than that $\mathbf{a}$, and is in addition slightly rounded.
douțe(r) daughter; jou ewe; lous loose; nout nought; poul pole.
20. $\mathbf{i u}=\mathbf{i}+$ half-tense $\mathbf{u}$, a 'rising' diphthong, $\mathbf{j u}$ '.
biuk book; biuti beauty; kliu a ball of wool ; niu new; riu to regret; tiuk took.

Initially, it is here written ju:.
ju:s (subst.) use ; ju: $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ youth ; ju:z to use.

## Triphthongs.

21. Eia $=\varepsilon i+\rho$. This sound only occurs before $r$. cio(r) hire ; feie(r) fire; cioron iron; weio(r) wire.
22. iue $=\mathbf{i u}+\boldsymbol{e}$. It occurs only before $r$.
kiue(r) cure; piue(r) pure.
23. olo $=\mathrm{oi}+{ }^{1}$.
loial loyal ; roiel royal.
24. ouə $=0$ u + ә. The sound only occurs before $\mathbf{r}$.
fous(r) four.

## The Consonants.

25. The Hackness dialect employs the following consonants:
$\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{\eta}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{f}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{3}$.
The following scheme may be found useful. From side to side the rows contain sounds produced by the same method of articulation. From top to bottom, the columns contain sounds produced by the same organs of speech.

|  | $\underset{\text { Labial }}{\mathrm{Bi}}$ | LabioDental | Dental. <br> Lingual | Palatal- <br> Lingual | Velar- <br> Lingual |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stopped | pb |  | td, td |  | $\mathbf{k g}$ |
| Nasal | m |  | n |  | リ |
| Lateral |  |  | 1 |  |  |
| Spirant | w | fv | 08, 8z | j |  |
|  |  |  | $\int 5, r$ |  |  |

26. p (breathed bi-labial stop) like English p. It occurs initially, medially, and finally: slight aspiration usually occurs ( $\mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{h}}$ ) before accented vowels and finally.
poul pole; ple'ət to strike; prod spike; stapl staple; lop flea.
27. b (voiced bi-labial stop) like English b. It occurs initially, medially, and finally. After an end $\mathbf{b}$, a slight plosive glide $\mathbf{b}^{\boldsymbol{o}}$ is heard.
bo:k beam; ble'alk yellow; brig bridge; riubub rhubarb; stub to uproot.
28. $\mathbf{t}$ (breathed alveolar stop) like English $\mathbf{t}$. It occurs in all positions, except before $\mathbf{r}$. Slight aspiration usually is heard before accented vowels, and finally.
tan to beat; tiu to tire; mitin meeting; botl bottle; lat lath.
${ }^{1}$ Strictly speaking this is not a true triphthong but the oombination of oi with the vowel in a following unstreased syllable; but since feior and fouer, although originally one-syllabled, are now as disyllabio as loiel and roiel, oie is here classed as a triphthong.

Before $\mathbf{r}$ and -or, $\mathbf{t}$ is articulated against the upper teeth, not against the gums as in standard English; and sounds almost like ${ }^{1}$.

This sound may be described as a short double consonant The first element, applosive, closing the breath, is $\mathbf{t}$, but the final sound heard on releasing the breath is $\theta$. I have thought it best to write it t..
țrust trust; triu true; waṭe(r) water; Sețoda Saturday.
But 'truth' is always pronounced triu $\theta^{2}$.
$t$ is long, and tense, when it represents the definite article before $\mathbf{t}$, also where in a like capacity it represents a final $\mathbf{t}$ or $\mathbf{d}$ by assimilation. This long tense $\mathbf{t}$ is here written tt .
ttun the town; A senttlad I sent the boy; A si:ttdi-a wa snekt I saw that the door was fastened. Also in Ootti thirty; Oottin thirteen; fotti forty.
29. d (voiced alveolar stop) like English d. It occurs in all positions, except before $\mathbf{r}$. A final $\mathbf{d}$ is followed by a slight plosive glide.
di: to die; douli poorly; bodm bottom; bud but; pudin pudding.

Before $\mathbf{r}$ and or, $\mathbf{d}$ is articulated against the upper teeth, not against the gums, and a short double consonant is produced, namely the voiced sound corresponding to $t$, which is here written d.
drupk drunk; dru:p to droop; foḑe(r) fodder; sode(r) solder.
30. $\mathbf{k}$ (breathed velar stop) occurs in all positions, and is like English k. Usually there is slight aspiration before accented vowels, and finally.
ku: cow ; kei key; klag to stick; krop crop; aks to ask; akl to mar in carving; seik such; wik living, lively ; pankin pipkin.

[^1]31. $\mathbf{g}$ (voiced velar stop) like $g$, $g u$ in lit. English gay, guest. It occurs in all positions. After a final $\mathbf{g}$, a slight plosive glide is apparent.
gud good; glad glad; flagstn flagstone; lig to lie; ug to carry.
32. m (voiced bi-labial nasal) like English m. It occurs in all positions, and is syllabic in unaccented syllables after a consonant.
man man; ma:ld mild; gime(r) a young ewe; fre•om to apply oneself; gam game; bodm bottom; bizzm besom.
33. $\mathbf{n}$ (voiced alveolar nasal) like English $\mathbf{n}$. It occurs in all positions, and is syllabic in unaccented syllables after a consonant.
ni:t night; snig to drag wood; oni any; gen to grin; ten ten; frozn frozen; setn (pp.) set; $\int a k n$ (pp.) shaken.
34. J (voiced velar nasal) like $n g, n$ in lit. English sing, think. It occurs medially, and finally, but only in accented syllables.
tey to sting ; lay long; straŋ strong; a'maŋ among; fipe(r) finger ; ajke(r) anchor; ojkot $\int(\mathbf{r})$ handkerchief.
35. 1 (voiced dental lateral) never a 'clear' $l$, usually ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) before $\mathbf{i}$, otherwise ( ${ }^{(1)}$ ). It occurs in all positions, and is syllabic after a consonant.
laf laugh; le'ək to play; litt light; 'olin, holly; wil will; botl bottle; kitl to tickle.
36. w (voiced bi-labial spirant) like English w in wing. It only occurs at the beginning of a syllable, or medially preceded by a consonant, and represents the vowel $u$ in the function of a consonant. The corresponding breathed sound, Scotch and Northern English wh in what, is never used in the Hackness dialect, w takes its place.
wa:m warm; wik living, lively; twilt to beat; kwilt quilt; swi-at sweat; wen when; wat what; wip whip.
37. f(breathed labio-dental spirant) like English f. It occurs in all positions.
fan (pret.) found; firel fool; ofnz often; fift fifth; kaf chaff; ti $\cdot$ ef tough ; leif life.
38. $\mathbf{v}$ (voiced labio-dental spirant) like English $\mathbf{v}$ in very. It occurs in all positions.
vari very; van van; nevi nephew ; tfavl to champ; ni•əf fist; ov of ; iv in ; tiv to; ra:v to tear; twelv twelve.
39. $\theta$ (breathed dental spirant) like th in English thin. It occurs initially and finally, and rarely in a medial position.
-in thin; $\theta$ ruf through; E日il Ethel ; bro $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ broth; mun $\theta$ month; swaO grass.
40. $\delta$ (voiced dental spirant) like th in English then, is the voiced form of $\theta$. It occurs in all positions.
 barn.
41. s (breathed dental spirant) like $c$ or s in English cease. It occurs in all positions.
se'om lard; sin sin; siuge(r) sugar; stevn to shout; slak a dell; spil a pipe-lighter; sti: a ladder; swi-ol to gutter; kesn to christen ; kist chest; brusn (pp.) burst; Orosl a thrush; pos purse; as ashes; aks to ask; gi•əs goose; os horse.
42. $z$ (voiced dental spirant) like $z$ and $s$ in English zone, his, is the voiced form of s . It occurs medially and finally.
iz his; az as; muzl muzzle; ri•azn reason; fuzbo:l fungus; fuzi soft; frozn frozen; wizn windpipe.
43. $\int$ (breathed alveolar spirant) like $s h$ in English ship. It occurs in all positions.

Jap shape; fak to shake; $\int \in \cdot \boldsymbol{e d}$ shed; ne'ofn nation; ef ash-tree; kablf cabbage; manifment manure.

Preceded by $t$, this sound forms a consonantal diphthong $t \mathbf{f}$, like $c h$ in English cheese.
$\mathbf{t} \int \mathbf{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\operatorname { m a }}(\mathbf{r})$ bedroom; tfukl to chuckle; ri•t $\int$ to reach; wat $\int$ watch.
44. 3 (voiced alveolar spirant) like $s$ in English vision, is the voiced form of $\boldsymbol{f}$. It occurs medially, and finally after $\mathbf{d}$ and $\mathbf{n}$.
pliga(r) pleasure ; mize(r) measure; ke'egn occasion; moing mange; ke'əd3 cage; enz hinge; kring to cringe; ingn engine.

Preceded by d, this sound forms a consonantal diphthong d3, like $\boldsymbol{j}$ in English jam.
djsis joist; dyin gin; in'dzoi to enjoy; edz edge, hedge; e'ods age.
45. $\mathbf{r}$ (voiced alveolar spirant) like $\mathbf{r}$ in English try, Henry. It is not trilled. Initially and medially it is fricative, produced by a single push of the point of the tongue against the upper gums. Finally, $\mathbf{r}$ occurs only before a word beginning with a vowel, or if the final $\mathbf{r}$ ends a period. Hence $I$ have thought it best to write r-final as (r). Before consonants, $\mathbf{r}$ is fricative, produced by rolling back the tip of the tongue slightly towards the hard palate. This gives the effect of a 'burr.'
ram stinking ; ri•ət root; brokn (pp.) broken; pra:d pride ; triu true; mare marrow; are harrow; pi'e(r) pear; wațe(r) water; war worse ; pork pork; work to work; bork birch; fork fork; fore furrow; borli burly.
46. $\mathbf{j}$ (voiced palatal spirant) like English $y$ in young. It only occurs at the beginning of a syllable, or medially preceded by a consonant, and represents the vowel $\mathbf{i}$ in the function of a consonant.
juy young ; juk to pull with a jerk; ju:z to use; ju:s use; bi'jint behind; bi'jont beyond; jon that (dem.).
bju'k book; tju'k took; sju'go(r) sugar, and like forms are here written biuk, tiuk, siugo(r).
47. $h$ (glottal breathing) has disappeared from the dialect of Hackness.

Under the influence of elementary education, dialect-speaking people sometimes use it, but in the dialect proper it is never used.
48. The relative length of cousonants differs little from the English usage. Initial and end-consonants are longer than medial consonants. End consonants are longer after short vowels than after long vowels or diphthongs. The liquid consonants are longer before voiced sounds than before voiceless consonants, e.g. 1 is longer in sld (held) than in slp (help). But all these length-differences are so slight that they are only apparent to the trained ear, and the production of them comes naturally to every Englishman. Normally the voiced stops $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}$, and $\mathbf{g}$ are fully voiced both initially
and finally, but after the prefixed definite article $\mathbf{t}$, as in such combinations as tbed the bed; tdog the dog; and tgun the gun, they are partly devocalised, owing to the influence of the preceding voiceless consonant. In this case there is no 'explosion' of the $\mathbf{t}$, only the stop is heard. Double consonants are rare, except tt, which represents the definite article $\mathbf{t}$ before a word beginning with $\mathbf{t}$, or after a word ending in $\mathbf{t}$ or $\mathbf{d}$. Any end-consonant may become long by assimilation with a similar onsound, e.g. a:wuddiol Harwood Dale, but the resulting long consonant is shortened, if it occurs in a compound word which is frequently used, e.g. kubed cupboard; staga $\theta$ stackyard; weskit waistcoat.

## CHAPTER II

## THE PHONOLOGY OF THE DIALECT IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

49. The following description is based on an examination of Yorkshire Middle English, including The Pricke of Conscience, Rolle's Prose Tracts, Rolle's Psalter, and the older Metrical Psalter. These works are all remarkably alike in phonology, spelling, and grammatical forms; though Rolle's prose is almost modern in style, and the Metrical Psalter curiously archaic in word and phrase. The authorship of The Pricke of Conscience is a question which does not lie within the field of this research. My task in this section of the work was not to fix the canon of Rolle's works, but to investigate his dialect; and the use of 'Rolle' to indicate words from The Pricke of Conscience in the chapters dealing with the phonology of the modern dialect in no wise pledges my belief either for or against his authorship. Following the late Rev. R. Morris, I had used the key-word Rolle to denote the language of this poem before I heard of Miss Hope Allen's monograph The Authorship of the Pricke of Conscience. I was content to use the poem as the Middle English text which, excepting the Metrical Psalter, approacbes most nearly the modern dialect here under consideration.

Yorkshire Middle English was a variety of the Northumbrian dialect. Its phonology is remarkably like that of Middle Scots, but the system of spelling used by the Yorkshire scribes was quite different. It remains to indicate some of the peculiarities of Middle Yorkshire spelling, as exemplified in the Metrical Psalter and The Pricke of Conscience. Characteristic are:
(1) Absence of the symbol 3 (yogh). Initially, where Modern

English has $y, y h$ was used. Medially, the spirant 3 was written $g h$, as in literary English; and $e$ and $o$ were written 'pure' before it, that is to say, ogh is never ough, and very rarely is egh written eigh. The spellings eighth, hey, and height occur in The Pricke of Conscience beside the usual eght (eight), hegh (high), and heght (height), but these spellings are exceptional, and are due to the influence of the Midland dialect.
(2) The northern $q u$ - (O.E. $h w$ ) is always spelled $w h$-.
(3) The northern $s c-s c h$ - (O.E. $s c$ ) is always spelled $s h$-.
(4) Long vowels are put in an open syllable by the addition of a mute $e$, rather than indicated by a diphthongal $e$ or $i$ as in Scots, e.g. fode (food) was preferred to foed; sone (soon) to soyn; wele (well, adv.) to weill; though sometimes double vowels were used, as faa foe; leef leaf.

Rolle's Prose Tracts and his Psalter differ slightly. The most obvious differences are the use in the Psalter of the symbol 3 for initial $y h$, and an occasional $q u$ for $w h$; $a g h$ is written (as in the Metrical Psalter) for O.E. $\check{a} g$, where The Pricke of Conscience regularly has the more modern aw.

Although the phonology of Yorkshire Middle English strongly resembled Middle Scots, there were differences. Dr Murray's statement, made in The Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland (p. 29), that ' Barbour at Aberdeen, and Richard Rolle de Hampole near Doncaster, wrote for their several countrymen in the same identical dialect' is not quite exact. This is not the place to make a detailed comparison, but it is certain that there were marked differences. To mention the most obvious: (1) The guttural spirant was falling in Yorkshire ca. 1400. In Scotland it remains still. (2) Anglian $\bar{e}$ remained in Scotland. In Yorkshire, as in the Midlands, M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, from O.E. $\overline{\mathscr{E}}$, took its place. (3) In Scotland, M.E. $\bar{o}$ was pronounced $\overline{\vec{u}}[\mathrm{y}:]$, in Yorkshire it was probably öü. These divergencies alone are sufficient to show that Middle Yorkshire was far from being 'the same identical dialect' as Middle Scots, and a detailed comparison of modern dialects of Scotland with the dialects of North and East Yorkshire would doubtless reveal other points of difference.

## 1. Vowels in stressed syllables.

50. The Northern Middle English (ca. 1350) of the dialect had the following vowel-system:

> Short $a \varepsilon e i o u$
> Long $a \varepsilon e i o n u$
> Diphthongs ai au eu oi ou.

Short.
51. $a$ represented:
(1) Anglian $a, \mathscr{e}$, ea (West Germanic $a$ ) in closed syllables, or in open syllables before a suffix containing $l, m, n$, or $r$, as: barn child; caffe chaff; hard hard; man man; shap shape; strang strong; fader father; hasel hazel ; ladel ladle; watter water.
(2) Scandinavian $a$ in closed syllables: ban to curse; tak to take.
(3) French $a$ in closed syllables, or in open unstressed syllables: partes parts; salme psalm; manérs manners; pastúr pasture.
52. $\varepsilon$, written $e$, and pronounced with the 'open' sound, like Scottish short $e$ in men, pet, etc., represented :
(1) Anglian $e$ (West Germanic $e$ ) in closed syllables, or in open syllables before a suffix containing $l, m, n$, or $r$; as, bren to burn; felle skin; hert heart; werk work; heven heaven; wedir weather; wesel weasel; or $e$ the I Mutation of $a$, as endyng ending; helle hell; hende hands; men men; neh neck; strenth strength; or $e$, the equivalent of O.E. ie, the I Mutation of ea or eo; elde age; eldere older; derne secret; wers worse.
(2) Scandinavian $e$ in closed syllables, or in open syllables before a suffix containing $l, m, n$, or $r$ : bek brook; efter after; kevel to muzzle; herber harbour.
(3) French $e$ in closed syllables, or in open unstressed syllables: ensample example; dette debt; letter letter; emperour emperor; certáyn certain.
53. $e$ 'close' was spelled $e$ or $i$ by the Northern M.E. scribes. It represented:
(1) M.E. $\check{e}$ before dental consonants as: togider together; ette to eat; es is.
(2) M.E. $\check{\imath}$, before $-g h t$, from Anglian seht, eht, as: might; feghtand fighting; right; weght weight.
(3) The lowering of M.E. $i$, from O.E. $y$, in a few words as : bery to bury ; threst, to thirst.
(4) The lowering of French $i$ occasionally as: cete city; pete pity ; preson prison.
54. $i$, spelled $i$ or $y$, represented:
(1) Anglian $i, y$; as bysy busy; bisen example; ilk same; lym limb; thyng thing ; yvel evil ; or $i$, the equivalent of O.E. $i e$, the I Mutation of eo (Anglian io) : shephirde shepherd.
(2) Scandinavian $i, y$; as bigg big; gilders snares; ligg to lie; myrk dark; til to.
(3) French $i, y$; as condicioun condition; firmament; pistel epistle; tyrdunt tyrant.
55. o represented:
(1) Anglian $o$ in closed syllables, or in open syllables before a suffix containing $l, m, n$, or $r$, as: ofte oft ; stok stock ; word word; broken broken; holin holly; open open.
(2) Scandinavian o in closed syllables, or in open syllables before suffixes containing $l, m, n$, or $r$ : froske frog; sloken to quench.
(3) French 0 in closed syllables, or in open unstressed syllables: fors force; groche to grudge; honóur honour; fortone fortune; prophéte prophet.
56. $u$, spelled $u$ or $o$, represented:
(1) Anglian $u$ : son sun; sum some; somer summer; shulder shoulder; tung tongue; thurgh through; wolwes wolves.
(2) Scandinavian $u$ : mun must.
(3) French $u$ in closed syllables: turn to turn; cuntre country. Or in open unaccented syllables: puniss to punish.

## Long.

57. $\bar{a}$, spelled $a$ in an open syllable, $a$ or $a a$, may have been already in Northern M.E. (ca. 1350) partly fronted to $\varepsilon$ : ; for in the modern dialect it has two developments : (1) $\varepsilon \cdot a$ from M.E. $\tilde{a}$, and (2) i$\cdot a$, which indicates that the sound fell together with M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, in the majority of words containing this sound.
M.E. $\bar{a}$ was derived from:
(1) Anglian $\bar{a}$ (Germanic ai): allane alone; brade broad; clath cloth; lade load; mare more; nane none; sare sore; stane stone.
(2) The lengthening of Anglian $\breve{a}$ in open syllables: bale misery; shape to shape; spane to wean, persuade; wake to wake; and before $-m b$ : wambe womb.
(3) Scandinavian $\bar{a}$ : bathe both; bla livid; kale cabbage; krake crow, rook.
(4) The lengthening of Scandinavian $\breve{a}$ in open syllables: dased dazed; tane taken.
(5) French $a$ in open syllables: abate to abate; chace to chase; dam dame; stable firm; state state; variand variant; and before -st ; chaste chaste; taste taste.
58. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, spelled $e$ in an open syllable, $e$ or $e e$, was derived from:
(1) Anglian $\overline{\mathscr{x}}$, the I Mutation of $\bar{\alpha}$ : brede breadth; fere fear; hete heat ; leste least.
(2) Anglian $\overline{e a}(\overline{e o})$, (Germanic au): ded death; ere ear; grete great; heved or hed, head; leef leaf.
(3) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\bar{e}, \bar{e}, \overline{e a})$ before $r^{1}$ : here here; here to hear; nere nearer; yhere year.
(4) The lengthening of Anglian $\check{\text { e }}$ in open syllables : dere to injure ; bere to bear ; breke to break; speke to speak.
(5) Scandinavian $\overline{\mathscr{e}}$, the I Mutation of $\bar{a}$ : sete seat; or Scandinavian $\bar{e}$ before $r$; sere (adj.) separate.
(6) The lengthening of Scandinavian $\check{e}$ in open syllables: nese nose.
(7) Anglo-French open $\bar{\varepsilon}$ (French $e, a i$, ei): ese, ease; mesur measure; clere clear; pees peace; seson season; tresor treasure; or from the lengthening of French $e$ before -st: beste beast.
(8) Anglo-French close $\bar{e}^{1}$ (French $e, i e, e u$, ue) before $r$ : chere face; manêre manner; were war.
59. $\bar{e}$, spelled $e$ in an open syllable, $e$ or $e e$, was derived from:
(1) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\bar{x})$, West Germanic $\bar{a}:$ grete to weep;

[^2]shepe sheep; speche speech; wrebe wrath. In most words containing this vowel in the modern dialect the present sound indicates a M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, as if from O.E. $\bar{z}$ (§ 137).
(2) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\overline{\tau e})$ the I Mutation of $\overline{e a}, \overline{e o}$ : nede, need; nest next.
(3) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\overline{e a}, \overline{e o}, \bar{e})$ before the palatal spirant [c]: dreghe to endure; eghe eye; flegh to fly; hegh high; negh nigh; deghe to die.
(4) Anglian oe, $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\bar{e}$ ), the I Mutation of $\bar{o}:$ fete feet; selke to seek; tethe teeth.
(5) Anglian $\overline{e o}(\overline{e a})$, (Germanic $i u)$ : bede to bid; brest breast; devel devil ; free free; frende friend; tre tree.
(6) The lengthening of Anglian $\check{\text { e }}$ before -ld: feld field; yheld to yield.
(7) The lengthening of Anglian $\tau$ in open syllables: stere to stir; weke week; neghen nine.
(8) Scandinavian $\bar{e}$, as: felaghe fellow.
(9) Anglo-French close $\bar{e}$ (French $e, i e, e u, u e$ ): cheef chief; feble feeble; degrée degree; prophéte prophet.
60. $\bar{i}$, spelled $i$ or $y$, represented :
(1) Anglian $\bar{\imath}, \bar{y}$, as: dry; dwyne to dwindle; fyr fire; life; pyn or pine torment; whilles whilst.
(2) Scandinavian $\bar{i}, \bar{y}$ : ryve to tear; slike such; tite quickly.
(3) French $\bar{\imath}$ : stryf strife ; jaun $\bar{y} s$ jaundice; vice vice.
(4) It was also derived from the lengthening of O.E. $y$, before -nd, as: kynde nature; mynde memory.
61. $\overline{\mathrm{T}}$, spelled 0 in an open syllable, or simply 0 , was derived from :
(1) The lengthening of Anglian $\varnothing$ in open syllables: hope to expect; thole to endure; throte throat; rote to rot; wanhope despair.
(2) Scandinavian $\bar{o}$ as : hordom adultery; more moor.
(3) The lengthening of French $o$ in open syllables: rose rose; suppotse suppose (but not before -er, e.g. proper; povert, poverty; cover to recover), and the lengthening of $o$ before -st : roste to roast.
62. $\bar{o}$, spelled $o$ in an open syllable, $o 0$ or $u$, had probably developed the out-glide $u$ in Northern M.E. and was fronted to the mixed lax position, with rounding [0̈ï]. The first element of the diphthong may, even ca. 1350, have been unrounded, and the sound then would resemble the eiii sometimes heard in such modern affected pronunciations as nëii ai dëünt $\theta i \eta k$ sëüu, No I don't think so, cf. § 159. The sound represented:
(1) Anglian $\bar{o}: ~ b o k e ~ o r ~ b u k e ~ b o o k ; ~ f o d e ~ f o o d ; ~ r o t e ~ r o o t ; ~$ wode mad. Also M.E. $\bar{o}$ before the velar spirant [x] from Anglian $\bar{o} g$, as ynogh enough; drogh (pret. of draw) drew; but $\check{\circ} g$, öh became ou [ou], § 68 (2).
(2) The lengthening of Anglian $\breve{u}$ in open syllables, as foghil fowl ; wone to dwell.
(3) Scandinavian $\bar{o}$ before $k$ : croked crooked.
(4) French $\bar{o}$, oe : doleful doleful; fool fool ; pure poor.
(5) French ü: fortóne fortune; mesúre measure; use to use; vertúe virtue.
63. $\bar{u}$, spelled ou, ow, represented:
(1) Anglian $\bar{u}$ : doun down; lowt to reverence; moute to moult; mouthe mouth; now now; outlawes outlaws.
(2) Scandinavian $\bar{u}$ : bown ready.
(3) French ou, or $\bar{o}$ before $n$ and $r$ : dout doubt; flour flower; powere power; tribulacioun tribulation; colōur colour; emperóur emperor.
64. $a i$, spelled $a y$, was derived from:
(1) Auglian $x g$ : day day; fayn glad; fayre fair.
(2) Anglian eg: agayn again; rayn rain.
(3) Anglian $\bar{e} g$ (O.E. $\bar{\varnothing} g$ ): ayther either; cay key.
(4) Scand. ei (Germanic ai): layk to play; layt to seek; rayke to wander; wayk weak.
(5) Scand. ey, the I Mutation of au: flay to frighten.
(6) French accented ai, ei, as: assayle to assail; desayve to deceive; fayle to fail; mayster master; payne pain; prayse praise; but unaccented ai became open $\varepsilon$, as: sessín season; tresóre treasure.
65. $a u$, spelled $a u$, $a w, a(l)$ or $a(g h)$, was derived from:
(1) Anglian $a g, \bar{a} g$, as: aghen or awn own; draw to draw; gnaghe to gnaw.
(2) Anglian aw, $\bar{a} w$, as: blawe to blow; knawe to know; snaw snow; saule soul; sprawel to sprawl.
(3) Anglian al, as: manyfaulde manifold; alde old; talde told ; cald cold (§96).
(4) Scand. ög, $\bar{a} g$, as: lagh law ; laghe or law low.
(5) French au, as: baum balsam; faute fault.
(6) French $\tilde{a}$ before nasals, as : chaunge to change; chaumber chamber.

Note:-gh was a velar spirant, and the pronunciation of agh was most probably $\boldsymbol{a}^{\underline{\mathrm{U}}} \mathrm{x}>\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{u}^{\boldsymbol{x}}>\boldsymbol{a} u$. The eound X disappeared from the dialect before the early Modern English period, or became $f(6 e e \S 408)$ in the case of laghter laughter, and slaghter slaughter, etc. without the development of the diphthong au.
66. eu, spelled eu, ew, was a rising diphthong, that is to say, the stress fell on the second component. It probably had the value eú-close $e$ (mid front lax) followed by $u$ (high back tense rounded). It was derived from :
(1) Anglian ēaw, ēow: shewe to show; hew hue; new new; treuth, truth.
(2) French eu, eau: beute beauty; rewle rule.
67. oi, spelled oy, uy, represented French oi, ui: ioy joy; oyele oil; poynt point; nuye to annoy.
68. ou, spelled $o u$, ow, or $o(g h)$, had the sound ou, and was derived from:
(1) Anglian $\bar{a} h$, as: outher either; nouther neither; noght, naught.
(2) Anglian ŏh, ŏg: boght bought; broght brought; but $\overline{o g}$ became $\bar{o}$ [öü], § 62 (1).
(3) Anglian eāw, ē$w$ : fou few; four four; trowth truth.
(4) Scandinavian au: goule to yell; how hill; rowt to roar. ou also probably occurred before $l$ in words spelled with ool, as golde gold. See § 117.

Note:-gh was a velar spirant, and the pronunciation of ogh was probably $\rho^{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{x}>\boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{u}^{\boldsymbol{x}}>\boldsymbol{\rho} \mathbf{u}$. The eound X dieappeared from the dialect before the early Modern English period, or became $\mathbf{f}$ (eee §408). Where $g h$ has become $f$, the diphthong ou is not found, but a modern vowel i-e which represents North. M. E. long close $\bar{o}$, e.g. ynogh has hecome $\mathrm{I}^{\prime} \mathrm{ni}$-of.

## 2. Vowels in unstressed syllables.

69. In unaccented syllables, a weakening of the Older English vowels was apparent in Northern Middle English. The Northern infinitive ending, $-a$, bad fallen. A final $e$ was sometimes written, but was not pronounced, except perhaps in poetry, e.g. brest to burst; fle to flee; deme to deem. The present participle ended in -and; e.g. lyfand living; shynand shining; but it is doubtful whether the final $-d$ was pronounced. The past participle ending $-e n$, also an adjectival suffix, remained as $-e n$, or was reduced to $-n$; e.g. awen own; fayn glad. The inflection of the present tense of the verb, -es, was probably pronounced [oz]. The past tenses of weak verbs, which in Old Anglian ended in -id $\mathscr{E}$ and -ad $x$, ended regularly in -ed [od] with loss of the final - 2 . Others ended in $-t$ or -d, like taght taught, or sald sold.
70. The prefix $g e-$, Southern M.E. $y$, was lost entirely in Northern English; bi- remained as by [bi]; e.g. byginning beginning; byhove to behove; bylyve quickly; bytwene between. Anglian $\vec{a}$ (West Saxon on-) remained as $a$ - or $o$-, as abouen above; agayn again; olyke alike; about about; but un-survived, e.g. unnethes scarcely; unstable unstable. The dialect already bewrayed a tendency to dispense with prefixes, e.g. pistel epistle; pleyn complain, etc., but it had borrowed the convenient Scandinavian prefix um- (O.E. ymbe) around, and made frequent use of it, e.g. umgang circuit; umlap to envelop; umset to surround.
71. The usual plural suffix was -es [əz], but eghen eyes; oxen oxen; and shoen shoes formed their plurals with -en [on]. The suffix -er (a sign of the plural in childer children) appeared sometimes as -ir, e.g. eftir after; wedir weather.

Anglian -līč had become -ly [li]: ānly only; ŏpenly openly; $-i g$ appeared as $-y$ [i], e.g. hevy heavy; bisy busy; and the suffixes -on, -ol, -ur, and -ud had been weakened to -en, ell, -er and -ed, as: heven (Cædmon's Hymn, hefæn, heben) heaven; devel devil ; fader (Cædmon's Hymn fadur) father; heved head. The suffix -uळ' fell, like -iđ', to simple -th, e.g. yhowthe youth.

## 3. The Consonants.

72. The Consonant System of the Dialect was as follows: Stops $p b ; t d ; k(c) g$.
Spirants $f v ;$ th (b) ; s (c); sh;gh;h.
Liquids $l, m, n, n g, r$.
Semivowels $y h(3) ; w, w h(q u)$.
Diphthongs ch; j(ge); qu.
73. $p, b, t$ and $d$ represented their Old English, Scandinavian, or Romance originals, and were probably pronounced as in modern English.
74. Initially $k$, the breathed velar stop [ $\mathbf{k}$ ], represented O.E. $c$ before front vowels which were the result of mutation, as: ken keen; kyng king; leye cows; loynd nature; and also Scand. $k$ before all front vowels, e.g. kevel to muzzle; kirk church. Written $c$, it represented O.E. $c$, Scand. $k$, or French $c$ before all consonants except $n$, and before back-vowels, e.g. caffe chaff; cald cold; clote clout; colour colour ; cover to recover. $k$ was probably not silent in the combination $k n$ (O.E. $c n$ ), e.g. knaw to know. It may have been pronounced tn in this position. Scandinavian sk remained, e.g. skoule to scowl; skilles reasons; skyne to shine.

Medially and finally $k$, or $c$, represented O.E. 'palatal' $i$, as mykil much; swylc such; askes ashes; whilk which; rike kingdom ; or O.E. final $c$, as lok a curl; dike dike.
75. $g$, a voiced velar stop [g] as in modern English, represented O.E. or French initial $g$ before consonants, e.g. gres grass; gnaghe to gnaw; groche to grudge; and before back-vowels as gadir to gather; gudes goods. Finally $g$ represented O.E. 'palatal' $\dot{c} g$, as brig bridge; ligg to lie; rig ridge. Scandinavian $g$ remained in all positions, whereas O.E. medial $g$ had become vocalised, e.g. get to get, beget; swelge (O.I. swelga) to swallow; goule to howl; rogg to tear.
76. $f$ was probably always the breathed labio-dental spirant, and not voiced as in Southern English. It represented O.E., Scand., or Romance $f$. Probably it remained voiceless in a final
position in infinitives, where the characteristic inflexion $-a$ (-an) had fallen, e.g. lefe to leave; shrife to shrive. Here the final $e$ was ouly a device to indicate the length of the root-vowel, and was probably not pronounced.
77. $v$ was the corresponding voiced sound, and represented O.E. $f$ between vowels, as heven heaven; hevy heavy; even even; or French $v$, e.g. vayne vein; variand, varying.
78. th represented O.E. p, \%, or Scand. \%. It was usually written $p$ at the beginning of a word, and th in other positions. Initially and finally it was a voiceless (breathed) sound [ $\theta$ ], e.g. pir these; thurgh through; brete to threaten; tebe teeth; bathe both. Between vowels it was voiced [ $\delta$ ], e.g. wethir whether; (be)tother the other; outher either.
79. $s$ [s] represented O.E., Scand., or French $s$, also French medial -ce, e.g. sare sore; sere various; chace [ $\left.\mathrm{t} \int \mathrm{a}: \mathrm{s}\right]$ to chase. It was voiced to $\mathbf{z}$ : (1) in inflexions, as rotes [röütez] roots; fyngers [finorz] fingers; partes [partoz] parts; hynges [hijoz] it hangs; wellkes [welkəz] withers; and probably in us [əz] us; es [əz] is; and has [əz] in unemphatic positions; (2) between vowels, as mesur [me'zöür] measure; dased dazed; ese (O.Fr. aise) pleasure. Romance $c$ before front vowels was pronounced s, as certayn [sertain] certain.
80. $s h$, sometimes also spelled $s c h$ [ $]$ ], represented O.E. $s \dot{c}$-, as shap shape; shote to shoot; shrife to shrive; sho she; bischop bishop; fissch fish; wesch to wash, except in sal shall, and suld should. It also represented O.Fr. medial ss, -iss, e.g. ravissche to ravish.
81. $g l h$ was the regular spelling of O.E. medial and final $h$, as light light; weght weight; neghe nigh. But it also represented the O.E. voiced spirant postvocalic $g$, as neghen nine; foghil fowl. After back vowels it was evidently the breathed velar spirant $[\chi]$ (probably articulated very slightly), for it had induced an $u$-glide before it, and was in process of being absorbed by it, as is shown by the alternative spellings aghen or awn own ; laghe or law low; boghe or bow to bend; foghil or foul fowl. The scribe of Rolle's Psalter preferred the $g h$ spellings, but the writer of The Pricke of

Conscience used mainly $w$. We may suppose the change to have been as follows: laghe $[\mathbf{l a} \chi]>\left[\mathbf{l a}^{\mathrm{n}} \chi\right]>[\mathbf{l a w} \chi]>$ law $[\mathbf{l a u}]$; or,


After front vowels we may suppose that the sound was fronted to become the breathed palatal spirant [c]. An $i$-glide was developed after the open $\varepsilon$ in Midland forms as is shown by the rare spellings height (Pricke of Conscience) and hey (Psalter) for 'height' and 'high' (O.E. héah). The development would be O.E. héah $>[\mathbf{h e : c} \mathbf{c}]>\left[\mathbf{h e}^{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{c}\right]>\left[\mathbf{h \varepsilon i} \mathbf{i}^{\mathbf{c}}\right]>h e y[\mathbf{h} \mathbf{i}]^{{ }^{2}}$.

After the close $\bar{e}$, which was regular in Northern M.E. before $g h$, and after short $i$, the sound fell, and the preceding vowels became lengthened to the long close $\bar{e}$. Rolle's neghen was probably ne:çən. His light was probably [leçt]. But the spirant sounds indicated by $g h$ were falling as early as the fourteenth century, as Rolle's spellings, did died; hey high; nest (superlative of neghe nigh) next; and awn, bow, and law, mentioned above, indicate. Minot (ca. 1350) has once ine (eyes) riming with 'pine,' instead of the usual 'eghen.' He rimes dy (North M.E. deghe), to die, with 'company.'
82. The glottal breathing, $h$, was probably sounded, though there is no clear evidence. In the modern dialects of Lowland Scotland and Northumberland it remains", but it is not heard in the dialects of North and East Yorkshire.
83. The liquids $l, m, n, r$ and $n g$ [ $\square$ ] represented their O.E., Scand., or French originals, and were voiced as in Modern English. $l, r$, and $n$ also represented the O.E. and Scand. initial breathed sounds spelled $h l, h r$, and $h n$, which had become voiced, e.g. laghter laughter; rowt to shout; nit louse. $n$ before $k$ or $g$ was pronounced $\eta$ as in Modern English.
$r$ was probably trilled as in Modern Scotch dialects. There was no metathesis of O.E. $r$ in bren to burn; bridde bird; crud curd; thrid third; and thurgh through.
84. $y h$, spelled also 3 sometimes in Rolle's Psalter, was probably the voiced palatal spirant [j], Mod. Eng. $y$, as in 'you.' It represented: (1) O.E. $g e, g i(=$ Germanic $j)$ as yhowthe youth;

[^3]yhe ye ; yhere year; or (2) O.E. $g$ as a palatal voiced spirant before front vowels, e.g. yheld to pay; yhell to yell; zate gate. It only occurred initially, and the spelling $y h$ was designed to prevent confusion with $y$, the variant spelling of $i$, e.g. ynogh enough; yvels evils; hey high.
85. was voiced as in Modern English, but the voiceless sound (O.E. $h w$ ) remained, and was written $w h$ or sometimes $q u$, as whele wheel; whilk or quilk which. Probably this voiceless sound was becoming voiced (as in the modern dialect) as early as the fourteenth century. The spellings wethir whether; warso wheresoever, indicate this. It may have been pronounced before consonants, as wlatsome loathsome; wrebe wrath (subs.), but the spelling latsome occurs, indicating that $w$ was not always sounded in this position.
86. ch [tf], as in Modern English, represented O.E. 'palatal' $\dot{c}$ before front vowels, as chyn chin; cheese to choose. It is necessary to remember that O.E. c before front vowels which resulted from the mutation of back vowels was preserved as $k$, e.g. kyng king; ken keen; ch also stood for O.Fr. oh as chace to chase; chaunge to change; riche rich.
87. $j$ [dz] represented O.French $j$ initially, as jaunys jaundice; joy joy. Medially and finally the same sound was written -ge, e.g. chaunge change; age age.
88. $q u$ was pronounced $\mathbf{k w}$ and represented Romance $q u$, O.E. $c w$ or Scand. $k v$, e.g. quite to requite; quakand quaking. This $q u[\mathbf{k w}]$ must be differentiated from the voiceless $w(\S 85)$, which was sometimes spelled with $q u$ in Hampole's Psalter, in imitation of the Scotch scribes who regularly wrote $q u$ for $w h$, cf. Barbour's quhen when; quhile while; quhethir whether. The English spelling was wh.

## CHAPTER III

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MIDDLE ENGLISH VOWELS IN STRESSED SYLLABLES

## The English Element

89. The object of the following chapter is to trace the development of the present vowel system of the dialect. I begin from Middle English because, after working out the development from Old English, Scandinavian, and Anglo-French, I found such confusion and repetition in the huge mass of material I had collected, that I felt I must resort to a basis which would afford some regular system for the classification of the multitude of vowel sounds which it was necessary to work out in a speech compounded of at least three national elements. This unity I found in Middle English. After consideration, I decided to leave out, as far as practicable, all dialect forms which agree with the 'standard' English of the nineteenth century, for we can never definitely say that they have not been borrowed from the educated speech, if not of this generation, of the generations which influenced the dialect during the late eighteenth and the whole of the nineteenth century. Their value is doubtful, and such forms are only included, either where genuine dialect words could not be brought forward to illustrate, or where it was necessary to state that the dialect development of a given Middle English sound agrees with the standard development.

## 1. Short Vowels.

M.E. $a$.
90. M.E. a remains in the dialect as $\boldsymbol{a}$, except that in some instances it has become e before dental consonants. There has
been no lengthening before the voiceless spirants $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}$, no nasalisation of $a$ to 0 before $\eta$, and no rounding to 0 after $w$ as in standard English. Even before $r$, the seventeenth-century lengthening of $\mathbf{a}$ to $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ : in the fashionable language is only partially exemplified.
91. M.E. $a$, from Anglian $a$, $x$, $e a$ (W. Germ. $a$ ) in closed syllables, or in open syllables followed by a suffix containing $\mathbf{l}, \mathrm{m}$, $\mathbf{n}$, or $\mathbf{r}$, appears as $\mathbf{a}$ :
aft (O.E. hæft) a handle; anl handle; as ashes; band twine ; bas bast, mat; bä bath ; brant (O.E. brant) steep; bran niu (O.E. brand, burning) brand new; bras money; brazek wild mustard; brazn impudent; daft (O.E. gedæfte, meek) foolish; glas glass; fado(r) (Rolle fader) father; fadm fathom; flake(r) (cf. O.E. flacor (adj.) flying) to flutter; galasiz (a double pl. form, O.E. galga, M.E. galwes +es) braces; gam (O.E. gamen) a game; jare milfoil; kaf (Rolle caffe) chaff; klam (O.E. clam) a clamp, claw-grip of a crane; klamd thirsty (cf. O.E. clam sticky); kani wise, skilful ; kanl candle ; kasl castle ; ladl ladle ; lat (O.E. lætt) lath; pankin a pipkin; pa日 path; saklos (O.E. sacleas) foolish, simple; sam (O.E. samnian) to collect; sal shall; satl (O.E. sahtlian, Rolle saghtel) to settle; stapl a staple; $\int a p$ (O.E. gesceap, Rolle, Yorks. Mys. shappe) shape; tfavl (cf. O.E. ċeaflas, jaws) to gnaw; t $\int$ at (cf. Swed. kgtte) a pine-cone; blaf (cf. Low G. plasken) to splash; $\theta a k$ thatch.

A short vowel occurs also in Jak (O.E. sċacan) to shake, probably by analogy with mak to make; tak to take; and in fam (O.E. sceamu) shame which appears to have been influenced by O.I. skamm.
92. M.E. $a$ from shortening of O.E. $\bar{a}$ remains: aks to ask; ask (O.E. āðexe) a newt; also M.E. $a$ due to the shortening of O.E. $\overline{\mathscr{B}}$ to $\breve{a}$ before dental consonants, in blado(r) bladder; blast blast ; 'bad,' ' fat,' 'mad,' etc.; and M.E. $a$ from the shortening of O.E. $\overline{e a}$ in (af (O.E. scieāf) a sheaf.
93. M.E. a preceded by $w$, which became $o$ in standard English towards the end of the seventeenth century, appears as $\boldsymbol{a}$ in the dialect:
swan a swan; swap to exchange; wakn to awake (int.), to waken (tr.); war (Rolle war) was; wat what; waṭe(r) (Rolle watter) water; wat $\int$ watch.
94. N.M.E. $a$, before $-n g$, regularly remains as $\boldsymbol{a}$ :
${ }^{\prime}$ 'man (Psalms amang) among; sțraך (Rolle strang) strong; Oray (O.E. ठrang) a crowd; lay (Rolle lang) long; waŋkl (O.E. wancol) unstable.

But $a$ has become e in tejz (O.E. tange, Clavis tengs) pl. tongs, and in tey to nip, sting, which appears to be a derivative (0.E. *tangian, M.E. *tengen) ; it cannot be derived from O.E. stingan to sting. Possibly the verb has been influenced by the Scandinavian form, cf. O.I. tengja to tie.

And $a$ appears as o before $n$ in moni (O.E. manig, M.E. moni) many, and its associate oni (O.E. 㐫nig, M.E. ani) any.
95. N.M.E. agh, O.E. ah, appears as af in: lafte(r) (Rolle laghter) laughter; and slafte(r) (Cath. slaghter) slaughter.
96. M.E. al, aul (Anglian al, O.E. eal), followed by another consonant, has become 0.. Probably the introduction of the u-glide between $a$ and $l$ took place before the same change in standard English; certainly the $l$ had fallen by the end of the seventeenth century, for the authors of the 'Dialogues' of 1673 and 1684 wrote $a w$ in words of this class. Brokesby (1691) says: 'In many words we change ol and oul, into au, as for "cold" they say caud; for "old," aud;......for "Woulds," wauds".' The change may have been beginning iu Rolle's generation; I bave found manyfaulde for ' manifold.' This is probable, for the $a u$, from M.E. $a$ before $l$, fell together with M.E. au. The development was $\left[a l>\boldsymbol{a}^{\boldsymbol{u}}\right]>a u$ >a:>0:]. Examples are:
bo:k (O.E. balca) a rafter; fo:d fold; fo:d to fold; forf (Cath. falghe) fallow land; koor calf; ko:d (Rolle cald) cold; 0:d (Rolle alde, Clavis awd) old; o:f half; o:los always; o:l all ; mo:t malt; po:mz (O.E. palm) willow catkins ; so:v salve; so:t (Clavis sawt) salt; wo:dz Wolds; no:p (Clavis naupe) to knock on the head.

But $\varepsilon \cdot 0$ h half also occurs. Here the $a$ : which developed has been fronted, like Northern M.E. $\bar{a}$ to $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}:>\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$.

[^4](a) The prets. and past-participles seld sold; teld told; which occur in Rolle as sald and tald (Clavis teld), show the mutated vowel of the present and infinitive stems, and agree with Wycliffe's forms.
(b) Also a short vowel is found in omest (Clavis ommust) almost, and in od (Rolle hald) to hold. The vowel in hold was probably first shortened in the past participle, before the double consonant (e.g. odn pp. held). Clavis (1684) has the regular and to be expected form haud, but Marshall (1788) gives hod ${ }^{1}$, indicating that the vowel became short in the eighteenth century.
97. M.E. ar (Angl. ser, O.E. ear) before a following consonant usually appears as a:, and $r$ has been assimilated to the second consonant:
a:dlinz hardly; a:dn to embolden, harden; a:f (O.E. earg, Clavis arfe) afraid, mean (heard in the phrase e a:fif su•ət əv $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ fels a listless, spiritless creature); a:li (O.E. $\bar{\nsim}$ rlice, Rolle arly) early ${ }^{2}$; da:(r) vb. dare; ta:t (O.E. teart) sour; wa:d ward; wa:m warm; wa:t wart.

In these words the lengthening and fronting of $a$ before $r$ to e:r, current in the fashionable English of the seventeenth century ${ }^{8}$, does not appear to have taken place, or we should expect to find $\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\text { in }}$ the dialect to-day. There is no indication of such a change in the Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 or 1684.

But in a few words a relic of this fronting remains, $r$ has been assimilated as above, and the vowel appears as $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$. The dialect here appears to have followed the standard language. In the nineteenth century for the first time, Castillo (ca. 1830) indicates this cbange by such spellings as ame arm, bain bairn, though most of his words containing M.E. ar are spelled either with ar, or ah. Examples are: $\varepsilon \cdot \partial m$ arm; be'on (Rolle barn) bairn; spe•ek spark.

The development might be indicated as follows :-
M.E. $a r+$ consonant $>$ (1) early mod. Eng. $a r>a r>a$ :, with lengthened vowel due to assimilation of $r$ to following consonant;

[^5]or more rarely became (2) early mod. Eng. $\overline{\notin r}$, and fell with M.E. $\bar{a} r$ to $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$, in few English words, but in most French words (§ 254).
98. M.E. $a$ has been raised before $\int$ to $\mathbf{e}$ in :
ef ashtree; efin a beating; and we (Cath. wesche) to wash.
99. These are the only examples of $\int$-breaking found in the dialect, but the phenomenon appears to be only part of a general lifting of $a$ to $\mathbf{e}$ before dental consonants, e.g.
gede(r) (Prose geder) to gather; kredl cradle; preti or prati (O.E. prætig, Cath. praty) pretty; weあo(r) which of two; wen when; ed had; ez has; ezl hazel.

Also before -l in elter(r) halter.
For this latter raising of $a$ to e before dentals and $\mathbf{1}$, cf. the raising of $e$ to $i$ under similar conditions ( $\$ 106$ ).

## M.E. e.

100. M.E. e generally appears in the dialect as e, save that before I, and in some cases before dental consonants, it has become i.
101. M.E. $e$ from Anglian $e, e o$ (W. Germanic $e$ ) and also from $e$, the I Mutation of $a$, in closed syllables, or in open syllables followed by a suffix containing $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}$, or $\mathbf{r}$, appears as $\mathbf{e}$ :
bele to bellow; beli belly; belos bellows; (vb.) to exhaust, to condition; bleb a blister; beriz gooseberries; ek (O.E. hecc, Cath. heke, Scots haik) a hay rack, or grating above a manger; eldes parents; en3 (M.E. henge) hinge; evn (Rolle heven) heaven; jest (Cath. zeste) yeast; len ( Rolle lenpe) length; neb (O.E. nebb) beak; meldiu (O.E. meledéaw, M.E. meldew) mildew ; rezl weasel; seg (O.E. secge, Cath. segg) sedge; senz selves; sen3 (O.E. sengan, M.E. sengen) to singe; slek (O.E. sleccan, to slacken) to slake; snek (Cath. snekke) sneck, latch; spel (O.E. speld, a torch) a taper; stevn (O.E. stefnian) to shout; stern (Psalms steven) voice; Ore $\int$ (O.E. סerscan, Cath. threshe) to thrash; Orefwud (Cath. threshwalde) threshold; wed to marry; wen (O.E. wenn) tumour; wet (O.E. hwettan) to sharpen; wetstn whetstone; weठə(r) (0.E. weठer) a castrated ram; weḑe(r) (O.E. weder, Rolle wedir) weather; bensilin (ef. Low G. benseln, to beat) a beating.
M.E. $e$ from the shortening of O.E. $\overline{v e}$, Anglian $\bar{e}$, remains in:
deb ${ }^{\text {depth }}{ }^{1}$; from O.E. $\bar{e}$ in slep slept; feठ̈əfiul (O.E. fēferfuge) feverfew ${ }^{2}$; from O.E. $\bar{y}$ in remon (O.E. *rymnian) to remove.

A short vowel occurs in nevi (O.E. nefa) nephew, but this has probably been influenced by 0 . Fr. neveu.
M.E. e, O.E. eo has become $a$ in jale (Cath. zalowe) yellow, probably by analogy with 'sallow,' ' tallow,' ' fallow,' etc.
102. M.E. $e$ before $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, has become $i$, as in the standard pronunciation: liga(r) to linger; minl to mingle, etc.
103. M.E. $e$ before $l d$ became lengthened early in the history of the language, and words of this class are dealt with under M.E. $\bar{e}$, but another lengthening took place in the eighteenth century. It is alluded to by Marshall in his Rural Economy of Yorkshire 1788, vol. 11., p. 310: 'The $e$ short before $l$ and $n$,' he says, 'is lengthened by the $y$ consonant...thus: well (a fountain) becomes weyl; to fell to feyl; men meyn; ten teyn.'

The only relics of this change appear to be be'al (O.E. bellan) to roar ; and j $\varepsilon^{\prime \cdot} \cdot \boldsymbol{l}$ (O.E. gellan) to yell.
104. M.E. er (Angl. er, ëar; O.E. eor) before a following consonant often appears as a:, which is also the usual development of M.E. $a r+$ consonant. The two sounds appear to have fallen together in the fifteenth century The Catholicon has sometimes -er and sometimes -ar. The authors of the Yorkshire Dialogues spelled with -ar words which the Middle English scribes had written with eer. We might indicate the development as follows:
$\begin{aligned} & \text { M.E. } a r+\text { cons. } \\ & \text { M.E. } e r+\text { cons. }\end{aligned}>a r \begin{array}{r}>(1) \text { usually } a r>a \text { a, with lengthened } \\ \text { vowel due to loss of } r .\end{array}$ to $\varepsilon^{\prime} \dot{\rho}$, in arm, bairn, spark, and perhaps in earth and earnest.

It is necessary to emphasise the difference made by a second

[^6]consonant following the $r$ ，for M．E．er in an open syllable was pronounced e：r in M．E．and appears in the modern dialect as $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ ．
（a）Most words containing M．E．er followed by a consonant suggest early mod．English ar ：
a：b herb；a：n to earn；a：nist earnest；a：s（Cath．erse）rump； a：日（Cath．harthe）hearth；a：t（Rolle hert）heart；da：lin（0．E． dēorling，Rolle derlyng）darling；fa：din（O．E．fērơung）farthing； fa：m（Cath．ferme）farm；la：n to learn ；wa：k（O．E．weore，Prose werk）work；wa：s（O．E．wiers，Rolle wers，Clavis warse）adj．worse； wa：ld（Rolle werld）world．

To these must be added words containing M．E．er，which are now spelled with－ar in the literary language，such as＇far，＇ ＇starve，＇＇tar＇（Cath．ter），etc．；and perhaps ba：fn（Cath．bargham） a horse－collar．All the words of French origin containing M．E．ér （§257）have had this，the regular，development．
（b）The only words which indicate the lengthening of M．E．er to $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ ： $\begin{aligned} \text { are jenist earnest，and je日（Prose erth），in which the vowel }\end{aligned}$ may have had the following development，［er $>\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{r}>\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\rho}>\mathbf{j e}$ ］．

105．But M．E．er followed by a consonant occasionally became confused with M．E．ir．
（a）The pronunciations o日 earth，and wold world，are often heard，and point to earlier forms containing M．E．－ir（cf．§ 114）． bon（Rolle bren）to burn is derived from M．E．birne，recorded in the Catholicon Anglicum．
（b）The following words probably represent late M．E．forms containing－ir，lowered in Early Mod．Eng．to er（cf．§ 107），and r has been assimilated to the following dental consonant：
jed（Angl．gerd）yard， 3 feet；fet（Angl．scerte）shirt；with metathesis in ges（O．E．gærs，græs，Rolle gres，Clavis girse）grass； gen to grin；geni peevish．

106．M．E．$e$ has become $\mathbf{i}$ before dentals in the following words：
frif fresh；it（Rolle ette）pp．itn，to eat；jisțədə（Cath．zister－ day）yesterday；rist rest；strit $\int$ to stretch；tigide（r）（O．E．æt－ gædere，Rolle togidere）together；wizn（O．E．wāsend，Early Mod． Eng．wesand）weasand，gullet．

Also before 1 in : $\int i l$ to shell (peas); wilk a welk; wila (O.E. welig) willow.

## M.E. $i$.

107. M.E. $i$ regularly appears as $i$ in the present dialect, but there is evidence that it was not always so. We have the word splet (M. Du. splitten) to split, and such forms as krekit cricket, ren $\int$ to rinse. But above all, the evidence of the following rimes from A Yorkshire Dialogue of 1684finnd, end; whickens, breckins; Pegg, whig; ill, tell; rest, wist; will, sell; Tib, web, etc.-shows that late in the seventeenth century, short $i$ was a very lax $\mathbf{r}^{1}$, such as is now heard in many Scottish dialects. Whether this change began in the Middle English period, for the Yorkshire scribes wrote cete for city; pete for pity ; preson for prison, etc., is more difficult to establish. What is important is that M.E. $i$, from O.E. $i, y$, sank to $e$ and has been raised, probably before 1788 , for Marshall has nothing to say upon the subject, back again to $\mathbf{i}$ :
bid to offer a price, to invite to a funeral; bizi (Rolle bysy) busy; biznos business; bitf bitch; drigkinz nuncheon; fina(r) finger; flik (Cath. flyke) flitch; gidi fickle; grizl gristle; inde(r) to hinder ; jis (O.E. gise) yes ; jit (O.E. giet, Rolle yhit) yet; krik a twist, spasm ; kripkl to wrinkle; mit $\int$ (O.E. micel) much ; nit (O.E. hnitu) a louse's egg; pik (Cath. pikke) tar; pik (vb. tr.) to give birth prematurely; pik-fork pitchfork; rig ridge, back; sin (O.E. sirðan, Rolle sythen, Clavis sine, Cast. sahn) since ; sinḍ(r) (O.E. sinder, cf. O.I. sindr) cinder; siv (O.E. sife) sieve ; spinl axle; stin3i stingy; swimi dizzy; fift to move, to remove; fift chemise ; tik a sheep-louse; tit (O.E. tit) a teat; titi breastmilk; twing to nip, to ache; twigldin an instant; twitf to tighten a cord; winṭe(r) winter; wispo(r) to whisper; wisp a bunch of hay; wift (int.) silence ! ; wizn (O.E. wisnian) to wither; kigkof chincough, whooping-cough ${ }^{2}$.

[^7]108. M.E. $i$ from O.E. $y$ appears as i, as a rule; although a few $\mathbf{e}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ forms occur in the dialect.
i forms ; brig bridge ; didl to cheat; dip sheepwash; dizi giddy; fligd fledged; kil a kiln; $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ kin related; klik (O.E. clyccan) to clutch; ig (O.E. hycge, mind, mood, pride) ill temper; pila pillow; pitid (adj.) blemished with rust spots; rig (O.E. hrycg) ridge, back ; țimd (adj.) pleased.
M.E. $i$ from shortening of O.E. $\bar{y}$ remains in $\theta$ iml (O.E. $\overline{\text { y }} \mathrm{mel}$ ) thimble.
109. e forms: beri (Rolle bery) to bury; mena (O.E. myne, Cath. menowe) a minnow ; and, of course, the standard 'left' and ' merry.'

Also, with assimilation of $r$ to a following dental, in: wakskenl (O.E. cyrnel) a cyst; and sket (O.E. scyrte, a skirt) skirt; but the latter may come from Scand. skyrta § 207. Rolle has also threst (to thirst), bren (to burn). Marshall (1788) cites 'rush' as re $\int$, but the usual dialect word is si•of (O.I. sef).
110. u forms: brunstp (O.E. bryne, flame, Psalms brunstan) brimstone, sulphur; runl (O.E. rynel) a spring (in place-names); stub to uproot (O.E. stybb, a stump); umlak (O.E. hymlice) hemlock; in wutfot (O.E. wyrtgeard) orchard, $r$ has, in each syllable, been assimilated to the following dental consonant. To these words must be added the standard ' blush,' ' crutch,' ' comely,' and 'shut.'
111. This triple appearance of O.E. $y$ as $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{e}$, and $\mathbf{u}$, in a Northern dialect, as far asunder from Kent and the South-West Midlands in the late Middle Ages as England is from New York to-day, indicates that $e$ and $u$ are not developments peculiar to Kent and the South-West respectively. The above e and $\mathbf{u}$ forma can hardly be borrowings; it is likely that they developed in Northern English directly from O.E. $y$. The orthodox opinion is that O.E. $y$, and the $y$ from Scandinavian sources, were always unrounded to $i$ in Northern Middle English. I believe the $\mathbf{e}$-forms to be relics of a M.E. lowering of $y$ to $e$, and possibly the $\mathbf{u}$ forms are derived from an O.E. $u$ unmutated to $y$.
112. M.E. $i$ usually remained short before -nd, e.g. bind to bind; blind blind; find to find; grind to grind; bi'jint behind; rind rind; wind wind; wind to wind.

But it lengthened to M.E. $\bar{\tau}$, and became $a$ : in the eighteenth century ( $\$ 151$ ) before -ld : wa:ld wild; ta:n (O.E. tind) a spike.
M.E. $i$ is also short before -mb, e.g. klim to climb.
113. On the contrary, M.E. $i$ from O.E. $y$ became long before -nd, and developed like M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before voiced consonants to $a$ : in : ka:nd kind; ma:nd mind.
114. M.E. $i$, before $r$ followed by a consonant, has regularly become o, and $r$ has been assimilated where a dental consonant followed : the development was probably [ir>or>o(r)]. Examples are:
bod bird; bork birch; or (O. and M.E. hire) her; storəp stirrup; t $\int$ orop to chirp; $\mathbf{t}$ ©ot $\int$ church ; $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ od (Rolle thred) third; Ootti (O.E. \%ritig, Rolle thretty) thirty; $\theta$ ot'ti:n thirteen; wo $\theta$ (O.E. wierठe) worth.

The Early Mod. Eng. lowering of $i$ to e remains in kesmas (M.E. cristenmas) Christmas, and in kesn (O.E. cristnian) to christen, where metathesis of $r$ has been followed by its assimilation to the following $s$.
115. M.E. $i$ from O.E. $y$ also became o before $r$, with loss of $r$ before dentals:
bodn burden; boe birth; fost first; stor to stir; worm worm; Өost (O.E. 万yrst, Rolle threst) thirst; wori to worry; work (O.E. wyrcan, Prose wyrke) to work.

## M.E. o.

116. M.E. o from O.E. o in closed syllables, including o followed by a single consonant and a suffix containing an $\mathbf{1}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$, or $r$, regularly appears as 0 .
bodm bottom ; bore to borrow ; boठə(r) to bother; brokn (pp.) broken; don to dress; dof to undress; dokin dock (plant name) ; fond ( pp . of M.E. fonnen, to be foolish) (adj.) silly; frozn (pp.) frozen; kod (O.E. codd) husk of peas and beans; ku'ən-kokl (O.E. coccel, tares) corvflower; kolop a slice; kroft a field (in place names); krop craw (of a fowl); los (O.E. los, destruction) loss; hence los ( v .) to lose; jon yon; nodl head; ofnz often; olin (OE. holegn, M.E. holin) holly; opn open; oter(r)
C. $\mathbf{H}$.
otter; pok a pustule; post post; prod, a spike, vb. to prick; snot nose-mucus; sodn saturated; spokn (pp.) spoken; spot situation; topin front hair of the head; trod a footpath; trof (Cath. A, throgbe) trough ; $\theta$ rosl a thrush ; $\operatorname{\theta rotl}$ to strangle; $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ of (N.M.E. thof, poffe) though; and with metathesis of $o$ and $l$ in golop (M.E. gloppen) to gulp, and its derivative, goli a fledgeling bird.

Short vowels are found in bodi (O.E. bodig) body; and in popi (O.E. popig) poppy, where a lengthened vowel in the open syllable would be regular.

English $g$ has remained through the M.E. period in og (O.E. hogge) a yearling sheep; and also in 'dog' and 'frog.'
117. M.E. ol, O.E. ol, followed by a second consonant appears as ou. The development was [ $\mathbf{o l}>\boldsymbol{o}^{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{l}>\boldsymbol{o u}$ ]. In the dialect, $l$ fell before 1680. The Clavis has ow in words of this class. Examples are:
bousțe(r) bolster; boul (O.E. bolla) a bowl; bout bolt; kouțe(r) (M.E. colter < L. culter) coulter (of a plough); kout colt; goud (Clavis gowd) gold; moudiwa:p (O.E. molde, earth + weorpan to cast) a mole; stoun (Clavis stown) (pp.) stolen; toul toll, vb. to toll.

But u'ə occurs in fu'oks (Clavis fowkes) folks, which appears to be borrowed. The vowel implies a M.E. $\overline{\text {. }}$
118. M.E. o before $-r n$ and $-r d$ became lengthened to $0:$ in some words. The change probably took place before 1673 , for the Yorkshire Dialogue of that date spells 'morn' as moarne. This Early Mod. $\overline{\bar{y}}$ has developed, like M.E. $\overline{\text {, }}$, to $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\rightharpoonup}$ :
bu'əd board; ku'ən corn; mu'ən morning; ti'mu'ən tomorrow; ti mu'ən thist tomorrow evening; $\theta \mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial n}$ thorn; u•ad hoard; u•ən horn; and in the past participles, bu'ən born; swu•ən sworn; tu'ən torn; fu'ən shorn; wu•en worn.
119. There is no evidence to show that M.E. o was ever lengthened before $r$ in the following words, where $r$ has been assimilated to a following dental consonant:
(wat) for ? (int. adv.) why; fork fork; storm storm.
$\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}$ fod to afford; moあa(r) (O.E. morðor) murder; nod north; noorren northern; os horse; fot short; wod word.

## M.E. $u$.

120. M.E. $u$ from O.E. $u$ has regularly remained :
blube(r) to weep; buțe(r) butter; drugkn drunken; dum dumb; dul dull; fulak (O.E. full + suffix -ok) speed, rushing movement; guts entrails; juy young; krudz (M.E. crud) curds; klusțe(r) a bunch, cluster; kud (O.E. cudu) cud; kudl to embrace; kum to come; luv love; rud red ochre; stunt (O.E. stunt) obstinate; sum some; sumat something; sun son; tuml to tumble; und̨əd hundred; uŋə(r) hunger; uŋad hungry; Өune(r) thunder; wud wood; tuŋ (O.E. tunge, Rolle tung) tongue.

Metathesis of $u$ and $r$ is seen in $\theta$ ruf (O.E. סurh, Rolle thurgh) through.
121. $u$ has usually remained short before $-n d$ : bun (pp. of bind) bound; fun (pp.) found; grund ground; grunsl groundsel; grunz (pl.) sediment; grunstn grindstone; pund pound; and of course in wunde(r) wonder.

But it appears long in suind healthy; u:nd hound; and in wu:nd wound, which therefore fall under suspicion of being borrowings from literary English, with dialect substitution of $u$ : for lit. Eng. ou.

An early modern English lowering of $u$ : to ou remains in pound (O.E. pund, an enclosure) (1) pond, (2) pound (for cattle).
122. Before -ld, M.E. $u$ has become long, and $l$ has been assimilated in :

Ju:da(r) (O.E. sculder, Rolle shulder) shoulder.
123. Medial M.E. $v$ has become vocalised to $u$ in :
a'bu:n (Rolle abouen, Clavis aboon) above.
124. Before $r$, M.E. $u$ has regularly become 0 , and $r$ has usually been assimilated when a dental consonant followed. The change was probably developed as follows [ur > or >o(r)].
bor burr; bordok burdock; bore borough; borli (O.E. būrlīc) burly; dost (v.) durst; fore furrow; kor cur; kos to curse; mon (O.E. murnan, Cast. mon) to mouru; monin mourning; ori to hurry; orl to hurl ; spor spur; tod (Cath. turde) dung; ton to turn; torf turf.
125. In su'əd (O.E. sweord, M.E. swurd) sword ${ }^{3}$, M.E. $u$ was lengthened before $-r d$ in the early Modern English period to $0 \mathbf{a}^{2}$, which has developed like M.E. $\bar{\sigma}$ in the dialect to $u \cdot \sigma, r$ being assimilated to the following dental consonant.

## 2. Long Vowels.

M.E. $\bar{a}$.
126. M.E. $\bar{a}$ has a double development in the Hackness dialect. In a few words it appears as $\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot$, usually it has become i.e. A similar double development occurs in the Cumberland dialect of Lorton, where M.E. $\bar{a}$ appears either as $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ : or as Ja. ${ }^{8}$. This indicates that M.E. $\vec{a}$, which normally yielded $\varepsilon \cdot \sigma$ in the dialect of Hackness, was usually fronted in M.E. to $\bar{\varepsilon}$ and fell, together with M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, in the greater number of words to $i \cdot e$. The Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 and 1684 have $\bar{a}$, rarely ea, for this vowel. Brokesby (1691) tells us: 'Many words are varied by changing o into $a, .$. so for "both" we pronounce bath, for "bone" bane...for "home" hame...for "stone" stane",' by which he probably indicated $\varepsilon_{\text {. }}$. Marshall (1788) says: 'the $a$ long is generally, but not invariably, changed into eea ${ }^{5}$,' by which he indicates either ia or $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$. The line of development then would be [a: $>\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}:>\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{z}$ ( $>\mathrm{e}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\partial}$ ) $>\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ ], but words such as jal ale, jak oak, jan one, etc. almost force one to believe that when M.E. $\bar{a}$ became diphthongised, $a$ remained as the outglide in some such development as the following: $[a:>\varepsilon a>e a>i a]$; for these words, if derived from forms containing early modern English $i \cdot \theta$, would normally appear as jel, jen, etc. (§ $104 b$ ). Borrowings from literary English, which have ou in the standard pronunciation, appear in the dialect with 0:, as 0:li holy, to:kn token.

[^8]127. M.E. $\bar{a}$, caused by the lengthening of O.E. $a$ in open syllables, has become $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$ in all borrowed words having ei in standard English; and in : bi'e'ov to behave; fi'rofe(r) father; fre'om (O.E. framian) to show ability; $\mathbf{r e} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial} \boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{r})$ rather: $\int \mathrm{s} \cdot \mathrm{od}$ (O.E. sceadu, M.E. *schade) a shed.
(a) It has developed a stage further to $i \cdot a$, indicating M.E. fronting of $\bar{\alpha}$ to $\bar{\varepsilon}$ in :
bli'əd blade; di•əl dale; dri'ok drake; dri'əp (Clavis drape) a barren cow; gri•ov (O.E. grafan) to dig; i'em (Cath., Clavis hame) the iron rod on a horse-collar; li•om lame; li'ət late; mi'ən mane; mi•ad made; ni•akt naked; ni•om name; si•ək sake ; si ${ }^{\circ}$ ol sale ; si•əm same ; spi•əd spade; spi•ənd (O.E. spanan, to allure, Rolle spaned pp.) weaned; ti•ol tale.

The occasional form ni•az (O.E. nasu, Rolle, Cath. nese) nose, appears to belong to this class.
(b) Traces of a former ia, still found in the Lakeland dialects, occur in the following words, which bewray a shifting of accent from ía to id, and the resulting change of $i$ into a consonant : jake(r) acre; jakren acorn; jal (O.E. ealu) ale; jat (O.E. geat, Psalms yate, Clavis yate) gate.
128. M.E. $\bar{a}$, the Northern survival of O.E. $\bar{a}$, has become $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\rho}$ in the strong preterites: dre'əv drove; re'ad rode; re'ət wrote;
 and in me•ost (Rolle mast) most.
(a) But otherwise it regularly appears as $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, indicating M.E. fronting of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{\varepsilon}$ in:
bri•od (Rolle brad) broad; bi•ən bone; bi'ə0 buth; dri'əv (sub.) dröve; gi'est ghost; gri'əp to grope; gri'on to groan; gi'on gone; i•ol (O.E. hāl, N.M.E. hale) whole ; i'om (Yorks. Dial. heame, Clavis hame) home; i•ət (adj.) hot; kli'ə0 (Rolle clath) cloth; kli•az clothes; li'əd (Rolle lade) load; li•of loaf; a'li•on (Rolle allane) alone; ni•o (Clavis neay) no; ni'on (Rolle, Clavis nane) none; ri•od road; sti•on (Rolle, Clavis stane) stone; si'o (Rolle swa, Yorks. Dial. seay) so; si•əp soap; swi•ət sweat; twi•ə (Rolle twa, Clavis tweay) two; ti'ə toe; ti•əd (Cath. tade) toad; wi•a who; also before M.E. gh in di•əf (O.E. dāg, Cath. daghe, Yorks. Dial. deaugh) dough.
(b) Initial i is consonantal in: jak (Cath. ake) oak; jal (Rolle hale) whole; jam home; jan (Rolle an) one; jans (Brokesby yance) once.
129. (a) M.E. $\bar{a} r$ from O.E. $\bar{a} r$ regularly appears as $\epsilon \cdot \partial$. Brokesby (1691) indicates the pronunciation of 'more' as mare ${ }^{1}$, but the fronting of $\bar{a}$ took place at an earlier date, for Rolle, in the fourteenth century, had rimed mare (more) with ware [O.E. wēre (subj.)] were, indicating a fronting of the vowel in M.E. ${ }^{2}$. But 'ware' is influenced by the indicative 'war.' The regular form was were [we:r]. Examples of M.E. $\bar{a} r$ are : me'ə(r) (Rolle mare, Clavis mare) more; $\mathbf{s \varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{z}(\mathbf{r})$ (Rolle sare) sore.
(b) M.E. $\bar{a} r$ also appears as $\varepsilon$ ' $\partial$ in words which had long $\bar{a} r$ in Middle English, owing to the lengthening of O.E. $a$ in an open syllable-_' bare,' ' hare,' ' care,' etc.
130. M.E. $\bar{a}$ from the lengthening of O.E. $a$ before $-m b$ and -st, appears as i•a: ki•om comb; wi'om (Yorks. Dial. wayem) belly ; wi•ost (? O.E. *wæst, cf. wæstm, growth) waist; but lam, lamb, has retained its short vowel, and the $\boldsymbol{a}$ in blast (O.E. blæ̈st), blast, indicates the shortening of the vowel in the Middle English period.

## M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$.

131. The open $\bar{\varepsilon}$-sound, written $e$, ee by Rolle, and ea by the authors of the Yorkshire Dialogues, appears to have survived in the dialect until the end of the eighteenth century. Marshall (1788) wrote: ' the diphthong ea...is still in common use in the dialect under notice. In the established pronunciation break is become brake; tea tee; sea see; but in this they are pronounced alike by a vocal sound between the $e$ and the a long.' Castillo (ca. 1830) wrote it eea, indicating ia or i.e. The author of the York Minster Screen (1833) wrote it e'a, where probably the comma denotes a falling diphthong. It appears in the dialect to-day as $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, the line of development being [ $\epsilon:>\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\rho}>\left(e^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}\right)>\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$ ]. The open $\bar{\varepsilon}$ arose in M.E. from various O.E. vowels, viz.:
[^9]
## 132. (1) From O.E. $e$ in open syllables:

bi'a(r) to bear ; bri'al to break ; fri'at to fret; a'li'ovn eleven;
 pear; swi $\cdot \boldsymbol{e}(\mathbf{r})$ to swear; $\mathbf{~} \mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial l i n}$ a once-shorn sheep; ti $\cdot \boldsymbol{e}(\mathbf{r})$ to tear; tri'ad to tread; wi'e(r) to wear.
133. (2) From O.E. $\overline{\mathscr{B}}$ (Anglian $\overline{\mathscr{B}}$ ), the I Mutation of $\bar{a}$ : bli•atj to bleach; di•əl deal; irat (Rolle hete) heat; i•orənd errand; i-ət $\int$ each; kli•ən clean; li•ad to lead; li•ən lean; li•ədi lady; li'ost (Rolle leste) least; li'ov to leave; mi'on to mean; ri•ad to read; os-ri•os horse-race; ri'at (O.E. hrēécan) to retch; ri'ət (O.E. rल̄́éean) to reach; ri•ə日 wreath; swi•ət (s.) sweat; swi'at to sweat; spri•ed to spread; ti•ez to tease; ti•et $\int$ to teach; wi•t wheat.
134. (3) From O.E. $\overline{\mathscr{L}}$ (Anglian $\bar{e}$, W. Germ. $\bar{a}$ ):
bri'ə日 breath; bri'ə\% to breathe; bri'ə(r) (O.E. bræ̈r) briar; gri•at (O.E. grētan, Rolle grete) to weep; dri•ad to dread; fire(r) fear; i•evnin evening; ji•o(r) year; li•on a loan; li'ot $\mathfrak{j}$ leech; mi'ol meal; spi•at $\{$ (Rolle speche) speech; swi•ol (O.E.
 where.

In Northern M.E., Anglian $\bar{e}$, the equivalent of Germanic $\overline{\mathcal{E}}$, remained; and the close sound is still heard in modern Scotch * dialects in words of this class. The above are non-Anglian forms, Anglian $\bar{e}$ would have given i: in the Hackness dialect, except before $r$, when i-a would be regular. Unless all the above words are recent borrowings, they indicate that Anglian $\bar{e}$ (0.E. $\overline{\mathscr{E}}$ ) usually became the 'open' sound M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ in Yorkshire, as in the Midland dialect. But a few forms with i: occur, ef. § 141.
135. (4) From O.E. $\bar{e}$ before $r$ :
wi•əri (O.E. wērig) weary ${ }^{1}$; $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{e}(\mathbf{r})\left(\right.$ Rolle here ${ }^{2}$ ) here; $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (Angl. hēran, Rolle here ${ }^{2}$ ) to hear; i'ad heard.
136. (5) From O.E. éo before $r$ :
bi•o(r) beer; di•e(r) dear; dri•ori dreary; sti•o(r) steer, a young ox.

[^10]137. (6) From O.E. éa:
bi•on bean; bri•əd bread; di•ad (Rolle ded, Y. M. Screen de'ad) death; di•əd (adj.) dead; di•əf (Rolle deef) deaf; ə'gi'ən again; gri•t great; i•əd (O.E. héafod, Rolle heved, hed) head; i-ər (Rolle ere) ear; i'op heap; i'əst east; li'od lead (metal); li•əf (Rolle leef) leaf; bili'of belief; ni•o(r) (O.E. hnéaw) stingy, mean; by analogy with ni•e(r) near; ni•o'rand (Rolle nerehand) nigh; ri'əd red; sti•om steam; stri•əom stream; ti•əm a team (of horses); $\mathbf{t f i} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}$ cheap; Ori-əp (O.E. oréapian, to rebuke) to contradict; $\theta$ ri $\cdot$ atn (Psalms, Rolle threte) to threaten. Also in: ri•e (O.E. hréa) raw, and stri•ə (O.E. stréa, Brokesby strea) straw ${ }^{1}$.
138. M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ has been shortened to $\mathbf{e}$ in:
bet (Angl. bēat for bēot, pret.) beat; el0 health; len (O.E. lǣnan, Yorks. Dial. len) to lend; in efe(r) (O.E. héahfore) heifer; in 'less,' 'meadow,' 'wet'; and in the preterites 'left,' 'lent,' ' meant,' 'read,' and ' slept.'

## M.E. è.

139. The close $\bar{e}$ sound, also written $e$ or $e e$ by Rolle, and $e e$ by the authors of the Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 and 1684, has become i: in the dialect, as in standard English. Hence, only dialect words are here adduced as examples. The close $\bar{e}$ arose in M.E. from various O.E. vowels, viz.:
140. (1) From Anglian $\bar{e}$ for $\bar{x}$, I Mutn. of $\bar{a}$ :
britd (Rolle brede) breadth; shortened to $\mathbf{i}$ in : $\mathbf{t} \int \mathbf{i z - k i} \cdot \mathrm{ok}$ (O. Merc. c̀ēse) cheese-cake; ivo(r) (Rolle ever) ever; ivri every; nive(r) never; and ridi ready.
141. (2) From Anglian $\bar{e}$ (O.E. $\bar{\infty}$, West Germanic $\bar{a})$ :
di:d (Rolle dede) deed; i:l eel; ni:dl needle; Ji:p (Psalms schepe) sheep; sied seed; sli:p to sleep; shortened to in in : ipsṭe(r) (and in its vulgarised forms dzipi, dzip-sta:lin) a starling ; and fipat (Cath. scheperde) shepherd. But this sound usually appears in the dialect as $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{\theta}$, as if from M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, cf. § 134.

[^11]142. (3) From Anglian $\bar{e}$ (I Mutn. of éa, éo):
risk to smoke; strisp to strip; striitpinz the last milk drawn from a cow after milking; ni:d (Rolle nede) need.
143. (4) From Anglian oe, $\bar{e}$ (I Mutn. of $\bar{o}$ ):
bri:ks breeches ; fi:tinz footprints, spoor ; fi:t (Rolle fete) feet; si:k (Rolle seke) to seek ; shortened to $i$ in : blis to bless; blisin blessing; and in diz do, dost, does.
144. (5) From Anglian $\overline{e a}, \overline{e o}$ (Germanic $i u$ ):
bri:st (Rolle brest) breast; dri:p (O.E. drēopan) to drip; li:f (O.E. lëof) adv. soon, in such phrases as : ad oz liıf gan oz nut = I would as soon go as not; tri: (Rolle tre) tree.
145. M.E. $\bar{e}$ from O.E. $\bar{e}$ which arose in stressed monosyllables ${ }^{1}$ appears as i: in the emphatic forms: i: he; ji: ye; mis me; $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{i}}$ : thee; wi: we. In unemphatic forms, it occurs as $i$ in: $\mathbf{i}$ he; wi we; and as a in: jo ye; mo me; $\boldsymbol{\text { o }}$ thee.
146. O.E. $e$ before -ld lengthened to M.E. 'close' $\bar{e}$ and appears as i:, as in standard English, in 'field,' ' yield,' and 'shield.' O.E. $e$ also became long before simple $l$ in wisl (Rolle wele) adv. well ${ }^{2}$. M.E. $\bar{e}$, due to the lengthening before $-l d$ of $e$, lowered from $i$, the Northern development of O.E. $y$ (§ 107), is indicated by the dialect forms: bi:ld to build; bi:ldin building. These forms cannot be derived from M.E. bilde, the normal Northern development of O.E. byldan. M.E. bilde would have given modern Hackness * ba:ld. The vowel is shortened before -lt in the pret. and pp. belt.
147. M.E. $i$ often became lengthened in Northern M.E. to $\bar{e}$ in open syllables ${ }^{8}$. The only evidences of this change which remain in the modern dialect are i:vil (O.E. yfel, Rolle yvel) evil ; ni:n (O.E. nigon) uine; sti:l (O.E. stigol) stile; and, as in standard English, 'beetle' and 'week'; but this is not an argument against the likelihood of this sound-change, for M.E. $e$ lengthened before $l$ and $n$ in the eighteenth century (§ 103), and yet scarcely an example of this sound-change remains.

[^12]148. M.E. $i$ also lengthened to $\bar{e}$ in late M.E. when the palatal spirant, spelled $g h$, fell ; and this late M.E. $\bar{e}$ became i: in the early modern English period. The change was accomplished before 1684, for the spellings in the Yorkshire Dialogue, viz. neet (night), reet (right), etc., represent the present pronunciation. It is evident that before ¢, M.E. $i$ was very lax; for had it beeu a pure $i$, its lengthening would have developed to $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i}$ in the modern dialect before the following $\mathbf{t}$, which occurs in words of this class. We may assume its development as follows: [içt >eçt >e:t >i:t].

This M.E. eçt, spelled ight, arose from various O.E. combinations:
(1) From O.E. iht: brist bright; fi:t (Prose fyght, Cath. feghte) to fight; mist (Rolle might) might; nist night; plist plight; rist (Rolle right) right; sist sight; slist (Cast. sleeght) slight.
(2) From O.E. yht: fli:t flight; fristn to frighten ; frist fright; rist (O.E. wyrhta) a wright.
(3) From O.E. īht: list (O.E. lihtan) to alight; li:t (O.E. leoht for lïht) adj. light; lists lungs.
(4) From Anglian ēht: list (O. Merc. lēht, Rolle light) subs. light; li:tnin lightning.

This M.E. $\bar{e}$ has been shortened to $\mathbf{i}$ in : fotni $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ fortnight; and in lit (pret.) alighted.
149. M.E. $\bar{e}$ from various sources, occurring before the palatal spirant, has had a like development, and has become i:. The Yorkshire M.E. spelling for words belonging to this class was eegh, but the spellings lee lie, to lie; stee ladder; and thee thigh, in the Catholicon Anglicum show that the spirant was disappearing from the dialect as early as 1483. It was completely lost in the dialect before 1684, for the Clavis spelled words of this class with ee. The development would be [e:q $>\mathbf{e}:>\mathrm{i}:]$. Examples are:
(1) From O.E. ig, Northern M.E. ēgh: ni:n (Rolle neghen, Cath. neen, Castillo neen) nine; sti:l (Clavis steel) stile ${ }^{1}$. In

[^13]these words the M.E. $\bar{e}$ was due to the lengthening of $i$ in an open syllable ${ }^{1}$. For this lengthening cf. § 147.
(2) From Anglian $\bar{e} g$ (O.E. īeg): ti: (O.E. tīegan < tēag, rope) to tie; di: (Rolle deghe) to die.
(3) From Anglian e eg (O.E. éag): i:, pl. i:n (Rolle eghe, eghen) eye; di: (O.E. déagian) to dye.
(4) From Anglian ēh (O.E. éah): i: (Rolle hegh, Cast. heegh) high; ni: (Rolle negh, Cast. neegh) nigh ${ }^{2}$.
(5) From O.E. éog: dri: (O.E. gedréog sober) tedious, weary; fli: (Rolle flegh) to fly; fli: (sub.) a fly; li: (O.E. lēogan, Cath. lee) to tell a lie ; dri: (O.E. dréogan, Rolle dreghe) to endure.
(6) From O.E. éoh: $\theta 1:$ (O.E. \%éoh, Cath. thee) thigh.

Irregular is wai (O.E. wegan, M.E. weghen) to weigh, which appears to be influenced by weit weight (see § 177).
150. M.E. $\bar{e}$ has been shortened to $\mathbf{i}$ in:
bid (O.E. bēodan, Rolle bede) to offer, invite ; divl (Rolle devel) devil: frind (Rolle frende) friend; bislinz (cp. O.E. bīest, thick milk) beastings, the first milk after calving; Oripns threepence; ips (O.E. hēope) wild-rose berries; it (Rolle ete) pret. ate.

## M.E. $\bar{\imath}$.

151. M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ from O.E. $\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{y}$ has three developments. Before voiceless consonants, and before $\mathbf{r}$, it appears as $\boldsymbol{\epsilon i}$; at the end of a word it has become ai; but before voiced consonants it appears as a:, indicating a development to di with subsequent loss of the unstressed constituent of the falling diphthong. The change took place during the eighteenth century. The authors of the Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 and 1684 spelt M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ as $i$ or $y$ in all positions, indicating ei or $2 \mathbf{i}^{3}$. Marshall in 1788 first indicated that ' before $l$ ' long $i$ had the sound of ' $a$ broad (as in father, half, and before the letter $r$ ) as: mile, maal; stile, staal; and does not in any case take, in strictness, the modern sound, which is a diphthong composed of $a$ broad and $e^{\prime}$ [ai], ' whereas its provincial sound

[^14]here' (Pickering vale) 'is the accepted sound of $e$ short lengthened by the $y$ consonant'[ei]; 'as white, wheyt; to write, to wreyt: a mode of pronunciation which perhaps formerly was in general use, but which now seems to be confined to provincial dialects ${ }^{1}$.'

After the turn of the century, the author of the Yorl Minster Screen and Castillo wrote M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before voiceless consonants and $r$, as $i$ (or $y$ ); and as $a h$ (sometimes wrongly spelled ar) before voiced consonants. Marshall's statement appears to imply that the lowering of M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ to $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ : first took place before $l$. The dialect development would then be:-
i: $>$ ei $>\left\{\begin{array}{l}\varepsilon i, \text { and remains before } \mathbf{r}, \text { and voiceless cons. } \\ \varepsilon i>a i>a \text { : before } i, \text { and voiced cons. }\end{array}\right.$
Borrowings from standard English often appear with ai, e.g. ailond island, etc.
152. From O.E. $\bar{\imath}$, ei occurs before $\mathbf{r}$ and voiceless consonants in:
beit to bite; deik dike ; eiəren (O. and M.E. iren) iron; cis ice; greip to gripe; leif life; leik to like; meit mite; neif knife; peik (O.E. pīcan) to pick $^{2}$; peik (O.E. pic) a pointed round cornstack ; peip pipe; reip ripe; reit to write; seip (O.E. sīpian) to ooze; $\int$ eit cacare; smeit to smite; tweis twice; weif wife; weip to wipe ; weit white; weio(r) wire; and seik (Rolle swilk, slike) such.
O.E. $\bar{\imath}$ has been shortened to $\mathbf{i}$ in fift fifth.
153. From O.E. $\bar{y}$, ei occurs before $\mathbf{r}$ and voiceless consonants in:
siə(r) hire; feie(r) fire; keit (O.E. cȳta) a kite; leis lice; meis mice.
154. And ai is heard, finally, in kai (O.E. kȳ) kine; drai (O.E. drȳge, Rolle dry) dry.
155. From O.E. $\bar{\imath}, a$ : occurs before voiced consonants in :
a:vin (O.E. ifegn) ivy; ba:d to bide; bra:di bridle; dra:v to drive; dwa:n (O.E. dwínan, Rolle dwyne) to dwindle; dwa:ni

[^15]languishing; fa:l file; fa:v five; la:m lime; ə'la:v alive; la:n flax ; ma:l mile; ma:n mine; ra:d to ride; ra:ndi-(frost) (cf. Beowulf 1363, hrinde bearwas) hoar-(frost); ra:z to rise; sa:d side ; stra:d to stride ; swa:m (cf. Windhill swaim, p. 50, § 156) to climb a tree or pole; fa:n to shine; witsn-ta:d Whitsuntide; ta:m time; twa:n twine; $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\sigma}: \mathbf{n}$ thine; wa:d wide; wa:l while.
156. From O.E. $\bar{y}, \mathbf{a}$ : occurs before voiced consonants in:
a:v hive ; ba:l (O.E. by̆l) a boil ; bra:d bride ; da:v to dive; pra:d pride.
a: also occurs in la:tl (O.E. lȳtel) little, which is probably derived from an older contracted form *Ia:l, with re-insertion of the $t$ under the influence of literary English.
$$
\text { M.E. } \overline{\text { on }}
$$
157. M.E. open $\bar{\rho}$ has regularly become raised to $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$. In Northern Middle English this vowel arose from the lengthening of O.E. ŏ in open syllables:
du'ə(r) (O.E. dor) door; flu'ət to float; fu•əl foal; ə'fu•ə(r) before; ju'ək a yoke; ku•olz (Psalms koles) coals; klu'əs (O.E. close) a close; nu•əz (O.E. nosu) nose; ru•az rose ; stu'əv stove; su•ək to soak; t fu•ək (M.E. choken) to choke; $\boldsymbol{\theta} \mathrm{ru} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial t}$ throat; u•ol hole; u•op hope.

Also lu-ən (O.E. lone, nasalised form of lane) a lane.
158. O.E. $\bar{a}$ remained in Nortbern M.E., and was usually fronted to $\varepsilon:(\S 126)$. In the Midlands, however, as in the South, O.E. $\bar{a}$ was rounded in early M.E. $(1150-1250)$ to 0 . The following words are borrowings from the Midland dialects. The regular development of O.E. $\bar{a}$ in the Hackness dialect would be $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\bullet}$, but this Northern vowel is gradually being displaced by $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\bullet}$, the representative of the Midland development of O.E. $\bar{a}$. Many words have two forms, e.g. ti•əd and tu'əd toad, dri•əv and dru-ov a drove, etc. The following are Midland forms:
bru•əd (Rolle brad) broad (§ 128); bu•ət boat; fu•əm foam; gru•əv grove; gu'ət goat; mu'ən moan; ru•əd road (§ 128);
$\mathbf{r u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ to roar; st̨ru•ək to stroke; $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r i}$ hoary; u•əs (O.E. häs, Rolle Ps. hase) hoarse; u'כ $\boldsymbol{0}$ oath.
$u$ is consonantal in wuts (O.E. ätas) oats, by shifting of stress in an initial diphthong, from an earlier *u'zts. M.E. $o$ is shortened in onli (Rolle anly), which appears to be a spelling-pronunciation of literary English only.

The form poul (O.E. pāl) pole appears to be derived from M.E. pole, affected by the development of an $u$-glide before the 1 ; cf. soul (§ 175) soul.

## M.E. $\bar{o}$.

159. The development of this sound to its present dialect equivalents i'ə and ju* is exceedingly difficult to deduce. It is generally supposed that long close $\bar{o}$ in Northern M.E. became raised and fronted to a sound something like French $\boldsymbol{u}^{1}$. Certain rimes in The Pricke of Conscience suggest this; doos (pres. indic. of 'do') rimes with use (to use); fordoos (destroys) with vertues; sone with fortone. But the present equivalents of M.E. $\bar{o}$ in the dialect point to an Early Mod. Eng. єu. I believe M.E. ö in North and East Yorkshire to have been a rounded diphthong, like the sound ëü sometimes heard in affected pronunciations of the modern ou in 'no,' nëiu. Starting from o:, the development of an $u$-glide would give ou as in Modern English. This ou was fronted, and the diphthong became the mixed lax rounded öit, afterwards partially unrounded to Ëii.

The later evidence confirms this. The Yorkshire Dialogue of 1673, which appears to record a North-West Yorkshire Dialect (Swaledale or Wensleydale), contains the following words: blood blude, fool fule, took teuk and tuke, also door deer. The $u$ or eu indicates iu, the $e e$ i'o before $r^{2}$. These sounds still remain in that dialect.

The Clavis to the Yorkshire Dialogue of 1684, which was written in the dialect of North-East or East Yorkshire, has eau

[^16]very consistently in words containing M.E. $\bar{o}$. For example, ceaul (cool), deau (do), feaul (fool); feaut (foot), geause (goose), neaun (noon), preauf (proof), reaut (root), seaun (soon), weaud (wood, mad); also before $r$, deaur (door), seaure (sure), and $k$, ceauke (cook), neawke (nook). This eau represents either $\varepsilon$ u or $\boldsymbol{s}^{\prime} \mathbf{2}^{1}$, most probably the former. Brokesby (1691), writing on the Dialect of Rowley (East Riding), says: 'In some words, for ao, we pronounce eu, as ceul, feul, eneuf, for cool, fool, enough. In some words, instead of oa, or o, or oa, we pronounce ee, as deer for door,...fleer for floor ${ }^{2}$.' His $e u$ represents eu or iu as the dialect development of M.E. $\overline{0}$, and his ee shows a new change before $r$ to $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{e}$.

Marsball, writing of the Dialect of Pickering Vale in 1788, describes the sound of M.E. $\bar{o}$ (oo in the literary language) as 'ea long'...'before $t, l, m$, th,' by which he means all consonants except $r$ and $k$. He instances 'boots beats, fool feal, broom bream, and tooth teath ${ }^{\text {s }}$.' Having already defined ' $e a$ ' as ' a vocal sound between the $e$ and $a$ long' (p. 309), and having differentiated it from 'eea' [ia] (p. 310), the dialect development of ' $a$ long' (M.E. $\bar{a}$ ), he must mean that in his day M.E. $\bar{o}$ had the sound $\varepsilon \cdot \varepsilon$, except before $r$ and $k$. He next speaks of the development before $r$ and $k$. The sound oo changes, he says, ' before $r$ mostly into $e e$ : as floor fleer, door deer ${ }^{3}$,' which indicates a development to i's before $r$. But 'the oo before $k$ changes into $u$ long; as book buke, to look luke ${ }^{3}$,' by which he means that M.E. $\bar{o}$ had become iu before $k$.

In the modern Dialect of Hackness (1900), M.E. $\bar{o}$ appears as $i \cdot a$, with weakening and unrounding of the second element of the diphthong, before ail consonants, except gutturals. Before $\mathbf{k}$, or in a final position owing to the loss of a former guttural, M.E. $\bar{o}$ appears as $\mathbf{j u}$; owing to the retention of the outglide $\mathbf{u}$ before velar consonants, and subsequent shifting of stress to the second element of the diphthong.

[^17]Tabulation of these records suggests the following line of development:


The view that North. M.E. $\bar{o}$ was fronted to the sound of French $u$, and that this $\mathbf{y}$ remained until the seventeenth century is incorrect for Yorkshire. Diphthongisation of M.E. $\bar{o}$ must have begun in the M.E. period, or we cannot account for the M.E. rimes like sone and fortone, or late M.E. forms like fewle (Cath.) from an earlier föghel fowl, and the well-marked diphthongisation of M.E. $\bar{o}$ in the seventeenth century Yorkshire Dialogues.

The unrounding and weakening of the second element of the diphthong eu first took place before $\mathbf{r}$ in Early Modern English (cf. Yorks. Dial., 1673) deer door, Brokesby (1691) fleer floor. For a similar unrounding before $r$, compare also si $\cdot \overrightarrow{(r)}$ sure, $\S 297 b$, and popular German Tier (Tür), natierlich (natürlich).

Borrowings from standard English appear in the dialect with u:, e.g. tu:l tool; u:f hoof; blu:m bloom.
160. M.E. $\bar{o}$ generally appears as $\mathrm{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\circ}$ :
bli•ad blood; bri•om broom; di•a to do; di•ən done; fli•e(r) floor; firet foot; gi'əs goose; ki•əl cool; gli•əv glove; mi'ən (Psalms mone) moon; ni'ən noon; ri'əf roof; ri'ət (Rolle rote) root; ski'əl (O.E. scōl) school ${ }^{1}$; smi'əo' smooth; spi•en spoon;
 (Rolle sho) she; Ji•ə (Cath. scho), pl. Ji•on (Clavis sheaun) shoes; sti•ed (pret.) stood: wi•od (Rolle wode, Clavis weaud) mad.

Shortened in fibin (lit. shoe-bind) bootlace, and in the unaccented forms di do, ti to, jo she.

[^18](a) From M.E. lengthenings of O.E. $\breve{b}, \breve{u}$ in open syllables to the long close $\bar{\sigma}^{1}, i \cdot \partial$ appears in: si $\cdot \boldsymbol{r l}$ (O.E. sole) sole, and di $\cdot \boldsymbol{( r )}$ (O.E. duru, N.M.E. dore) door.
(b) Also from M.E. $\bar{o}$ before $g h(x)$, when the spirant has become labialised to f: bi•of (Rolle bughe) bough; i'ni•of (Rolle ynogh) enough; pli•af (Cath. ploghe, Yorks. Dial. plewgh) plough; ti•of (O.E. tōh, Cath. toghe) tough.
161. But before $\mathbf{k}$, and M.E. $g h(\mathrm{x})$, when it has fallen, M.E. $\bar{o}$ has become iu.
(a) Before $\mathbf{k}$, iu occurs in: biuk (Rolle buke, boke) book; kiuk to cook; liuk (Rolle loke) to look; niuk nook; fiuk shook (pret.); tiuk took (pret.). Also in juk (O.E. hōc) a hook, and its derivative verb juk to pull with a jerk.

And, from M.E. lengthening of O.E. $\breve{6}$ in open syllables, before $\mathbf{k}$, in : smiuk (O.E. smoca) smoke; smiuk (O.E. smocian, Skeat) to smoke.
(b) iu occurs in a final position, owing to the loss of a former velar spirant (M.E. gh), in : driu (O.E. drōg-on, Rolle drogh) drew ; sliu (O.E. slōg-on, Rolle slogh) slew ; fiu (Rolle flogh) flew.

And from the M.E. lengthening of O.E. $\breve{u}$ in an open syllable to long close $\bar{o}^{1}$ in : siu (O.E. sugu, North. M.E. * sōghe) sow, pig; and medially in the rare word fiul (O.E. fugol, Rolle föghel, Cath. fewle) fowl.
(c) M.E. $\overline{\boldsymbol{o}}$ occurs as $\mathbf{j u}$ : (from íu, by stress-shifting in an initial diphthong) in ju:n (O.E. ofen, Rolle oven, Clavis yune) oven, where medial $v$ became $u$ after a back vowel [oven $>$ öuen $<$ Euən $>$ iuən > ju:n].
162. M.E. $\bar{o}$ has become $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}$ before $r$ in: mu•ə(r) moor".
163. M.E. $\bar{o}$ has been shortened to $\mathbf{u}$ before dentals in :
bruбe(r) brother ; mude(r) mother; uあə(r) other; flud flood; fud (Yorks. Mys. p. 83, l. 262, fudde) food; gud (Rolle gudes = goods, Yorks. Mys. p. 215, l. 450, gud = goods) good; ud hood;

[^19]fut (O.E. sceótan, N.M.E. schut) to shoot; mun是 month; munde Monday.

## M.E. $\bar{u}$.

164. M.E. $\bar{u}$, spelled $o u$, $o w$ (from O.E. $\bar{u}$ ), remains as $\mathbf{u}$ :
bru: brow ; bru:n brown; buins to bounce; a'buit about; du:n (Rolle doun) down; deru:zi drowsy; glu:mi gloomy; ku: cow ; klu:d cloud ; klu:t (O.E. clūt, Rolle clote) clout; fu:mot (O.E. fülmeař) a stoat; lu:d loud; lu:s louse; mu:s mouse; mu: $\theta$ mouth ; nu: (Rolle now) now ; i'nu: (lit. e'en now) soon, presently; mu:t (O.E. bimütian, Rolle moute) to moult ; su:k to suck ; su: $\theta$ south; spru:t to sprout; spu:t to spout; fruid shroud; tu:n town; ©u: thou; a'סu:t without; $\theta$ u:zn thousand; u: how; u:s house; u:ive(r) however; u:let owl; u:t (Psalms oute) out.

Shortened in : bud but; ruf (O.E. rūh) rough; rum room; sup (O.E. sūpan) to sup; usi hussif; $\theta u m$ thumb.
165. Before $r$, M.E. $\bar{u}$ has become $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}: \mathbf{s u} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}(\mathbf{r})$ sour ; $\int u \cdot \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{r})$ (O.E. scūr, M.E. schour) shower; u'a(r) our.

The introduction of a glide between $u$ : and $\mathbf{r}$ appears to be of modern origin. Marshall (Rural Economy of Yorkshire, vol. II., p. 312) wrote in 1788: 'The ou changes almost invariably into oo; as tlour floor; our oor; house hoose; mouse moose.' 'The ow is subject to a similar deviation; as bowls bools; power poor ; flower floor ; bow boo; cow coo.' His transcription of $\mathbf{u}$ : before $\mathbf{r}$ as simple ' 00 ' implies no glide, but the same pure sound as in hoose and coo. The pure u: is still kept before $\mathbf{r}$ in the Sheffield dialect ${ }^{1}$.

## 3. Diphthongs. <br> M.E. ai.

166. M.E. $\alpha i$, and Northern M.E. $\alpha i$, the equivalent of Southern M.E. ei, regularly appear as $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}$, the development having been [ai> $>\boldsymbol{P}>\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}]$. The earlier stage, $\varepsilon$ :, is still preserved in the Cumberland dialect ${ }^{2}$.

This M.E. diphthong arose from various sources, viz.:

[^20]
## 167. (1) From O.E. $2 \dot{g}$ :

bre'ən brain; de'a (Rolle day) day; de'azi daisy; $\mathbf{\varepsilon}$ 'ol hail; $\mathbf{f t} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (Rolle fayre) fair; me't may; me'ən main; ne'ol nail ; pe'ol pail; sle'on slain; te'al tail.

Shortened in : sed said, and in mebi (lit. may be) perhaps.
168. (2) From O.E. eg่, N.M.E. ay:
$\varepsilon$ 'el (O.E. eglan) to ail ; bre'ad (O.E. bregdan, to pull) to resemble; $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{\prime} \mathbf{g}^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial n}$ (Rolle agayn) again; le'ə to lay; $\mathbf{r e} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial l}$ rail; re'on (Rolle rayn) rain; se'o to say; se'ol sail; we'a way; $\partial^{\prime} w \mathbf{x}^{\prime} \cdot$ away; twe'on twain.

Here must be added also dire'ən to drain, which postulates an Anglian form *drēgnian from Teutonic $\sqrt{ }$ draug, dry; the vowel in * drēginian would become short in M.E. giving dreznen, dreine.
169. (3) From O.E. $\bar{x} \dot{g}$, N.M.E. $a y:$

ع'əठə(r) (O.E. ægðer, Rolle ayð̈er) either; gre'a gray; kle'ə clay; ne•oठə(r) neither: ste'əz (O.E. stळ̈ger) stairs.
170. (4) From Anglian $\overline{e g} \dot{g}$, West Saxon $\overline{r e} \dot{g}$ :

ع'o (O.Merc. hēg, O.E. hīeg) hay.
M.E. au.
171. M.E. $a u$ has regularly become [ $0:$ ], having passed through the stages $[a u>a:>0:]$ ]. The earlier stage, $\alpha:$, is still preserved in many Northumbrian and N.E. Scots dialects. M.E. au arose from various sources, indicated below; and with it fell M.E. al followed by a consonant (§96).
172. (1) From O.E. $a g$, N.M.E. $a g h, a w^{2}$ :
dro: (Rolle draw) to draw; 0:z (cf. O.E. haga, hedge) hawthorn berries; so: (O.E. sagu, Psalms sagh) a saying, 'saw'; no: (O.E. gnagan, Rolle Ps. gnaghe) to gnaw; so: (O.E. sagu, Cath. saghe) a saw.

## 173. (2) From O.E. $a w$ :

klo: (O.E. clawu) claw ${ }^{3}$; 0 o: (O.E. thawian) to thaw ; spro:l (O.E. spreawlian, Rolle sprawel) to sprawl.

[^21]174. (3) From O.E. $\bar{a} g$; N.M.E. $a g h, a w^{1}$;

0: (Prose, Cath. awe) to owe; bi'o: to own; o:n (adj.) (Rolle awn, $P_{s .}$ aghen) own.
175. (4) From O.E. $\bar{a} w$, N.M.E. $a w:$
blo: (Rolle blawe) to blow; kro: to crow; mo: to mow; no: (Rolle knawe) to know; slo: (Rolle slaw) slow; sno: (Rolle snaw) snow ; so: (O.E. sāwan) to sow; Өro: to throw.

But a u-glide has developed before 1 in: soul (0.E. sāmol, Rolle saule) soul.
176. (5) From M.E. $a u$, where $u$ is due to vocalisation of $v$ after a back vowel, in: lood (O.E. hläford, Psalms laverd, $>$ [lauərd]) lord; and in o:k (O.E. hafoc, M.E. havek, hauk) hawk.

## M.E. ei.

177. In Northern Middle English there was no diphthong $e i$. With the exception of kei key, which should appear as ke•o from N.M.E. cay, all the forms given below would normally appear in the Hackness dialects with the vowel is, the development of M.E. $\bar{e}$ after the loss of palatal spirant $(g h), \S \S 148,149$. The forms below are borrowings from the Midland dialect. That this borrowing dates from the Middle English period is apparent from the Midland forms eighth and height in The Pricke of Conscience, but we may suppose the majority of these words to be spelling-pronunciations based on the lit. Eng. form.
sit (Angl. æhta, Cath. aght, but Rolle eght) eight; sitt (Rolle eighth) eighth ; sit'ti:n eighteen; sit (Angl. hēhðu, Rolle heght, height) height; nsibe(r) (Angl. nēhbūr, Rolle neghebur, Cast. nighber) neighbour ; neiberud (Cast. nighberhud) neighbourhood; streit (O.E. striht, Cast. stright) straight; weit (O.E. gewiht, Rolle weght) weight.

[^22]ksi key is abnormal, and appears to be a survival of Angl. ceg, M.E. key, but it may be merely a spelling-pronunciation, of. $\mathbf{n E l}$ (O.E. hnल̄gan) to neigh (of a horse).

M.E. eu.

178. M.E. $\varepsilon u$, eu regularly appears in the dialect as iu. It arose from various combinations, viz: -
179. (1) From O.E. éaw:
tiu (O.E. teawian) to work laboriously, to become weary.
180. (2) From O.E. éow:
briu to brew; kliu (O.E. clēwe) a ball of wool, clew; riu (York. Mys. rewe) to rue, repent ; ṭriu (Cath. trewe) true ; triue (Rolle treuth) truth.
iu is found also in the preterites, bliu blew; griu grew; kriu crew ; miu mowed; niu knew; sniu snowed; siu sowed; Өriu threw.
181. (3) From O.E. $\bar{\imath} w$ :
ju: (O.E. iw) yew (tree); spiu (O.E. spīwan) to spew.
M.E. ou.
182. M.E. ou remains as ou in the dialect. It arose from various sources as enumerated below, and with it fell ol followed by a consonant (§ 117).
183. (1) From O.E. eah, Anglian $2 h$ :
fout (Anglian fæht) fought. This appears to be a genuine development, and not a byform from O.E. pp. fohten, cf. tout below.
184. (2) From O.E. $\bar{a} h$, N.M.E. $\check{g} h$, ou:
 nāhwað̃er, Rolle nouther) neither; out (O.E. āht, Rolle oght) anything ; out (O.E. ähte) ought; nout (O.E. nāht, Rolle noght) naught; tout (Anglian tāhte, Ormulum 18741 tahht) taught.

Shortened in nobat (lit. naught but) only, if; and in nut (Rolle noght, > nout > nut) not.
185. (3) From O.E. og, oh, N.M.E. $\quad$ ggh:
bout (O.E. bohte, Rolle boght) bought; douțe(r) (Rolle doghter) daughter; $\mathbf{r e}$ 'on-bou rainbow; floun flown.
186. (4) From O.E. $\bar{o} h$, N.M.E. $\partial g h$ :
brout (O.E. bröhte, Rolle broght) brought; sout sought; Oout (Prose thoghte) thought.

In the above words, the diphthong ou is derived from a late M.E., or Early Mod. E. ou [ou], in which the $u$ originally began as a glide before the M.E. $g h(x)$, and ended by absorbing it. The development would be oght $>\boldsymbol{o}^{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{t}}>\boldsymbol{o u} \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{t}}>$ out.
187. (5) From O.E. eáw:
fou (O.E. sceawian ${ }^{1}$ ) to show, where O.E. éa has presumably become eá, and the surviving $\bar{a}$ has coalesced with the medial $w$ to form the M.E. diphthong ou. The usual North. M.E. form was schewe. The dialect word therefore falle under suspicion of being a spelling-pronunciation. But cf. $\S 189$.
188. (6) From O.E. eow:
jou (Cath. 弓owe) ewe; strou to strew.
189. (7) From O.E. eów:
fourr (O.E. feower, Rolle foure) four ; foust fourth ; foua'ti:n fourteen; sou (O.E. seowian ${ }^{2}$ ) to sew; tfou (O.E. cēwan) to chew; where O.E. éo has become eó, and the surviving $\bar{o}$ has coalesced with the medial $w$ to form the M.E. diphthong ou.

Shortened in fotti (Rolle fourty) forty; fotni0 fortnight.
190. (8) From O.E. $\bar{o} w$ :
bi'stou to bestow; flou (Rolle flowe) to flow; giou-worm glow-worm; glou to glow; grou (Rolle grow) to grow.

[^23]${ }^{2}$ Ibid. p. 266.

## CHAPTER IV

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MIDDLE ENGLISH VOWELS IN STRESSED SYLLABLES (continued)

## The Scandinavian Element.

191. The words which are classified in the following chapter are scarcely borrowings, at least in the sense in which 'borrowing ' is used when the Romance element is spoken of. Rather are they relics of a time when, in East Yorkshire, Angle and Dane lived in adjacent villages and developed a mixed Anglo-Norse speech for their mutual traffic. This settlement dates from A.D. 876 , the year when Halfden shared out ( $g e d \bar{\varepsilon} l d e$ ) the lands of Northumbria, and the Danes became their ploughers and harrowers. The ninth and tenth centuries, especially the latter, would be the time when these words were Anglicised. Certainly many words were borrowed before the sound-changes known as breaking (or Guttural mutation) and Labialisation began in the Old Norse speech, which Mr Arnold Wall dates from the tenth century ${ }^{1}$. It is highly probable, therefore, that English and Norse mingled and blended almost immediately, in spite of the harrying in the south aud midlands. The word Dane has been used, but it must not be implied that these borrowed words come from the Danish. They come from the parent speech of Dane and Norseman alike, from which also Icelandic was derived. It was not Old Icelandic, and it is perhaps misleading to give Old Icelandic forms as the sources of the Scandinavian element in the dialect; but Old Icelandic, with its rich vocabulary, is the most convenient for illustration, and its nearness to the parent speech obviously fits it for this purpose.
[^24]1. Short Vowels.
M.E. $a$.
2. M.E. $a$ appears in the dialect as $a$, not only after $w$, but before $\boldsymbol{\eta}$; and, here differing from English words, before $\mathbf{g}$.

The fact that $a$ is found in many of the following words corresponding to an Old Norse, or Old Icelandic, rounded vowel written $\overline{0}$, indicates that the words were taken into the dialect before 'Labialisation' in Scandinavian began to affect the Norse a.
adl (O.I. öðla, Cath. addyl) to earn; asl-tri (O.I. öxultrè) axle; asl-ti•əO molar tooth; blaঠ̈ə(r) (O.I. blaø̈ra) to prate; blaঠ̈ə(r)(s) nonsense; brakn bracken, fern; gab (O.I. gabb) impudence; gad to gossip, to visit (usually in the phrase ti gad a'bu:t); gavlek (O.I. gaflak) a gavelock; kap (cf. O.I. kapp, a contest) to beat in a contest; kapin surprising; kam (O.I. kambr) a bank, ridge; kazn (O.I. kös heap, pile, cf. Swed. dial. kokase cowdung) cowdung ; naf (O.I. nöf) the nave of a wheel; nafi- $\cdot$ əd a simpleton; naṭe(r) (O.I. gnötra) to grumble; ram (O.I. ramr) pungent; skrag to choke; skragi thin; skrát (Rolle scratte) to scratch; stak (O.I. stakkr) rick; skrafl to scramble; slak (O.I. slakki) a dell; slave(r) (O.I. slafr) spittle; slaps (O.I. slöp $=$ offal) sink-refuse; slapstn a sink; stakə(r) (O.I. stakra) to stagger; $\boldsymbol{\theta} \mathbf{a k}$ (O.I. סak, Cath. thakke) thatch.
193. Northern M.E. a remains in mak (O.I. maka, N.M.E. mak) to make; and tak (O.I. taka, Rolle tak) to take, where lengthening in the open syllable would have been regular. Also in the derivative uptak, the climax, the 'limit'; as in the phrase 'Oatst 'uptak әv out a:v 'i'əd = that beats anything I've heard ; and in ransak (O.I. rannsaka) to ransack. mal to shout, presupposes M.E. $\breve{\alpha}$, the shortening of Scandinavian $\overline{\mathscr{E}}$ (cf. O.I. mēla).
194. M.E. a preceded by $w$ remains as $a$ :
sway (O. Norse swange) a meadow (in place names); want (O.I. wanta) to want; as does M.E. $a$ before $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ : $a \eta k$ skein of yarn; aŋkl to entangle; gan (O.I. ganga, Clavis gang) to go; ran wrong ; staŋ (O.I. stöngr) a shaft, pole ; $\mathrm{\theta ra} \mathrm{\eta}^{\mathrm{raj}}$ (O.I. orröngr) busy.
195. Scandinavian 'stopped' $g$ has usually remained after $a$, whereas O.E. 'open' $\dot{g}$ became vocalised :
agl to cut with a blunt knife; agworm (O.I. höggormr, Cath. hagworme) lit. hedge-worm, viper; flag a flat stone; klag to stick; nag (O.I. gnaga) to tease, nag.

But in 0:n (O.I. ögn) husk of barley, and in 10: law, Scandinavian $a g$, borrowed before its Labialisation to $\ddot{o g}$, became the M.E. diphthong au.
196. M.E. $a$, followed by $l$ and another consonant, has become 0:, by passing through the same changes as M.E. al from English sources, namely [al>aul>au>a: >0:]:
sko:p (O.I. skālpr, M.E. scălp) scalp; o:m (O.I. almr) elm tree; form (O. Norse skālma) to spread the legs before the fire; mo:mi (cf. O.I. mālmr, ore) rotten, soft.
197. M.E. ar before a following consonant appears regularly as a:, through assimilation of $r$. In words of this class from Scandinavian sources there appears to have been no fronting such as gave $\epsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{i n}$ many Romance words containing ar and consonant (§ 254).
a.sk (M.E. harsk) harsh ; ga:日 (O.I. garor) yard ; ka:t (O.I. kartr) cart ; spa:k (O.I. sparkr, lively) a gay fellow; wa:p to warp; na:k (cf.Dan. knarke, to creak) to annoy. This a: has been shortened before final $\theta$ in swa0 (O.I. swart) grass land, rind of bacon.

## M.E. e.

198. M.E. e usually remains (even before $g$ ), when derived from Scandinavian $e$ in closed syllables, including $j 0$ the $u$-mutation (breaking) of $e$. The fact that some dialect forms with $\mathbf{e}$ correspond, to Scandinavian forms with $j 0$ indicates that these words were borrowed before this sound change took place in Norse.
bek (O.I. bekkr, Cath. bek) brook ${ }^{1}$; efte(r) (O.I. epter, Rolle efter) after; esp (O.E. hæps, O.I. hespa) a hasp; fes (O.I. festa, a pledge) a hiring fee; getn (O.I. getinn pp.) gotten; felt (a weak pp. < O.I fela, str. to hide) adj. hidden; ket (O.I. kjöt) carrion; kep (O.I. keppa, to strive) to catch; kletf (cf. O.I. klekja,

[^25]to hatch) a brood ; mens (O.I. mennska, Psalms mensk) honour, decency; reklin (O.I. reklingr, an outcast) the smallest animal of a litter; rekn (O.I. rekendr, chain) a pot-hook or chain; sek (O.I. sekkr) sack ; skel (O.I. skella) to upset; skep (O.I. skeppa) a basket; skelp to flog; rig-weltid (a weak p.p. < O.I. welta, str. to turn) adj. overturned (of sheep); rend̨o(r) (cf. O.I. renna, wk. to make run) to melt fat; sled (O.I. sleði) sledge.
199. A short vowel remains in git (O.I. geta) to get; and in gi, giv (O.I. gefa) to give, where a long vowel in the open syllable would be regular. Probably the vowel is derived from the Anglian 2nd and 3rd pers. Present Indic. g̀ifes, -eô; gites, -ề; though giv may have been borrowed from standard English in the Early Modern period. In the form git, the i may be due to t. Cf. § 106.
200. Scandinavian 'stopped' $g$ has remained after $e$, whereas O.E. 'open' $\dot{g}$ usually became vocalised:
dregz (O.I. dreg) lees; eg (O.I. eggja) to incite; kleg (O.I. kleggi) a gad-fly; steg (O.I. steggr, Cath. stegge) a gander.

But in geron (O.I. gegn) near, convenient, Scandinavian eg fell, like O.E. e $\dot{g}$, to Northern M.E. ai.
201. Differing from O.E. $e$ followed by $l d$, Scandinavian $e$ did not become long in M.E before this consonant-group (see § 146), and there appears to have been no lengthening in the eighteenth century (§ 103). Short e remains:
eldin (O.I. elding) fuel ; geld (O.I. gelda) to castrate; geldin (O.I. geldingr) a castrated horse; keld (O.I. kelda) a spring (in place names).
202. Before $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, Scandinavian $e$ has been raised to i: diy (O.I. dengja) to beat; in (O.I. hengja) to hang (tr.); igz (O.I. eng) meadows (in place names), wiy ( Psalms weng) wing.

Except in the interjection dey ! = hang!
203. M.E. er from Scandinavian sources, before a following consonant, regularly appears as $a_{i}$, indicating early Mod. Eng. ar with subsequent assimilation of $r$ to a following consonant. The change to ar was certainly completed by 1680 , though the $r$ may then still have had some consonantal value, which it has now lost. $\boldsymbol{a}: \mathbf{b ə ( r )}$ (Prose herber) harbour, shelter ; ka:(r) (M.E. ker) marshy
ground ; ka:l (O.I. karl) a man, fellow ; ka:linz (cf. O.I. kerling, an old woman) buttered peas (prepared for 'Carling Sunday,' the Sunday before Palm Sunday); sa:k (O.I serkr) shirt; wa:k (O.I. werkja, Clavis wark) to ache; wa:k (O.I. werkr) pain, ache; wa:r (O.I. werr) adv. worse; upsta:t (O.I. uppsterte) an upstart.
204. Before $t$, M.E. $e$ appears as $\mathbf{i}$ in : kitlin (O.I. ketlingr) a kitten, and in git (O.I. geta) to get.

## M.E. $i$.

205. M.E. $i$ from Scandinavian sources regularly remains: dil-waṭe(r) (cf. O.N. dilla, to lull) soothing-syrup; fik (O.I. fika) to struggle; fit (O.I. fitja) adj. ready; gil (O.I. gil) a ravine; gilde(r) (O.I. gildra, Rolle Ps. gilder) a horsehair snare for small birds; grip a gutter; kinl to kindle ; kinlin firewood; kist (O.I. kista) chest; kitl (O.I. kitla) to tickle; klip (O.I. klippa) to shear wool ; nigl (cf. Swed. dial. niggla, to be stingy) adj. stingy ; skil (cf. O.I. skilja, to separate) to understand; skiṭoz diarrhœa; swizn (cf. O.I. swionna) to be singed; snikl a snare; wik (O.I. kwikr) adj. alive, lively ${ }^{1}$; wiks quitch, couchgrass; win gorse; smit (cf. Dan. smitte) to infect; smitl infectious; smit infection.
206. M.E. $i$ from Scandinavian $y$ usually appears as $i$, although there are examples of $\mathbf{e}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ forms from Scandinavian $y$, as well as from O.E. $y$. See § 111 .
i forms: flit (O.I. flytja) to remove (intr.); gime(r) (O.I. gymbr) a young ewe; gilt (O.I. gyltr) a young sow; kinl to kindle; liy (O.I. lyng) heather; midin dunghill, ashpit; rift (O.I. rypta, Cath. ryfte) to belch; Oik (O.I. ठykkr) friendly, thick.
207. e form : sket (O.I. skyrta) a skirt, which presupposes a M.E. skerte (with $e$ lowered from $i$ ) in which $r$ became assimilated to the dental consonant that followed.
208. u forms : muk (O.I. myki, Cath, mukke) earth, manure, filth; Өrust (O.I, orȳsta) to push, and by analogy brust (O.I. bresta, Cath. bryst) to burst.

[^26]209. Scandinavian ig remains in : big (Rolle bigg) big; lig (O.I. liggja, Rolle ligge) to lie, and perhaps in mig (cf. O. Norse kū miga, cows' urine) liquid manure.

Similarly M.E. ig from Scandinavian yg remains in: trig (O.I. tryggr) trim, neat.
210. Scandinavian ir has become e in: ken (O.I. kirna) a churn; kenmilk buttermilk. This vowel change is comparatively recent. In the Clavis to the Yorkshire Dialogue of 1684, the spelling kirne is given. In the form ken, early Mod. Eng. $i$ was lowered to $e$, and $r$ became assimilated to $n$.

## M.E. o.

211. M.E. o, from Scandinavian sources, in closed syllables, has regularly remained:
bos (O.I. bossi) master ${ }^{1}$; kok (cf. Dan. kok, a heap) a heap of hay; ${ }^{\prime}$ kros across ; lop (cf. Dan. loppe) flea; loft (O.I. lopt) an upper chamber; oke(r) (O.I. hokra) to stoop, walk awkwardly; skoperil (cf. O.I. skapt-kringla, a top) a skipjack, or teetotum (lit. shaft-reel) ; slokn (O.I. slokna, Rolle Ps. sloken) to quench; slop (O.I. sloppr) leg of trousers.

Scandinavian $g$ remains after $o$ in: fog aftergrass; and in ' cog.'
212. M.E. ol appears as ou (cf. § 117) in : stoup (O.I. stōlpi, M.E. stolpe) a post.
213. M.E. o remains before $r$ as a short vowel : skorf scurf.

This $o$ does not appear to have been lengthened before $r$, as in Lakeland fwo: [, fo: $\int$, in : fos (O.I. fors) a waterfall, where $r$ has become assimilated to $s$.

## M.E. $u$.

214. M.E. $u$, from Scandinavian $u$, and sometimes 0 , remains.
busl to bustle; lube(r) (cf. Swed. dial. lubber) a clumsy or lazy man; skufl (cf. Swed. skuffa, to push) to hoe, with a machine called a skufle(r); skuf (cf. O.I. skopt, hair) the nape of the neck; numskul (cf. O.I. numinn (pp. nema) bereft, palsied, + skull)

[^27]a simpleton; klubsțo(r) (cf. O.I. klubba, a club, and O.E. steort, a tail) a stoat; mun (Rolle mun) vb. must; stub (O.I. stubbi) subs. stump; vb. to uproot; tup ram; kuf (cf. O. Norse kussa) a call for cows; skutl (O.I. skutill, a trencher) a metal vessel used in foddering cattle; skrub underwood.
215. Scandinavian ug has remained intact:
lug to pull; lug ear; mugi damp and close (of weather); ug to carry.

## 2. Long Vowels. <br> M.E. $\bar{\alpha}$.

216. As in the case of English words of this class there have been two developments, namely to $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{r}$, and to $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$. The latter sound suggests fronting of M.E. $\bar{a}$ to $\varepsilon$ :, so that it fell together with M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$.
217. M.E. $\bar{a}$, caused by the lengthening of Scandinavian $\breve{a}$ in open syllables, has become $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{a}$ in :
dre't to drawl ; $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\prime}$ (cf. O.I. hala, to drag) to originate (from) ; le'əo' (O.I. hlaða) barn; ske'el to scatter; sle'ə (O.I. slā, Cath. slaa) to slay; te'ən (Rolle tane) pp. taken.
218. But M.E. $\bar{\alpha}$ appears as $i \cdot \partial$, suggesting fronting of the sound to $\varepsilon$ :, in:
di•əzd (O.I. dasað̈r, faint, Rolle dased) adj. dazed, addled (of eggs); gi'əp to gape; gi•ət (Psalms gate) gait; ə'gi•ət in motion; gi•əvl (O.I. gafl) gable; i•əvlaך oblong; ki'ək cake; si'əm same; skri'əp to scrape.
219. M.E. $\bar{\alpha}$, the northern survival of Scandinavian $\bar{\alpha}$, has become i-a:
bi•a日 (Rolle bathe) both; bli-aberi bilberry; ki'əl (O.I. kāl, Rolle Ps. kale) cabbage; ski•əlz scales; kri•ok (O.I. krākr, Rolle krake) crow, rook ; sli•-worm (cf. O.I. slă, to strike, Cath. slaworme) slow-worm.

## M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$.

220. As in the case of the English element, M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ has

M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ developed from various sources:
221. (1) From Scandinavian $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$, the I Mutation of $\bar{a}$ : skri•ək (O.I. skr̄̄̄kja) to shriek; skri $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ (O.I. skrēma) to scream; si'ət (O.I. s̄̄̄ti, Psalms sete) seat. But shortened in: geslin (O.I. g"̄slingr) gosling.
222. (2) From Scandinavian $\propto$, the I Mutation of $\bar{o}:$ ti $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial m}$ (O.I. toema, Clavis team) to empty.
223. (3) From the lengthening of Scandinavian short $e$ in open syllables: li-ək (O.L. leka) to leak; ni-əf (O.I. hnefi, Cath. nefe, Clavis pl. neaves) fist; $\theta i \cdot \mathrm{rk}$ (O.I. סekja, O.E. סeccan) to thatch; $\theta_{i} \cdot{ }^{2} \boldsymbol{z} \partial(r)$ (Cath. theker) thatcher; spi'on ${ }^{1}$ (cf. O.I. speni, a teat) to wean lambs; si'of (O.I. sef) rush. Shortened in nevil to beat (with the fist).

## M.E. $\bar{e}$.

224. As in the case of original English words containing this vowel, M.E. $\bar{e}$ from Scandinavian sources has become i:,-the same development as in standard English.
225. M.E. $\bar{e}$ from Scandinavian $\bar{e}$ appears as i: : $\operatorname{\theta itt}$ (O.I. ðēttr) water-tight. But the vowel was shortened in M.E., before the change from M.E. $\bar{e}$ to i , in: felo (O.I. fēlagi, Rolle felaghe) fellow.
226. M.E. $\bar{e} g h$ [e:q] derived from Scandinavian $i, e$, before the palatal spirant occurs as i:, as in the case of English words (§ 149) :
sti: (O.I. stigi, Rolle stegh, Cath., Clavis stee) a ladder; di: (O.I. deyja, Rolle deghe) to die.

## M.E. $\bar{\imath}$.

227. As in the case of English words containing this vowel, M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ has had three developments. Before voiceless consonants and $r$ it occurs as $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i}$; at the end of a word it has developed to ai; and before voiced consonants it appears as $a_{:}$, indicating a development to ai, with subsequent loss of the second element of the diphthong.

1 This word may be derived from O.E. spanan to allure, persuade; or from O.I. spenja with the same meaning.
228. si occurs before $r$, and breathed consonants in:
sleip (cf. O.I. slīpa, to whet) to strip off; snsip (O.I. snīpa) a snipe; sweip (O.I. swīpa) to sweep, to strike; trik (O.I. tīk) a tyke; msia(r) (O.I. mȳrr) mire; ssik (O.I. slīkr, Rolle slike, Clavis sike) such, probably owes its loss of $l$ to confusion with the N.M.E. form swilk (O.E. swylc).
229. a: occurs before voiced consonants in:
gra:m (cf. O.I. krīm) grime ; ra:v (O.I. rīfa, Rolle ryve) to rive; sa:l (O.I. sila) to filter (milk); sa:l (O.I. sili, Cath. syle) a milk sieve; ta:dinz (O.I. tīoindi) news; Ora:v (O.I. orifa) to thrive ; twa:n (cf. Dan. tvine) to whine, to complain.
sna:l (O.I. snigill) snail, has a lengthened vowel due to loss of $g$, M.E. *snile, Mod. Lakeland sni:l. O.E. snægl, snegel, would have given N.M.E. snayl, Mod. *sne'el.
230. ai occurs finally in wai (O.I. kwiga, Clavis whye) a heifer.

## M.E. $\overline{\text { on }}$

231. M.E. $\bar{o}$, from the lengthening of Scandinavian $\check{o}$ in open syllables, appears as u•ə:
bu•al (O.I. bolr) the trunk of a tree; pu•ok (O.I. poki) bag, sack; ru'ok (O.I. roka) mist.
232. Scandinavian $\bar{o}$, except before $k$ (§ 233), appears as u'v, indicating a M.E. $\bar{\jmath}$ in :
glu'e(r) (O.I. glöra) to stare; mu'ə(r) (O.I. môr) moor; u'ə(r) (O.I. hōra) whore; u'əst (O.I. hōsta) to cough; u'əst (O.I. hōsti) a cough.
 has been assimilated to the following $s$.

$$
\text { M.E. } \bar{o} .
$$

233. Before $k$, Scandinavian long $\bar{o}$ appears as iu, like M.E. long close $\bar{o}$ in this position :
kriuk (O.I. krōkr) crook; kriukt (Rolle croked) crooked; liuk (cf. O.I. lok, weed) to weed corn.

In the last case, the M.E. long vowel appears to be due to lengthening in the open syllable (M.E. *loken); though the analogy
of O.E. lōcian, M.E. loken, to look, must have had some influence upon this verb. The word occurs in the Catholicon Anglicum (1483) as lowke.
M.E. $\bar{u}$.
234. M.E. $\bar{u}$ remains in the dialect as $u$ :
bu:n (O.I. būinn) ready, forced to ; ḍru:p (O.I. drūpa) to droop ; druind (M.E. drounen, the $\mathbf{d}$ is from the pp .) to drown ${ }^{1}$; ku:l (O.I. kūla, a knob, boss) a swelling on the head; pru:d (O.I. prūðr < O.E. prūt, or O.Fr. prud) proud; shortened in: busk (O.I. būask) to busk.
235. Scandinavian $g$ has fallen, and M.E. $\bar{u}$ has become $u \cdot \sigma$ before $\mathbf{r}$ in: ju'ə(r) (O.I. jūgr, Cath. zowre) udder.
236. But o: occurs in: do:n (O.I. dūnn) down, soft plumage.

## 3. Diphthongs. <br> M.E. $a i$.

237. Northern M.E. ai appears as $\varepsilon^{\prime} \boldsymbol{z}$, its regular development, in the following classes of words, derived:
238. (1) From Scandinavian eg:
ge'on (O.I. gegn) near, convenient.
239. (2) From Scandinavian ei (Germanic ai) the equivalent of O.E. $\bar{\alpha}$.
be'ət (O.I. beita) to bait (a horse); ble'ək (O.I. bleikr) yellow (of eggs) ; $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ 'ol (O.I. heill) hale; de'ori dairy ; fe'ok (O.I. feikr) fake; kle'om (O.I. kleima) to daub, smear; le'ək (O.I. leika, Rolle layk) to play; le'ok (O.I. leikr) game, play; le'tt (O.I. leita, Rolle layt) to seek; re'ok (O.I. reika, Rolle rayke) to wander; swe'ə (O.I. sweigja) to sway; sle'op (O.I. sleipr) slippery; ste•ək
 Rolle wayk) weak.
240. (3) From Scandinavian ey, the I Mutation of $a u$, the equivalent of O.E. $\overline{v e}(<\overline{e a})$ :
be'zst (O.I. beysta) to baste, beat; fle'z (O.I. fleyja, Rolle flay) to frighten; sne'əp (O.I. sneypa) to snub, chastise.
${ }^{1}$ The O.I. form is drukna. Dr Björkman, Scandinavian Loan-words in Middle English, pp. 158, 176, assumes an original Scand. form *drugna.

## M.E. $a u$.

241. M.E. au has regularly become ox, through the stages au>a:>0. The diphthong was derived in Middle English:
242. (1) From Scandinavian $\partial g, a g$, Northern M.E. $a g h$, $a w$ : 10: (O.I. lög, Rolle lagh, law) law ; o:n (O.I. ögn, Cath. awn) awn, husk of barley.
243. (2) From Scandinavian $\bar{a} g$; Northern M.E. $a g h$, $a w$ : lo: (O.I. lāgr, Rolle Ps. laghe, law) low.
244. (3) From M.E. au, which arose from the loss of a spirant after $a$, and before a velar consonant: o:kəd (O.I. öfugr, contrary, + suffix -ward, Rolle awkeward) awkward; mo:k (O.I. markr, Oath. mawke) a maggot.

## M.E. ou.

245. Scandinavian $a u$ regularly became $o u$ in Northern M.E., and the diphthong remains in the present dialect as $\mathbf{o u}$ :
douli (O.I. daufligr) lonely, dull; joul (O.I. gaula, Rolle goule) to howl, yell ; with $\mathbf{j}$ by analogy with 'yell' (Cath. zowle) ; loup (O.I. hlaupa) to leap; lous (O.I. lauss) loose; louz (Cath. lowse) to loosen; rout (O.I. rauta, Rolle Ps. rowt) to roar, bellow; rountri mountain ash; ou (O.I. haugr, Rolle how) hill (in placenames); nouțət (O.I. naut-hirðir) lit. neatherd, a simpleton; skoup (cf. Lakeland skaup) scoop.
246. But o: is found in: go:ki (cf. O.I. gaukr, cuckoo) a simpleton, (adj.) awkward ; and in go:mlos (cf. O.I. gaumr, heed) stupid.
247. M.E. ou is shortened to $\mathbf{u}$ in: gumfn (Scand. gaumr +-tion) gumption, understanding; and in trust (O.I. traust, Rolle trayste) trust.
248. M.E. ou, from Scandinavian og, occurs also as ou in : lou, usually (lili)lou (O.I. log, logi, flame, Rolle low) a bright flame.

## CHAPTER V

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MIDDLE ENGLISH VOWELS IN STRESSED SYLLABLES (continued)

## The French Element

249. Dialect borrowings from French present considerable difficulty. The lengthening of the Old English and Scandinavian short vowels in open stressed syllables was already accomplished when the bulk of the French element was taken into the language between 1250 and 1400 ; nevertheless when Norman-French words were anglicised in the Middle English period, a, e and o became or remained long when they occurred in open stressed syllables. In unstressed syllables short vowels remained short, even if afterwards the Germanic accent was given to such a syllable. For example, be'okn bacon and pe'əpe(r) paper had the long $\bar{a}$ in M.E. because the French $a$ lengthened in the open syllable in the same way as O.E. $\breve{a}$, but baril barrel and damij damage retain their short vowel, because it was unstressed when the words were taken into the language, and when the stress was shifted to the first syllable by analogy with original English nouns, the law of lengthening in open stressed syllables had ceased to operate. So that the development of French vowels in English depends partly on stress, and partly upon original quantity. Classification is therefore rather a complex task. 'The system here followed is to use the Middle English vowel system as a basis,-for all French vowels, even the nasals (except $\tilde{a}$, which sometimes became $a u$ ), were anglicised. As it would be absurd to include every Romance word which agrees with the standard pronunciation, since one can
never be certain that such a word is not a recent borrowing, only those dialect words are included which differ from standard English, in form or meaning, or words common to both which illustrate a particular sound-change.

## 1. Short Vowels.

## M.E. $a$.

250. Short $\boldsymbol{a}$ is found in the dialect in the following words, indicating M.E. short $a$ in closed syllables, or in open syllables which originally were unaccented:
apron (O.Fr. naperon) apron ; april April ; bas bass (in music); basțat bastard; danl to dandle; galok left-(handed); gafe(r) (Fr. grand + fader) master; ga'majiz (Fr. gamaches < Prov. garamacha, leather from Ghadamas, Tripoli) gaiters; ganṭi (Fr. chantier) a gantry; glandez glanders; granmudeo(r) grandmother; kalit (cf. Fr. caillette, quail) a gossip; kal to gossip; kabij cabbage; manij to manage; manijment (lit. management) manure; maṭelos immaterial; mari (intj.) verily; faf (Fr. fâcher) to vex, to trouble; o:d'fafond precocious; pastà(r) (Rolle pastur) pasture; ratn (O.F. raton) rat; satn Satan; stati statue, statute; statis a hiring-fair; fami chamois (in the word Jami-le\%e(r)); saf (Fr. chassis) a window frame; tali (Fr. tailler) to agree (in number); tali-stik a stick on which reckonings are cut; tap (Mid. Fr. tapper) to hit; travil to go with speed; vast a great deal, many; vali value; and, of course in such borrowed words as have a short $\boldsymbol{¥}$ in standard English.
251. After $\mathbf{w}$, as in the case of Teutonic words, $\alpha$ remains:
kwaleti gentry; kwari quarry; warent to guarantee; walep (O.Fr. walop (subs.), M.E. walopen, to gallop) to flog, etc.
252. Before $l$, M.E. $a$ became $a u$ in the late M.E. period, and appears in the dialects as $0:$, with assimilation of $l$ to a following consonant: e.g. sko:d to scald; so:m (Psalms salme) psalm.
253. Before nasal consonants, M.E. $\tilde{a}$ became $a u$ and appears as 0 :, the regular development of M.E. $a u$ in :
dyo:m (door)-jamb; o:nt (O.Fr. hanter) to haunt; mo:n3
mange ; moingi ( $0 . F \mathrm{Fr}$ mangie) mangy, ill-tempered ; tformo(r) (Fr. chambre, Clavis chaumber) chamber; ko:moril (Yorks. Dial. cameril) a gambrel, a wooden bar for hanging butchers' carcases by the hind legs.

The words ant aunt; dans dance; tfans chance; and words in which $\tilde{a}$ became M.E. $\tilde{a}(\S 271)$ are exceptions to this rule.
254. M.E. ar followed by a second consonant has had a double development. It appears as $\mathbf{a}_{\text {: }}$, and $r$ has been assimilated to the following consonant in: ga:din (N.Fr. gardin) garden ; ga:țe(r) garter; kwa:ṭe(r) (Cast. quahter) quarter; pa:zl (O.Fr. parceler, to measure) to cover ground, to walk briskly.

But in the following words M.E. $a$ was fronted and lengthened in the early Modern English period ${ }^{1}$. The change is first apparent in the spelling of Castillo's dialect rimes (ca. 1830), so that probably the dialect copied fashionable English in this respect.

ع'əmi (Cast. pl. aimies) army; ke'əd (Cast. kade) card ; kwe'et quart; pe'ət (Cast. pait) part; pe'ətnə(r) partner; tfe'əd3 (Cast. chaige) to charge.

## M.E. e.

255. Short e is found in the dialect in the following words, indicating M.E. short $e$ in closed syllables, or in open syllables which originally were unaccented:
demikt diseased (of vegetables) ; det (Rolle dette) debt; fend (O.Fr. defendre) to provide ; letis lettuce; medl (A.Fr. medler, to mix) to interfere; mend to recover health ; merilz (Fr. merelles) merrils; mes disorder; mezlz (Cath. meselle) measles; prentis apprentice; speks spectacles; 'eronsiu (O.Fr. herounceau) a heron; in'sens to explain; mel (O.Fr. mail, Rolle, Cath. melle) a large wooden mallet ${ }^{2}$; nevi (Fr. neveu) nephew; wesp wasp.

[^28]256. M.E. $e$ is raised to $\mathbf{i}$ before nasals in: ingn engine; kimist chemist; firmi chemise; triml to tremble; also in dris dress (subs. and vb.).

But a occurs before 1 in : salori celery.
257. M.E. er from French sources, followed by a second consonant, regularly became ar in Early Modern English, and appears in the modern dialect as $a$ :, with assimilation of $r$ to the following consouant:
a:b herb; kon'sa:n to concern; pa:les (lit. perilous) very, Scots unco'; sa:mn sermon ; sa:t (O.Fr. cercher, M.E. serchen) to search; sa:v to serve ; sa:vis service ; va:min vermin; va:dzes verjuice ; wa:(r) (Rolle were ${ }^{1}$ ) war.
258. In open accented syllables, M.E. $e$ before $r$ has become $i \cdot ə$, indicating M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ (§ 276), but in open unaccented syllables the $e$ remained short, even after the syllable acquired Germanic accent, in the following words, where M.E. $e$ became $\boldsymbol{a}$ before $\mathbf{r}$. The consonant $\mathbf{r}$ has been retained before a following vowel.
tarie(r) terrier; vari (O.Fr. verai, Clavis varra) very.

## M.E. $i$.

259. Short $\mathbf{i}$ is found in the following words, and in all borrowed words which have i in standard English:
istri a tale; list to enlist; live( $\mathbf{r}$ ) to deliver; minf mince; misis mistress, wife; mis'tfi:vos mischievous; pipin seed of fruit; twilt (lit. to quilt) to flog; spikit (probably a confusion of "spike" with O.Fr. espigot) spigot.
260. But some dialect words point to M.E. close $\breve{e}$, or at least a very lax 1 in borrowings containing Fr. i. Professor Luick cites from The Prick of Conscience the following $e$-spellings: cete city; pete pity; preson prison; and suspecion suspicion², though one must add that these spellings rarely occur. Whether $i$ became $e$ in French borrowings in the fourteenth and fifteenth

[^29]centuries is more doubtful than the fact that, in the late seventeenth century, short $i$ in the dialect was so like $e$, that the writer of the Yorkshire Dialogue of 1684 regularly rimed short $e$ and $i$ together ${ }^{1}$. The following e-forms still are beard : krekit cricket; lenit linnet; redzesţe(r) to register; ren§ to rinse; revit to rivet (of shoes).
261. This $\mathbf{e}$ from M.E. $i$ remains before $\mathbf{r}$ in : serop syrup; sperit spirit.

## M.E. o.

262. Short o is found, indicating M.E. short $o$ in closed syllables, or in originally unaccented open syllables, in: boni pretty; kodl to pamper; podif broth; forin foreign; $\int 0$ og to jog, jolt.

Also before -er (Fr. -re) in: propa(r) proper; povati (Rolle povert) poverty ; and, of course, in all borrowed words which have o in standard English.
263. Before $l$, M.E. o has become ou, with loss of $l$ before a consonant, e.g. boul to bowl; koul to rake mud; koule(r) a road scraper; roul to roll; soudze(r) soldier; troul (M.Fr. troller) to roll.

But o remains in sode(r) which is derived from a French form without $l$ (M.E. soder, M.Fr. souder), and o: is found in po:z to kick, beat, which Wright derives from an O.Fr. poulser, or posser (Windhill Dialect, p. 63, § 225).
264. Before $r$ followed by a consonant, accented M.E. o usually lengthened to $\mathbf{0}$ : and appears as $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ in fu'ədy forge; fu'as force; fu•ast forced; ku•ad cord; ku•ət to woo; ku•atin wooing; ku'an corn; tu'at torch.

Unaccented M.E. o appears to have remained short in the following words, where $r$ has been assimilated whenever a dental consonant followed it: fotn (Rolle fortone) fortune; mis'fotn misfortune ; kotn (O.Fr. cortine) curtain; motae(r) mortar.

[^30]
## M.E. $u$.

265. Short u occurs, from O.Fr. 0, Fr. ou, or from Fr. $u$ [y], in:
bukit (O.Fr. boket) bucket, pail ; bules (Cath. bulas) the wild plum; guli a knife; guzl to eat greedily; kustat custard; kuzn cousin: kuvar to cover; stubl stubble; supor supper; trubl trouble ; tfuk (Fr. choquer) to throw ; bi'grut (O.Fr. groucher, to grumble) to envy.
$\mathbf{u}$ appears, as in literary English, after $j$ in: dzudz judge; dyust just; and also without lengthening before 1 in: pulit ( Fr . poulet) a young hen; pultis poultice; and pultri poultry.
266. Short $u$ followed by $r$ has regularly become $o$, with assimilation of $\dot{r}$ to a following dental consonant:
ab'zod absurd; dzoni journey; fonif to furnish; foniṭe(r) furniture : korb curb; koronz currants; nos nurse; ot to hurt; pos purse; tonəp turnip; otfn (O.Fr. irecon, Rolle Ps. vrchun) hedgehog.

## 2. Long Vowels. <br> M.E. $\bar{a}$.

267. M.E. $\bar{a}$ from French sources appears either as $\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{o r}$ as i•a, like M.E. $\bar{a}$ of Old English and Scandinavian origin. The sound i'a denotes fronting in Middle English to the open $\bar{\varepsilon}$ position.
268. M.E. $\bar{a}$ due to lengthening of French $\breve{a}$ before -st appears as i.o:
pi-ost paste; ti-ast (O.Fr. taster, Rolle taste) to taste; wi-əst (O.Fr. wast) waste.
269. M.E. $\bar{a}$ due to French $a$ in open accented syllables (standard English ei) appears as i.a in :
bli.om blame; firos face; fil.om flame; li•os lace; pli•ot plate; si'əf (N.Fr. sauf) safe; si•əv to save; sti•obl stable; ti-əbl table; with initial $i$ consonantal, in jabl able.
270. Otherwise it appears as $\varepsilon \cdot \sigma$ in words of this class :
be'at (Rolle abate) to abate, to reduce in price; be'alkn
bacon; ne'əta(r) nature; re•at (O.Fr. rateir, M.E. raten) to scold ; te•oti (Span. patata) potato; etc.
$\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{e}$, not $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}$, occurs before $\mathbf{r}$, e.g. di'kle'z(r) to declare; kon'țe'ori contrary; $\mathbf{r e} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ rare; pe'e(r) (Fr. parer) to peel.
271. M.E. $\bar{a}$, from Freach nasalised $\tilde{a}$ (standard English ein), appears as $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$ in:
 (Rolle chaunge) to change; $\varepsilon^{-\quad \text { ngil angel. But French nasalised }}$ $\tilde{a}$ also became M.E. $a u$, modern 5:. Compare § 253.

## M.E. $\vec{\varepsilon}$.

272. M.E. open $\bar{\varepsilon}$ from French sources regularly appears in the dialect as i $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, like M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ of Old English and Scandinarian origin. This vowel sound arose in Middle English from various sources.
273. (1) From Romance $e$ in open accented syllables: fieəbl (Rolle feble) feeble; pi-əl (Cotgrave peler) to strip off skin; pri-at $\int(\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. precher) to preach; tfi•ot (cf. O.Fr. eschete, rent) to cheat; si-ənə (It. sena) senna.
274. (2) From Anglo-French open $\varepsilon$ (O.Fr. e, ai, $e i, i a$ ): diz'i•əz disease; i•əz (Rolle eese) ease; pi'os (Rolle pees) peace; pli $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial z}$ to please ; tri•ət to treat; pli•əd to plead; fi•tte(r) feature; pli•əge(r) pleasure; gri•əz to grease, flatter; kri•əm (O.Fr. cresme) cream; kri•əţe(r) creature; ri•ol (O.Fr. reël) real; li•əzo(r) leisure ; pli'ən (Rolle pleyn) to complain; ri'əzn reason ; si•əzn (Rolle seson) season; tri•əkl (O.Fr. triacle) treacle; vi•əl (O.Fr. veël) veal.

In the early modern English period, the vowel has been shortened to i in: mizo(r) (O.Fr. mesure, Rolle mesur) measure; trizo(r) (Rolle tresor) treasure; and sometimes in pliza(r) pleasure. The vowel was shortened to $e$ in fezn (O.Fr. faisan) pheasant, in Middle English.
275. (3) From French $e$ before -st in: bi-əst (Rolle best) beast, pl. bi-as horned cattle, and its derivative skel-bi-as (cf. O.I. skilja, for *skelja to separate, divide, + O.Fr. beste) a partition in a cattle stall; firest (O.Fr. feste) feast.
276. (4) From French open $\varepsilon$ (ai), or close e (ie), before $r$ in an open accented syllable: kli'ə(r) (Rolle clere) clear; tji $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (O.Fr. chiere, Rolle chere, face) in the phrase wat tfi-or, a salutation; mi•e(r) mere; pi•e(r) peer.

In an open unaccented syllable M.E. er became $a r, \S 258$.

## M.E. $\bar{e}$.

277. M.E. $\bar{e}$ from Anglo-French close $e$ (O.Fr. e, ei, $i e, \propto, u e$ ) appears as i: in the Hackness dialect, as in standard English:
biif (O.Fr. bœf) beef; di'gri: (Rolle degree) degree; di'si:v (A.Fr. deceivre) to deceive; pi:pl (O.Fr. pueple) people; piss (O.Fr. piece) piece; fi: (A.Fr. fee) fee; kri:l (O.Fr. creil) a butcher's hurdle; tfi:f (Rolle cheef) chief; ri'ṭi:vo(r) retriever ( $\operatorname{dog}$ ).
M.E. $\bar{\imath}$.
278. M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ from French sources has developed like M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ of Old English and Scandinavian origin to $\mathbf{\varepsilon i}$, ai, or a:. It appears:
279. Before voiceless consonants and $\mathbf{r}$ as $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon i}$ : dzsis (O.Fr. giste) joist; leisons license; preis price; teis to entice; ad'veis advice; umpeia(r) umpire.
280. Finally as ai : trai (O.Fr. trier) to try.
281. Before voiced consonants as a: : fa:n fine; pra:z (Fr. prise, p.p. of prendre) to open with a lever; stra:v to strive; kon'ța:v to contrive.
282. In fi'mi: chemise, a modern borrowing, which has been mistaken for a plural form and consequently shorn of its final $s$, we have an attempt to imitate the French pronunciation preserved.

$$
\text { M.E. } \bar{\jmath} .
$$

283. M.E. open $\overline{0}$ has become raised to $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}$ in French, as in English and Scandinavian words.
284. French 0 in open accented syllables appears as $u \cdot \boldsymbol{v}$, corresponding to standard English ou in:
 cloak; klu'əs (adj.) close; klu'əz to close ; ku•ət coat; ku•ət $\boldsymbol{j}$
 poacher; ru•əb robe; ru•eg rogue; stu'əri story; sku•ə(r) (O.Fr. escorrer, L. excurrere) to have diarrhœea.
285. French o before -st also appears as $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$ : ru•əst to roast; tu'est toast.

## M.E. $\bar{o}$.

286. French $o$ in open accented syllables appears as $i \cdot \partial$, the regular development of M.E. close $\bar{\sigma}$, corresponding to standard English u: in:
bi'at (O.Fr. bote) boot; firol (O.Fr. fol) fool; mi•əv (O.Fr. movoir) to move; pri•of proof; pri•əv (O.Fr. prover) to prove; im'pri'əv (O.Fr. aprover) to improve ${ }^{1}$.

$$
\text { M.E. } \bar{u} .
$$

287. M.E. ou from Old French ou, oö, eu, on appears as u: in the dialect:
bu:nte bounty; du:t (Rolle dout) doubt; dust (v.) to fear, e.g. a'du:t itl bi ə'wet de'ə ti'de'ə I am afraid it will rain to-day; gu:n gown ; gu:t gout; ku:kume(r) cucumber ; ku:nt (Fr. conter) to count; a'ku:nt account; ku:tf couch; kru:n crown; $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} l u$ : to allow; mu:nt to mount; ə'mu:nt amount; pu:də(r) powder; ru:nd (O.Fr. roönd) round ; su:nd (Fr. son) sound; stu:t stout; tru:ziz (Fr. trousses, late M.E. trowses) trousers; u:ns ounce; vu: (O.Fr. veu) vow.

But 0: occurs in : 0: (Fr. houe, late M.E. howe) hoe.
288. Before $r, \mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$ occurs: flu'ə(r) (Rolle flour) flour, flower; di'vu'ə(r) to devour; ku'ət to woo; $\mathbf{k u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial s}$ course, coarse ; pu•ə(r)

[^31]poor; pu•eli poorly, in ill-health; sku•e(r) (M.E. *scoure, O.Fr. escurer, L.L. excūrare) to scour; su•əs source; pu•a(r) (O.Fr. poer, Rolle powere) power ; tu'e(r) tower; u•ə(r) hour.

And also before an unaccented syllable containing a back vowel in: lu'əns allowance.

## M.E. $a i$.

289. Northern M.E. $a i$, from French $a i$, $e i$, appears as $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, the regular development of M.E. ai from all sources. It passed through the stages [ai $>\varepsilon:>\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}$ ].
290. From French ai:
bre'ə (O.Fr. braier) to bray ; $\mathbf{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (O.Fr. haire) hair; fe'al (Rolle fayle) to fail; fe'ə0 faith; ge's gay; gre'onz brewers' grains; kle'om to claim; me'osțo(r) (O.Fr. maistre, Rolle mayster) master; pe'ə to pay; ple'ən plain; se'əm (O.Fr. sain) lard ; ple'este(r) (O.Fr. plaistre) plaster; te'ole(r) tailor; tre'el
 wait; ve'on vain.
291. From French ei:
kon's6'ət to imagine; pre'a to pray (but pri\%i, prithee, please); pe'on (Rolle payne) pain; pe'ont paint; pre'əz (Rolle prayse) to praise; re'on rein.

Short in ren (O.Fr. reincier) to rinse.

$$
\text { M.E. } a u .
$$

292. M.E. $a u$ has regularly become $0:$, as in the case of the standard English development [au > a: > 0:], e.g.:
bro:n (O.Fr. braon) brawn; dzo:nis (Rolle jaunys) jaundice; fo:n (O.Fr. faon) fawn; fo:t (O.Fr. faute) fault; ko:za (N.Fr. caucie) causeway; po:m (Fr. paume) palm (of the hand).

Shortened in $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{\prime} k \mathbf{k}$, koz, because.

> М.Е. oi, ui.
293. M.E. oi from French $u i$, oi, appears as oi in the dialect ${ }^{1}$ :

[^32]koit quoit; moide(r) to confuse; moista(r) moisture; boil to boil; oil (Psalms oyele) oil.
294. oi appears too in foisti (O.Fr. fusté) fusty.
295. But $\mathbf{u}$ appears before $\int$ in: bufil (O.Fr. boissel) bushel; kufin (O.Fr. coissin) cushion.
296. Those words which in Modern English have assumed the vowel-sound oi retain their original vowel, or its development, in the dialect : e.g. ba:l (O.E. bȳl, M.E. bile) a boil (on the neck); sist (M.Du. hyssen) to hoist ; dzeis (O.Fr. giste) joist.
$$
\text { M.E. } \ddot{u}, e u \text {. }
$$
297. M.E. $e u$ from French $e u$, eau appears as iu (initially ju:) even after $\mathbf{r}$ and 1, and with it has fallen M.E. $u$ [eu], from Fr. ü:
biuti (O.Fr. beaute, Rolle beute, Yorl. Mys. bewte) beauty; bliu blue; briut brute; feбəfiul (Fr. feuille) feverfew ; fliu flue; friut fruit; fiurias furious; ju:s use; ju:z (Rolle use) to use; kriuil cruel; griuil gruel; pius puce; piuṭe(r) pewter; piue(r) pure ; riul (York. Mys. rewlle) rule ; riuin ruin ; siuga(r) sugar; viuli pleasant to the eye.
(a) But ou is found in: poue(r) (O.Fr. purer, to clarify) to pour.
(b) And $\mathrm{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\circ}$ in: $\boldsymbol{s i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (O.Fr. seür, Clavis seaure) sure.

Here the second element of the diphthong was unrounded and weakened before $r$, in the eighteenth century, exactly as ëu from M.E. $\bar{o}$ was weakened in door and floor, $\S 159$.
(c) M.E. $e u$, (ue) from French $\ddot{u}$, $e u$, weakened to $\mathbf{i}$ in : a:gi to argue; nevi nephew; stati statue, statute; and vali value; after the first syllable acquired Germanic stress.
(d) M.E. eur, (ure) from French üre, weakened to or in: miza(r) (Rolle mesur) measure; ne'atte(r) nature; pastio(r) pasture; pikte(r) picture; trize(r) (Rolle tresor) treasure; after the first syllable acquired Germanic stress.
(e) M.E. eun, (one) from French üne, has become syllabic in fotn (Rolle fortone) fortune.

## CHAPTER VI

## THE VOWELS IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES

298. Vowels in weak or unstressed syllables have lost their original tone, as in standard English, and are degraded, through slack habits of articulation to $\mathbf{i}$, $\boldsymbol{\partial}$, or are even dropped altogether. The general rule, which is subject to many exceptions, is that front, vowels become i, and back vowels become $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, in an unstressed syllable.
299. The stressed syllable in the following words differs from the 'standard' pronunciation :
edi'ke'ət to educate; aku'ədin'lai accordingly; kon'ṭre'əri contrary ; en'velap envelope; 'polismən policeman.
300. $\partial$ is found in prefixes, containing back vowels: $a$ - ə'la:v alive; ə'bu:t about; ə'laŋ along; əli'on alone; $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ wakn awake; $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ bu:n above; ə'gi•ən again; ə'ws'ə away.
com- kə'mit to commit ; kə'miti committee ; kə'lekt to collect. for- fa'git to forget.
pro- pro'si:d to proceed; pro'dius to produce.
301. But $\boldsymbol{a}$ is also found in:
 instead.
302. $\partial$ is also heard in suffixes containing back vowels: widə widow; medə meadow; barə barrow; marə marrow; winde window.
-ock adok haddock; padok paddock; fulək great speed; brazok charlock; bulak bullock; mulok muddle.
－ture kri•əțə（r）creature；ne＇əṭə（r）nature；pasțə（r）pasture； pikțe（r）picture．
－ous reitjes righteous；pa：les parlous．
－mas kesmos Christmas；ma：tnmes Martinmas．
－most omest almost．
－ward fored forward；o：kəd awkward．
－able ri＇spektebl respectable ；ju：zəbl useable；git＇atabl accessible．
－worth penə日 pennyworth；a：pa日 halfpennyworth．
303．And also in：
kolop a slice；waiop to beat；galop to gallop；kubod cup－ board；kusțet custard；musțet mustard；o：les always；storep stirrup；tonəp turnip；u：lat owl；unḍəd hundred；sumet some－ thing；olidə holiday ；jisțədə yesterday；sundə Sunday ；mundə Monday ；karet carrot；stage日 stackyard．

304．$\partial$ is also the pronunciation of the suffix－er（North．M．E． －er，－ir）before consonants；－or before vowels：fade o（r）father； buțe（r）butter ；nive（r）never；sluțe（r）to slide．

305．a appears in－less，as：maţolos immaterial；sakios foolish；and in－herd as fipot shepherd；nouțot（neatherd） simpleton．

306． $\mathbf{i}$ is found in prefixes containing front vowels：
be－bi＇set beset；bi＇日ink to bethink；bi＇o：to own ；bi＇jont beyond．
$e$－i＇ni $\cdot$ of enough．
mis－mis＇talk mistake；mis＇du：t to suspect；mis＇is＇ə to mislay．
to－ti＇di＇a ado；ti＇de＇o to－day．
with－wið＇dro：to withdraw ；wi§＇od to withhold；not－ wio＇standin notwithstanding．
de－di＇ke＇e decay；di＇pend to depend；di＇fai to defy； di＇sist deceit．
dis－dis＇gust disgust．
re－ri＇diem to redeem ；ri＇zolv to resolve．
se－si＇iekt select；si＇kiue（r）secure．
en－in＇dzoi to enjoy；in＇gs＇odz to engage．
307. $i$ is heard in suffixes containing front vowels:
-et blankit blanket; bulit bullet; revit rivet; lenit linnet; pulit pullet.
-ed krabi crabbed; ragi ragged; ne•eki naked; but la:nid learned, and others have [id].
-ing herin herring; filin shilling; fi'olin shearling (adj.), and in all words ending in lit. Eng. -ing, -ling.
-ship frindjip friendsbip.
-ish gudif good; fe'orif fair; a:fif cowardly, afraid.
-y bodi body; boni bonny; emti empty; evi heavy; moni many ; slipi slippery.
308. i also occurs in the dialect pronunciation of the suffix -age damif damage; manifment manure; podif porridge; kabij cabbage.
309. And also in: a:vist harvest; forin foreign; fotni $\theta$ fortnight; letis lettuce; a:vin (O.E. ifegn) ivy; olin (O.E. holegn) holly; dokin dock (plant); pultis poultice; weskit waistcoat; a:gi to argue; afi'ds'avl affidavit; nevi nephew; o:pni halfpenny; stati statue; statisis statute hirings; vali value; wagin (Du. wagen) waggon.
310. But e remains in the suffix-ment: aŋment hangment! (an interjection of annoyance) ; a:giment argument; dzudzment judgment; lotment an allotment-garden.

3I1. $\mathbf{u}$ remains in the suffix -ful: pe•olful pailful; anful handful.
312. And o remains in: ni•obodi nobody ; sumbodi somebody.
313. Vowels in unaccented syllables have fallen altogether where $\mathbf{1}, \mathrm{m}$, or n are the final sounds in a suffix following a consonant:
-le anl handle; kanl candle; kredl cradle; kudl to embrace; britl brittle; smitl infectious; Өiml thimble.
-om bodm bottom; fadm fathom; bi:zm besom.
-dom friidm freedom; lindm kingdom; wizdm wisdom.
a:dn to incite; frozn frozen; tyozn chosen; but the adjectival suffix $-e n=$ made of, is obsolete, e.g.: a wud anl a wooden handle, a goud kru:n a golden crown.
-stone brunstṇ brimstone; grunstn grindstone; wetstn whetstone.
-on be'okn hacon; mutn mutton.
Also in ingn engine.
314. Prefixes have disappeared initially in: bake tobacco; be'rt to abate; demik epidemic, disease (of vegetables); koz because; lu•əns allowance, lunch; lotment allotment; list to enlist; live(r) to deliver; prentis apprentice; teis to entice; te'əti potato ; ke'əgn occasion ; pli•on to complain ; pistil epistle; fend to provide.
315. Unaccented vowels have disappeared medially in: dzenroli generally; kumpni company; regle(r) regular.
316. The vowel $\boldsymbol{a}$ has developed between consonants in: galok-andid (O.Fr. galc) left-handed ; tforop (M.E. chirpen, chirken) to chirp; and medially in: fo'rimp (M.E. shrimp) shrimp.

There is a tendency to insert $\boldsymbol{e}$ between $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{k}$ in such words as 'fork,' 'York'; also before $m$ in 'worm.'
317. The same phenomenon, namely degradation of the original vowel owing to careless articulation, is seen in onesyllabled words, which are used frequently in the unemphatic, unstressed part of a sentence. The following words have weak (unstressed) forms when no emphasis is put upon the word.

## Weak forms of particles.

$\boldsymbol{a}$, I. $\boldsymbol{a v}_{\mathbf{v}}$ I have; emphatic form $\boldsymbol{a} \mathbf{e}$ before consonants, $\boldsymbol{a} \mathbf{e v}$ before vowels, e.g. av'fun $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ peni, I have found a penny; accented: a 'e fun ə peni.
$a z, ~ I ~ a m ; ~ e m p h a t i c ~ f o r m ~ a: z, ~ e . g . ~ ' a: z g a i n ~ g i f ~ a z ' w i s l ~ i ' n i ' ə f, ~$ $I$ am going, if I am well enough.
bi be, by; bin been; bad but.
di do; diz dost, does.
d, ad (1) had.
(2) would. $d$ is used after vowels, əd after consonants, e.g. gif ad o'noin, ad a'gon If I had known, I would have gone; but it əd $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime}$ kild im, if it əd $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime} \mathrm{fo} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { l }} \mathrm{ln}$ It would have killed him, if it had fallen.
eev, have; $\mathbf{e}$ is used for the infinitive, and in conjugation, before consonants; ev before vowels, e.g. isțo 'gain ti e jan, are you going to have one; but az'gain ti ev $\boldsymbol{e}$ 'liuk, I am going to have a look.
ez hast, has.
ə (1) a, a boni be'ən a pretty child.
(2) her, before consonants, e.g. a fado(r) her father.
(3) have, weakest form, e.g. asto 'di'ont, gif ad o'no:n, I should have done it, if I had known.

The $\boldsymbol{0}$, prefixed to no:n in the if-clause, is either a relic of O.E. ge, M.E. $y$; or a repetition of 'have' from the main clause, by analogy.
(4) on, of. Since $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ is the nnaccented form of both 'on' and 'of' before consonants, on is used where we should expect a, before vowels, e.g 'o:l on om, all of them; asl 'tel on im, I shall tell of him. Before vowels, 'of' appears as əv, and in confusion is sometimes used for 'on,' e.g. 'o:l əv a ' $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{op}$ all on a heap.

fe(r) for; fro from.
i (1) he.
(2) 'in' before consonants; before vowels iv is used, e.g. סa 'karid ar i 'tu:s iv a 'fit They carried her into the house, in a fit; i'ta:m in time; but, iv $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'ig in a bad temper.
inte into.
jo (1) ye, you.
(2) your, before consonants; otherwise jar.
(3) you are, before consonants; otherwise jər.
kəd could; kən can.
1 will; e.g. it 1 di $\cdot \partial=$ it will suit ; ăl, ĭl, will $=I$, he, we, will. mi me, my; mo may; med might; mon must.
no(r) nor, than (after a comparative).
nt not, is attached to the auxiliary verb: e'ant have not; esnt has not; wient will not; wudnt would not; sa:nt shall c. $\mathbf{H}$.
not ; sudnt should not; dosnt durst not; ka:nt cannot; kudnt could not.
s us, after voiceless consonants, e.g. lets bi 'of let us go.
sl shalt, shall; sod should; si (1) so ; (2) see (Imperative) e.g. sifo look !
fo she.
$t$ (1) the; (2) it.
ti to, tiv before vowels, e.g. az'gain tit'tjot tiv o'wedin I am going to church to a wedding.

סoz there's, there is.
סo (1) thee, e.g. a 'teld $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'si'ə I told you so.
(2) they, e.g. 'סo mun 'di $\partial z$ 'best $\delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ 'kan They must struggle on as well as they can.
(3) they are, סor before a vowel.
(4) their, ©or before vowels, e.g. ©or up ti ©o 'țriks ə'gl'on They are trying their cunning again.

סo, te thou, in interrogative forms, e.g. 'si'סə, 'liuksta, Sam ! סu'no:z az o 'tjap at leiks'sens Look here Sam! you know I am a man who likes reason ; 'wilțo fut up will you be quiet?
$\mathrm{\sigma}_{\mathrm{i}}$ thy, thee, e.g. a 'tel $\mathrm{\sigma}_{1}$, Sam, si•om $\partial z$ a 'teld $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{i}}$ o:d 'fe'oठo(r)...I tell you, Sam, just as I told your old father....
v have.
wo(r) (1) our, accented form u•o(r); (2) was, were.
wi(r) we are; wi we, with.
$\mathbf{z}$ (1) is, e.g. az I am, ©uz thou art, iz he is.
(2) has, e.g. az I have, סuz thou hast, iz he has.

## CHAPTER VII

## the consonants

The consonants are here considered in the following order: Semivowels $w, y h$; Liquids $l, r$; Nasals $m, n, n g$; Labials $p, b, f$, $v$; Dentals $t, d, t h$; Sibilants s, sh, ch, $j(g e)$; Palatals $g h$; Gutturals $c(k), g, g h, h$.

## 1. Semivowels. <br> M.E. $w$.

318. Initially, M.E. $w$ has remained before vowels :
wajkl (O.E wancol) tottering; waṭe(r) water; win furze; wi:ti chaffinch; weml to overturn; waront to guarantee; walop (cf. O.Fr. galoper, to gallop) to beat; winde window; wit wing.
M.E. $w$ has remained in the groups $\mathbf{d w}$, hw, $q u(\mathbf{k w})$, sw and tw:
dwa:n (O.E. dwinan) to dwindle; wat what; wi•a who; kwe'əvo(r) to jig, to fluctuate; kwik (adv.) quickly; kwe•t quart; swi•ət sweat; swi•əl (O.E. swळ̄lan) to gutter; twit〔bel earwig; twi•ə two.
319. Exceptions: $w$ has fallen in strong syllables between $s$ and a back vowel ${ }^{1}$ in :
suf (O.E. swogan, M.E. swough) to sough ; si•ə (O.E. swā) so ; surad (O.E. sweord, M.E. swurd) sword; sumpi swampy.
O.E. $w$ has fallen in ${ }^{*} \mathrm{c}(\mathrm{w}) y \mathrm{ll}$ an, M.E. cullen, which appears in the dialect as kil to kill, and perhaps in seik (O.E. swylc, Rolle swilk) such.
M.E. $w$ has disappeared from the unaccented forms of wil will; wad (Rolle wald) would, which appear as 1 and od.

[^33]M.E. $w$ has disappeared before $\mathbf{r}$ (Rolle wr), as in modern standard English; râ (Rolle wrath) wroth; rak wreck; raj wrong.
$w$ (or $w r$ ?) has become $\mathbf{r}$ in rezl (? O.E. wesle, M.E. wesel) weasel.
320. Medially, M.E. $w$ followed by a final vowel (O.E. -wa, -we; M.E. -owe, -ewe) has become a after a consonant; jara milfoil; spare sparrow; winde window.
321. As the consonant beginning an unaccented syllable, M.E. $w$ has disappeared from the following suffixes:
-ward: bakədz'we'ə backwards; forəd forward; o:kəd awkward.
-worth: o:pa日 halfpennyworth ; penə0 pennyworth.
-ways: o:les always.
-what: sumot something.
M.E. $w$ has also disappeared from weak syllables in :
anso(r) to answer; koykə(r) to conquer; grunsel (O.E. grundeswelge) groundsel; but it remains in: $\theta$ refwud (O.E. rersciwald) threshold, by analogy with wud wood.
322. Loss of O.E. $w$ in the dialect.
O.E. $w$, as a binge between an accented and an unaccented syllable, has fallen as follows:
O.E. $a w$, M.E. $a u$ has become o: : klo: claw.
O.E. $\bar{a} w$, M.E. $a u$ " "

0:: blo: to blow; no: to know; sno: snow.
O.E. éaw, M.E. eu " " iu : diu dew; fiu few.
O.E. éow, M.E. eu " ", iu : niu new; briu to brew; triue truth.
O.E. eów, M.E. ou " " ou : fouər four ; sou to sew.
O.E. iw, M.E. eu " " iu: spiu to spew.
O.E. ōw, M.E. ou " " ou : glou to glow; grou to grow.

## M.E. $y h, z$.

323. M.E. $y h, 3$, remains as [ j$]$ in :
jed (Angl. gerd) three feet; jo you; jis yes; ji•ə(r) year; jest yeast; jalo yellow ; jistedə yesterday; jit yet; jon that;
bi'jont (O.E. begeondan) beyond ; jat (O.E. geat) gate; ju•ə(r) (O.I. jūgr) udder;
and appears as $\mathbf{g}$, due to Scandinarian influence in :
git (O.E. gietan, O.I. geta) to get; giv (O.E. giefan, O.I. gefa) to give; and their compounds, also in bi'gin to begin, and perhaps in gif (Rolle yf, Ps. zif) if.
324. M.E. $y$ (O.E. ge-) survives as in in
i'ni-af (Rolle ynogh) enough. Also perhaps as a before past participles, only in the protasis of conditional sentences, e.g. gif ou:d ${ }^{\prime}$ 'teld im, id a 'kumd If you had told him, he would have come; though this o may merely represent 'have' borrowed in false symmetry from the apodosis.
325. Modern $\mathbf{j}$ has developed initially, through shifting of stress from ía or ía to id, in:
jabl able; jak oak; jakron acorn; jake(r) acre; jal ale; jam home; jan one; jans once; jal whole; and through stressshifting from íu to iú in: ju: (O.E. īw) yew-tree ; juk (O.E. hōc) hook ; ju:n (O.E. ofen) oven (§ $161 c$ ).

Also in words which contained late M.E. eu from O.F. $\ddot{u}$ : ju:s (s) use; ju:z to use.

## 2. Liquids.

$$
\text { M.E. } l \text {. }
$$

326. M.E. $l$ has remained initially, medially before vowels, and finally in unaccented syllables after a consonant:
luk luck; luv love; ble'ok yellow; klik to sieze; fala fallow; kanl candle; smitl infectious.
327. Medially before consonants, M.E. $l$, following a short back-vowel, has fallen :
bo:k (O.E. balca, M.E. baulke) a rafter; ko:d (Rolle cald) cold; off (M.E. haulf) half; sost salt; no:p (M.E. nolpen, Clavis naupe) to knock on the head; kouto(r) (L. culter, M.E. colter) coulter (of a plough) ; moudiwa:p (M.E. moldewarpe D.D.) a mole; goud gold; stoun stolen; stoup (M.E. stolpe) a post; sud (Rolle suld) should; wad (Rolle wald) would; sa:nt shall
not; wi-ənt will not; except before a second $l$ : kosl to call; sto:l stall ; toul toll; koul to rake.

But $l$ remains after front vowels:
teld told ; seld sold; filld field; eldin fuel ; geld to castrate ; wa:ld (M.E. wilde) wild ; bi:ld (M.E. *bẹ̆lden) to build.
328. M.E. $l$ has also disappeared from :
stik (Rolle slike) such; witj (Rolle whilk) which; and wen§ (M.E. wenchel) a woman.
329. Apparently there has never been an $l$ in the forms:
fort (O.Fr. faute) fault; mout (M.E. mouten) to moult; posm (O.Fr. paume) palm (of the hand); po:z (O.Fr. poulser, posser) to kick; sode(r) solder.

## M.E. $r$.

330. M.E. $r$ has remained, initially, medially, and finally, if followed by a vowel:
ra:v to tear; beri (Rolle bery) to bury; beṭor on bețor better and better; Orust to thrust.
331. M.E. $r$ has fallen after $a$ and $e$, when a consonant followed:
wa:m warm; ke'əd card; a:bz herbs; a:t heart; pe'at part.
332. M.E. $r$ after $i, o, u$, and $y$ has been assimilated to following dental consonants, viz. $\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{n}$ and $\mathbf{s}$, but has survived before:
(1) $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{f}$ : tforəp to chirp : korb to curb; torf turf.
(2) $k, g$ : bork birch; fork fork; work to work; orgn organ.
(3) m, l: storm storm; borli burly; worm worm.
333. Metathesis of medial $r$ has taken place in:
brist bright; brust (pp. brusn) to burst; friit fright.
334. M.E. $r$ retains its original position in krudz (M.E. crud) curd ; but is lost in unded hundred.
335. Final $\mathbf{r}$ is only heard in the dialect if it ends a period; or if a vowel begins the following word when final $\mathbf{r}$ is heard in
 'wa:r Is it better than (lit. nor) you thought? No, it's worse. Or, to illustrate final $\mathbf{r}$ followed by a word beginning with a vowel, the answer might be: ' Fi , 'beṭor on 'iver a 'Өout Yes, better than I ever thought. Before consonants, final $\mathbf{r}$ invariably falls.

## 3. Nasals.

$$
\text { M.E. } m \text {. }
$$

336. M.E. $m$ has remained in all positions, and is syllabic in unaccented syllables beginning with a non-liquid consonant :
merilz merels (a game); mig liquid manure; wimin women; rum room ; ta:m time; bodm bottom; bi:zm besom.

$$
\text { M.E. } n .
$$

337. M.E. $n$ has usually remained in all positions, and is syllabic in unaccented syllables beginning with a non-liquid consonant:
neb beak; ni•of fist; kanl candle; don to put on; dokin dock; apn perhaps; kazn dried cows-dung; fezn pheasant.
338. M.E. $n$ has disappeared finally after $\mathbf{l}$ and $\mathbf{m}$ :
kil kiln; mil nill; dam damn; im hymn; o:tm autumn.
Also from the preposition 'in,' which appears as $i$ before consonants, iv before vowels; and from jan one, which becomes ja: before consonants, e.g. ja: man one man, but jan os one horse.
339. M.E. $n$ has disappeared before $s$ in unaccented syllables: ə'sti-ad instead; Robisn Robinson; Alisn Allanson.
340. M.E. $n$ has disappeared by confusion with the indef. article in: apron (O.Fr. naperon) apron; umpsie(r) umpire; but has been added from this source to: n6'əp jackanapes; nik-ni•əm nick-name; no're'ofn uration.
341. An $\mathbf{n}$ has been inserted 'before $\mathbf{g}$ or $\mathbf{d 3}$ in the weaklystressed middle syllable of a trisyllable stressed on the first syllable' 1 in ma:tinge'al martingale (a harness strap to hold

[^34]a horse's head down) and in pasindzo(r) passenger. There are no 'nightingales' in the Hackness district.
342. Final -in occurs in the dialect, representing North. M.E. -and, as the ending of the pres. participle: ganin, ga:in, gain going; cumin coming; di:in dying; and also, representing North. M.E. -ing, as the verb-noun suffix : leikin (Rolle lykying) pleasure, liking: bi'ginin (Rolle beginnying) beginning; untin hunting.
$$
\text { M.E. } n g \text { [ }] \text { ]. }
$$
343. M.E. $y$ has remained unchanged :
a'maj among; raŋ wrong; tej to sting ; tejz tongs; in (O.I. hengja) to hang; liy (O.I. lyng) heather: Oraך (O.I. orröngr) busy; aŋk (O.I. hönk) a hank; and has developed in words borrowed from the French in : kajko(r) blight; ink (O.Fr. enque) ink; sipl (O.Fr. sengle, L. singulus) single. Also by reason of the assimilation of $d$ to $n$ in : oykotjo(r) handkerchief.
344. Save that M.E. $y$ has regularly become $n$ in final unaccented syllables: fa:din farthing; gezlin gosling; filin shilling, and in the words len $\theta$ length; stren $\theta$ strength; where O.E. $y$ was fronted, probably in the M.E. period, before the dental suffix -p.
345. The dialect regularly has the sound $\eta$ where the 'standard' pronunciation has Ig as the equivalent of lit. medial $n g$ :
sipl single ; swipl-tri swingle-tree, the cross-bar which hangs in the traces at the heels of horses; mipl to mingle; fipa(r) finger; lajo(r) longer; straŋə(r) stronger.

## 4. Labials.

$$
\text { M.E. } p \text {. }
$$

346. M.E. $p$ bas, with few exceptions, remained in all positions:
pa日 path : pund pound; tfapta(r) chapter; dolop a heap, lump; lamp lamp.
347. It has been assimilated to the following consonant in:

Bruntn Brompton; emti (O.E. $\overline{æ m t i g, ~ M . E . ~ e m p t y) ~ e m p t y ; ~}$ kubod cupboard.
348. M.E. $p$ has been voiced in:
bab'ta:z to baptise; debe depth; drab (O.Fr. drap) drab, probably owing to the influence of the initial voiced consonant, cf. bud but.

## M.E. $b$.

349. M.E. $b$ has generally remained in all positions, except after m: brig bridge; a'bu:t about; jabl able; web web.
350. In the dialect, $b$ is never found after m, not only finally in words like: ki'am comb; lam lamb; wi'əm womb; klam climbed (clomb); $\theta$ um thumb; but also medially where $b$ is sounded in the 'standard' pronunciation: tJo:me( $\mathbf{r}$ ) chamber; Oiml thimble; triml to tremble; a'seml to assemble; raml to ramble; gaml to gamble; and in gima(r) (O.I. gymbr) a yearling ewe.
351. In nobat (lit. not but) only, b has assimilated $t$.

$$
\text { M.E. } f
$$

352. M.E. $f$ has remained initially, finally, and medially before $t$ :
fan to winnow; fetf (O.E. fetian, M.E. fecchen) to fetch; felfo(r) fieldfare; fik (O.I. fika) to wriggle; flit (O.I. flytja) to remove ; felt (cf. O.I. fela) to hide ; faria(r) (O.Fr. ferrier, a blacksmith) a veterinary surgeon; fiksfaks beef sinew; frid3 to rub; for (O.Fr. forre, sheath) fur ; fruməti (O.Fr. fromentee) frumenty; fle'ə to frighten; flumoks to confound; fudl to confuse; kaf chaff; ri•of roof; torf turf; weif wife; ni•of (O.I. hnefi) fist; aft handle; fift fifth; sikst sixth; twelft twelfth.
353. In rift to belch, and in loft (O.I. lopt, air) loft, -ft represents Scandinavian [ft], the O.I. spelling -pt.
354. M.E. $f$ has fallen in : dzoli jolly; onkot fo(r) handkerchief; o:pni halfpenny; and in elṭo(r) (O.E. hælftre) halter.

## M.E. $v$.

355. M.E. $v$ has usually remained in all positions:
venomos venomous; vike(r) vicar; vari very; nevil to strike with the fist (ni•of) ; ra:v (O.I. rifa) to tear; evn (Rolle heven) heaven; sta:v (O.E. steorfan, to die) to be cold or hungry; stevn (O.I. stefna) to cry out; fuv to shove.
356. M.E. $v$ has become f in: bili af belief, by analogy with ' grieve,' 'grief'; ' prove,' ' proof,' etc. ${ }^{1}$
357. M.E. $v$ has been lost in:
e, ez have, has; ə'nenst (O.E. on-efen-st) opposite; i•ad (Rolle heued) head; gi (North. M.E. gif) to give, pp. gin (North. M.E. gifen); li-adi lady; wumen woman; sen self; o, o of.
358. In o:k (M.E. havek) hawk; oue(r) over; and losd (M.E. laverd) lord, $v$ became $u$ in late M.E. after a back vowel, likewise in ju:n (M.E. oven) oven.
359. $\mathbf{v}$ is intrusive in the dialect, before vowels in: frev from; iv in; tiv to; wiv with; div do. This $v$ probably first arose in to and do. North. M.E. to and $d 0$ would become tiu and diu in early Mod. Eng. (§ 159), whence the forms tiv and div arose before vowels, by the passage of a medial $u$ into $v$. At the end of a sentence the normal development of M.E. long close $\overline{0}$ to $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{a}$ took place, whence the forms ti.e and di.a.

Note.-Mr John Hill of Goathland, an old gentleman of over 80, tells me that formerly initial ' $f$ ' could frequently be heard in forms which in Southern English had v, such as : fat vat: fiksn vixen, but now only the literary ' $v$ ' is heard. The ouly relics of Northern M.E. initial ' $f$ ' for literary ' $v$ ' which I could find out, are the regular pronunciations of the fairly common surname Ventress as fentris, and of Vane as fe'on.

[^35]
## 5. Dentals.

$$
\text { M.E. } t \text {. }
$$

360. M.E. $t$ has generally remained in all positions:
tup a ram; lat (O.E. lætt) a lath; fift fifth; sikst sixth; la:tl little; te'oti potato.
361. Except that $t$ has fallen after the breathed spirants $\mathbf{s}$ and $\mathbf{f}$ by assimilation before $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{m}$, and $\mathbf{n}$ : blosm (O.E. blostma) blossom; brusn (pp.) burst; busl to hurry; Orosl thrush; Orusn (pp.) thrust ; ofnz often.
362. And that before $\mathbf{r}$, -er, or a syllable containing $\mathbf{r}$, a spirant glide is heard after $t$ (see § 28): tre'ops to walk idly; tre'əl to drag; oṭe(r) to talk idly; etṭo(r) after; sisțe(r) sister; fonițe(r) furniture; pasta(r) pasture; pikțe(r) picture.
363. M.E. $t$ has been assimilated to $s$ or $n$ in :
bi-os (pl.) cattle; dzsis (O.Fr. giste) joist; and in koran a currant. There was no $t$ in fezn (O.Fr. faisan) pheasant.
364. M.E. $t$ has become $d$ in: bud but; bodm bottom; and at the end of many short words before vowels and voiced consonants; e.g. gid get, gid owa 'bai get away by!-the call to a sheepdog when rounding up a flock; led let, ledz gid 'u:t $\boldsymbol{e}$ (is ladz! let's get away from here, you fellows!; and likewise id it, pud put, pud id 'du:n! put it down!

The glottal stop is never used for intervocalic $t$, as in some dialects; nor is the $\mathbf{r}$ which is so common in many dialects in this position (cf. Windhill p. 88, § 290, and Ellis, Early English Pronunciation, Vol. v., p. 420) often heard. I think the only case in which it is sometimes used is the word git get. It is evident that in these words our dialect $\mathbf{d}$ is the link between M.E. $t$ and modern provincial $\mathbf{r}$ which has resulted from the voiced dental stop becoming spirant in an unstressed position.
365. In this dialect also, $t$ has become $\mathbf{d}$ in prodistont protestant; and in podif (O.Fr. potage) broth; and appears as an outgrowth in tuft (O.Fr. touffe) a tuft.
366. The suffix -tion appears as $\mathbf{j n}$, as in the 'standard' pronunciation, the explanation being that the unaccented termination M.E. [siu:n] became [sjon] and the assimilation of the dental spirant (s) to the palatal spirant ( $\mathbf{j}$ ) produced as a compromise the alveolar spirant ( f ).

## M.E. $d$.

367. M.E. $d$ has usually remained, except before $\mathbf{r}$, or -er :
de'otl (adj.) by the day; do:n down, fluff; ni:dl needle; ra:d to ride.
368. Before $\mathbf{r}$ M.E. $d$ occurs as $\mathbf{d}(\S 29)$ initially in:
dre'ot to drawl; dri:p to drip; dri: dreary; dre'əv (pret.) drove, and medially in: blaḍe(r) bladder; diḍe(r) (M.E. dyderen) to shudder; fod̨e(r) fodder; gande(r) gander; inde( $\mathbf{r}$ ) to hinder; lade(r) ladder; sinḍe(r) (O.E. sinder) cinder; tinde(r) tinder; pu:de(r) powder; wunde $(\mathbf{r})$ wonder; unded hundred.

But d has become of after a lengthened vowel in $\mathrm{fe} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial} \boldsymbol{\%} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{r})$ father, and $\mathbf{r} \varepsilon^{\prime} \partial \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\circ}(\mathbf{r})$ rather, which appear to be borrowings from eighteenth century standard English. Short vowels did not lengthen in the dialect before the suffix -er, -ir.
369. M.E. $d$ has become $\mathbf{t}$ in the preterites and past participles of weak verbs, after a voiceless consonant, as in 'standard' English, e.g. alsst asked; smiukt smoked; kapt astonished.
370. M.E. $n d$ has fallen by assimilation to $\mathbf{n}$ before a following consonant, e.g. kanl candle; kinlin firewood; anful handful; frinz friends; grunz sediment; gransun grandson; lanlo:d landlord; anso( $\mathbf{r}$ ) answer, and in the compound adjective branniu brand-new.

As a rule d remains in a final position: end end; band band; fend to provide; frind friend; pund pound; u:nd hound, and $d$ is intrusive in dru:nd (M.E. drounen) to drown, and su:nd (Fr. son) sound. But d has fallen after $n$ in: on and; Ou:zn thousand; uzbn husband, and in the preterites and past participles of the verbs bind to bind; find to find; and wind to wind, which are ban, bun; fan, fun; wan, wun; and
also in the ending of all present participles，which in North． M．E．was－and，and is now－in．

371．The dialect is correct in having no excrescent $d$ in： bu：n（O．I．buinn）about to；len（O．E．lǣnan，Yorlcs．Dial．len） to lend；and in $\theta$ une（r）（O．E．סunor，Psalms thoner）thunder．

$$
\text { M.E. } t h[\theta] .
$$

372．Initially and finally，M．E．th has usually remained a voiceless spirant，e．g． $\operatorname{\theta ak}$ thatch； $\mathrm{\theta i}_{\text {：（（O．E．réoh）thigh；} \theta \text { ruf }}$ through；$\theta$ roy busy；$\theta o z d e ~ T h u r s d a y ; ~ b a \theta ~ b a t h ; ~ p a \theta ~ p a t h ; ~$ wo日 worth；ti•a tooth；triu日 truth；go日（O．I．gjör厄）girth； swa日（O．I．svörör）grass；bi－e日 both．

And it remains medially in nosӨril（O．E．nostyrl，M．E．nose－ thirl）nostril，where the＇standard＇pronunciation is an attempt to escape the northern dialect tefore r．For example，York－ shire dialect speakers who attempt to talk＇fine＇habitually say tred for thread，tri：for three，and so on．

373．M．E．th has disappeared before $\mathbf{w}$ in ：wak，to beat；witl to shape wood（lit．to cut with a（M．E．）thwitel－a knife，related by gradation to O．E．$\delta$ witan，to cut）；also after win wi with ；wiv before a vowel．

374．M．E． th has become $\mathbf{t}$ in the ordinals：fourt（fourth）； sevnt seventh；levnt eleventh；Өot＇ti：nt thirteenth，etc．，by analogy with those which originally ended in $-t$ ，e．g．fost （O．E．fyrst）first；fift（O．E．fiftā）fifth；and sikst（O．E．sixtā） sixth．

## M．E．th［ $\mathbf{\delta}]$ ．

375．Voiced M．E．th has remained medially，and is now voiced finally，where the following vowel has become mute：
 either；le＇oठ（O．I．hlaøa）a barn ；swi•ə\％（O．E．swaठu）a row of cut grass；we\％o（r）which（of two）．
376. M.E. voiced th has become $d$ in: fadm fathom; fidl fiddle: and after M.E. $r$ in: bodn burthen; fa:din farthing, and ${ }^{\prime}$ 'fod to afford.
377. M.E. th is voiceless before s: pa0s paths; mun日s months.
378. M.E. th has been assimilated to $\mathbf{s}$ in : bask (O.I. batask) to bask; ask (O.E. aðexe) a newt;-where by a metathesis, so common in O.E., $x$ [ks] became sk-also in kli•az (O.E. clāð̃as) clothes; and has disappeared in mo:k (O.I. maðkr, Cath. mawke) a maggot.
379. In pronominal and adverbial words, M.E. initial th is

 סu: thoul. When $\delta \mathbf{x}$ : is used interrogatively after the verb, it remains if emphatic; wil 'סu: wilt thou? ; diz 'סu: dost thou?; but it is weakened to țe if unemphatic, 'wiltè wilt thou? ; disțo dost thou?

This sheds some light on the development of the definite article. The Northern M.E. scribes wrote it as the or pe. The writers of the Yorkshire Dialogues of 1673 and 1684 wrote it 'th.' Now it is heard as a prefixed $t$. What has happened is that in early modern English it became $t$ in unemphatic positions, which has weakened to $\mathbf{t}$, owing to its being prefixed to nouns, and consequently losing its aspiration. Its unemphatic development consequently was $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{>}>\boldsymbol{t}>\mathbf{t}$. The definite article still remains as $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{0}$, the M.E. unemphatic form, when used with emphasis, or before 'Lord' meaning God, and in phrases like wat $\delta$ o divl etc.

## 6. Sibilants. <br> M.E. $s$.

380. M.E. $s$ has remained initially:
sal (Rolle sal) shall; sud (Rolle suld) should ; sa:l (O.I. sile) a sieve: scip to filter; skep a basket: skrat to scratch; snig to drag wood; snikl a snare; so:mi mild; steg gander; sup to drink; swi•el to gutter; si•e(r) sure; siuga(r) sugar,
also medially before voiceless consonants, or even before $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{m}$, or $\mathbf{n}$, where an assimilated $t$ formerly came between:
esp (O.I. hespa) hasp; foisti fusty; rist to rest; rasl to wrestle; busl to hurry; ri'si:t recipe,
and finally:
alks to ask; mu:s mouse; os horse; jans once; tfans chance; pi-əs peace; gri•es flattery; pa:las (adj.) parlous.
381. M.E. $s$ appears voiced, as in Middle English pronunciation, between vowels medially, including $s$ followed by syllabic $1, \mathrm{~m}$, or $\mathbf{n}$ : bi:zm, besom; fezn pheasant; tu:zl to dishevel; u:ziz houses; si•ozn season; ə'sa:ziz (M.E. assise < O.Fr.) assizes,
or before a voiced consonant:
uzbn husband; wenzda Wednesday; Oozdə Thursday;
and also finally, where a following vowel has become mute:
gri•az to grease; pli•az to please; bu:z (M.E. bousen) to drink; snu:z to sleep.
382. Final M.E. -es became voiced in M.E., and now appears as s after a voiceless consonant e.g. M.E. cates $>[\mathbf{k a t z z}]>$ kats cats; but after voiced consonants, and vowels, it remains as $\mathbf{z}$ : nu•az nose; filldz fields; diz does; kli•az clothes, as in the 'standard' speech.
383. M.E. $s$ has become voiced in ez has; az as; iz is; uz us; where the voicing took place originally in unemphatic positions in the sentence, the $s$ being retained in accented positions, and before voiceless consonants.
384. M.E. $s$, voiced medially before $i$, has become 3, as in English, e.g. Rolle's mestir became in early Modern English [me'zjur] where ju was the development in the dialect of Fr. $\ddot{u}$. Then by means of an assimilation of $\mathbf{z}$ and $\mathbf{j}$, the spirant produced by a tongue position halfway between, namely 3 , resulted.
mize(r) measure; trizo(r) (Rolle tresore) treasure; pli'əるə(r) or plize(r) pleasure.
385. French final $-c e[s]$ has become $f$ : minf mince; renf to rinse; nu'atif notice; pinfoz pincers.

Also final -age: damif damage; manif manage; manifment manure.

This is one of the peculiarities of the Northern dialect; cf. Scots farsch (farce), scairsch (scarce), pynschers (pincers), notisch ${ }^{1}$.
386. M.E. $s$ was mistaken for a plural, and dropped in:
pi` (O.E. pisa, M.E. pese) pea; ridl (O.E. rēdels, M.E. redels) an enigma; fi${ }^{\prime}$ mi: chemise; and $\mathbf{t} \mathbf{j}$ eri cherry.

$$
\text { M.E. } s h ; s c h \text { []]. }
$$

387. M.E. $\int$ remains:
jap shape; [eit cacare; (fe'əd (Anglian scædu) shed; fam shame; faf sheaf; fi•elin a once-shorn sheep; fil to shell (peas); fipet shepherd; fak to shake; fibin (lit. shoe-bind) bootlace; fi'o, unaccented fo (O.E. seō, North. M.E. schō) she; bifop to burn milk in the pan; ef ash tree; paf rottenness; wef to wash.
388. $\int$ occurs also in Romance words containing O.Fr. medial -ss-: fami ft famished; nurif (Prose, nuris), to nourish; puf to push; punif (Prose, puniss) to punish; sef (O.Fr. chasse) window-frame; bufil (O.Fr. boissel) bushel, as in standard English; but $\int$ represents also O.Fr. -ce, -che, -ge: o:d'fafond (O.Fr. faceon) precocious; $\min \int$ to mince; renf to rinse; nurotij notice; pinjoz pincers; kabif (Picard, caboche) cabbage; damif damage; manif to manage; manijment manure. In the case of the suffix -age, it would appear that the French 3 was retained in Midland M.E. and changed to d3, by analogy with words like M.E. loge, juge, and rage (lodge, judge, rage), in the 'standard ' pronunciation. In the dialect, 3 became unvoiced in the unaccented syllables where it occurred, when the accent was shifted to the first syllable, by analogy with words like ' notice,' ' cabbage,' etc.

## M.E. $c h$ [ t$]$ ].

389. M.E. ch remains in all positions:
tjavl to champ: tjou to chew; tfotj church; tfilde(r) children; tjuf conceited; mitj much; not $\int$ notch, run (at cricket); wat $\int$ watch; klet $\int$ a brood (of chickens) ; t [s•ods to charge ; tjo:mo(r) chamber; t $\int u k(F r$. choquer) to throw; pu'ot $\rfloor$

[^36]to poach; birgrut (M.E. grucchen, O.Fr. groucher) to grudge; pa:trit $\int$ (M.E. pertriche, O.Fr. pertrix) partridge.
390. Except that the first constituent of the diphthong has been assimilated when it follows $\mathbf{n}$ : bunf to kick ; drenf (O.E. drencean) to drench; inf (O.E. ynce) inch; pinf (A.F. pincher) to pinch.
$$
\text { M.E. } j, g[\mathrm{~d}]] .
$$
391. M:E. $j, g$ also remains:
dzoi (Rolle ioy) joy; dzo:nis (Rolle jaunys) jaundice; dzeis joist; $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial d z}$ age; fu•odz forge; pidzin pigeon.
d3 represents O.E. final -cig, M.E. -gge, in the following borrowed Midland forms: ed3 edge; wed3 wedge; sled3-ame(r) sledgehammer; edz hedge; and midz midge.
392. But after $\mathbf{n}, d$ has been assimilated: e.g. swin3 to beat; ingn engine ; mo:n3 mange.

## 7. Palatals. <br> M.E. $g h$ [ $\mathbf{c}]$.

393. M.E. $g h$, as palatal spirant after a front vowel has regularly disappeared from M.E. forms with -ight (§ 148):
bri:t bright; li:t light; ni:t night; rist right; sitt sight. And from M.E. egh forms (§ 149) : ni:n nine; di: to die ; i:n eyes; i: high.

Before -t M.E. $g h(\mathcal{q})$ became lost to the dialect between 1480 and 1680. Probably it disappeared during the sixteenth century. In other positions $\boldsymbol{\&}$ fell earlier. It had fallen by the fifteenth century; for li: lie; ni:n nine; 0i: thigh, N.M.E. *leghe, neghen, and *thegh, appear in the Catholicon Anglicum (1483) as lee, neen, and thee. Probably it was disappearing during the fourteenth century: hey occurs in The Pricke of Conscience besides hegh, high; and nest as well as neghest next.

> 8. Gutturals.
> M.E. $c, k$.
394. M.E. $c, k$, remains as a rule:
bek (Cath. bek) a brook; kei key; snek a latch; kud (O.E. cudu) cud ; juk hook; kep (O.E. cēpan) to catch; fakn (pp.)
shaken; kitl difficult; waykl unstable; koul to rake; ko:za causeway; le•olok lilac; ski•ol (O.E. scōl) school; sku'ə(r) (O.Fr. escurer) to cleanse; kriukt crooked ; klo:m to grope ; kli:t coltsfoot; klag to stick; pu•ek (O.I. poki) a bag; stake(r) (N.M.E. stakir < O.I. stakra) to stagger.
395. But M.E. $k$ has fallen, as in 'standard' English, before n: ni: knee; nodl head; no: to know; nit to knit. There is no trace of $\operatorname{tn}$ in this position in the dialect.
396. Also before $\mathbf{w}$ in : wiks (O.E. cwice) quitch, or couchgrass; wai (O.I. kwiga) a heifer; wik (O.L kwikr) alive, and medially in: mi'ed made; musl muscle; te'ən taken; asl-tri: (O.I. öxultrē) an axle.
397. Romance $q u$ [ $\mathbf{k w}$ ] remains, e.g. kwe'ət quart; kwa:t (O.Fr. quarterer) to plough crosswise (lit. to cut into quarters).
398. M.E. $s k$ from Scandinavian $s k$-, remains:
skab scab; skuf (cf. Fries. skuft) nape (of the neck); skri•ak (O.I skrækja) to shriek; skep (O.I. skeppa) a basket; skelp to flog; skiṭes diarrhœea; skuṭe(r) to run ; skrat (M.E. scratten) to scratch; bask to bask; busk to hurry.
399. Metathesis of O.E. sc remains in : aks (O.E. ascian) to ask; miks (O.E. miscian) to mix.
400. Final Northern M.E. $k$, corresponding to Southern and Midland $c h$, is found in:
biŋk (O.E. benće) bench ; bork (O.E. birċe) birch; klik (O.E. clyčcean) to seize, clutch; $\theta$ i- $\cdot \mathbf{k}$ (O.E. 万eceean) to thatch: $\theta a l k$ thatch; seik such; pik (O.E. pić, Cath. pikke) pitch; pik-fork pitchfork; kinkof chincough.

Also in the Scandinavian forms : kist (O.I. kista) chest; kork (O.I. kirkja) church : wa:k (O.I. werkr) to ache.
401. M.E. final $k$ has fallen in: as (O.E. ascan, Rolle askes) ashes; mens (O.I. mennska) decency, neatness.
402. M.E. $k$ has become $\mathbf{t}$ in : twilt to beat, flog, lit. to quilt, derived from O.Fr. cuilte, a quilt.

## M.E. $g$.

403. M.E. $g$ has regularly remained :
gavlek (O.I. gaflak, M.E. gavelok) a pointed iron bar (used in building sheepfolds) ; galok (O.Fr. galc) left-handed; go:ki awkward; gilt (O.I. gyltr) a young sow; gime(r) a young ewe; gilde(r) (Rolle Ps. gildire) a suare; fagi shaggy; seg sedge; mugi sultry; agl to hack; igl to chaffer; fog aftermath; og a yearling sheep; ug to carry; lig (O.I. liggja) to lie; grund ground; glumpi sorrowful.
404. Except that it disappeared before $\mathbf{n}$ : nag (O.I. gnaga) to nag; no: to gnaw; nat gnat; națo(r) to grumble, nag.
405. Final Northern M.E. $g$, corresponding to Southern and Midland -gge, -dge in words derived from O.E. final - $\dot{c} g$, remains in : brig (O.E. brycg, M.E. brig) bridge; fligd fledged; mig (O.E. micge) perhaps short for ' midge-water,' liquid manure; rig ridge, back ; and in seg (O.E. secge) sedge.
406. Loss of O.E. spirant $\dot{g}$ in the dialect.

The above examples of medial or final $\mathbf{g}$ in an accented syllable are mainly Scandinavian. O.E. $\dot{g}$ in accented syllables, preceded by a vowel, fell as follows:
O.E. $a \dot{g}$, North. M.E. $a u$ [au] has become 0: 0:z haws; o:n (O.I. ögn) awn (of barley).
 we's way; se'o to say.
O.E. ig, North. M.E. êgh [e:ç] has become i: : nisn nine ; sti:l stile.
O.E. og, North. M.E. ogh [ou $\chi$ ] has become ou: re'onbou rainbow.
O.E. $u \dot{g}$, North. M.E. $\bar{o} g h$ [öü $\chi$ ] has become iu: siu a sow (pig); fiul fowl.
O.E. $\bar{a} \dot{g}$, North. M.E. $a u$ [au] has become $\mathbf{0 :}$ : bi'o: to own.
 \{M.E. ei [si] has become si : kei key.
O.E. $\bar{e} \dot{g}$, North. M.E. égh [e:c] has become i: : di: to die ti: to tie.
O.E. $\bar{o} \dot{g}$, North. M.E. $\bar{o} g h$ [öiz $\chi$ ] has become iu: driu drew; sliu slew.
O.E. $\bar{y} \dot{g}$, North. M.E. $\bar{y}$ [i:] has become ai (finally) in : drai dry.
O.E. éaǵ, North. M.E. ēgh [e:c] has become i: : i: eye.
O.E. éog, North. M.E. égh [e:c̨] has become i: : fli: fly : li: to tell a lie.

But O.E. spirant $\dot{g}$ remains as a stop in: dog dog; frog frog; and Jag shag, as in 'standard' English.

## M.E. $g h[X]$.

407. M.E. $g h$ as a velar spirant after a back vowel has regularly disappeared. For its appearance as $u$, see $\S \S$ 184-186. M.E. $g h$ fell first in the fourteenth century after M.E. $\check{a}$. The Pricke of Conscience regularly has such forms as draw, awn (own), where other North. M.E. works have the spelling draghe, aghen. By the fifteenth century medial M.E. gh appears to have fallen. The Catholicon Anglicum (1483) records fewle, fowl, against the North. M.E. form foghel; The Pricke of Conscience has outher and nouther beside oght (aught) and noght (naught). The dialect pronunciations bout (bought); douțo(r) (daughter); brout (brought); Oout (thought) indicate that M.E. ŏght was really out, for the diphthong in these words has had the same development as M.E. ow from O.E $\bar{o} w$ in the words flou to flow; grou to grow; etc.

Finally, and in the words 'laughter' and 'slaughter,' M.E. gh has become $\mathbf{f}$.
408. In the present dialect, $\mathbf{f}$ represents M.E. x (velar spirant) in the following words spelled with $g h$ :
i'ni' $\boldsymbol{\text { f }}$ enough; kof cough; ti•ef tough; ruf rough; trof trough; laf laugh ; lafte(r) laughter; dwa:f dwarf; which have [f] in the 'standard' pronunciation. Also in the following dialect forms: fo:f (Cath. falghe, Clavis, faugh) fallow land; ba:fn a bargham, horse-collar; bi•of bough; di•of dough; pli•of plough; $\mathbf{\delta o f}$ though; $\theta$ ruf through; slafte(r) slaughter; sluf slough; suf (O.E. swōgan, M.E. swough) to sough, make a 'rushing' noise; uf displeasure; pef (cf. Lowland Scots pech) to gasp, cough. In the latter instances, the dialect still preserves the 'standard'
pronunciation of the first half of the seventeenth century, as far as the end-consonant is concerned.

## M.E. $h$.

409. M.E. $h$ as a glottal breathing has generally disappeared in the dialect, though $h$ is often wrongly inserted when a word beginning with a vowel is emphasised.
410. O.E. and Scand. breathed $l, n, r$ and $w$, formerly spelled $h l, h n, h r$, and $h w$ (North. M.E. $w h, q u$ ), have become voiced, and occur as $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ :
loup (O.I. hlaupa) to leap; nit (O.E. hnitu) a louse's egg; rig (O.E. hrycg) back; wat what; wi.a who.
411. Loss of O.E. $h$ in the dialect.
O.E. $h$ as a palatal or velar spirant fell as follows:
O.E. äht, North. M.E. oght [ $\mathfrak{O} \chi \mathbf{\chi} \mathbf{t}]$ has become ou: nout naught ; tout taught.
O.E. öht, North. M.E. oght [ $\left.\boldsymbol{\jmath u} \chi^{\mathbf{t}}\right]$ has become ou: douṭə(r) daughter; bout bought.
O.E. iht, North. M.E. ight [eçt] has become i: : brist bright; ni:t night.
O.E. $\bar{e} a h$, North. M.E. ẹgh [e:c] has become i: : i: high; ni: nigh.
O.E. $\bar{e} o h$, North. M.E. $\overline{e g} h$ [e:c] has become i: : $\theta$ i: thigh.
412. O.E. $h+s$ regularly appears as ks : aks to ask; siks six. But the seventeenth century forms for ox (Yorks. Dial. 1673, owse) and next (Rolle nest, Clavis 1684 neest) are interesting therein, that they show vocalisation of O.E. $h$, (1) to $\mathbf{u}$ after a back vowel, (2) to $\mathbf{i}$ after a front vowel. M.E. o $\chi^{\mathbf{s}}>\boldsymbol{o u} \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{s}}>$ ous owse, and M.E. ne:cgst > neiqst > nisst neest. In the present dialect these words are borrowed from literary English.

## CHAPTER VIII

## the historic originals of the present VOWEL-SYSTEM

## 1. Short Vowels.

## a.

413. a corresponds to M.E. $a$, and to :
(a) O.E. $\mathscr{e}, a, e a$ (West Germanic $a$ ) in closed syllables, § 91.
(b) The shortening of O.E. $\bar{a}, \bar{x}, \overline{e a}$ in ask newt, blade(r) bladder, Jaf sheaf, § 92.
(c) Standard English $\boldsymbol{o}$ after w, Literary English $a$, as: swan swan, want want, kwaleti quality, $\S \S 93,194,251$.
(d) O.E. $\alpha$ before $n g$, as : stray strong, § 94.
(e) O.E. $a$ in slafte( $\mathbf{r}$ ) slaughter, § 95 .
$(f)$ With foregrowth of $\mathbf{j}$, to O.E. $\bar{a}, a$, as: jake(r) acre, jan one, $\S(127,131$.
(g) Scandinavian $a, 0$, , $\S \$ 192,193,195$.
(h) Romance $a, \S 250$.
(i) The shortening of Fr. nasalised $\tilde{a}$ in: ant aunt, dans dance, and tjans chance, $\S(253$.
(j) Romance er in tariz(r) terrier, vari very, § 258.

## e.

414. e corresponds to M E. e, and to :
(a) O.E. e, eo (West Germanic e) in closed syllables, § 101.
(b) O.E. a before sh, and dental consonants, as: wef wash, § 98, and kredl cradle, § 99.
(c) O.E. $y$ in beri to bury, mena minnow, § 109.
(d) Shortening of M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ in len to lend, etc., $\S 138$.
(e) O.E. ir in kesmos Christmas, and kesn to christen, § 114.
M.E. ir in jed yard, $\S 105$ b.
(f) M.E. $\bar{a}$ in seld sold, teld told, § $96 a$.
(g) Scandinavian $e, j o ̈$ in closed syllables, $\$$ 198, 200, 201.
(h) Scandinavian ir in ken churn, § 210.
(i) Romance e, §255.
(j) Romance $i$ as: lenit linnet, etc., $\S 260$, serop syrup, sperit spirit, § 261.

## i.

415. i corresponds to M.E. $i$, and to:
(a) O.E. $i, \S 108$; and in blind blind, etc., before $-n d, \S 112$.
(b) O.E. $y, \S 109$.
(c) O.E. $e$ before dentals as : it to eat, rist rest, $\S 106$.
(d) O.E. e before $n g, \S 105$.
(e) Shortening of M.E. $\bar{e}: \mathbf{t}$ fiz-ki•ok cheese-cake, niva(r) never, etc., $\S 140$; fipət shepherd, $\S 141$; blis bless, $\S 143$; frind friend, etc., § 150 .
( $f$ ) Scandinavian $e$ in git get, and gi (giv) give, § 199.
(g) Scandinavian i, §§ 205, 209.
(h) Scandinavian $y, \S 206$.
(i) Scandinavian $e$ before $n g, \S 202$.
(j) Romance $i, \S 259$.
(l) Romance $e$ before nasals in țiml tremble, in3n engine, etc., § 256 .

## 0.

416. o corresponds to M.E. $o$, and to :
(a) O.E. $o$ in closed syllables, $\S 116$.
(b) O.E. $a$ before $l$ in od hold, omest almost, § $96 b$.
(c) O.E. $a, \bar{z}$ before $n$ in moni many, oni any, § 94 .
(d) Scandinavian o in closed syllables, § 211.
(e) Romance $0, \S 262$.

As an $r$-vowel, o corresponds to:
$(f) \quad$ O.E. $i$ before $r, \S \$ 105,114$.
(g) O.E. $y$ before $r, \S 115$.
(h) O.E. $o$ before $r$ in fork fork, os horse, etc., § 119.
(i) O.E. $u$ before $r, \S 124$.
(j) Scand. o before $r$, § 213.
(k) Romance $o$ before $r$ in mis'fotn misfortune, moṭa(r) mortar, etc., § 264.
(l) Romance $u$ before $r, \S 266$.

## u.

417. u corresponds to M.E. u.
(a) O.E. $u, \S 120$, and in grund ground, etc. before $-n d, \S 121$.
(b) O.E. $y$ in umlak hemlock, runl spring, etc., § 110.
(c) Shortening of M.E. $\bar{o}$ before dentals in fud food, Jut shoot, etc., § 163.
(d) Shortening of M.E. $\bar{u}$ in rum room, etc., § 164.
(e) Scandinavian $u, \S \S 214,215$.
(f) Scandinavian $y$ in muk earth, § 208.
(g) Romance $u$, ou, § 265 .
(h) Romance oi before $\int$ in bufil bushel, kufin cushion, § 295.

## 2. Long Vowels.

a.
418. a: corresponds to M.E. $\vec{\imath}$ before voiced consonants, also to M.E. $\breve{a} r$, ër $r,+$ cons.
(a) O.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before voiced consonants: fa:v five, ma:1 mile, etc., § 155.
(b) O.E. $i$ lengthened in wa:ld wild, ta:n spike, § 112.
(c) O.E. $\bar{y}$ before voiced consonants: a:v hive, pra:d pride, etc., § 156.
(d) O.E. $y$ lengthened before $-n d$, ka:nd kind, ma:nd mind, § 113.
(e) O.E. ear (Anglian ar, sr), § 97.
(f) O.E. eor (Anglian er, ear), § 104.
(g) O.E. ēor (Anglian eear) in: da:lin darling, fa:din farthing, § 104.
( $h$ ) Scandinavian $\bar{i}$ before voiced consonants: gra:m grime, a:1 sile, etc., § 229.
(i) Scandinavian ar, § 197.
(j) Scandinavian er, § 203.
(k) Romance $\bar{\imath}$ before voiced consonants: fa:n fine, kon'ṭra:v contrive, etc., § 281.
(l) Romance $a r, \S 254 a$.
( $m$ ) Romance er, § $258 a$.

## i.

419. i: corresponds to M.E. $\bar{e}$, also to M.E. igh, egh.
(a) Anglian $\bar{e}$ for $\bar{x}$ (I Mutation of $\bar{a}$ ) in britd breadth, $\S 140$.
(b) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (Germanic $\overline{\mathscr{B}}$ ) in di:d deed, etc., § 141.
(c) Anglian $\bar{e}$ (I Mutation of $\overline{e a}, \overline{e o})$ in risk smoke, etc., § 142.
(d) Anglian $\overline{o e}$ (I Mutation of $\bar{o}$ ) in fist feet, etc., § 143.
(e) O.E. $\overline{e o}$ (Anglian $\overline{e o}, \overline{e a}$; Germanic $i u$ ) in bri:st breast, etc., § 144.
( $f$ ) O.E. e lengthened before -ld, § 146.
(g) O.E. $i$ lengthened, also M.E. $i g h t, \S \S 147,148$.
(h) North. M.E. egh, § 149.
(i) Scandinavian $\bar{e}, \S 225$.
(j) North. M.E. egh from Scandinavian ig, § 226.
(k) Anglo-French 'close' $\bar{e}, \S 277$.

## 0.

420. o: corresponds to M.E. au, also to M.E. al (aul) from the following sources:
(a) O.E. $a g, \S 172$.
(b) O.E. aw, § 173.
(c) O.E. $\bar{a} g, \S 174$.
(d) O.E. $\bar{a} w, \S 17 \overline{5}$.
(e) M.E. au arising from O.E. af in lo:d lord, o:k hawk, § 176.
(f) Anglian -al + consonant, § 96.
(g) Scandinavian ög, § 242.
(h) Scandinavian $\vec{a} g, \S 243$.
(i) Scandinavian al + consonant, § 196.
(j) Scandinavian au, in go:ki simpleton, go:mlos stupid, § 246.
(k) Scandinavian $\bar{u}$ in doin down, § 236.
(l) M.E. $a u$-arising from the loss of a spirant between $a$ and a guttural consonant: o:ked awkward, mo:k maggot, § 244.
( $m$ ) Romance $a u, \S 292$.
( $n$ ) Romance $a l$, § 252.
(o) Romance $\tilde{a}$ before nasals, in tjo:mo(r) chamber, mo:ngi mangy etc., § 253.

## u:.

421. u: corresponds to M.E. $\bar{u}$.
(a) O.E. $\bar{u}, \S 164$.
(b) O.E. $\check{u}$ lengthened before $-l d$, in $\int u: d e(r)$ shoulder, $\S 122$.
(c) Scandinavian $\bar{u}, \S 234$.
(d) Romance ou, § 287.

## 3. The Diphthongs.

422. ai corresponds to M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ in a final position:
(a) O.E. $\bar{y}, \S 154$.
(b) Scandinavian $\bar{y}, \S 230$.
(c) Romance $\bar{i}, \S 280$.

## Ei.

423. si corresponds to M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$ and voiceless consonants, also to Midland M.E. ei.
(a) O.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$ and voiceless consonants, § 152.
(b) O.E. $\bar{y}$ before $r$ and voiceless consonants, $\S 153$.
(c) M.E. ei, § 177.
(d) Scandinavian $\bar{\imath}, \bar{y}$ before $r$ and voiceless consonants, $\S 228$.
(e) Romance $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$ and voiceless consonants, $\S 279$.

## iu.

424. iu corresponds to M.E. eu, and to M.E. $\bar{o}$ before gutturals.
(a) O.E. éaw, § 179.
(b) O.E. éow, § 180.
(c) O.E. $i w, \S 181$.
(d) M.E. $\bar{o}$ before gutturals, § 161.
(e) M.E. ou arising from O.E. of, in ju:n oven, § 161 c.
(f) Scandinavian ō before $k, \S 233$.
(g) Romance eu, ü, § 297.

## oi.

425. oi corresponds to M.E. oi, ui.

Romance oi, ui, 293, 294.
ou.
426. ou corresponds to M.E. ou, also to M.E. ol (oul).
(a) O.E. eah (Anglian $\approx h$ ), § 183.
(b) O.E. $\bar{a} h, \S 184$.
(c) O.E. $o g$, oh, § 185.
(d) O.E. ōh, § 186.
(e) O.E. ediw, § 187.
(f) O.E. eow, § 188.
(g) O.E. e $\delta w, \S 189$.
(h) O.E. $\bar{o} w, \S 190$.
(i) Early Mod. E. ou in pound pond, § 121, and in poul pole, § 158.
(j) O.E. ol, § 117.
(k) Scandinavian $a u, \S 245$.
(l) Scandinavian og in lililou flame, § 248.
( $m$ ) Romance $u$ in pouo(r) to pour, § $297 a$.
( $n$ ) Romance ol, § 263.

## $\epsilon^{\prime}$.

427. $\varepsilon \cdot{ }^{2}$ corresponds to M.E. ai, also partly to M.E. $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a} r$.
(a) O.E. $æ g, \S 167$.
(b) O.E. eg, § 168.
(c) Anglian $\bar{e} g$, O.E. $\bar{x} g, § 169$.
(d) Anglian ēg, O.E. $\bar{\imath} e g, \S 170$.
(e) M.E. $\bar{a}, \S \S 127,128$.
( $f$ ) M.E. $a r, \S 97$; M.E. $\bar{a} r, \S 129$.
(g) Scandinavian ei, § 239 ; Scandinavian ey, § 240 ; Scandinavian eg in ge'on rear, § 238.
( $h$ ) Scandinavian $\bar{a}, \S 217$.
(i) Romance ai, ei, $\S \S 290,291$.
(j) Romance $\bar{a} n, \S 271$.
(k) Romance $\vec{a}, \S 270$.
(l) Romance ar, § 254 .

## i•.

428. i $\cdot$ corresponds to M.E. $\bar{a}$, M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, and to M.E. $\bar{\sigma}$, also to M.E. $\bar{e} r$ in open syllables.
(a) O.E. $a$ in open syllables, § $127 a$.
(b) O.E. $\bar{a}, \S 128 a$.
(c) O.E. $a$ before $-m b,-s t, \S 130$.
(d) O.E. $e$ in open syllables, § 132.
(e) O.E. $\overline{\mathcal{e}}$ (I Mutation of $\bar{a}$ ), § 133.
(f) O.E. $\overline{\mathscr{L}}$ (Anglian $\bar{e}$, Germanic $\overline{\mathscr{L}}$ ), § 134.
(g) O.E. $\overline{e a}, \S 137$.
(h) O.E. ēr, ēor, §§ 135, 136.
(i) O.E. $\bar{o}, \S 160$.
(j) Scandinavian $a$ in open syllables, $\S 218$.
(k) Scandinavian $\bar{a}, \S 219$.
(l) Scandinavian $e$ in open syllables, § 223.
( $m$ ) Scandinavian $\overline{\mathcal{E}}, \S 221$.
(n) Scandinavian $\bar{\infty}, \S 222$.
(o) Romance $a$ in open syllables, $\S 269$.
(p) Romance $a$ before -st, $\S 268$; $e$ before -st, § 275.
(q) Romance $e$ in open syllables, § 273.
( $r$ ) Anglo-French 'open' $\bar{\varepsilon}, \S 274$.
(s) Romance $\overline{\text { on }}$ in bi $\cdot$ t boot, firel fool, etc., § 286.
( $t$ ) Romance $\bar{e} r, \S 276$.

## $\mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}$.

429. u'e corresponds to M.E. $\overline{\bar{o}}$, also to M.E. $\bar{u} r, \overline{\bar{o}} r$.
(a) O.E. $o$ in open syllables, $\S 15 \not 5$.
(b) O.E $\bar{a}$ (Midland development), § 158.
(c) O.E. or before dental consonants, § 118.
(d) O.E. ur before dental consonants, § 125.
(e) O.E. $\bar{u} r, \S 165$.
(f) Scandinavian $o$ in open syllables, $\S 231$.
(g) Scandinavian ō before $r, \S 232$.
(h) Romance $o$ in open syllables, § 284.
(i) Romance or before dental consonants, § 264.
(j) Romance $o$ before st, § 285.
(k) Romance ou before $r, \S 288$.

## 4. The Triphthongs. sia.

430. eia corresponds to M.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$.
(a) O.E. $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$ in siərən, iron, weior wire, § 152.
(b) O.E. $\bar{y}$ before $r$ in ciar hire, feior fire, § 153.
(c) Scandinavian $\bar{y}$ before $r$ in msior mire, § 228.
(d) Romance $\bar{\imath}$ before $r$ in umpsior umpire, § 279.

## iù.

431. ius corresponds to M.E. eu before $r$, or before an unaccented syllable containing a back vowel, e.g. kaziual casual.

Romance $\ddot{u}$ before $r$, in piuar pure, $\S 297$.

> oie.
432. oie corresponds to M.E. oi before an unaccented syllable containing a back vowel, e.g. loial loyal.

## эи.

433. ouə corresponds to M.E. ou before $r$.
(a) O.E. éow before $r$ in fouer four, foust fourth, § 189.
(b) Romance $\ddot{u}$ before $r$ in poue(r) to pour, § $297 a$.

## APPENDIX

## THE VOWEL DEVELOPMENT

434. The following table indicates the stages of development of the chief vowel sounds. The letters indicate sounds, not spellings; and refer only to the dialect, not to standard English.

| 1. Short Vowels. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Middle English (1350) | Early Modern <br> English (1650) | Modern English (1850) |
| $a$ | a | $a$ |
| al (aul) | a: | o: |
| 1 ar+cons. | ar | a: |
| 2 ar (' bairn,' 'part,' etc.) | ع: | $\varepsilon \cdot$ |
| $e$ | E | e |
| $e r+$ cons | ar | a: |
| ext ('might,' 'right,' ${ }^{\text {etc. }}$ ) | i:t | i:t |
| $i$ | $x$ lax. | i |
| ir + cons. | or | jor <br> o before dental cons. |
| o | 0 | 0 |
| ol (oul) | su | su |
| or + cons. | or | jor <br> a before dental cons. |
| or $(d), \operatorname{or}(n)$ | $3 x$ | u* |
| $u$ | $\boldsymbol{u}$ | u |
| $u r+$ cons. | or | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { or } \\ \text { o before dental cons. }\end{array}\right.$ |

## 2. Long Vowels.

| $a$ : | ع: |  | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $a: r$ | $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{r}$ |  | $\varepsilon \cdot{ }^{\text {e }}$ |
| $\varepsilon$ : | $0 \cdot 0$ |  | 1-0 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { E:r ('bear,' 'here,' ' hear,' } \\ & \text { etc.) } \end{aligned}$ | e'er |  | i-9(5) |


| Middle English (1350) | Early Modern English (1650) | Modern English (1850) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $e$ : | d: | i: |
| e: $\chi$ ('eye,' 'fly,' etc.) | t: | 1: |
| $i$ : | 81 | 1 (et before $x$, and voiceless oons. 2 as at end of a word <br> 3 a: before voiced cons. |
| $0:$ | จ: | u'o |
| o: ( $\ddot{i} \boldsymbol{i})$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1, \begin{array}{l} \text { ou } \\ 2 \\ i \cdot 0 \text { before } \mathrm{m} \\ \mathrm{n} \text { before } \mathrm{d}, \text { d, } \end{array} \end{aligned}$ | 1 (an before gatturals $2\{\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{o}$ before other consonants 3 (a before d, and $t$ |
| u: | u: | u: |
| $u: r$ |  |  |
| 3. Diphthongs. |  |  |
| $a i$ | ع: | E'0 |
| $a u$ | a: | จ: |
| [ $\mathrm{e} \boldsymbol{i}$ | E1 | ci] |
| eu | in | in |
| oi | of (? ex) (in in 'poison') | ol |
| əu | su | su |

## PART II

## CHAPTER I

## A GRAMMAR OF THE DIALECT

## Nouns

There are no full declensions in the dialect. Inflections have disappeared as in standard English. It is only necessary to know how to form the plural forms of nouns, and their possessive case.

## 435. Formation of the Plural.

I. -es plurals. The plural of nouns is regularly formed by the endings -iz, $-\mathbf{z}$, or $-\mathbf{s}$.
(a) -iz is the plural ending of nouns which end in hissing: sounds (s, $\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{3}, \mathbf{t j}, \mathbf{d y}$ ), e.g. dif dish dijiz; las lass lasiz;

(b) $-\mathbf{z}$ is the inflexion of nouns ending in vowels, or voiced consonants ( $\mathbf{z}$, and $\mathbf{3}$ excepted), e.g. de'ə day de'zz; lad lad ladz.

Nouns which end in -nd, or ( $\mathbf{r}$ ), lose the end-consonant before the plural ending: frind friend frinz; end end enz; bruö(r) brother bruあəz.
(c) -s is the plural ending of nouns which end in voiceless consonants (s and $\int$ excepted), biuk book biuks; kap cap kaps; paO path paOs.

But a few nouns in $\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{f}$, and $\mathbf{s}$ change the end-consonant into the corresponding voiced $\boldsymbol{\delta}, \boldsymbol{v}$, and $\mathbf{z}$, in the plural, and hence take -z, -iz as the plural ending: mu:Ө month mu:\%z; ju: $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
youth ju: $\mathbf{\delta z}$; ko:f calf ko:vz; o:f half o:vz; leif life la:vz; lu'of loaf lu'əvz; neif knife na:vz; si•af rush si•əvz ; faf sheaf javz; Oi:f thief $\theta i: v z$; weif wife wa:vz; u:s house u:ziz.

These endings represent Anglian -as, -xs, the plural inflexion of the strong masculine nouns, weakened to M.E. -es (probably pronounced [ $2 z]$ ]). The modern plorals in s are due to the unvoicing of $\mathbf{z}$ after a voiceless consonant. By the middle of the fourteenth century the -es type in the North had superseded the O.E. plurals in $-n$, or in a vowel. The plural forms of Northern M.E. were almost identical with those of the present dialect.
II. -en plural. Three nouns may have plural in n: i: eye i:n ; oks ox oksm ; $\mathbf{j} \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathrm{e}$ shoe $\mathbf{j} \mathbf{i}$-an (Clavis sheaun), corresponding to the three Northern M.E. plurals eghen, oxen, and shoen, from the weak declension in Old English.
III. -er plaral. One noun may have plural in -ar, t ta:ld tfildéa(r). 'Child' is rarely heard, be'on bairn with plural be'onz is used instead ; but tfilde(r) is a genuine dialect form, derived from Northern M.E. childer, O.E. cildru.
IV. Mutation Plurals. The following form their plural by a vowel change (I Mntation): firat foot fi:t; gi'os goose gi:s; luis louse leis; ku: cow kai ; man man men ; mu:s mouse meis ; ti $\cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}$ tooth ti: $\boldsymbol{\theta}$; wumen woman wimin. All the Northern M.E. plural forms of this class, fete, gese, ky, men, mice, tethe, have remained, excepting brether (brothers), and hende (bands), which have gone over to the class which forms the plural by adding $-s$.
V. The following nouns have singular and plural alike: as ashes; fij fishes; gru:s grouse; fi:p sheep; di•e(r) deer; tru:t trout; t $\mathbf{f i}: \mathbf{z}$ cheeses; swa:n swine.

This declension of nonns owes its origin to the Old English strong neuter nouns with a long root vowel, whose plural form was the same as the singular in the nominative and accusative cases, but it has absorbed many words which did not originally belong to it.

To these must be added ji•e(r) year, mun $\theta$ month, and wi:k week, which were originally O.E. genitive plural forms ending in $-a$, in such phrases as a'bu:t siks mun $\theta \sin$ about six months ago, nut fe ten ji-ar not for ten years; also the following nouns of
measure when they follow a cardinal number: bre'əs (=2) brace (e.g. foup bre'əs ə gru:s); sti•ən ( $=14 \mathrm{lbs}$.) stone(s) (e.g. sit sti'ən ten) ; pe'o(r) (=2) pairs (e.g. Ori: ps'or a bi•ots); duzn (=12) dozen; sku'e(r) (=20) score; tun tons; pund pounds; inf inches; ma:l miles.
VI. The following nouns are only used in the plural: britfiz breeches; bodmz or grunz sediment; li:ts lungs; mezly measles; krudz curd; $\mathbf{j i}$-az shears; tejz tongs; tru:ziz trousers; gre'onz malt which has been used in brewing beer; fiylz shingles; ga'mafiz gaiters, leggings; drijkinz nuncheon. podif porridge, and broo soup are plurals, and require a plural verb or pronoun.
VII. Double plurals are found in: belosiz bellows; and galosiz braces.
VIII. The following nouns have a plural with a specialised meaning.

Singular
bi $\cdot$ est, beast.
kope( $\mathbf{r}$ ), copper, a caldron.
kli $\cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}$, cloth.
li:t (O.E. lēoht, Goth. liubath, subs.) light.
ju: $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, youth.
oll, oil.
so:t, salt.
su'at, sort.

Specialised Plural
bi-as, cattle.
kopez, pence.
kli $\cdot \boldsymbol{z z}$, clothes.
li:ts (O.E. lēoht, Goth. leihts, adj.) lungs.
ju:あz, fellows, men.
oilz, oil for anointing or rubbing so:ts, Epsom salts.
su'ats, health (in such phrases as i 'gud 'su'əts in good health, 'u:t $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'su'əts ill, wat su'ət ə 'su'ats iz i in how is he?).
436. Formation of the Possessive Case.
I. (a) There is no inflexiou when a second noun follows the possessive noun, used adjectivally. The two nouns are simply placed side by side, the genitival noun becomes an adjective qualifying the noun which follows it, e.g. a hen egg, a calf head.

Examples of the possessive case are:
mi fe'eठor at my father's hat,
tlad bi'ots the lads' (farm labourers') boots.

This $s$-less genitive appears to be peculiar to Northumbrian as opposed to the Scotch variety of modern Anglian. It owes its beginning to the Old English strong feminine nouns, which formed the gen. sing. in $-e$, and to those (ending in $-e r,-o r$ ) which had no genitival inflexion. In Northern M.E. the weak nouns with gen. sing. in -an passed into this class, instead of into the strong masculine declension with gen. sing. -es, nom. plur. -as. Rolle has be hert rote (the heart's root), an eghe twynkelyng, be son rysing (the sun's rising), til helle ground, helle pyne ${ }^{1}$, beside be dede hand (the hand of death), fader house, moder kne. The usual Northern M.E. inflexion for the genitive of masculine nouns was $-i s$ or -es, e.g. kinges son, manis blame, and to many feminine nouns was given this ending e.g. bis worldis lyfe. The genitive plural ending, -ra, disappeared altogether; but the ending -s sometimes took its place in M.E. Rolle has mens bodys, beside men banes (men's bones), also wormes fode (worms' food).
(b) The Hackness dialect, like other Northern English dialects, has dispensed entirely with the inflexion -s, except when the possessive case is substantival. In this case the genitival noun, whether singular or plural, takes the inflexion, which is pronounced -iz after sibilants, -z after vowels or voiced consonants, and $s$ after voiceless consonants, e.g.

סat ats mi fe $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$, that hat is my father's,
©em bi•ots is tladz, those are the lads' boots, its Diks, it is Dick's.
(c) Nouns ending in $\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{f}$, and $\mathbf{s}$, which voice these consonants in forming their plurals-e.g. ju: $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ youth ju:'ठz, ko:f calf ko:vzretain the voiceless $\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{f}$, or $\mathbf{s}$ before the substantival possessive case, e.g.
ist ' $\begin{aligned} & \text { at ju: } \mathrm{\theta} \text { ? } \text { ? Does it belong to that man? }\end{aligned}$
(d) Nouns which make their plurals by vowel mutation, or in ( $\mathbf{r}$ ), form their possessive case in $-\mathbf{s}(-z)$ when substantivale.g. manz man's, menz mens, tfildęzz children's.
II. The possessive case may also be indicated by the use of $\boldsymbol{\rho}$, ov of, in the dialect, as in literary English.

[^37]
## 437. Gender.

Names of male animals require the masculine pronoun i: he, whilst females are designated by $\mathbf{j} \cdot \boldsymbol{} \cdot \boldsymbol{\text { she }}$.

Machines, engines, and the like are often referred to as she, e.g.
 George has got a new self-binding reaper, and it runs well.

## Adjectives.

438. The Articles.
(a) The indefinite article is $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ or $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, a, an. $\boldsymbol{\partial}$ is used before consonants and $h$-mute, on is heard before vowels, e.g. ə ko:d snap, a spell of cold weather, but o no:d tjap an old man.

The indefinite article is the O.E. numeral $\bar{a} n$ one, used as an article, like the French un. In Northern M.E. no difference was made between the numeral and the article. For both $a$ ( $\mathbf{a}$ :) was written before consonants, and an, ane ( $a: n$ ) before vowels. The modern dialect has a specialised form for the numeral, $\mathbf{j a}$ : before consonants, jan before vowels.
(b) The definite article is $\mathbf{t}$, the, which is generally prefixed to the noun it qualifies, e.g. tman the man, tku: the cow.

The definite article represents Northern M.E. sing. be which superseded O.E. demonstrative $s \bar{e}$. The th came from the oblique cases. In early modern English it was weakened to th' (Clavis th'), and now appears as a prefixed $\mathbf{t}$. In Northern M.E. the definite article had a plural form $b a$, which fell out of use in favour of the singular form $b e$.
(c) In expressions of anger and surprise beginning with wat what, the emphatic form $\delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}$, and not the weak form $t$, is used, e.g. wati $\delta \boldsymbol{o}$ wold...what in the world! wat oo amment! what the hangment! etc.
439. Comparison of Adjectives.
(a) The comparative is formed by adding -ə(r) (North. M.E. $-e r,-a r$ ), and the superlative by adding -ist (North. M.E. -est) to the uninflected adjective. Long or unfamiliar adjectives are compared with $\mathbf{m e} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}(\mathbf{r})$ more, for the comparative, and me'ast most, for the superlative form, e.g.

| viuli pretty, | viuli-ə(r), | viuli-ist. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| o:kəd awkward, | o:kəd-ə(r), | o:kəd-ist. |
| plentiful plentiful, | me'ə plentiful, | me'əst plentiful. |

(b) The superlative absolute is formed with vari very, rist right, or ri•əl real, e.g. ə vari gud frind a very good friend; ə ri:t gud dzob a very good thing; ri•al o:kəd very awkward.

## Irregular Comparison.

(c) The following adjectives are irregularly compared:

| bad bad, | wos (Rolle wers), | wost (Rolle werst), |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fa:(r) (M.E. fer) far | (fa:ror, | fa:rist, |
| gud good, | beţor, | best, |
| laitl little, | les (Rolle les), | li-əst (Rolle leste), |
| moni many, | me'a (Rolle ma), \} |  |
| mitf much, | $\mathbf{m e} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}(\mathbf{r})($ Rolle mare), , |  |
| or near, nigh | ni'erer, | \{ni $\cdot$ ərist (in position), |

fotor is the comparative of the adverb 'forth,' M.E. forther, fooist is a new adjectival superlative.
fa:ror and fa:rist are used with reference to sight, e.g. $t$ fa:rist star the farthest star; fo\%or and fo\%ist with reference to motion, e.g. $\mathbf{t}$ foठist trip wiv mi•ad the farthest trip which we have made.

The Midland form mitf has superseded North. M.E. mykel (O.E. mycel). Marshall (1788) quotes: "Is there mickle to deea?" but mickle is now no longer heard.
$\mathrm{me} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}$ (Clavis meay) and $\mathbf{m c} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ (Clavis mare) are now confused, owing to the loss of $\mathbf{r}$ before consonants. The distinction was preserved in North. M.E. e.g.

> "And ay pe ma saules pat pider wendes, pe mare pair payn es, pat never endes."
(Pricke of Conscience, 1. 3728.)
ni-ər is either the M.E. adverb nere used as an adjective, or else the comparative of North. M.E. negh nigh used as the positive. The North. M.E. forms were neghe or nerehand, near; nere nearer, neghest nearest, nest next.
(d) After the comparative form of the adjective, than appears in the dialect as $\boldsymbol{\partial n}$, but the usual substitute is no(r), nor, e.g. iz Ori: ji'or 'o:de no 'mi:, he is three years older than I. Northern
M.E. used only than in this construction, but nor frequently occurs in the Middle Scots writers, of. James Melvill's account of his flight from St Andrews:
"I grew sa extream seik, that manie a tyme I besaught my cowsing to sett ms
a-land; sohosin (choosing) rather anie sort of dethe for a guid canse, nor sa to be
tormented in a stinking holl."
(e) Adjectives of one syllable which end in $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, do not, as in English, form their comparatives in -ge( $\mathbf{r}$ ) and -gist. There is no inserted $\mathbf{g}$ in the dialect, e.g.

| juy young, | jugə(r), | jugist. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lag long, | laja(r), | ! |
| J stron | str | st |

The Northern M.E. forms offer no guide to their pronunciation. The writers spelled the comparatives of lang, strang, etc., as langer, stranger. Probably $g$ was not heard.
440.

The Numerals.

|  | Cardinal | Ordinal |  | Cardinal | Ordinal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | jan, ja: | fost | 17 | sevn'tion | sevn'tiont |
| 2 | twi'e | $\text { tuбə( } \mathbf{r}),$ <br> seknd | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \\ & 19 \end{aligned}$ | eit'ti:n <br> na:n'ti:n | عit'tiont <br> na:n'ti:nt |
| 3 | 日ri: | Ood | 20 | twenti | twentit |
| 4 | fous( $\mathbf{r}$ ) | fouet | 21 | jan on to | twenti fost |
| 5 | fa:v | fift | 22 | twi'a on |  |
| 6 | siks | sikst |  |  | twenti |
| 7 | si'ovn, sevn | sevnt |  |  | seknd |
| 8 | cit | citt | 30 | Ootti | $\theta$ ottit |
| 9 | ni:n, na:n | na:nt | 40 | fotti | fottit |
| 10 | ten | tent | 50 | fifti | fiftit |
| 11 | əli•ənt, levn | levnt | 60 | siksti | sikstit |
| 12 | twelv | twelft | 70 | sevnti | sevntit |
| 13 | Oot'ti:n | Oot'ti:nt | 80 | عitti | eittit |
| 14 | foua'ti:n | four'ti:nt | 90 | na:nti | na:ntit |
| 15 | fif ${ }^{\prime}$ ti:n | firtiont | 100 | unded | undot |
| 16 | siks'tion | siks'ti:nt | 1000 | Ou:zn | $\theta$ O:znt |

(a) Like Scots, the dialect has developed a $\mathbf{j}$ in jan one, and a long root-vowel in si•ovn seven and a'li'ovn eleven; but it differs in having a Midland form in sit eight. The Middle Scots form was aucht, Northern M.E. aght, Rolle eght. Metathesis of $r$ has taken place in Ood third, Ootti thirty, and $\theta$ otti:n thirteen, by analogy with Midland forms, but the Northern tense tt remains in $\theta o t t i: n$, and in $\theta o t t i$. In fotti forty the $t$ is long by analogy with $\theta$ otti.

All the ordinal forms end in -t, except seknd and $\theta$ od. The -t is due to analogy with O.E. fyrsta, fifta, sihsta, etc. In Northern M.E. the ordinals usually ended in -end, as sevend, neghend, tend, etc. due to the influence of the Scandinavian ordinal ending, which occurs in O.I. as -onde or -ande.
(b) The unaccented form of jan one is on, e.g. tri odon the red one. tu\%o(r) (lit. the other) is used for the second of two, also for one remaining after a subtraction.
(c) Fractions are:
s•of, o:f half; Өod third; kwa:ṭə(r) quarter.
(d) Multiplicatives are:
jans once; tweis twice; Oreis, $\theta$ ritta:mz thrice; foue ta:mz four times, etc.; dubl double; tribl threefold.
on 'od on e twi'e, jan a'twi'a, a few.

## Pronouns.

The forms in parentheses are the 'weak,' or unemphatic forms. They here follow the 'full' or emphasised forms, which are more conservative and nearer to their Middle and Old English ancestry. Naturally the stressed pronouns are not used so often as the unemphatic furms.
441. Personal.

| Nom. Sing. Obj. Sing. | 1st Person |  | 2nd Person |  | 3rd Person |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | a: (a) | I | ठu: (\%u) | thou |  | $\int \mathrm{f} \cdot \mathrm{\theta}(\mathrm{f} \theta)$ | it he, she, it |
|  | mi (mon) | me |  | thee | im | or (ex, e) | it him, her, it |
| Nom. Plur. | wi: (wi) | we | ji: (jo) | ye |  | ) the |  |
| Obj. Plar. | ux: (ex) | us | ju: (je) | you | ठem | (om) them, |  |

(a) The first person singular a: represents North. M.E. I [i], the short unstressed form of $i k$, I . After $i k$ had fallen out of use,
$I$ was used in stressed positions also, and when used emphatically the vowel became i:. This M.E. i: gave rise to our a:, from which a new unemphatic form [a] has been formed. Probably mo represents North. M.E. mek, the O.E. accusative, mec ; mi: is the O.E. dative, $m e$.
(b) The second person singular $\delta \mathbf{0}$ :, $\delta i$ is used in addressing an intimate friend, a child, or an animal. The plural of the second person is used (1) in addressing a stranger or a superior, (2) as the plural of familiar intercourse with friends and children. The unemphatic nominative [jo] represents the North. M.E. accusative yhow, O.E. eow, with [ j$]$ from the nominative ji: (Rolle yhe, O.E. $\dot{g} \bar{e}$ ).
(c) The third person singular pronouns i: and fi$\cdot \boldsymbol{o}$ are used when male and female animals are spoken of, e.g. faz a gud 'u:nd, סat la:tl 'bitf a $\bar{\delta} a: n$ Your little bitch is a good dog. The weak plural form [om] represents Midland M.E. hem (them), O.E. heom, him, dative plural of $h i e$ (they). $\delta \varepsilon \cdot \sigma$ (they), and $\delta \mathrm{dem}$ (them) are Scandinavian forms, which occurred in North. M.E. as pai and bam. The feminine sing. $\int i \cdot \partial(\mathrm{f} \partial)$ is from the old Northern M.E. scho, sho, probably directly derived from O.E. seo, the fem. demons. pronoun.
(d) The Objective forms for all persons are used after the verb be, e.g. its im it is he; 'if' $\alpha$ : wo'రi: if I were you; Demz om those are they. This construction is probably due to Scandinavian influence.

The Objective case is also used:
(1) when more than one subject precedes the verb.
e.g. im on'or al gan he and she will go.
'Tom on im kom 'bak tigiḍor Tom and he came back together.
(2) when a pronominal subject is separated from its verb by a subordinate sentence, or phrase.
e.g. ©em, ot'sez 'si'ə, iz 'li•əz They who say so are liars.
(3) Reflexively instead of the reflexive form (sen); with the verbs set to set, le'a to lay.
e.g. ile•ad im du:n on $\mathbf{t}$ su•efe He lay down on the sofa.
on set mə du:n, ti rist ə bit And sat me down to rest awhile. (Castillo, Awd Isaac, l. 5.)
(e) Main affirmative sentences are frequently introduced by
a personal pronoun; and the noun to which it refers, connected by a link-verb, or a demonstrative adjective, is attached at the end of the main sentence.
e.g. Its 'ruf tide'o, ist (or simply $t$ ) 'si'a The sea is rough to-day.
i pa:zilz $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} l a \eta$, diz Tom Tom walks rather fast.
foz a'gud on, jon 'ingn, wen $\int \boldsymbol{a}$ gits $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ gerot That engine goes well when once it has been started.
442. Possessive.
(a) Adjectival forms.

|  | 1st Person | 2nd Person | 3rd Person |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Possess. Sing. | a: (mi) my | Sa: ( $\mathrm{c}_{\text {i }}$ ) thy | iz or (er, ө) it his, be |
| Plur. | (r) (wo(r)) our | ju'e(r)(ie(r) ) your | $\delta_{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{r})(\mathrm{Cos}(\boldsymbol{r})$ their |

mi and $\mathrm{\sigma}_{\mathrm{i}}$ represent M.E. $m i$ and $p i$, adjectival possessive (weak) forms of O.E. $m \bar{i} n$, binn. New emphatic forms mi: and $\theta$ i: were developed in the M.E. period (cf. a:, I. < i:) which gave modern ma: and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ :. The genitive it represents North. M.E. $i t$, O.E. hit the nominative form. The old genitive was his. The feminine or is Rolle's hir, O.E. hire. ©e'or (Rolle's bair) is a Scandinavian form.
(b) Substantival forms.

| Possess. Sing. | 1st Perso | 2nd Per | 3rd Person |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | a:n mine | Jain thine | iz ors | his, hers |
| Plnr. | u'ez ours | ju'ez yours | ð¢'ez | theirs |

With the exception of the Scandinavian form $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial z}$ theirs, these 'absolute' possessives represent the O.E. genitives $m \bar{i} n, b \bar{u} n$, his, hire, ure, eower, used as pronouns-not, as in the case of the possessive forms above, as adjectives.
443. Reflexive.


The accent always falls on the second syllable. I believe sel forms do occur in certain parts of the North and East Ridings. Dr Wright, quoting Ellis ${ }^{1}$, says "-sel is the only form that occurs

[^38]in all the North Northern, West Northern, and East Northern dialects, except at Holderness (S.E. Yorks.), and South Ainsty, where we find -sen." I can only state that I have never heard -sel used in the Hackness district; Self is used as a demonstrative pronoun in the dialect meaning 'very,' 'same,' e.g. tself on tsi•əm the very same. Historically, sen is the dative of self, O.E. selfum, Northern M.E.selvyn, selfine. Since many verbs with which reflexive pronouns are used take a Dative Object, e.g. tell, give, etc., a dative case remained in M.E.; and the use of selvin (selvn $>\operatorname{seln}>\operatorname{sen}$ ) spread by analogy to verbs like wesh, lay, etc. which took an Accusative Object. It is worth noting that nearly all the pronominal Accusative forms are derived from the O.E. Dative forms.

## 444. Demonstrative.

| Sing. Clis, this | Sat, that | jon, yon. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plur. | Sl:ez, these | סem, those | jon, yon. |

 (Lat. hic, hi), $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ at and $\boldsymbol{\sigma e m}$ to objects near or belonging to the person spoken to (Lat. iste, isti). ©is and $\boldsymbol{\sigma} i \cdot \partial z$ are usually followed
 te'atiz iz bețe no $\overline{\mathrm{C}} \mathrm{em} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$ These potatoes are better than those. This (O.E. neut. ofis, hoc) and that (O.E. neut. סret, istud) were used in North. M.E. exactly as now. Their plurals were thir (Rolle bir, ber, Yorks. Dial. thur), probably of Scandinavian origin, $=$ these; and $b a$ (O.E. $\delta \bar{a}$, ista) or baas (O.E. $\delta \bar{a} s$, haec) $=$ those. The modern $\boldsymbol{\delta i} \cdot \boldsymbol{z}$, these, probably goes back to Rolle's paas, or it may be a new form from the O.E. dative of $\bar{\sigma} \bar{s} s$, ঠeosum. dem is the O.E. dative of $\bar{\partial} \bar{a}, \delta \bar{x} m$; Rolles pam, acc. of bai they. thur has fallen out of use, but it remains in Lowland Scotch and Northumbrian.
(b) Whenever the object or objects pointed out are remote, jon is used (Lat. ille), e.g. jon 'ilz ko:ld 'Winṭaz Foli That (over yonder) hill is called Winter's Folly. jon is the (rare) O.E. geon, Northern M.E. (common) $3^{\text {one }}$; cf. Mannyng " ys $\quad$ one py page" ( $\mathrm{I}_{8}$ that thy footman ?), Handlyng synne, 1. 5893.
(c) The Midland English form 'those' is never heard in the dialect.
(d) The determinative forms are:

|  | Masc. | Fem. |  | Neut. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Sing. | im ot, he who | or ot, she who | סat ot, yon ot | that which |  |
| Plur. | Oem ot, they who, those... who | Sem ot | those which |  |  |

The antecedent of the relative pronoun in the modern dialect is always an Accusative form, historically an O.E. dative. The use of $\boldsymbol{\delta e m}$ as a demonstrative pronoun (ista) is probably owing to its use as a grammatical nominative in this position.
445. Interrogative.

|  |
| :---: |
|  |  | Poss. wheoz whose?

The Northern M.E. forms were wha (O.E. hwa) who; wham (O.E. dat. hwām) whom, whase (O.E. hwes) whose, what (O.E. hwæt) what. Whilk (O.E. hwilc what sort of?) was a relative pronoun in Northern M.E. weठo( $\mathbf{r}$ ) is the O.E. hwseZer, which of two?
wi-az refers only to persons, and is adjectival like the possessive case of nouns.
wi•ə refers to persons, wat to things. witj is used only partitively of either persons or things. The interrogative pronoun is never governed by a preposition, the latter is put at the end of the sentence.
e.g. 'wi'ə war it 'di'on bi by whom was it done?
'wi'ə esțo 'gin it ti•a to whom have you given it?
we历o(r) is used of two alternatives, e.g. 'weठə wilțo ev, 'tri'ədən ət'blakon which will you have, the red one or the black one?

## 446. Relative.

(a) When the antecedent is expressed, at (ot) that is used for all genders and numbers. The relative ot cannot be governed by a preposition, but the preposition is tacked on after the object, or at the end of the sentence.
e.g. im ot wi si:d tos ov last wiiks di•od The man whose horse we saw last week is dead.
its $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ i: ot $\alpha z$ adlin it for I am earning it for you.
ot is also used as a conjunction, e.g. ठu no:z ot $\mathbf{i}$ 'sed ot $\mathbf{i}$ 'i•ad \%at You know that he said that he heard that. As such, ot clearly corresponds to the Scandinavian conjunction at (that), also used as a relative in Old Icelandic with swā (so), e.g. swa mikill at, so great that. In North. M.E. at was only rarely used as a relative, beside the commoner wha and whilk; but the Early Scottish writers made frequent use thereof. In the early Modern English period, it became the only relative pronoun used with an antecedent in Northern English.
(b) When the antecedent is missing, wi•ə is used for persons, wat for things.
E.g. A di'ənt 'no: wi'a wo 'di•or I don't know who was there.

A 'si:d wat wor 'up I saw what was the matter.
Strictly speaking, such sentences as these are indirect questions with interrogative pronouns, and the rule that such a relative cannot be governed by a preposition holds good.
E.g. fo 'teld mo wi'ə fod 'gin it ti'ə she told me to whom she had given it.
447. Indefinite.
sum some; sumbodi someone, somebody; sumat something.
out anything; nout naught, nothing.
i'ni-af enough; fiu few; ivri every; 0:l all ; els else.



oni any; onibodi anyone; moni many.
jan (on) one, pl. anz ones; jan o'nuסəə(r) one another.
ni•a (ni) no; ni•əbodi no-one, nobody; ni•an none.
ni•ən is often used emphatically instead of nut not; a:z 'ni•ən ga:in ti di.e 'Sat I am not (emphatic) going to do that.
fiu (M.E. fewe) is a Midland form. The Northern M.E. was fone.
 conjunctions. They refer to two alternatives. A tale is told of a man who went to the village schoolmaster and asked: weठor iz it ri:t ti'se'ə, 's•oбer or 'i:Cor? And the master replied: s:! 'oűər on om l'di'a.

The dialect possesses several words, adjectives or substantives, to express indefinite quantity, as: a di•əl, e vast, ə fiu, ə i•əp a lot, a many.

The distributive adjective is ivri, every, each; ilk (Rolle ilk) each was in use up to the end of the 18th century. Marshall (1788) mentions it in his glossary, with the meanings each, every, and instances "ilk other house" every second house, but it is now no longer heard.

## Adverbs.

448. 

(a) Of Place. $\mathbf{i} \cdot \partial(\mathbf{r})$ here, hither; $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}(\mathbf{r})$ there, thither; wi•a(r) where, whither; sumwi•a(r) somewhere; bi'jint, a'bak a behind; up up; du:n down; u:t out; of off; ge'ən near; a'we'ə away; a'bust about; jondə(r) yonder; i•əm, jam home.
(b) Of Time. nu: now ; jans once; tweis twice; ə'gi'ən again; wen when; ©en then ; si•ən soon; ive(r) ever; nive(r) never; oft, ofenz often; seldnz seldom; i'nu: (lit. een now) soon; jisţədə yesterday; las'ni:t lastnight; ti'mu'ən tomorrow; ti'mu'ən $\mathbf{t m u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}$ (lit. to morn at morn) tomorrow morning; ti mu•ən tni:t tomorrow night ; sin since; ti'de'a today; ti'ni:t tonight ; jit still.
(c) Of Manner. our(r) too (e.g. oua bad for out too bad for anything); i•ovn even; on $0: 1$ (lit. 'and all') also (e.g. shaz 'of, on 'a:z of on 'osl she is going, and I am going also) ; si•ə (si) so ; u: how ; djust just ; els else ; re'aठo(r) rather ; i'ni• $\boldsymbol{\partial f}$ enough ; a:dlinz hardly; omest almost; wat for $P$ why?

Affirmative and negative words. ei, jis yes; ni•ə no; nut, ni-an not.
(d) Of Degree. u:'ive(r) however; apn, mebi perhaps; nobet only ; s:les always; ©at so (e.g. i wo бat bad, at i kd a:dlinz ba:d he was so ill that he could hardly bear it); ka:nd a somewhat; vari very.
(e) Same form as the adjective. will well ; lay long; kwik quickly; li•t late; il ill; prati, preti pretty, rather; midlin middling, rather ; fast fast; stil still; a:d hard; streit straight; rist right; lo: low ; tfiəop cheap; di'e(r) dear; lu:d loudly. These are compared, like adjectives, by adding -or and -ist to form the comparative and superlative forms.

Irregular Comparison.
li'ot late
li-aṭer
il ill wa:r (cf. O.I. werri) wisl well beţor
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { last (in order), } \\ \text { li•atist (in time) }\end{array}\right.$
wa:st (cf. O.I. werstr) best.
(f) Adverbs built from adjectives usually end in -li unstressed, e.g. o:kedli awkwardly; munӨli monthly, etc., but the suffix -ly is stressed in: $\partial^{\prime} k u$ 'edin'lai accordingly.
(g) Adverbial phrases, and expressions. li'estws'ez at least; up to 'tend to the last; $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$ nu: at once; ( $\left.\boldsymbol{\mathrm { o }}\right)^{\prime} \mathrm{ku} \cdot \partial s$ of course, naturally; ti bi 'si'ə(r) no doubt; 'fis we'a thus, in this way; ${ }^{\prime} \mathbf{g}^{\prime} \cdot \partial t$ (lit. on the road), at work, going; leik like, is used redundantly in such sentences as 'wai, 'u: a: jo 'leik Well, how are you, i 'ofnz leik 'kumz ov e 'munde he often comes on a Monday. In Cumberland, I believe, 'what' is similarly used.
(h) The forms whither, hither, thither (North. M.E. whidir, hidir, thidir) and whence, hence, and thence (North. M.E. whethen, hethen, thethen), are not found in the dialect today. Instead of ' whither,' wi•a(r), followed by ti•a after the main verb, is used, e.g. wi'az i ga:in ti'o? iz ga:in ti Bolitn where is he going to? He is going to Bridlington. Similarly 'hither' and 'thither' are replaced by $i \cdot e(r)$, and $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial ( r )}$, e.g. kum $\mathrm{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$ come here, az 'of $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \mathrm{a}$ nu: I am going there now. Instead of 'whence,' wi'o(r), followed by fre after the main verb, is used, e.g. wi'a diz fa $\varepsilon \cdot \boldsymbol{e l}$ fre P Jo kumz fre Jatn Where does she come from? She comes from Ayton. 'Hence' and 'thence' are replaced by frov i'a(r), and' fro $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \mathrm{e}(\mathrm{r})$.

## Prepositions.

449. (a)
eftere(r) after
a'bu:t about
a'bu:n above
oue(r) across
${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{gi}^{\prime}$ 'n against
o'mang amongst
ot at
$\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} \mathrm{fu} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}(\mathbf{r})$ before bi'jint behind billo: below $a^{\prime}$ nenst, bi'sa:d beside fre'a (fro), frov from bi'twikst, $\partial^{\prime}$ twi:n i, iv in
between
bi'jont beyond
bai (bi) by
du:n down septin, sept except for, $\mathrm{fe}(\mathbf{r})$ for inte, intiv into
insa:d inside, within u:t'sa:d outside
ni $\cdot$ 'rand ge'on'and
on (a) on, of
of off
ruind round, around up up
wa:l until, til
wi, wiv with
a'ठu:t without
fre'a is the Northern M.E. fra, corresponding to Midland M.E. fro, and Southern from. The form frov, which is used before consonants, is made by analogy of $i v$ in and tiv to. o'nenst is O.E. onefen, onemn, prep. alongside of, and the adverbial genitive suffix -es.
(b) Prepositional phrases. oz 'far az as far as; speit a in spite of; ouar a'nenst opposite to; a \%is sa:d on this side; ət tu\%ə sa:d on the other side ; i'frunt $\boldsymbol{\imath}$ in front of ; fa'tsi'ək ə for the sake of.

## Conjunctions.

450. bud, bat but; koz, a'kos because; en and; at that (that is never used as a conjunction); gif, if if; ne'aбる(r), nouסə(r)
 adjectives $=$ than $) ; \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{r})$ or; wa:l until.

## Interjections.

451. Exclamation, ai; Wonder, i: ; Pain, fear u: ; Objection, e:, e: bud; Doubt, will; Vexation, dej, bon, bonlit ont; Surprise, lo:k, 'lo:k a 'masi 'on az; Meeting, holo:, wat-; Expostulation, wa:i (e.g. wa:i, wat diz i e'al why, what does he ail?); Triumph, u're:a; Commiseration, o:a, di-ar a di-ar; Intention, wa:i nu: ©en; To horses, o:v move to the left; dzi: move to the right; wu:e stop.

## Verbs.

## 1. Strong Verbs.

452. The strong verbs are characterised by a vowel change (gradation) which marks the difference between the Present and Past tenses, and the Past Participle; as find, fan, fun,--but the Old English gradation has become much obscured in the course of the dialect's development. The Past Participle regularly should
end in -n (M.E. -en), but the ending has been dropped whenever a nasal consonant ( $\mathbf{n}, \boldsymbol{\eta}$ or $\mathbf{m}$ ) appears in the preceding syllable. Thus dra:v, to drive, has Past Participle drovn; but bind, to bind, contracts to bun (for bundn); and klim to klum (for klumbn).

In Old English these verbs had four vowel-steps, representing (1) Infinitive and Present, (2) Pret. Singular, (3) Pret. Plural, (4) Past Participle. In Northern Middle English the Pret. Plural vowel was ousted by that of the Pret. Singular, and the steps were reduced to three, (1) Infinitive and Present, (2) Preterite, (3) Past Participle. Roughly speaking, these vowel-steps remain, and may be traced in the following pages. The vowels have undergone the normal development of vowels in accented syllables.
453. The inflections of strong verbs in Northern M.E. were as follows. The example is the verb 'speak.'

Indicative Mood.

|  | Present |  | Plur. | Sing. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. | Plust. |  |  |
| 1 | speke | spekes, speke | spak | spak |
| 2 | spekes | spekes, speke | spak | spak |
| 3 | spekes | spekes, speke | spak | spak |

Imperative mood: sing. spek, plur. spekes.
Infinitive mood: speke.
Present participle: spelcand.
Past participle: spoken.
Verbal noun: spekyng.
The inflection -es of the Pres. Indic. Plural was dropped when we, yhe, or bai came immediately before or after the verb. Cf. Pricke of Conscience, l. 1463: "Now we fande our force, now we fail."
454. In the modern dialect of Hackness, strong verbs are inflected as follows:

Indicative Mood.
Present
Sing.
Plur.
1 spi $\cdot$ ok, spi $\cdot$ oks
2 spi•aks
3 spi•oks

Sing. Past Plur.
spak spak
spak spak
spak spak.

Imperative mood: sing. spi-ok, plur. spi•ak.
Infinitive mood: spi-ak.
Present participle: spi-əkin.
Past participle: spokn.
Verbal noun : spi•ekin.
(a) In the Present Indic., the inflection -s appears as (z) after vowels and voiced consonants, and as (iz) after hissing sounds. This inflection is not a vulgarism in such sentences as tmen kumz. It is the historical plural inflection; cf. such a sentence in The Pricke of Conscience as: "pe tother part of the lyfe, men calles pe midward" (l. 552 ). Here follow the rules for its use.

The inflected forms of the Pres. Indicative plural are used with a noun subject, or when the pronominal subject is separated from its verb, exactly as in Northern M.E., e.g. wi: drink we drink, but im on mi: d्ripks nobət waṭor He and I drink only water; jo kum you come, but ji: at kumz ti ma:kit no:z you who come to market know, etc.; $\boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \cdot \boldsymbol{e}$ sup they drink, but tkai sups $t$ muki pound water the cows drink the dirty water of the pond.

The lst person Sing. Pres. Indicative of all verbs in the modern dialect has acquired a similar inflected form, by analogy with the plural, e.g. a tel im nut ti•o I forbid him, but a ofnz telz im a'bu:t it I often tell him about it. This inflected form is used as the Historical Perfect tense, e.g. a si:z im gan bai, on a up on eftor im, on $a$ juits on malz, bud on i ganz oz unkon'sa:nd I saw him go past and I went after him and shouted, but he went on unconcernedly.
(b) The Subjunctive forms of both strong and weak verbs had already been replaced by the Indicative in Northern Middle English, hence only inflected forms of the verb are heard in sentences containing unreal suppositions introduced by if, gif, if; e.g. if i ganz $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\mathrm{i}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$, il di $\boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{\partial}$ ni gud If he go there (but he wont); he will accomplish nothing. But the verb bi: to be, has retained its subjunctive forms-Present (all persons) bi: (bi), Past (all persons) war (wo), North. M.E. be, ware-and these are often used in the if-clauses of conditional sentences, e.g. if " $\mathbf{\sigma} \boldsymbol{a t}$ bi si•o if that be so, if ' $\alpha$ : wo \% $\mathbf{i}$ : if I were you.
455.

Class I.
Infin.
O.E. $\bar{\imath}$
M.E. $\bar{\imath}$


Mod.E.
ei before voiceless consonants e•ə
i
a: " voiced
ba:d, bide
beit, bite
dra:v, drive
gla:d, glide
ra:d, ride
reit, write
ra:v, rive
ra:z, rise
sțra:d, stride
sțreik, strike
stra:v, strive
feit, cacare
Ora:v, thrive
ja:n, shine

| be'ad, ba:did be'at, bit | bidn, ba:did bitn |
| :---: | :---: |
| dre'ev | drivn, drovi |
| gle.ad | glidn |
| re'ed | ridn |
| re'at | ritn |
| re'ov | rovn |
| re'ez | rizn |
| stre'ad | stridn, strodn |
| stre ${ }^{\text {ek }}$ | sțrukn |
| stre'ov | strivn, strovn |
| fe'at | Jitn |
| \%re'əv | Orivn, \%rovn |
| fe'on |  |

The $6 \cdot \sigma$ of the preterite in verbs of this class has developed regularly from the $\bar{a}$ of the Northern M.E. Preterites (see $\$ 126$, 128). This is probably the explanation of the $\varepsilon \cdot \varepsilon$ in the Windhill-verbs of this class (Wright, Windhill Dialect, §362), which appear to be borrowed from a Northern dialect. The Past Participles in this list with 0 or $\mathbf{u}$ as root vowels are by analogy with Class II.
ra:v (O.I. rīfa) and סra:v (O.I. סrīfa) are of Norse origin, stra:v is the O.Fr. estriver (M.E. strīve, stroof, striven) with a Northern preterite in $\bar{a}$ by analogy with the verbs of this class.
456.

Class II.
(a) Inf.
O.E. $\overline{e o}$
M.E. $\bar{e}$

Mod.E. i:
fri:z, freeze (M.E. frese) fre'az

P. P.
frozn

| kli:v, cleave | kle'əv | klovn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kri:p, creep | kre'əp | kropn |
| [tfu:z], choose | tfe'əz | tfozn |
| fut, shoot | fot (M.E. schet) | fotn. |

The $\varepsilon$ 'ə of the above preterites is not the development of O.E. $\overline{e a}$ (which is $i \cdot e$ ), but is due to the analogy of drive, stride, thrive (Class I), and spread, tread (Class V). Jut is from M.E. shote, schut (O.E. sċē̄tun), with M.E. $\bar{o}$ shortened to $\mathbf{u}$ before a dental consonant (§ 163). The vowel in fot, the preterite, is from the past participle. O.E. $\dot{e} \bar{e} o s a n$, Rolle chese, should have become *tfi:z, but the word is not heard in the dialect; $\mathrm{t} \int \mathrm{i} \cdot \partial z$ is sometimes heard, and comes from M.E. chose (O.E. ceōsan). M.E. close $\bar{o}$ has regularly developed in the dialect to $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{a}$ (§159). The verb was influenced in M.E. by Fr. choisir, and became partly weak:; a pret. chosed, choisid, occurs. frozn and tJozn (O.E. froren, coren) have $\mathbf{z}$ re-introduced from the present and preterite forms.

| $\begin{array}{cc}\text { (b) } & \text { Inf. } \\ \text { O.E. } & \bar{e} o g\end{array}$ | Pret. Sing. ēag | Pret. Pl. <br> $u g$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { P. P. } \\ o g \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M.E. ēgh | $\overline{e g} \mathrm{gh}, \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{g} h$ |  | ow |
| Mod.E. i: | iu |  | ou |
| fii:, fy | fliu |  | Goun. |

The preterite fliu is not due to the analogy of the Reduplicating Verbs (Class VII), but it is the normal development of Rolle's foogh, a new preterite formed by analogy with drogh drew, and slogh slew (Class VI). This was made to supersede the older and more regular pret. flegh, perbaps because the infinitive and present tense was also flegh. To this class belonged dri: (O.E. dreogan, Rolle dreghe) to endure, suffer; and li: (O.E. lēgan) to tell lies, which are now weak.


These are often conjugated weak. The past participles are from the present stem.
(d) The other remaining verbs of Class II have become weak. tfou is from an O.E. by-form ceōwan. dri:p (O.E. drēopan, M.E. drepe) preserves its long vowel, as do su:k (O.E. sūcan), and fu:v (O.E. scūfan), but the root vowels are shortened in the weak prets. and past participles before the double consonants. smiuk is a new formation from the noun, O.E. smoca. The vowel shows the regular development of M.E. $\bar{o}$ before $k$.

> Class III.
457. The verbs of this conjugation may be divided into four sub-classes, according to the nature of the first medial consonants.
I. Verbs which had a medial nasal followed by another consonant:

|  | Inf. | Pret. Sing. | Pret. Pl. | P. P. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| O.E. $i$ | $i$ | $\underbrace{a}$ | $u$ | $u$ |
| M.E. $i$ | $a$ |  | $u$ |  |
| Mod.E. i |  | $\mathbf{a}$ |  | $\mathbf{u}$ |

m stems. Klim, climb
n stems. bind, bind
find, find
bi'gin, begin
run, run
spin, spin
wind, wind
ๆ stems. drijk, drink
klip, cling
sin, sing
sigk, sink
slink, slink
spriy, spring
stin, sting
stink, stink
sțrī, string swiy, swing frink, shrink

| klam | klum |
| :---: | :---: |
| swam | swum |
| ban | bun |
| fan | fun |
| bi'gan | bi'gun |
| ran | run |
| span | spun |
| wan | wun |
| drajk | drupk |
| klay | kluy |
| say | suT |
| sajk | sunk |
| slayk | slugk |
| spray | sprup |
| stay | stup |
| stapk | stupl |
| strag | strup |
| sway | swuy |
| jrapk | jrugk. |

To this class belongs a new formation from O.E. hringan (wk.):

$$
\text { rin, ring } \quad \text { raŋ } \quad \text { ruy. }
$$

Also the following verbs of Scandinavian origin :

| diy (O.I. dengja) beat | day | duy |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fily (O.I. flengja) fling | flaj | fluy |
| i刀 (O.I. hengja) hang (intr.) | uy | up |
| sliy (O.I. slöngwa) sling | slaj | sluy. |

Loss of the final -n in the past participles of all the above verbs is owing to the nasal in the root syllable, but it remains in the adjective drupkn drunken.

The modern form run, although it is to be found as a Present tense in the Northern Metrical Homilies (ca. 1325) ${ }^{1}$, is not a Northern form, but a borrowing from Southern English. The Northern M.E. was rin (Rolle ryn), perhaps from Anglian iman, but certainly influenced by Scandinavian renna.
458. II. The verbs of this conjugation which had a medial $l$ or $r$ followed by a consonant have all become weak.

They include elp to help, be'al to bellow, j $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \boldsymbol{\rho}$ to yell, jelp to yelp, melt to melt, swe'ol to swell, throw, ba:k to bark, ka:v to carve, sta:v to die of cold or hunger.

In be'el, je'al and swe'el, the lengthened vowel is due to the following final l, § 103.
459. III. Verbs having a medial $h+$ consonant.

|  | Inf. <br> Angl. | Pret. Sing. | Pret. Pl. <br> $u h$ | P. P. <br> oh |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| M.E. | $e g h$ | $\underbrace{}_{a g h}$ | ogh |  |

Only one representative of this class occurs:

$$
\text { fi:t, fight fout } \quad \text { foutn. }
$$

460. IV. Verbs which had two medial consonants, the first of which is not a nasal, $l, r$, or $h$.

|  | Inf. | Pret. Sing. | Pret. Pl. | P. P. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Angl. | $e$ | $\mathscr{B} \quad \underbrace{u}$ | 0 |  |
| M.E. | $e$ |  | $a$ | 0 |

${ }^{1}$ Wyld, Short History of English, p. 211, § 354.

Only two verbs of this class remain strong:

| brust, burst | brast | brusn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Orust, thrust | Orast | Orusn. |

Orust is of Scandinavian origin (O.I. ðrȳsta) and has influenced the root-vowel of brust, which occurred in North. M.E. regularly as brest.
mon (O.E. murnan) to mourn, $\theta$ ref (O.E. סerscan) to thresh, and spon (O.E. spurnan) to spurn, have become weak.
461.

Class IV.

| (a) Anglian | Inf. $e$ | Pret. Sing. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pret. Pl. } \\ \bar{e} \end{gathered}$ | P. P. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M.E. | $\bar{\varepsilon}$ |  | $a$ or $\bar{a}$ | 0 |
| Mod.E. | i•a |  | a or $\varepsilon^{\prime} \mathrm{z}$ | O or u |
|  | bi $\cdot \boldsymbol{e}(\mathrm{r})$, bear |  | bu'z(r), bs'ə(r) | bu'on |
|  | bri-ak, break |  | brak | brokn |
|  | gri-at, weep |  | grat | grutn |
|  | sti $\cdot \mathrm{l}$, steal |  | stelt | stoun |
|  | stik, stick |  | stak | stukn |
|  | fi $\cdot$ - $(\mathbf{r}$ ), shear |  | ¢i'ed | Ju'ən |
|  | ti $\cdot \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{r})$, tear |  | tu'e(r), te'e(r) | tu'on, |

and, by analogy, from O.E. werian (wk.),

$$
\text { wi } \cdot \partial(\mathbf{r}) \text {, wear } \quad \mathbf{w u} \cdot \partial(\mathbf{r}) \text {, we } \cdot \partial(\mathbf{r}) \quad \text { wu'ən. }
$$

The verb stik is a new formation from O.E. sticca, a stick, gri-ət (O.E. grǣtan, grët) was originally a reduplicating verb. The preterites of this class are very irregular, only brak, grat, and stak preserve the original sing. form; beee(r), te•e(r) and $w \varepsilon \cdot \partial(r)$ indicate lengthening of $\breve{a}$ in the open syllable, but in the commoner forms $\mathbf{b u} \cdot e(\mathbf{r})$, tu'e(r), and wu'e(r), the vowel of the past participle has penetrated into the preterite. The past participles bu'ən, $\mathbf{j u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial n}, \mathbf{t u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial n}$, and wu'ən show the regular dialect development of M.E. -orn, § 118, and stoun is regularly derived from M.E. stolen, § 117.
(b) The following verb, having a single medial nasal, was irregular in Old English.

CH. I] GRAMMAR OF THE DIALECT


The infinitive kum preserves the vowel of O.E. cuma(n). The usual Northern M.E. pret. was com or come. This is preserved in the dialect preterite kom. kam is difficult to account for. It may be the survival of an Anglian preterite singular *cam or * cwam (Gothic qam, O.H.G. quam). Undoubtedly the verb would be influenced by Scandinavian koma, which had kom or lowam for its pret. sing. Our standard English form 'came' indicates a Midland M.E. cāme with a long vowel, but the dialect form kam can only come from a Northern M.E. căm. Any lengthening in the Middle English period would have given *he'am or ${ }^{*}$ ki'om in the modern dialect.

The past part. kum (O.E. cumen) has lost its ending owing to the final nasal in the root syllable.
462. Class V.

| Angl. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Inf. } \\ e \end{gathered}$ | Pret. Sing. $\mathscr{B}$ | Pret. PI. $\bar{e}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { P. P. } \\ e \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M.E. | $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | $a$ |  | 0 |
| Mod.E. | i $\cdot \boldsymbol{}$ |  |  | 0 |
|  | ad, |  | əd | nodn |
|  | -ek, | spa |  | spokn |
|  | $\cdot \mathrm{ad}$, |  | ع'əd | trodn, |

and, by analogy, from O.E. sprēdan (wk.)
spri'ad sprad, spre'ed sprodn.
The above past participles have 0 as root vowel by analogy with Class IV.

| Angl. | Inf. <br> $i$ | Pret. Sing. <br> $\mathscr{E}$ | $\underset{\bar{e}}{\text { Pret. Pl. }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { P. P. } \\ & e \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M.E. | $i$ |  |  | $\boldsymbol{e}$ |
| Mod.E. | i |  |  | e or i |
|  | bid, bid |  |  | bidn |
|  | sit, sit |  |  | setn |


| git, get | gat | getn, gitn, gotn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| giv, gi, give | gav | gin. |

git and giv owe their initial consonant to their Scandinavian cognates, O.I. geta and gefa. The original meaning of git was to acquire, but as in modern English, the verb is also used in the dialect as the passive auxiliary, e.g. i gat kild, he was killed, and to strengthen the verb 'have,' e.g. iz gotn a koid he has a cold.

| it, eat | it | itn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lig, lie | ligd, le'ə | ligd, le'ən. |

it (O.E. etan) shows raising of $e$ to $\mathbf{i}$ before $\mathbf{t}, \S$ 106. The preterite indicates the shortening of M.E. $\bar{e}$ before a dental, $\S 150$. Rolle's preterite was ete. lig is the Scandinavian strong verb meaning 'to lie,' O.I. liggja. The strong pret. le'e and the past part. le'on may be from O.E. (licgan) lreg, legen.

Here must be added also
sit, see si:d, so: $\quad$ si:d, si:n.

The weak forms are usually heard, but so: is the regular development of North. M.E. sagh. The past part. si:n is the regular development of M.E. sene, which was a new formation from the M.E. infinitive se. It is not derived from the O.E. past part. sewen or segen. Similar formations in the Middle English period were tane from $t a$ (take), and made from ma (make).

| 463. | Class VI. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) | Inf. | Pret. Sing. | Pret. Pl. | P. P. |
| O.E. | $a$ | $\overline{0}$ | ${ }_{0}$ | $a$ |
| M.E. | $a, \bar{a}$ |  |  | $a$ |
|  | gri'əv, dig | grov, g |  | grovn |
|  | swi'or, swear | swe'or |  | swu'on |
|  | stand, stand | stud, st |  | studn. |

The infinitive gri'ov indicates M.E. grave, with a long fronted $\bar{a}$ (§ 128); gri'əv (O.E. grafan) would have a preterite in M.E. grove. From this comes the shortened dialect preterite grov, and the past part. grovn (for gravn); gri ovd is probably a new weak formation from the infinitive, but it may be the regular strong preterite *gri•əv < M.E. grove (§ 160) with the 'weak' -d added.
swi-ar shows the regular development of M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, lengthened in the open syllable from O.E. swerian. The Northern M.E. preterite in the Metrical Psalms is sware (xxiii. 10) by analogy with Class IV, from which comes the dialect form swe're.

The M.E. past part. sworen, or sworn, was formed from the Midland preterite swore, and took the place of the older swaren; sworn regularly became swu'on ( $\$ 118$ ), like the -orn preterites bu'ən, $\int u \cdot \partial n$, tu'ən, wu'ən of Class IV.
stand preserves its original vowel before the double consonant. The preterite sti'od is a regular development of M.E. stode (§ 160). The form stud and the past part. studn owe their vowel to a M.E. shortening of the close $\bar{o}$ before $-d$ (§ 163). studn is derived from M.E. stoden, a new formation from the preterite stode, like sworen from swore, which ousted the older standen.


The vowel in the infinitive and past part. is the development of M.E. au, the Northern M.E. forms were draw, drawen. Rolle's preterite $d r o g h$ regularly yielded driu ( $(161 b$ ).

Here must be added:

$$
\text { sle'ə, slay sliu } \quad \text { sle'on, }
$$

where the infinitive is not from O.E. slēan, M.E. slee [sle:] but from the Scandinavian slāa (Northern M.E. sla, slai). The preterite is O.E. slōg, North. M.E. slogh, regularly developed to sliu, cf. driu above, and fliu from flogh (Class II). The past part. is not from O.E. slzgen or slegen, M.E. slawen, but a new Northern M.E. past participle slane, formed from the infinitive sla.

| (c) O.E. | Inf. $a c$ | Pret. Sing. $\bar{a} c$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pret. Pl. } \\ \quad \bar{o} c \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { P. P. } \\ a c \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M.E. | ak |  | ohk |  | $a k$ |
| Mod.E. | ak |  | iuk |  | ak |
|  | fak, shake |  | fiuk |  | Jakn |
|  | tak, take |  | tiuk |  | takn |

These preterites show the regular development of M.E. $\bar{o}$ before $k$. tak is of Scaudinavian origin, O.I. taka, tök, tekin. The form takn owes its vowel to the analogy of Jakn, but in Northern M.E. a new past participle tane was formed from the shortened infinitive taa (cf. slane above), and $t \in \cdot$ 'en is derived from this.
(d) The other remaining verbs of this class, bi•ak bake, fle•o flay, li•od load, jar shave, wef wash, have become weak.

Of these, only fav and wef preserve the O.E. short vowel. For we§ see §98. The vowel in fil'a is difficult to account for, and it agrees with that in sle's to slay. One would expect O.E. flēan and slēan to yield M.E. flee and slee with the open $\varepsilon$ :, which would have given *fil: $\cdot$ and *sli•a in the dialect. Wright, Grammar of the Dialect of Windhill, §376, says that the $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$ comes from the past participle. This is unlikely in the case of sle'o, and impossible with the weak verb fie'o. More likely is it that these infinitives come, not from the English verbs fiean and slēan, but from their Scandinavian cognates f $\bar{u}$ and $s l \bar{\alpha}$. Barbour has sla, to slay, whereas the Midland and Southern writers regularly have sleen, slee [sle:n]. The latter forms would have yielded literary English 'slea.' Slay and flay are undoubtedly Northern forms in literary English, and their spelling is the usual Middle Scots $\alpha i$, ay, for M.E. $\bar{a}$, which had already become fronted to the sound of the Northern M.E. diphthong ai.
bi•ak and li•əd have developed M.E. fronted $\bar{a}$ as far as the $\mathbf{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}$ stage, like gri•ov to dig.

| 464. | Class VII. | (Reduplicating Verbs.) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) | Inf. | Pret. Sing. | Pret. Pl. | P. P. |
| O.E. | $\bar{a} w$ | $\overline{e o w}$ | $\overline{e o w}$ | $\bar{a} w$ |
| M.E. | $a u$ |  | $e u$ | $a u$ |
| Mod.E. | O: |  | iu | o: |
|  | blo:, blow | bliu | blo:n |  |
|  | kro:, crow | kriu | kro:n |  |
|  | mo:, mow | miu | mo:n |  |
|  | no:, know | niu | no:n |  |
|  | so:, sow | siu | so:n |  |
|  | Oro:, throw | Oriu | Oro:n, |  |

and by analogy :
sno:, snow
(b)


These verbs have not passed into the above class, as in standard English. In the dialect M.E. au became 0:, but ou has remained as ou.
(c)

| Anglian | $a l$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| M.E. | $a(u) l$ |
| Mod.E. | o: |
|  | fo:l, fall |
|  | od, hold |


| Pret. Sing. $\overline{e a l}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pret. P1. } \\ & \quad \overline{e a l} l \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

P. P.
$a l$
$a(u) l$
o:
fo:ln
odn.

The vowel in od (Rolle hald, Clavis haud) should regularly appear as 0:, the normal development of M.E. au, but it became short, by analogy with the past part. odn (where the vowel is short before the double consonant) during the eighteenth century ( $\$ 96 b$ ).

bet is probably from an Anglian *bēt for West Saxion beot. It must come from a M.E. form containing the open $\bar{\varepsilon}$, for the M.E. close $\bar{e}$ shortened to i (§ 150).
(e)

|  | Inf. |
| :--- | :--- |
| O.E. | $\overline{\bar{x}}$ |
| M.E. | $\bar{\varepsilon}$ or $a$ |
|  | let, let |

Pret. Sing.
Pret. Pl.

let
P. P.
$\bar{x}$
$\bar{\varepsilon}$ or $a$ letn.

The Northern M.E. forms of this verb were lete, or latte, with pret. lat, and past part. laten. The $a$ was due to the influence of the Scandinavian cognate verb (O.I. lāta, lēt, lātinn). The modern infinitive let derives its vowel from a shortening of M.E. open $\bar{\varepsilon}$, (cf. bet) by aualogy with the past part. letn (where the vowel is short before the double consonant, cf. odn, od). The preterite let may have its vowel from a common dialect development, the raising of a before dentals (§99).

To this class belong:

| sli:p, sleep | slep, slept | slep, slept |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| swi:p, sweep | swep, swept | swep, swept |
| wi:p, weep | wep, wept | wep, wept. |

These verbs have preserved the long vowel of their infinitive and present stem. sli:p is Anglian slēpa(n), O.E. st̄xpan. wi:p is Anglian wōpa(n); cf. Goth. wōpjan. Its preterite was originally $w \overline{e o} p<{ }^{*}$ wew $\bar{p} p$, contracted to $w \bar{e} p$, like sle$p$ (slept) and lèt (let). The vowel appears to have become short in the weak forms before the double consonant, and to have been transferred afterwards to the strong forms. This may be the explanation of the short vowel in let above. swi:p (O.E. swāpan) appears to have been formed by analogy with sli:p and wi:p.
( $f$ ) The remaining verbs of this class: fo:d fold; loup (0.I. hlaupa) to leap; ri•əd (pret. red) read; span span; and wo:k walk; have become weak.

## 2. Wealc Verbs.

465. For historical purposes we may divide the weak verbs into two classes. (1) Those which in Old English had no stem vowel,-the preterite ending was added directly to the root. (2) Those which formed their preterites with -ede, or -ode.

Class I includes the "irregular" weak verbs of the I-Conjugation, sellan, bycgan, etc.; I-Conjugation "long roots," hieran, dèman, sendan, lecgan, etc.; and the AI-Conjugation, habban, secgan, and libban; all of which formed their preterites in -de, or -te after a voiceless consonant.

Class II includes I-Conjugation "short roots," fremman, wenian, ferian, etc., which formed their preterites in -ede; the

O-Conjugation, lufian, macian, etc., which formed their preterites in -ode, and some new formations.

In Northern M.E. Class II regularly formed its preterite in -ed, whereas the preterites of Class I ended (in speech at least) in $-d$, or $-t$ after a voiceless final consonant.
466. The inflections of Class II of weak verbs in Northern M.E. were as follows. The example is the verb 'look.'

Indicative Mood.

|  | Present. |
| :--- | ---: |
| Sing. | Plur. |
| loke | lokes, loke |
| lokes | lokes, loke |
| lokes | lokes, loke |


|  | Past. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. |  |
| loked | loked |  |
| loked | loked |  |
| loked | loked |  |

Imperative mood: sing. loke, plur. lokes.
Infinitive mood: loke.
Present participle: lokand.
Past participle: loked.
Verbal noun : lokyng.
The inflection es of the pres. indic. plural was omitted when a pronoun-subject came immediately before or after the verb.
467. In the modern dialect of Hackness, weak verbs are inflected as follows:

Indicative Mood.

|  | Present. |  | Plur. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Sing. | Sing. | Slur. |  |
| 1 | liuk, liuks | liuks, liuk | liukt | liukt |
| 2 | liuks | liuks, liuk | liukt | liukt |
| 3 | liuks | liuks, liuk | liukt | liukt |

Imperative mood : sing. liuk, plur. liuk.
Infinitive mood: liuk.
Present participle: liukin.
Past participle: liukt.
Verbal noun : liukin.
The remarks made upon the inflection $-s$, upon the inflected forms of the Present Indicative, and upon the Subjunctive Mood in $\S 454$ are true also for the weak verbs.

The preterite and past part. may end in -t, as in the case of
liukt, or in -id, or -d. As a general rule -t occurs after voiceless consonants, -d after vowels and voiced consonants, and -id is heard only after $\mathbf{t}$ or d. New formations, and Middle English borrowings follow that rule, e.g. be'at (to abate) be'atid, kle'əm (to claim) kle'omd, profe(r) (to offer) profad, pas (to pass) past; but many original English verbs are irregular in this respect, as will be seen in the following paragraphs.

Class I. (M.E. preterites in $t$ or $-d$.)
468. I. Irregular verbs of the I-Conjugation :

sțritj shows a Northern dialect development of $e$ to $\mathbf{i}$ before dentals.
sel and tel had Northern M.E. preterites sald and tald. The present dialect forms are Midland, in which the I Mutation of the infinitive and present stem was adopted throughout the verb.
rout shows a metathesis of $r$, cf. O.E. worhte. The remainder are regular developments of $O$. and M.E. forms, excepting that ri'at [ has formed a new weak preterite. The regular form would be *rout (Anglian răht) with the same vowel as tout.

The vowel change in the preterites of bai, and the last five verbs in the above list is not gradation, $\S 452$, but is due to the fact that in O.E. their infinitives contained a vowel which was mutated by the $-j$ - of the verbal stem. si:k, for example, represents O.E. sēcan, sōhte, from an earlier ${ }^{*}$ sōkjan ${ }^{2}$.
${ }^{1}$ See Wright, Old English Grammar, § 534, or Wyld, Short History of English, § 333.
469. II. I-Conjugation Long Roots:
(a) Long by position.
bend, bend
bild, bi:ld, build
drenf, drench
fil, fill
kis, kiss
let, hinder, let
ls'a, lay, bet
nit, knit
send, send
set, set
spend, spend
fut, shut
wend, wend

| bent | bent |
| :--- | :--- |
| bilt | bilt |
| drenft | drenft |
| fild | fild |
| kist | kist |
| let | letn |
| ls'ad | ls'od |
| nit | nit |
| sent | sent |
| set | set, setn |
| spent | spent |
| jut | fut, jutn |
| went. |  |

The original short vowels remain, excepting that bi:ld shows a M.E. e, derived from O.E. $y$ (byldan), lengthened before the consonant group -ld, § 146.
went is also used as the preterite of $\mathbf{g a n}(\$ 476)$ to go.
le'a to lay is used always in speaking of birds and their eggs, also of betting; but otherwise $\mathbf{l 6} \cdot \mathrm{e}$ and lig are "equally used transitively or intransitively, without any distinction in meaning," as in Windhill (p. 143).

Curious, too, is the inevitable use of 'laid' (to denote a 'state,' not an action) where modern usage demands 'lying,' in such a sentence as a fan im 'le'od ont grund I found him lying on the ground. This solecism is not confined to the uneducated, as the following examples show: Maxwell's Life of Wellington, London, Bickers, 1890, chap. 12, p. 375, "the British infantry, who held the threatened point, were laid down on the reverse of the crest they occupied "; Kipling's A Fleet in Being, London, Macmillan, 1899, chap. 4, p. 44, "The Cornwall coast slid past us in great grey-blue shadows, laid out beyond the little strip of sail-dotted blue." It reminds one of the joke that Lord Kitchener refused to enlist "Bantam " regiments in 1915 because "they would not lay in the trenches."
(b) Long by ' nature.'

| bli:d, bleed | bled | bled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bri:d, breed | bred | bred |
| di $\cdot \boldsymbol{l}$, deal | delt | delt |
| drai, dry | dra:d | dira:d |
| fi:l, feel | felt | felt |
| fi:d, feed | fed | fed |
| $\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathrm{e}(\mathrm{r})$, hear | i:od | i $\cdot$ d |
| $\mathrm{i} \cdot \mathrm{l}$, heal | i - ald | $i$-old |
| ki:p, keep | kept | kept |
| lided, lead | led | led |
| li•ov, leave | left | left |
| len, lend | lent | lent |
| mi ${ }^{\text {an, mean }}$ | ment | ment |
| mitt, meet | met | met |
| ri $\cdot \boldsymbol{z ( r ) , ~ r e a r ~}$ | ri-ad | ri•od |
| spri $\cdot$ d, spread | spred | spred |
| swi.p, sweep | swept | swept |
| swi•t, sweat | swet | swet |
| wij, wish | wijt | wijt. |

Many of the above verbs show an early M.E. shortening of O.E. $\bar{X}$ or $\bar{e}$ in the preterite and past part. before the O.E. double

len (North. M.E. len) is not O.E. l敢nan, which would have become *li'ən. It is a new formation from the preterite lent (O.E l̄̄æde), where the M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$ became short before the double consonant. Similarly wif, O.E. wyscan, would have yielded *weif. The vowel first became short in the preterite and past participle.
470. AI-Conjugation :

| e, ev, have | ed | ed |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| liv, live | livd | livd |
| s $\varepsilon \cdot \sigma$, say | sed | sed. |

e (before consonants), ev (before vowels) represents North. M.E. $h \bar{a}, h \bar{a} f$. The e is due to the shortening of M.E. fronted $æ:$, probably in the Early Modern English period. The long vowel remains in the compound verb bi'e.ov.
ed (North. M.E. had) is not the Midland M.E. hafd or haved,
which would have given ${ }^{*}$ o:d in the dialect (cf. lo:d from M.E. laverd, or o:k from M.E. havel). It is a new formation from the clipped North. M.E. infinitive $h \bar{a}$, like made from $m a$ (for mak) to make. The vowel is either to be explained as on the last page, or more probably as the development of $a$ to $\mathbf{e}$ before dentals (§99) after its shoptening in Middle English.
se'z represents regularly North. M.E. say (O.E. secgan). The vowel became short in the pret. and past part. before -d.

## Class II. (M.E. preterites in -ed.)

471. The remaining verbs, which in Middle English formed their preterites and past participles in -ed, from O.E. ede, ode, may be classified according to their modern forms into
(1) Those which add -id to the present tense to form the preterite and past part.,
(2) Those which add no inflection,
(3) Those which add -d,
(4) Those which add -t.

The general rule for the formation of the preterite and past participle is: (1) verbs which end in -t or -d take -id, (2) verbs which end in a voiced consonant take -d, (3) verbs which end in a breathed consonant take -t; but this rule is often broken. Many weak verbs in $-\mathbf{1},-\mathbf{m}$, and $-\mathbf{n}$ make preterite and participle in -t.
472. I. Verbs which form preterite and past participle in -id:
felt, hide
flit, remove a household
fri•t, fret
siut, suit
skrat, scratch
smit, infect
$\mathbf{t} \mathbf{f i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial t}$, cheat

| feltid | feltid |
| :--- | :--- |
| flitid | flitid |
| fri•ətid | fri•ətid |
| siutid | siutid |
| skratid | skratid |
| smitid | smitid |
| tfi$\cdot$ atid | $\mathbf{t f i} \cdot \partial t i d$. |

The ending -id, North. M.E. -ed, -id, is preserved in this class of verbs after a dental consonant.
felt is a new formation from the adjective felt hidden, a weak past participle of the Scandinavian verb (O.I.) fela to hide. smit and skrat are also of Scandinavian origin.
fri-at (O.E. frettan, to devour) was originally a strong verb, belonging to the same Gradation series as it to eat.
473. II. Verbs which end in -d or -t, and add no inflection in the preterite:
(a) Short stem vowels. The past participle of these verbs is usually strong.

| it, hit | it | itn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kast, cast | kast | kast, kesn |
| kost, cost | kost | kost, kosn |
| kut, cut | kut | kut, kutn |
| ot, hurt | ot | ot, otn |
| put, put | put | putn |
| slit, slit | slit | slit, slitn |
| splet, split | splet | splet, spletn |
| wed, wed | wed | wed, wedid |
| wet, wet | wet, wetid | wet, wetid. |

kast, kut, and it are of Scandinavian origin.
kost and ot are Romance verbs from O.Fr. coster and O.Fr. hurter respectively.
(b) Long stem-vowels, with contracted preterite.

| li:t, light, alight | let, lit | let, letn; lit, litn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tri-ət, treat | țret | tret, țretn. |

tri-at is of Romance origin, Fr. traiter. Its present stem indicates M.E. tre:t (trete). The short vowel in the preterite is owing to the analogy of the English verbs, which had originally a double consonant in the preterite, as $l \bar{\infty} d a n, l \bar{x} d d e$, to lead, etc.
474. III. Weak verbs, which end in a voiced consonant or a vowel, usually form their preterites and past participles in -d.

| fic'ə, frighten | fle'əd | fle'əd |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| folə, follow | folod | foled |
| fre'əm, attempt | fre'əmd | fre'omd |
| im'pri'əv, improve | im'pri'əvd | im'pri'əvd |
| louz, loosen | louzd | louzd |


| luv, love | luvd | luvd |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pri-av, proove | pri-ovd | provn |
| smi $e(\mathbf{r})$, smear | smi $\cdot$ d | smi $\cdot$ ad |
| sou, sew | soud | soud, soun |
| si'oz, sieze | si'ozd | si'rad |
| strou, strew | sțroud | strroud |
| fou, show | joud | joud, joun |
| fire, shoe | jod | jod, jodn |
| ti'om, pour out | ti-amd | ti ${ }^{\text {amd }}$ |
| wakn, waken, awake | waknd | waknd |
| wi•on, wean | wi-and | wi'end. |

ti'om, fis'z, and louz are of Scandinavian origin.
pri $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial v}$ is Old French prover, im'pri'ov is M.E. entprove, from O.Fr. emprover, or approver, to benefit.
475. IV. Weak verbs, which end in a voiceless consonant (some verbs in $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{m}$, and $\mathbf{n}$ ), form their preterites and past participles in -t.
(a) Without vowel change.

| bon, burn | bont | bont |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| katf, catch (of persons) | katft | katft |
| kep, catch (of things) | kept | kept |
| kos, curse | kost | kost |
| la:n, learn | la:nt | la:nt |
| lap, wrap | lapt | lapt |
| los, loose | lost | lost |
| mak, make | mi'əd | mi'əd |
| smel, smell | smelt | smelt |
| spel, spell | spelt | spelt |
| spil, spill | spilt | spilt |
| JE'əp, shape | fe'opt | fe'əpt. |

f $\varepsilon \cdot \partial p$ is not the strong verb (O.E. scieppan) but a new formation, M.E. shape ( $n$ ), from the noun O.E. ge-sceap, Northern M.E. shap or shappe, shape.
mi-ad is not O.E. macode. In Nortbern M.E. a new infinitive $m a$, or maa, was made by analogy with ta (take), and sla (slay), and a new weak preterite made was formed from this. From this
source comes literary English 'made,' and also the dialect form mi'ad. katf is of Romance origin, cf. Old Picard cachier (O.Fr. chacier) to hunt. kep is Scandinavian (O.I. keppa, to strive).
(b) With contracted preterites.

| dri'am, dream | dremt | dremt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ni:1, kneel | nelt | nelt. |

476. Irregular is
gan, go went, gi'ad gi'en.
gan is a Scandinavian borrowing (O.I. ganga, gekk, genginn), in which the final 0 , still preserved in Lowland Scots and Cumberland, has been weakened to $\mathbf{n}$ in the Hackness dialect. The Northern M.E. form was $g \bar{a}$ (O.E. $g \bar{a} n$ ) from which comes the past part. gi•on, North. M.E. gane. The O.E. verb was originally strong, and the pret. gi $\cdot$ od is a new weak formation.

## Preterite-Present Verbs.

477. The historical interest of the following verbs, which are used as auxiliaries to express modifications of verbal action, lies herein, that they were all originally strong verbs. The present tenses of these verbs have long been obsolete. The present tense was superseded by the old preterite, and a new weak preterite formed from the old preterite plural stem, in the ages long before any of the Germanic languages were written down. The preterite-present verbs are common to all the Germanic tongues. The Hackness dialect of English, like modern English, employs them merely as modal auxiliaries. They have no subjunctive or infinitive forms, as in German. It is impossible for instance to say a sl mun gan, Ich werde gehen müssen; or a evnt it kud di-e, Ich habe es nicht tun können, but the dialect is more conservative than English. It is possible to say a ka:nt di it nu:, bud a ju:st ti kud di it, where kud is a weak past part. used as an infinitive.
sal and wil are used to denote futurity and obligation exactly like literary English 'shall' and 'will.' Indeed, with the excep-
tion of mun, $q . v$., all the following verbs have the same construction and meaning as in English.
478. can (M.E. can, pret. cuthe, coude).

Pres. emphatic form kan, weak form kn for all persons.
Pret. " " kud, " " kad for all persons.
In composition with ' not.'
Pres. ka:nt, for all persons.
Pret. kudnt, for all persons.
479. dare (M.E. dar, pret. dorste).

Pres. da:(r), for all persons.
Pret. dost, for all persons.
There is a weak preterite da:d, which is transitive, and means 'challenged.'

In composition with 'not.'
Pres. da:nt, for all persons.
Pret. dosnt, for all persons.
The weak preterite da:d has no composite form. i da:d im ti 'di it, he challenged him to do it, becomes i didnt da:r im ti di it.
480. may. (North. M.E. may, pret. moght, or mught.)

Pres. emphatic form me'a, weak form mo, for all persons.
Pret. emphatic form mud, weak form mod, for all persons.
In composition with ' not.'
Pres. moint for all persons.
Pret. mudnt for all persons.
mud is the regular descendant of North. M.E. moght, cf. nut (not) from noght.

North. M.E. moght would give an early Mod. Eng. [mout] from which mud is a shortened form. The $t$ was voiced to $d$ owing to the influence of the initial voiced consonant, cf. bud from M.E. but.
481. must.

Corresponding to lit. English ' must,' the dialect has two verbs
-must which implies outward necessity, not depending on the will of a person; and mun which implies compulsion depending on personal will.
must is borrowed from Midland M.E. moste, the preterite of moot, may or can, used as a present. The Northern M.E. auxiliary which implied logical necessity was byhove, cf. Pricke of Conscience, l. 491,
must has

> "All pas, he says, pat comes of Eve, bat es, al men bat here byhoves leve ...say outher a, a, or e, e."

Pres. emphatic form must, weak form mest, for all persons.
In composition with 'not': muznt, for all persons.
The Preterite of this verb is wanting. Its substitute is: ad ti-(o) (had to), for all persons.
mun (North. M.E. mon, or mun, from Scand. mun, pret. munסa) has

Pres. emphatic form mun, weak form mon, for all persons.
In composition with 'not': mosnt ( $\$ 480$ ), for all persons.
The Preterite of this verb is wanting. Its substitute is: ad ti-(ə) (had to), for all persons.

The difference in meaning may be shown by the following examples.
 (they cannot come by another way).

Pres. $\mathbf{6}$ o mon 'kum ' Cis ru'əd = they must come this way (" they are under personal restraint to take this road ${ }^{1 "}$ ")
482. ought, which is followed by the infinitive with ' to.'

Pres. and Pret. out ti, for all persons.
In composition with 'not.'
Pres. and Pret. emphatic form out nut ti, weak form out nt ti for all persons.
out comes from M.E. oght or ought, the Midland form of the North. M.E. pret. aght, which was used without to ; cf. Pricke of Conscience, l. 1836,

[^39]The verb originally meant 'to have' (O.E. agan), but early in M.E. it acquired the meaning 'to owe.' (debere), and as such required the sign of the Dative, e.g. "He owste to him 10,000 talentes" Wycliffe, Matt. xviii. 24. The compound verb bi'o: (North. M.E. *byawe) retains the original meaning to have, own, e.g. wiob bio:z fat? whose is that? o:, the regular development of O.E. agan, North. M.E. awe, means 'to owe,' and takes no datival 'to'; e.g. a'o:d im tupns I owed him twopence.
483. shall. (North. M.E. sal, pret. suld.)

Pres. emphatic form sal, weak form sl, for all persons.
Pret. emphatic form sud, weak form sad, for all persons.
In composition with ' not.'
Pres. sa:nt for all persons.
Pret. sudnt for all persons.
484. will. (Northern M.E. wil, pret. wald.)

Pres. emphatic form wil, weak form 1, for all persons.
Pret. emphatic form wad, weak form od, d, for all persons.
In composition with ' not.'
Pres. wiont for all persons.
Pret. wadnt for all persons.
485.

Conjugation of Verbs
Table of Tenses.

| Tense | Indefinite | Imperfect and oontinuous | Perfect | Perfeot and continuous |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | a bri-oks I break | az bri•okin I am breaking | av brokn <br> I have broken | av bin bri•olcin <br> I have been breaking |
| Preterite | a brak <br> I broke | a wo bri•akin I was breaking | ad brokn <br> I had broken | ad bin bri-okin I had been breaking |
| Pature | asl bri-ak <br> I shall break | asl bi bri-ekin <br> I shall be breaking | asle brokn <br> I shall have broken | asl e bin brioldin I shall have been breaking |

To conjugate a verb it is merely necessary to know the present, preterite, and past part. forms, and the auxiliaries have, be, use, and do, which are given in full in the next paragraphs.

The simple preterite is a Perfect, and indicates an action completed in the past, e.g. a brak mi watf (it is not broken now).

## Auxiliary Verbs.

## Have.

486. The verb 'have' is used to form the Perfect tenses. The Present perfect always contains the notion that the effect of the state, action, or thought indicated by the verbs reaches into present time, e.g. av brokn mi watf (and it is not yet repaired), av Oout a'bu:t ' $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ t a'di•al (and I am still thinking about it).

The Preterite perfect indicates a similar effect reaching into the past time indicated by the context: e.g. id 'brokn iz 'wat $\int$, i'teld mo (and it was still broken when he spoke to me), id 'mo:n ə bu:t 'fourr $\varepsilon$ 'ekrez, wen ' $a$ : gat $\boldsymbol{\delta i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$ (and was still mowing).

|  | Affirmative | Interrogative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | $a: e, e v, ~(a v) ~$ | ev $a$ : (eva) |
|  | \%u: ez (\%uz) | ez \%u: (esțo) |
|  | i: ez (iz) | ez i: (ezi) |
|  | wi: e, ev, (wiv). | e wi: (ewi) |
|  | ji: e, ev, (jev) | e ji: (ejo) |
|  | \%e'o e, ev, (\%ov) |  |
| With 'not' | a eront | crent a |
|  | \%u eznt | eznṫo |
|  | 1 eznt | eznt i |
|  | wi e'ont | e'ont wo |
|  | jo e'ont | s-ont jo |
|  | \%ə ع'ont | ع'ont \%o. |
| Preterite | a: ed (ad) | ed $\boldsymbol{a}$ |
|  | \%u: ed (\%ud) | edte |
|  | i: ed (id) | ed i |
|  | wi: ed (wid) | ed wo |
|  | ji: ed (jod) | ed jo |
|  | \%e'a ed (\%od) | ed \%o. |
| With 'not' | $a$ : ednt, etc. | ednt $\boldsymbol{a}$, etc. |

Infinitive: e, ev (North. M.E. $h \bar{a}, h \bar{a} f$ ). As in the case of the present teuse, $\mathbf{e}$ is used before a following consonant, ev before a vowel.

Present Participle: evin.
Past Participle: ed.
The unemphatic forms of the Present and Preterite are enclosed within brackets.

The plural forms of the present tense given above are used only with pronominal subjects which immediately precede or follow the verb. With noun-subjects, or when the pronoun subject is separated from the verb, ez (weak form $\mathbf{z}$, or $\mathbf{s}$ after voiceless consonants) is used; cf. § $454 a$. For example, $t$ men ez $\delta \boldsymbol{i}$ dinəz ot jan the men have their dinner at one, mi on im ez jan he and I have one, ji: ats workt si a:d you that have worked so hard.

## $B e$

487. The verb be is used to form the Imperfect and Perfect tenses which denote continuous action.

The Preterite imperfect denotes a continued action; e.g. a wo workin 'סi'or $\delta$ (day after day) or an action, state, or thought interrupted in the past, e.g. i wo 'moin wen a 'gat ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{\partial r}$ (and I interrupted his action).

The Perfect tenses of this class contain the notion that the action, state, or thought indicated by the verb reaches into the time period indicated by the context. The time period of the Present, Perfect and Continuous reaches into the present, e.g. av bi:n workin 'i'ə $\sin a$ wor $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'lad (and I am still working). That of the Preterite reaches into the past time indicated by the context, e.g. id bin dripkin $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ gudij bit, on it finift im of (continuous action in the past, to the time of his death).

| Present | Affirmative | Interrogative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | a: iz (az) | iz a: (iza) |
|  | \%u: iz (\%uz) | iz \%u: (iste) |
|  | i: iz (iz) | iz i: (izi) |
|  | wi: ar (wi(r)) | a: wi: (awi) |
|  | ji: ar (je(r)) | a: ji: (ajo) |
|  | \%s:ə ar (\%o(r) | a: \%s'ə (a\%o) |


| With 'not' | a iznt |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | \%u iznt |
|  | i iznt |
|  | wi a:nt |
|  | jo a:nt |
|  | סo a:nt |
| Preterite | a: $\mathbf{w a r}(\boldsymbol{a} \mathbf{w o}(\mathbf{r})$ ) |
|  | \%u: war (\%u wo(r)) |
|  | i: war (i wa(r)) |
|  | wi: war (wi wo(r)) |
|  | ji: war (je wo(r)) |
|  | \%¢'e war (\%) wo(r) |

With 'not' $a$ : wa:nt, etc.
iznt a
iznțe
iznt $\mathbf{i}$
a:nt wi
a:nt jo
a:nt ${ }^{\text {O}}$.
war a
wa:ṭ
war i
wa wi
wa ja
wa あo.
waint a, etc.

Infinitive: bi: (North. M.E. $b \bar{e}$ ), weak form bi.
Present Participle: bi:in.
Past Participle: bi:n, weak form bin.
The unemphatic forms of the Present and Preterite are enclosed within brackets. The plural forms of the present tense given above are only used with pronominal subjects which come immediately before or after the verb. With noun subjects, or when the pronoun is separated from the verb, $\mathbf{z}$ ( $s$ after voiceless consonants) is used ; cf. $\S 454 a$. For example, tmenz of ti te dinaz the men are going to their dinner, סem ats pu-oli they who are ill.

## Use.

488. ju:z, to use, is the auxiliary which forms the variety of the Preterite denoting habitual action. Its preterite in this construction is ju:st (used) for all persons, or ju:s before $t$, and the main verb is preceded by ti•a (ti). When used alone to denote habitual action, it is also followed by ti'a, e.g. a 'ju:s ti•a I habitually did so. Examples of the Preterite habitual are: i 'ju:s ti gan he used to go; a 'ju:s ti plu: I used to plow.

As a main verb, its preterite is ju:zd, e.g. a ju:zd a'bu:t o'pund I used about a pound.

Do.
489. 'Do' is used to form the Present and Preterite which denote emphasis, e.g. iz 'a:dl, on क人t a 'di'a no: (I am certain about it), a 'did reit tiv im (there is no doubt about it).

In composition with nut not, it forms the negatives of the Simple, Present and Preterite tenses, e.g.

Present: a di'ont bri'ok, emphatic form a di'o 'nut bri'ak.
Preterite: a didnt bri'ok, emphatic form a did 'nut bri'ok.
Inverted, it is used in their interrogative forms, e.g.
Present: div a bri•ok, diz i bri•ols, di (wi, ja, ©ə) bri•ok.
Preterite: did a bri•ak, etc.

|  | Affirmative | Interrogative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | a: di.a | diva |
|  | \%u: diz | diz \%u: (diste) |
|  | i: diz | dizi |
|  | wi: di•e | di wi |
|  | ji: di• | di jo |
|  |  | di $\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\text {a }}$. |
| With 'not' | a di-ont | di'ont a |
|  | \%u diznt | diznțo |
|  | 1 diznt | diznt i |
|  | wi di'ont | di $\cdot$ ont wi |
|  | jo di $\cdot \boldsymbol{n t}$ | di $\cdot$ ont jo |
|  | Oə di-ənt | di-ant ${ }^{\text {\% }}$. |
| Preterite | $a$ : did | did $\alpha$ |
|  | etc. | etc. |
| With 'not' | a didnt | didnt $\alpha$ |
|  | etc. | etc. |

Infinitive : di $\cdot \boldsymbol{\partial}$, di, div (North. M.E. dō).
di'o is emphatic and also occurs in a final position. di occurs before consonants, div before vowels, and are weak forms. Early Mod. Eng. diu from M.E. do developed to div before vowels, and to di $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ in an end position ( $\$ 159$ ).

Present Participle: di:in.

Past Participle: di'on.
The plural forms of the present tense above are only used with pronominal subjects attached to the verb; with noun subjects diz is used, e.g. tmen diz it the men do it, also diz is used when the pronoun subject is detached from the verb, e.g. ©em ot diz it they who do it. The rule for this use is stated in $\S 454 a$.

## CHAPTER II

## SPECIMENS OF THE DIALECT

490. The value of specimens of a language in phonetic script without the tongue of the interpreter is not very great. None would, I imagine, set out to learn French merely from the publications of the Association Phonétique. Hence, whilst I have deferred to what is perhaps a useful custom, I have not included many specimens. Those which follow are my own work and record my own pronunciation; and to those words which have varying values according to the emphasis laid upon them, I have assigned the values which I should give in reading aloud.

There is a mass of stories and poems printed in the dialects of Northern and Eastern Yorkshire. Besides those dialect pieces which appear from time to time in the Whitby, Scarborough, and Hull newspapers, I might mention:
Poems in the North Yorkshire Dialect, by John Castillo, Stokesley, pub. Tweddell, 1878.
The Folk-Speech of East Yorkshire, by John Nicholson, London, pub. Simpkin, 1889.
T' Hunt of Yatton Brigg, by Richard Blakeborough, Gainsborough, pub. Stokeld, 1899.
Specimens of the Yorkshire Dialect as spoken in the East Riding, Driffield, pub. Holderness, 1886.
Rhymes and Sketches, by Mrs G. M. Tweddell, Stokesley, pub. Tweddell, 1892.
Wit, Character, Folklore and Customs of the North Riding of Yorkshire, by Richard Blakeborough, Saltburn, pub. Rapp, 1911.

Goodies and other stories, by Rev. Walter F. Turner, London, pub. St Catherine Press, 1912.
But their spelling is unscientific and often capricious, and, I regret to say, not always consistent.

## I

491. The N.E. Yorks. Dialect $c a .1350$.

The following extract describing the horrors of old age is taken from The Pricke of Conscience, 1l. 766-803, and represents an attempt to reconstruct the pronunciation of the dialect in the fourteenth century. The metre demands the occasional pronunciation of final -e and the accentuation of the ending -and of the present participle at the end of lines. These peculiarities were not heard in conversational speech.

But az tist az 2 man walksoz auld, סan waksoz hiz ki:ndo waik ond kauld, ôan tfaundzaz his kum'pleksiun ond hiz man'errz ond hiz kun'disiun;万an waksez hiz hert hard and hevi, and hiz hevad fe:bl on dezi;
öan waksoz hiz gæist se:k ond sa:r, and his fæ:so ruyklez, ai ma:r on ma:r; hiz mi:nd ez fort $M \varepsilon n^{1}$ he ouxt ${ }^{2}$ Oipkoz, hiz ne:z oft dropoz, hiz and stijkaz, hiz seçt ${ }^{3}$ waksaz dim סat he hæiz, hiz bak waksoz cröükid, stu:pand he gæiz; fijorz on tæiz, föüt and hand, and aule hiz tu:tfoz er trem'bland. hiz werkaz for'worӨaz $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ at he bi'ginaz; hiz hairo mu:toz, hiz e:çon rinaz; hiz saroz waksoz desf, and hard tö hesr, hiz tup failez, hiz spe:tf ez noxt kle:r ; hiz mu:Өo slavarz, hiz te:Өo ro:taz, hiz witoz failoz, ond he ofto dostez; he iz lectll wræ: $\theta$, ond waksoz fra'ward, but tö turn him fra wre:Өo it ez hard; he su:tjoz ond tru:əz söün a $\theta i \eta$, but ful læ:t he turnoz fra ofat tru:ig, he ez kuvatu:s ond hard haul'dand, hiz tferr ez dre:ri ond hiz sem'bland;

[^40]
## (Old age)

Bot als tyte ${ }^{1}$ als a man waxes alde, pan waxes his kynde ${ }^{2}$ wayke and calde, pan chaunges his complexion And his maners and his condicion; pan waxes his hert hard and hevy, And his heved ${ }^{8}$ feble and dysy; pan waxes his gast ${ }^{4}$ seke and sare, And his face rouncles ${ }^{5}$, ay mare and mare;
His mynde es short when he oght ${ }^{6}$ thynkes,
His nese ofte droppes, his (h)and ${ }^{7}$ stynkes,
His sight waxes dym pat he has,
His bak waxes croked, stoupand ${ }^{8}$ he gas;
Fyngers and taes, fote and hande,
And alle his touches er tremblande.
His werkes forworthes ${ }^{9}$ pat he bygynnes;
His hare moutes ${ }^{10}$, his eghen ${ }^{11}$ rynnes;
His eres ${ }^{12}$ waxes deef, and hard to bere,
His tung fayles, his speche es noght ${ }^{13}$ clere;
His mouthe slavers, his tethe rotes,
His wyttes fayles ${ }^{14}$, and he ofte dotes;
He is lyghtly wrath ${ }^{15}$, and waxes fraward,
Bot to turne hym fra wrethe ${ }^{16}$ it is hard;
He souches ${ }^{17}$ and trowes sone a thyng,
Bot ful late he turnes fra pat trowing ${ }^{16}$;
He es couatous and hard-haldand ${ }^{19}$,
His chere ${ }^{20}$ es drery and his sembland ${ }^{21}$;
${ }^{1}$ soon. ${ }^{2}$ nature. ${ }^{3}$ head. ${ }^{4}$ spirit. ${ }^{5}$ wrinkles. ${ }^{6}$ anything.
7 hand, but the word probably stands for ' and' breath.
${ }^{8}$ stooping. Note the pres. part. ending -and. ${ }^{9}$ come to naught.
${ }^{10}$ monlts. $\quad{ }^{11}$ eyes. ${ }^{12}$ ears. ${ }^{13}$ not.
${ }^{14}$ fail. Note the ploral inflection -es. ${ }^{15}$ wroth, angry. ${ }^{16}$ wrath, anger.
17 is anxious. ${ }^{18}$ belief. Note the verbal noun ending -ing.
${ }^{15}$ close-fisted. $\quad{ }^{20}$ face. $\quad{ }^{21}$ appearance.
he ez swift tö spe:k on hiz mane:r, and latsom ond slau for tö he:r ; he praizez auld men ond hauldoz $\mathbf{~}$ am wi:z, and juy men list him oft despi:z; he lu:az men Oat in auld ti:m hæz be:n, he la:kəz $\delta a$ men $\delta a t$ nu: er senn; he ez ofto se:k and ai græ:'nand, and ofte ajord, ond ai ple:'nand. aulə $\delta i r, \theta_{1}$ rux ki:nd, tö on auld man faulez, סat klerkaz, pro'pertez ov e:ld, kaulez.
jit er ठar mæ: סan i: hæv tauld, סat fauləz töü $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ man бat ez auld.

## II

492. The N.E. Yorks. Dialect, ca. 1750.

The next specimen is an attempt to reconstruct the pronunciation of the dialect in the seventeenth century. The extract is from A York-shire Dialogue in its pure Natural Dialect, as it is now commonly spoken in the North 'parts. of Yorkeshire, published by J. White, York, in three successive editions, 1683, 1684 and 1685, the last being entitled "The Praise of York-shire Ale" by G. M. Gent. The short $i$ is very lax, and must be pronounced like $i$ in Scotch, hill, pit, etc.

$$
\text { ll. } 53-78 .
$$

 §u:z 'lang ə-'kumn, ઈu 'bre:dz əv 'havor-'mait.
 'God sendz 'me'ət, on $\theta^{\prime}$ di:vl sendz 'keuks, ei 'si:.
Mother. 'Mari ge: up, 'stipk ! jer 'varə 'denft, ei 'țru:, jur 'beli 'saroz an 'rl 'me:sțor 'nu:. סer 'o:r 'gud for 'סem at findz 'fa:t, eiz 'seur,

Father. 'おu: wad 'fe:n pa'sweid es 'бe: ar 'gudmz; 'hupri 'dogz ar 'fe:n ov 'dərti 'pudrnz. kum '万u: on 'te:st ©om, 'and stt 'du:n 10 'tferr; 'me'ə סəə 'merior, but 'fiuor 'bețor 'fe:r.

He es swyft to spek on his manere,
And latsom ${ }^{1}$ and slaw for to here;
He prayses old men and haldes pam wyse,
And yhung men list ${ }^{2}$ him oft despyse
He loues ${ }^{8}$ men pat in ald tyme has ${ }^{4}$ been,
He lakes ${ }^{\text {® }}$ pa men pat now er sene;
He es ofte seke and ay granand ${ }^{6}$,
And ofte angerd, and ay pleynand? ${ }^{\text {? }}$
Alle pirs, thurgh kynd ${ }^{\text { }}$, to an old man falles ${ }^{4}$, pat clerkes, propertes of eld, calles ${ }^{4}$,
Yhit er par ma ${ }^{10}$ pan I haf talde, pat falles to a man pat es alde.
F. Come, Tibb, for sham, bring out the bread \& sawt; Thou's lang a-coming, thou braids of ${ }^{11}$ Haver-Maut ${ }^{12}$.
Thur Cael tasts strang of Reeke, they're nut for me;
God sends meat, and th' Deevil sends Ceauks, I see.
M. Marry gea upe, stink! you're varra dench'd ${ }^{13}$, I trow, Your Belly sarraes ${ }^{14}$ an ill Master now.
They'r o're good for them that finnds faut, I seaure.
But as the Sew doth fill, the Draffe ${ }^{15}$ doth soure.
F. Thou wad faine perswade us they are gooddins ${ }^{18}$;

Hungry Doggs are fain of durty Puddins.
Come thou and taste them, and sit down i' th' chaire; Meay ${ }^{10}$ the merrier, but fewer better Fair.

C. $\mathbf{H}$.

Mother．but＇ju：wil＇nut let＇mi：bi＇meri＇lang， ei＇seur，for＇סe＇or iz＇a：lwaz＇sumӨin＇ray． ＇あe：סot a＇seik az＇ju：kn＇hav ne＇ə＇wil te＇deu out； $\boldsymbol{\partial}$＇gud＇dzak maks $\boldsymbol{\partial}$＇gud＇dzrl．
Father．ei＇preঠi，＇Peg，＇let us bi＇fri：nz o＇ge＇n； סu＇na：z，＇fe：r＇wordz dəz mak＇feulz＇fe：n． rts＇wi：l＇spokn Oats＇wịl＇te：n，eiv＇he＇ord；耳u＇iz se＇ə＇krabd，＇te spe＇ok eiz＇a：lwoz＇fe＇ord．
Mother．＇ju：set＇jan on＇unske：p，on＇oan ju＇riu ； gre＇at＇mațaz av on＇aŋri＇word，ei＇tru：． streid，＇Tib，ən＇kla：t sum＇kasnz＇ust ə＇Oorn； Oan＇ge＇ə $\boldsymbol{\delta i}$＇we：z，on＇fetf a＇ski：l a＇born ；
 ən＇eis wef＇seil on＇difiz＇up 10 ＇neuk； ən＇סєn wi：l＇a：l te＇bed；e＇orz e＇ka：d＇nist．

## III

Comparative Specimen
493．Here begin the specimens of the modern dialect．The following is the passage used by Ellis in his Early English Pro－ nunciation，vol．v．As it has become the classic dialect specimen， a version in the Hackness dialect will be useful for comparison with other dialects．

Wat for Dzon ez ni•ə duits．
（1）Wisl，neiber，\％u：on im kn bi＇əO laf at Ois niuz a

 wo ？wat sud makm？its nut vari leikli，nu＇ist $P$
 din wioə，frind，on wift wa：l a：v di•on．a：kn！
（4）$a: z$ si $\cdot \boldsymbol{r}$ ot $a$ i $\cdot \partial d m$ se＇ə－sum on om ot went $0 r u f$ 0：l tdjob frot sta：t－－6at a did，si•ər i＇ni $\cdot$ of－
（5）at tjupist sun iz＇sen， ə gri•at lad ə ni：n［na：n］ji•r oxd，niu iz fadez vois［stevn］ot jans，סof it＇wa：si kwi＇ar on skwo：kin，on ad țrust im ti telt triu月 oni de＇a，e：ai，סat a＇wad．
M. But you will nut let me be merry lang, I seaur, for there is allwayes something wrang. They that have sike as you can have neay will To deau ought; A good Jack macks a good Gill. F. I pray thee, Pegg, let us be Friends again; Thou knaws, fair words duz mack Feauls fain. It is weel spoken that's weel tane, I've heard; Thou is seay Crabb'd, to speak Ise alwayes feard.
M. You set yan on unscape ${ }^{1}$, and than you rewe;

Great matters of an angry word, I trowe.
Stride, Tibb, \& clawt ${ }^{2}$ some Cassons out o' th' Hurne ${ }^{\text {s }}$;
Than geay thy wayes and fetch a skeel of Burn*;
And hing the Pan ore th' fire $i^{\prime}$ th' Rekin-creauk,
And Ise wesh Sile and Dishes up i' th' Neauke;
And then wee'l all to Bed; here's a cawd Neet.

## Why John has no doubts.

Well, neighbour, you and he may both laugh at this news of mine. Who cares? That is neither here nor there. Few men die because they are laughed at, we know, don't we? What should make them? It is not very likely, is it? Howsoever these are the facts of the case, so just hold your noise, friend, and be quiet till I have done. Hearken! $I$ am certain I heard them say-some of those folks who went through the whole thing from the first themselves,-that did I, safe enough,-that the youngest son himself, a great boy of nine, knew his father's voice at once, though it was so queer and squeaking, and I would trust him to speak the truth any day, aye, I would. And the old

[^41](6) on toxd wumon o'sen al tel oni on jo ot lafis nu:, on tel jo streit of, on osl, ə'бu:t mit bo'ठor, gif jəl nobət aks ər, -o:ə! wi'ont fo ? -
(7) li'ast we'az f a teld 'mi: $\rho^{\prime} b u: t$ it wen a akst $ə r$, twi•o Өri: ta:mz ourr; 'bat fo did; on fi'a out nut ti bi rang $\partial$ 'buit seik $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ point $\partial z$ סis, sud $f ə P$
(8) will, ez 'a: wo sciln, 'fiad tel jə, 'u:, 'wi'ər, on 'wen fo fant drugkn u:nd [bi'əst] ot fo ko:lz or uzbn.
(9) $\int$ e swe'ər ot $\boldsymbol{f} \boldsymbol{\rho}$ si:d [so:] im wiv ər o:n i:n, le'əd ful len $\theta$ ont grund, iv iz gud sunda kli•əz, o'nenst di•ər ot u:s, du:n ot thu'ənər ə jon lu'on [le'ən].
(10) i wo twa:nin, fo sed, for o:l twold leik o dwa:ni bs'on, or ə la:tl las iv ə fri•t.
(11) on 'fat apnd, oz fi'ə on or douttor-i-lo: kom $\theta$ ruf tbak-ja:d frov inin u:t tkli $\partial z$ ti drai $\partial v$ o wefsin de'o,
(12) wa:l tketl wo boilin fot ti•ə, ja: fa:n brist sumor efteni-on, nobat $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ wilk sin kum nekst Oozdə.
(13) ən, dijo no: [dista no:]? a nivo la:nt ni:ə me'ə no


(14) on si az ga:in jam ti mi supor. gud nitt, on di'ont bi si ridi ti kro: ouər a bodi a'gi'on, wen i to:ks p

(15) its ə we'ok fi•al ət prs'ats a•ठuit ri•ozn. on \%ats ma: last wod. gud bai.

## IV

494. Te'ər ant prikli bakt Otjn.
It wo ja: Sundə mu•ənin i Sumər, dzust o'bu:t tta:m wen tbuțeri bufiz blosomz. Tsun wo fa:nin bri:t up i tskai, bi:z wo bizi i tbuțeri blosəmz, skai-la:ks wa sipin up $\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{loft}$, 2 f fu'əks wo tre'opsin of ti ttjatj. O:l kri'c'ojn wor api, on tprikli bakt otjn on o:l.

Tot[n wo standin bi iz di•or, snifin tmu-ənin brisz, on umin $\operatorname{l}$ la:tl saŋ tiv iz'sen, oz fu'oks diz wen $\delta$ o liuk u:t ov ə fa;n Sundə mu'ən. Wa:l i wa tiunin up, taidi: kam intiv iz i'od ot $i$ mud dgust oz will ev ə stroul ust, wa:l iz
woman herself will tell any of you that laugh now, and tell you straight off, too, without much bother, if you will only ask her, oh! won't she? leastways she told me about it when I asked her, two or three times over, did she, and she ought not to be wrong on such a point as this, what do you think? Well, as I was saying, she would tell you, how, w̧here and when she found the drunken beast that she calls her husband. She swore she saw him with her own eyes, lying stretched at full length on the ground, in his good Sunday clothes, close by the door of the house, down at the corner of yon lane. He was whining away, says she, for all the world like a sick child, or a little girl in a fret. And that happened, as she and her daughter-in-law came through the back yard from hanging out the clothes to dry on a washing day, while the kettle was boiling for tea, one fine bright summer afternoon, only a week ago come next Thursday. And, do you know?, I never learned any more than this of that business up to to-day, as sure as my name is John Shepherd, and I don't want to, either, there now! And so I am going home to sup. Good night, and don't be so quick to crow over a body again, when he talks of this, that, or t'other. It is a weak fool that prates without reason. And that is my last word. Good bye.

## The Hare and the Prickly-backed Urchin.

It war yaa Sunday mornin' i' Summer, just aboot t' time when $t$ ' buttery-bushes blooms. T' sun war shinin' breet up i' t' sky, bees war bisy i' t' buttery blossoms, skylarks war singin' up aloft, as fowks war traipsin' off tae t' chotch. All creätion war happy, and t' prickly-backt urchin and all.
$T$ urchin war standin' by his deär, sniffin' $t$ ' mornin' breeze, and hummin' a laatle sang tiv hissen, as fowks does when they lewk oot ov a fine Sunday mornin'. Whilst he war tunin' up, t' idee cam intiv his heäd at he mud just as weel hev a stroll oot,
weif wo wefin up, ti si: u: iz tonəps wo ditin. T tonəps wo tnekst fi:ld tiv iz u:s, on im on iz famli ju:st ti ov e beit nu:
 tdi•ar efter im, on set of up tedland. Id dzust gotn $\partial z$ far ez tbules buf ot standz $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$ taŋl ot tonep fi:ld, wen i dgumpt wi to:d e'or. Te'ar wor on tsi'om dzob. I wo stroulin ru:nd, si:in iz kabifiz. Wen tot $\int \mathrm{n}$ kam, up wi te'or, i nodid on sed 'Nu: me'ət, wat tfier?' Bud te'ə re'əठə fansid iz'sen, on sti'əd o stin 'Midlin, 'Oaŋk ja, u:z סi'sen p'
 Ois fa:n mu'onin?' ' $0:!$ az nobat evin a stroul 'ruind,' sed tprikli bakt otjn. 'Evin $\partial$ stroul 'ru:nd,' laft te'or, ' $a$ sud a Oout tu kud a fun sumat beṭa ti di'a fa $\boldsymbol{f i}$ o:d bandi legz no ti kum spai-in ru:nd ma: kabij.'

Nu: Bis ansor netlt tprikli bakt otjn e vast. I kad stand $\boldsymbol{o}$ bit, bud i wa:nt ga:in fo ti stand nout sed $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} \mathrm{gi}^{\mathrm{r}} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { on }}$

 a sud bi ri:t put uit, if a ednt,' sed te'or. 'Wi:l!' sed tot $\int \mathrm{n}$, ' $\delta a t$ di'pendz. A $\mathrm{l}^{\prime} \cdot \boldsymbol{a}$ kud dzust ${ }^{\prime}$ bu:t fou $\delta \mathrm{i}$ : tkulər ə mi te'al iv e re'as.'
 a di•ont ma:nd fouin סi a Oij a twi'a, sin Su:z si ki:n a'bu:t it. Wats tsti•əks?' 'Al le'ə סi o gini on e bodl a dzin,' sed tprikli balkt ot n .
' Di'ən,' sed tosd $\varepsilon$ 'ar. 'Kum on סen, on lets ev it nu:.'
' Ne'a! б̈az ni'a gri•at ori,' ansad tot $\int \mathrm{n}$. 'Az nut kweit



Wi:l, to:d $\varepsilon \cdot{ }^{\prime}$ or ${ }^{\prime}$ gri:d ti \%is, on tprikli bakt otjn kantad $\partial^{\prime} w \varepsilon$ 'ว of $i \cdot \partial m$ Oipkin 'i gudz iz'sen a'buit iz laj legz, bud 'a:l in'sens im, a:l fou im u: its di'on.'

Wen i gat jam, i sed tiviz weif,' Misis, busk Ji'sen on liuk jaip a'bu:t it, on kum on u:t wi mia.' 'Wa:is! wativaz up,' sez fi:, ' $\delta \mathbf{u}$ eznt bi:n uit fer a wo:k wi mis $\sin a$ di'ont no: tta:m wen.' 'Nive סu: boठor o'bu:t סat,' sez i, ' but kum ofu uit wi mi:. Av a bet on ev a gini an a bodl $\partial$ dzin wi te'ər, on a want fi: wi mi:. 'סu:z ga:in ti run to:d $\varepsilon$ 'or! Wa! סu:z lost סi wits. U: kn \%u: re'os wiv
whilst his wife war washin' up, tae see hoo his tonneps war deein'. T' tonneps war t' next field tiv his hoos, and him and his family used tae hev a bite noo and agen. That war why he called 'em his tonneps. Seä he sneckt t' deär efter him, and set off up t' beadland. He'd just gotten as far as t' bullas-bush at stands i' t' angle o' t' tonnep field, when he jumped wi' t' awd hare. T' hare war on t' same job. He war strollin' roond, seein' his cabbishes.

When t' urchin cam up wi' t' hare, he nodded and said: 'Noo mate, what cheer?' But t'hare raither fancied hissen, and steäd o' sayin': 'Middlin, thankye, hoo's thysen?' he nobbut said, short like: 'What's thoo deein' up here all by thysen $o$ ' this fine morning?' 'Oh, I's nobbut hevin' a stroll roond,' said t' pricklybackt urchin. 'Hevin a stroll roond,' laughed t' hare, 'I sud ha' thowt thoo cud ha' fun' summat better tae deä for thy awd bandy legs nor tae come spyin' roond my cabbish.'

Noo this answer nettled t' prickly-backt urchin a vast. He cud stand a bit, but he warnt gyin' for tae stand nowt said again his legs, for they war a bit crewkt, and he knew they war. Seä he answered, ' Thoo talks as if thoo'd gotten a better set thysen.' ' Why, I sud be reet put oot, if I hedn't,' said t' hare. 'Weel,' said t' urchin, ' that depends. I lay I cud just aboot show thee t' culler o' my tail iv a race.' 'Why, thoo's daft,' said t' hare, 'thoo and thy bandy legs. But I deän't mind showing thee a thing or tweä, since thoo's sae keen aboot it. Wat's t' stakes?' 'I'll lay thee a guinea and a bottle o' gin,' said t' prickly-backt urchin. ' Deän,' said t' awd hare. 'Come on then, and lets have it oot noo.' ' Nay, there's neä great hurry,' answered t' urchin. 'I's nut quite fit. I hate tae deä things iv a despert hurry. I'll just gang away yam and hev a bite, and I'll meet thee up here iv aboot hauf an hoor.' Weel, t' awd hare agreed tae this, and t' prickly-backt urchin cantered away off heäm thinkin': 'He goods hissen about his lang legs, but I'll insense him, I'll show him hoo it's deän.' When he gat yam, be said tiv his wife: 'Missis, busk thysen and lewk sharp aboot it, and come on oot wi' me.' ' Why ! whativir's up?' says she, 'thoo hesn't been oot for a walk wi' me sin I deän't knaw t' time when.' 'Niver thoo bother aboot that,' says he, ' but come thoo oot wi' me. I've a bet on of a guinea and a bottle o' gin wi' t' hare, and I want thee wi' me.' 'Thoo's gyin tae run $t^{\prime}$ awd hare! Why! thoo's lost thy wits. Hoo
im? ठu: no:z wisl i'ni•ef at ikn gan ten ta:mz faste no סu:.' 'Nu: misis,' i sez, kaind bud form leik, ' סis iz ma. dgob. Dgust $\bar{\delta} u:$ git $\overline{\text { fi'sen }}$ fit, on kum u:t wi me:.' Nu:, wat kud tprikli balkt otfn weif di'a? fi kam wiv im a ku'es.

As あo wo ga:in up ti tbulos buf, witf wo tspot wi'ə סəd ə're'əngd ti mist, tprikli bakt otfn sez tiv iz weif ‘Nu: od $\mathbf{f i}$ noiz o minit, on let mi: toik. A:z ga:in ti fetl $\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{i}}$ re'os it tonəp fi:ld. A:sl run i ja: forə, on te'or in tnekst әn. Nu wat $\overline{\text { on u }}$ gotn ti di'a iz ti pa:zl of up tit top end ot fora, ourr o'nenst tbules buf, on sit fi-ar [kai fi'sen du:n]. Wisl sta:t fro $\overline{\text { ois }}$ end at fi:ld, on wen to:d $\varepsilon$ 'ə kumz up ot jon end, o:l ot $\bar{\delta} \mathbf{u}$ : ez ti di•o iz ti dgump up on mal u:t "I'or a iz." "

Si'ə, tprlkli bakt otjn weif went on tit fora ouər o'nenst
 on tit bulas buf. ©i'or wo to:d $\varepsilon$ 'ər $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}$ we'otin fo ti win iz gini on iz bodl ə dzin, on i sed әz tprikli bakt otfn kam up
 on om tiuk iz stand iv iz foro.

To:d $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$ ku:ntid, 'jan, twi'ə, $\theta$ rit, $a^{\prime} w \varepsilon^{\prime} ə$,' on of $i$ went aid̨'rali up tforə $\partial z$ a:d əz ivor i kud gan. Bud to:d otjn
 $\partial^{\prime}$ majt tonəps at tbi'ginin ot forə, ən we'ətid. To:d $\varepsilon^{\prime} \cdot$ went loupin up tfild leik o sti•om ingn, on wen ikam tit top, up dgumps tprikli bakt otfin weif on malz u:t ' I•ar a iz.' It war re'aठ̈ar a kum-'du:n fa to:d $\epsilon \cdot \partial r$, for $i$ reknd at tot $\mathrm{jn}^{\mathrm{n}}$ wor a unded jedz bi'jint, bud i mis'duited nout, kos tprikli bakt otjn weif liukt dgust for o:l twold leik to:d prikli bakt otjn.
 on bak 'סen,' on of i went aido'rali bak ə'gi'on du:n tforə leik a sti:m ingn.

But tprikli bakt ot $\int \mathrm{n}$ weif stopt iv or spot.
Wen to:d $\varepsilon$ 'ə gat ti tưor end at filld, up dzumt totjn on be'old u:t 'I'or a iz.' An te'or, fe'o bi'sa:d iz'sen wi re'əd3, je'ald bak 'fon kum on ə'gi'ən.' ' o:l 'ri:t!' sez tot $\int \mathrm{n}$, ' $\alpha z$ oft $\partial z$ jo leik, fo ma: si'ək.'
can thoo race wi' him? Thoo knaws weel ineäf at he can gan tentimes faster nor thoo.' 'Noo, missus,' he says, kind but firm like, 'this is my job. Just thoo get thysen fit, and come oot wi' me.' Noo, wat cud t' prickly-backt urchin wife deä? She cam wiv him o' course.

As they war gyin up tae $t^{\prime}$ bullas-bush, which war $t$ ' spot where they'd arranged tae meet, $t$ ' prickly-backt urchin says tiv his wife: ' Noo hod thy noise a minit, and let me talk. I's gyin tae fettle this race $i^{\prime}$ t' tonnep field. I sal run $i^{\prime}$ yaa furrow, and $t$ ' hare in $t$ ' next yan. Noo wat thoo's got tae deä is tae parzle off up tae t' top end o't furrow, ower anenst t' bullas-bush, and sit there. We sal start fra this end o' $t$ ' field, and when $t$ ' awd hare comes up at yon end, all at thoo hes tae deä is tae jump up and mal oot: "Here I is."'

Seä, t' prickly-backt urchin wife went on tae t' furrow ower anenst t' bullas-bush, and efter he'd gi'en her time tae git there, $t^{\prime}$ awd urchin weut on tae t' bullas-bush. There war t'awd hare a-waitin' for tae win his guinea and his bottle o' gin, and he said as t' prickly-backt urchin cam up: 'Istä fit?' 'Ay, lad,' answered t' urchin. 'Then come on.' And both of them tewk his stand iv his furrow.

T' awd hare coonted 'yan, tweä, three, away,' and off he went Hyder Ali up t' furrow as hard as iver he cud gan. But t' awd urchin nobbut ran a few yeds and then cam back and clapped hissen doon amang t' tonueps at $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}$ beginnin' $o^{\prime}$ t' furrow, and waited. T' hare went loupin' up t' field like a steäm-ingen, and when he can tae t' top, up jumps t' prickly-backt urchin wife and mals oot: 'Here I is.' It war raither a cum-doon for t' awd hare, for he reckoned at $t$ ' urchin war a hunthed yeds behint, but be misdooted nowt, 'cos t' prickly-backt urchin wife lewkt just for all t' world like $t$ ' awd prickly-backt urchin. He thowt tiv lissen: 'This is a queer job,' but he said: 'Come on back then,' and off he went Hyder Ali back again doon t' furrow like a steäm-ingen. But t' prickly-backt urchin wife stopped iv her spot. When t' awd hare gat tae t'other end o' t' field, up jumped $t$ ' urchin and belled oot: 'Here I is.' And $t$ ' hare, fair beside hissen wi' rage, yelled back: 'Then come on again.' 'All reet,' says $t$ ' urchin; ' as oft as ye like, for my sake.' And off $t$ ' awd

An of to:d $\varepsilon \cdot \rho$ went $\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{gi}^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{n}$. 耳is apnd na:nti na:n ta:mz, en tprikli bakt ot $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{n}}$ wor o:les i:vn wiv im. Ivri ta:m at to:d $\varepsilon$ 'ə kam tit top ot bodm ot forə, tot $\int \mathrm{n}$ or iz weif ju:tid 'I'or a iz.' An at tundet lap, to:d $\varepsilon$ 'ə wo fe's bet wit dzob; ə'bu:t o:f we'o du:n ti:ld, i tumld du:n, on ed $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ stru'ək $\partial \mathrm{n}$ di:d. Si•ə totjn tiukt sti•ək fro bi'sa:d tbulas buf, o gini on a bodl a dzin, i fu:tid for iz weif to kum u:t ot forə, on of ©o went $i$ 'om kweit kon'tent wit


Fats u: tprikli bakt otfn ran te'or on Gantn Woid, on fe'əli ran im ti di'əd, on sin \%at ta:m ni'ə $\varepsilon$ 'or $\partial z$ da:d ti t falen3 tGantn ot fnz.

Tmorel $\boldsymbol{\partial}$ (is ti'el iz fost, at ni•əbodi out ti Oink iz'sen ə bețe tfap nər uбə fouk, on mak fun on om. An seknd, at men out ti peik wa:vz leik (o'senz, wa:vz ot kn elp om, on bis sum ju:s tiv om. 'ुem ats ot $\int n z$ mun peik on ot $\int \mathrm{n}$ for a weif, on nut a fond do: rabit, ner a bsitin rezil.

## V.

495. The following verses are taken from A Yorkshire Tyke, London, pub. Grant Richards, 1914.

## 18

Doz ə $\theta i k s e t$ Ou•on buf әt stanz o'fu'ər u'ə di•ər,' on ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{i}$-ar i sun on sluf, its studn moni o ji•ər.
on ivri ji'ər i Dziun jast si: it weit wi me'o, et blu:mz tilt e'o iz miun on (en it pa:nz a'we'ə.

Oft ov on o:gost mu'on, ə'fu'or u'a wuts iz reip, a sits bi'ni'ə日 $\theta$ is $\theta u \cdot ə n$ on smiuks mi lay kle'ə psip.
hare went again. This happened ninety-nine times, and t' pricklybackt urchin war allus even wiv him. Ivery time at t ' awd hare cam tae $t$ ' top or $t$ ' boddom of $t^{\prime}$ furrow, $t$ ' urchin or his wife shooted: 'Here I is.'

And at t ' hundedth lap, t ' awd hare war fair bet wi' t ' job. Aboot hauf way doon $t^{\prime}$ field, he tumbled doon, and hed a stroke and deed. Seä t' urchin tewk t' stake from beside t' bullas-bush, a guinea and a bottle o' gin, he shooted for his wife tae come oot $o^{\prime}$ t' furrow, and off they went heäm quite content wi' t' mornin's wark. And if they ain't deed sin then, they 're wick yet.

That's hoo t' prickly-backt urchin ran t' hare on Ganton Wold, and fairly ran him tae deäd, and $\sin$ that time neä hare hes dared tae challenge t' Ganton urchins.
$T^{\prime}$ moral $o^{\prime}$ this tale is fost, at neäbody owt tae think hissen a better chap nor other fowk, and mak fun on 'em. And second, at men owt tae pick wives like theirsens, wives at can help 'em, and be some use tiv 'em. Them at 's urchins mun pick an urchin for a wife, and not a fond doe-rabbit, nor a bitin' rezzil.

Az getn tblis $\rho$ mu:ntn-tops ti-nit, Oof a:z i bondids nu:, on blind, on di•af. Breöran, az stoun! on fan it vari swist, si•ə streik mi ni'əm of, ift bi ju'ə bili•ef az sla:din bak.
Last ni:t, ez a wo fogin on up tstrit, a aktid t $\theta$ isf.

Jo $\theta i$ igk az a:dnd. ai! a si: jo liuk. A stelt, its triu; bud, bre\%ron, al ripe'o. Al pe'o bak ten-ford ivriӨin a tiuk, on fu'oks mon se'ə wate'ə రo leik ti se'o.

It wor $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ kis.
on tlas az promist iv u'or inl-niuk ti ni'əm tde'o.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { on du:n bilo:, it di•al, } \\
& \text { mi fi:ldz ligz, gri:n on jelo; }
\end{aligned}
$$

bud a：z a luki felo．
For wat kn man want me＇or
nar ele，on pi•əs $\partial$ ma：nd，
ont sent $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ sumar $\varepsilon$＇or
on $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ fa：m ots f ＇oli ka：nd．

$$
20
$$

Doz ru：ndə＇bu：ts wislin at Ska：bərə fe＇ər， et tMa：tnmes statis i Niubore stritt， ənt kok－faiz，on swiy－bu＇əts，ont sa：kos iz $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ e＇ər； on o：l su＇ats o gudiz on aplz ti itt； on fu：tin，on laftor on funz $i$ to $\varepsilon$＇or．

A went $\rho^{\prime} \operatorname{la\eta } \mathrm{t}^{\prime}$ stritt，on a kam bak ə＇gi＇ən fro tMa：tnmes statis i Niuborə striit， ən a wift ət ad niver o＇di＇ən wat az di＇ən； for wi．ə sud a dzump wi，on wi．ə sud a mitt， bud or $\boldsymbol{2}$ a went wi，on left ti wed Dzi•ən．
fo wu＇or a bru：n dris，on a neklit o skin， ot tMa：tnmes statis i Niubere stritt， on liukt dzust $\partial z$ frif $\partial z$ jo liukt $\theta$ ri：ji＇a sin， fo kut mo az di•ad $\partial z$ ə snuft kanl－litt， a no： $\int ⿱ ⺌ 兀 \mathrm{did}$ rist，on a felt mi＇on $\partial z \sin$ ．

A sed ti mi＇sen wen a sidd or＇Di＇ənt bi＇ol＇ （in tMa：tnmes statis i Niubore striit） ＇$\delta \mathrm{b}$ mud a wed Sali ot ti•atfiz it ski＇əl， on סu：z wedid $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ pli＇ən on $\rho$ twa：ni ord frist fat bras fa kd brij $\delta \mathrm{i}$ ．$\delta \mathbf{u}: \mathbf{z}$ bi：n $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ gri•at fi•el．＇
on $\theta$ rojz $\boldsymbol{e}$ bru：n fa：m－ladz kam bai iv $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ swa：m． a wantid $\rho$ fipat，on twi＇ə ladz ti plu：． nu：，if ad wed Sali，ad nut o ed tfa：m， az mi $\cdot \mathrm{od}$ mi o：n bed，bud al lig on it nu：．


## 26

Wen skaiz iz bliu az sư̈rən si•əz, on ju: ${ }^{\text {iz ful }}$ o sap,
Its grand ti strit i Sundo klipaz on liuk $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ sma:tif tjap.

Bud wen janz o:d, on li•əm, leik mi:, on la:tl ilz si:mz sti:p;
janz fe'on ti tak Oijz kwaiotli, on sit ot jam on sli:p.

25
Do mi'ən iz up ouət kro:-wud slak, on tfezn malz it wud,
ont trodz iz sle'əp, ont drai twigz krak oz wi tramp tiv u•or i•ovnin fud.
For 0:! its a ki:n blak frost, mi ladz, ont mi•or 1 bi'o ti-ni:t, si•ə lets $\boldsymbol{o}^{\prime} \mathbf{w \varepsilon} \cdot \partial$, efto t mi•ez iz fed, ti ske'ət i \%o wan mi'ənli:t.

Da mi•ən fo inz leik ə ork ə'li•ən әz $\int \boldsymbol{f}$ fri:ziz t tonəps $\theta$ ru: [ 0 ruf ]; ən $\partial$ list iz $\partial z$ ko:d $\partial z$ ә silvo sti'ən, bud its le'ok for uz on $t$ plu: [pli'əf]. For o: ! its on il blak frost, mi ladz, fe $\mathbf{~ C e m ~ o t ~ m o n ~ l i g ~ i n t ~ f i : l d , ~}$ bud wi:v gotn bedz, on 1 wa:m om tu: [ti•ə], wen wiv getn u'o runaz sti:ld,
wen wiv fetld u•ə bli•edz on teis, ladz, ət rijz, on sijz, on gli'əmz.
Wen wiv glidn a ma:l iv a treis, ladz, bi'ni'ə日 סə pe'əl mi•ənbi•əmz.

## WORD-LIST

Dialect words are given after their literary English equivalents. Verbs are given under their infinitives, and the parts can be found therefrom in $\S \S 455-489$; but some verbal parts which were used to illustrate vowel-development are included separately.
abate (inf.) be'ot, 270, 314
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abont a'buit, 164, 300
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absurd ab'zod, 266
accordingly oku'odin'lai, 299
account e'knint, 287
ache (inf.) twing, 107 ; wa:k, 203, 400
acorn jakren, 127
acre jako(r), 127
across a'kroe, 211
afford (inf.) e'fod, 119, 376
afraid a:f, 97
after efte( $\mathbf{x}$ ), 4, 198, 362
after-grass fog, 211, 403
again e'gi-en, 14, 137, 300
age e'ody, 44, 391
ail E•ol, 168
$\operatorname{aim} \varepsilon^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{m}, 13$
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alive wik, 5, 205, 296 ; e'laiv, 155, 300
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apply oneself (inf.) fre'om, 32
apprentice prentie, 255, 314
April april, 250
apron apren, 250, 340
argue (inf.) aigi, $297 c, 309$
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ash-tree ef, 45, 98
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ask (inf.) ake, 30, 41, 92, 399
assemble (inf.) o'eeml, 350
ate (pret.) it, 150, 462
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awaken (inf.) wakn, 93, 474
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bargham baifn, 104, 408
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(pp.) bi:n, bin, 487
heak neb, 101, 337
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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Growth and Structure of the English Language, p. 69.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Jespersen, Mod. Eng. Grammar, Vol. x. 'Phonology,' p. 208, § 7. 2.
    2 There is a distinct difference between the initial sounds of $\theta$ rust to thrust, and trust trust. Fet the partial similarity is a stumbling-block to many dialectspeaking people when they cast aside the dialect in favour of the standard spoken English of the North. If they acquire the normal pronunciation of $t$, frequently they pronounce standard $\theta_{\text {as }} t$; e.g. tel for three, tred for thread.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Rolle's rimes indicate that M.E. $\bar{e}$ was always 'open' before $r$ in an open syllable, ef. here (O.E. hēr) and yhere (O.E. geār); here (Angl. hēra(n)) and A.Fr. ctère; dere (O.E. derian) and were (war); bere (O.E. beran) and daungère.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. § $177 . \quad{ }^{2}$ Wright, English Dialect Grammar, p. 254, § 357.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Postscript to Ray's Preface to A Collection of English Words, etc., English Dialect Society 1874, Series B, Part III., p. 7, § 3.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Rural Economy of Yorkshire, Vol. n. p. 311.
    ${ }^{2}$ Brokesby, 1691, gives the pronunciation of this word as 'yarely.'
    ${ }^{3}$ Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik, x. § 45. Wyld, Short History of English, § 222.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Possibly debe depth was formed from M.E. depe by the addition of the -th suffix after the analogy of M.E. highth, length, strength etc. In this case the vowel merely became short before the double consonant.

    2 This is a case of the shortening of the long vowel in the first syllable of a trisyllabic word. Ses Luick, Quantitätsveränderungen im Laufe der englischen Sprachentwicklung. Anglia 20, p. 335 et seq. For O.E. fēferfuge must have become fëverfew, or confusion with feather-feuille could not have taken place.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lax $i$ also occurred in the London dialect in Early Modern English. Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik § 28; Wyld, The Spoken English of the Early Eighteenth Century, § 4.
    ${ }^{2}$ If this word was borrowed from the Scandinavian, it must have been taken over before $n$ became assimilated to $k k$, cf. Swed. kikhosta.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ For loss of $w$ before a rounded vowel, see Jespersen, Modern Euglish Grammar, Vol. 1., p. 211, and Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik, 1., p. 141, § 175.
    ${ }^{2}$ Horn, Ibid., \& 109, p. 93.
    ${ }^{\prime} 3$ Brilioth, Dialect of Lorton. Phil. Soc. 1912, p. 24.
    ${ }^{4}$ Postscript to John Ray's Preface to $A$ Collection of English Words, etc., E.D.S. 1874, Seriss B, Part III., p. 7, § 1.
    ${ }^{5}$ Rural Economy of Yorkshire, Vol. II., p. 310.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Brokesby's Postscript to Ray. English Dialect Society 1874, Series B Part III., p. 7, § 1.
    ${ }^{2}$ Wyld, Short History of English, § 157 c.

[^10]:    ${ }_{1}$ Luick, Untersuchungen zur englischen Lautgeschichte, p. 180, § 331.
    2 The sound was long 'open' $\varepsilon$ : in The Pricke of Conscience; here (here) rimes with 'manère,' here (to hear) rimes with 'clere.'

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the explanation of O.E. Ea in these worde, eee Wright, Old English Grammar, p. 43, § 75.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sievers, Angèlsächsische Grammatik, p. 59, § 121; Wright, Old English Grammar, p. 50, § 95.
    ${ }^{2}$ Bülbring, Altenglisches Elementarbuch, § 284.
    ${ }^{3}$ Luiek, Untersuchungen zur englischen Lautgeschichte, II., p. 209 et seq.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Words of this class are oftener heard to-day as na:n, nine; stail, stile; tail, tile; Frasde, Friday; where the dialect forms are borrowed from the literary English forms, with substitution of a: for ai before voiced consonants.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ Luick, Studien zur englischen Lautgeschichte, p. 162.
    ${ }^{2}$ Oftener to-day heard as as and nai, borrowed from standard English.
    ${ }^{8}$ Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik, 1., p. 56. Spira, Englische Lautentwicklung, p. 238, § 706.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Rural Economy of Yorkshire, Vol. II., p. 310.
    ${ }^{2}$ The long vowel in North. M.E. piken is perhaps not due to the 'vecalisation' of $k$ in Scand. pikka, as Dr Mutschmann suggests in his Phonology of the N.E. Scotch Dialect, p. 8, § 15 . It may be merely the regular development of O.E. long $i$.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ Luick, Untersuchungen zur englischen Lautgeschichte, p. 67, § 119 et seq. Wright, English Dialect Grammar, p. 132.
    ${ }^{2}$ Theo. Spira, Englische Lautentwicklung, etc., p. 55 ; p. 249.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Spira, Englische Lautentwicklung, p- 239.
    ${ }^{2}$ Postscript to Ray's Preface to $A$ Collection of English Words not generally used, etc. E.D.S. 1874, Series B, Part III., p. 7, § 4.
    ${ }^{3}$ Marshall, Rural Economy of Yorkshire, Vol. II., p. 311.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ The vowel in school is not derived from O.Fr. escole, which would have yielded sku•ol, but direct from Lat. scola, pronounced scōla, cf. O.H.G. and Ital. souola.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Luick, Untersuchungen zur englischen Lautgeschichte, II., p. 209 et seq.
    ${ }^{2}$ Probably due to the influence of the labial m, of. firo(r) floor ; see Anglia, Beiblatt, June 1908, p. 179. Dr Mutschmann suggests that the [u•e] in pu•e(x) poor ; and mure(x) moor is due to the initial lip-consonants.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ J. S. Jones, Historical Notes on the Sheffield Dialect, Transactions of the Forkshire Dialect Society, vol. ni., part xiii., 1913, p. 47.
    ${ }^{2}$ Brilioth, Dialect of Lorton, $\S \S 98,115,164$.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ M.E. au could not have passed through the stage ou, as Wyld suggests for Standard English (Short History of English, § 259), or it would have fallen together with M.E. ou, to ou. For M.E. ou remains unchanged in the dialect (§ 182).
    ${ }^{2}$ The Pricke of Conscience has aw, the Psalter agh for this sound.
    ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Brokesby (1691) indicates the pronunciation of this word as 'olea.' 'In the same country...they nse...for claws cleas.' By this he appears to denote kele: or

[^22]:    kele, which must come from a M.E. clee, O.E. clēa, shortened form of clawu. Wright gives klie as a modern Midland form, and cites tlie from Westmorland (Dialect Grammar, claw), but kle is not a common pronunciation in the modern dialect of Eastern Yorkshire.
    ${ }^{1}$ The Pricke of Conscience has aw, the Psalter agh for this sound.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Wright, Old English Grammar, p. 44, § 76.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Scandinavian Element in the English Dialects, Anglia xx.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ This may be English (<O.E. bece), see Arnold Wall, The Scandinavian Element in the English Dialects in Anglia $x \mathrm{x}$.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ This probably not O.E. ewic. Compare wai (O.I. kwiga) a heifer.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ But see N.E.D. on this word.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik, Vol. ı., § 45. Wyld, Short History of English, § 222.
    ${ }^{2}$ Marshall (1788) indicates the pronunoiation of this word as mell, with $e$ lengthened before $l$, § 103.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ In The Pricke of Conscience, 1. 1468, this word rimes with dere (O.E. derian) to injure. This vowel must have been M.E. $\bar{\varepsilon}$, and the word should appear in the present dialect as wi $\cdot(\mathbf{r})$, § 276 . The form wa:( $\boldsymbol{r}$ ) is derived from O.Fr. werre through M.E. werre, with short e.
    ${ }^{2}$ Studien zur englischen Lautgeschichte, Wien, 1903, p. 54.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ This lax $i$ occurred in the London dialect too, cf. Horn, Hist. neuenglische Grammatik, § 28; Wyld, The Spoken English of the Early Eighteenth Century, § 4.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Dr H. Mutschmann in his North Eastern Scotch Dialect, § 137, suggests that the development of M.E. $\bar{o}$ in these words was due to the influence of the initial labial consonants. I agree. The above dialect words are not derived from M.E. forms containing $\bar{e}$, e.g. meve move, preve prove. These were derived from N.Fr. forms with $\bar{e}$, corresponding to O.Fr. ue, from stressed Latin o, whereas move and prove go back to the unstressed o (Jespersen, New English Grammar, 1., pp. 105, 106). meve and preve would appear to-day as mi:v and pri:v ( $\$ 277$ ):

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Brokesby (1691) gives the pronunciation of 'poison' as peuson, indicating probably the East Riding dialect pronunciation of Early Mod. Eng. puison (Horn, Hist. neuengl. Grammatik, p. 101).

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Jespersen, Modern English Grammar, Vol. 1., p. 212.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Jespersen: "The Nasal in Nightingale, etc." Eng. Studien, 3I, p. 239.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ Wilhelm Horn, Historische neuenglische Grammatik, Strassburg 1908, p. 139, § 171.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Murray, Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland, p. 127.

[^37]:    ${ }^{2}$ Murray, Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland, p. 163.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Windhill Dialect, p. 193.

[^39]:    "First aght men drede the ded (death) in hert."
    ${ }^{1}$ Wright, Grammar of the Dialect of Windhill, p. 152, § 392.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ represents Scotch wh in 'what.'
    ${ }^{2} X$ represents Scotch oh in 'loch.'
    ${ }^{3} \varepsilon$ represents Scotch ch in 'nicht ' or in 'bricht.'

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ horror. ${ }^{2}$ scrape. ${ }^{3}$ hole. ${ }^{4}$ water.

