AN ENGLISH GRAMMAR:
METHODICAL, ANALYTICAL, AND HISTORICAL.

WITH A TREATISE ON THE ORTHOGRAPHY, PROSODY, INFLECTIONS
AND SYNTAX OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE;

AND NUMEROUS AUTHORITIES CITED IN ORDER OF HISTORICAL
DEVELOPMENT.

By PROFESSOR MAETZNER,
OF BERLIN.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN, WITH THE SANCTION OF THE AUTHOR,

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1874.
While the lexicographical department of the English tongue has been cultivated, and further productions are awaited, the grammatical has been almost completely neglected. The works of this class have not striven after a higher aim than the constitution of certain arbitrary formule for the attainment of a superficial propriety in the use of the stores of the language; formule tried by which the greatest lights of English literature would, almost without exception, stand condemned, while a scientific foundation for the formule and rules has hardly been attempted. English grammar has, in fact, under the hands of native grammarians, barely emerged from the region of dogmatism. From this observation the work of Dr. Latham must be excepted, yet the purport of that work is rather archeological than grammatical; and the learned author probably never contemplated that his work would be resorted to for the elucidation of a doubtful construction or idiom.

While Englishmen have thus been content to leave the usage of their own tongue, so far as its more delicate grammatical features are concerned, blind, instinctive and unconscious, the nation in which erudition and scientific philology are, as it were, indigenous, having already subjected the classical tongues to an exhaustive scientific treatment, as well lexicographically as grammatically,
has undertaken the scientific treatment of the grammar of the English tongue. That the grammar of the tongue should have been approached by Germans from that purely scientific point of view, from which natives have not hitherto regarded it, will not surprise us when we consider the relations of German to the classical tongues of antiquity and to our own vernacular. The German is the living classical tongue. While the modern tongues of the West of Europe are constructed out of the débris of Latin, as English is from the débris of Romance and of a decayed and decapitated Germanic idiom, the modern Highdutch, or German, exhibits, even more than the classical tongues themselves, a systematic orderly development from indigenous materials. The growth and development of language, which, to a Frenchman or an Englishman lie external and remote, are, to a German, ready to hand; and, as the cloudless nights of the plains of Shinar prompted the ancient Chaldeans to study the motions of the heavenly host, the purely indigenous structure of their native speech has suggested to the Germans the investigation of the laws of the vocal material in which thought is deposited and communicated.

Moreover, as each new conquest in the territory of the Unknown would be fleeting, but for the invention of terms to impart stability to each acquisition, the people which pursues with success an investigation in a fresh field has the prerogative of creating the appropriate terminology. Such was the prerogative of the Greeks in Logic and Metaphysics, and, if it be allowed to term it a prerogative, in Theology. Such, likewise, was the prerogative of the Romans in Law and administration, and such, in our own age, is that of the Germans in scientific Philology. The instruments of thought which had been invented and perfected in subjecting the classical tongues to analysis stood ready to be applied upon the English. To a foreigner, moreover, the language presents itself denuded of the debasing usages of life, as a homely landscape, beheld from a distant eminence, becomes inviting, so that common place associations do not obtrude themselves upon the inquirer and disturb his contemplation in his purely scientific pursuit.

The Grammar of Professor Mätzner is the fruit of researches
and labours, astounding in their extent and completeness, ranging over the entire history of the English tongue. Previous investigations in the field of Old-French, one of the mightiest tributaries of Modern-English, had paved the way to similar researches in the ancient Germanic idioms, and these have been completed by a thorough study of the standard luminaries of Modern-English literature, with especial regard to the light they were adapted to throw upon the grammatical peculiarities of the tongue. Calculated to supply a void in the linguistic literature of our country, I have, in order to render it accessible to those of our nation who are either unacquainted with the language in which the text is composed or are not sufficient masters of it to read it with facility, ventured upon a translation. I have become painfully conscious with the progress of the work how unequal I am to cope with the difficulties which even a simple translation has presented. The difficulty has been that a translation from a more powerful into a feebler vehicle is sometimes unattainable. The coarser lineaments are capable of reproduction, but the finer traits vanish in the alembic. This will be generally conceded as regards the rendering of the artistic productions of a language, but the conception is prevalent that scientific treatises are capable of being transferred, without loss, from any one cultivated tongue into any other. The difference, however, is one of degree only. Even for purely scientific exposition the members of one cultivated tongue never precisely cover those of another. That the German inherits, as its special prerogative, the terms of scientific philology and of modern metaphysics, the creation of the post-Kantian philosophy, I have already indicated, and this is precisely the walk to which the present work belongs. A cumbrous periphrasis has therefore been in many cases the sole mean of rendering some of the neatest and most exact expressions of the original. In the Prosody, for instance, An-laut, In-laut and Aus-laut, with their paronyms, are frequently recurring. The generic element laut, meaning sound, is here differentiated with perfect propriety by the prepositions an, signifying inception, in, signifying inclusion, and aus, signifying finality: so that the first means the sound at the beginning; the second that in the middle; and the latter that at the end of a
syllable. How poor in meaning, notwithstanding their vocal complexity, are the expressions, I will not call them equivalents, by which the poverty of our vernacular has constrained me to render them, is obvious at once. While I am thus sensible of the defects of my translation, I hope that the circumstance above mentioned will lenify any hostile criticism which they may provoke.

It is due to the eminent author of the vast monument of industry and erudition which is now ushered into the British public to furnish them with a sketch of his biography. Edward Mätzner, the son of a house-painter, was born on the 25th of May 1805 at Rostock in Mecklenburg. He was a pupil at the gymnasium, or grammar school, of Greifswald in Prussian Pomerania, where he began his career as an author by the publication, in 1822, of a romantic drama in five acts, called Hermann and Thusnelda. Philology and theology were the subjects of his studies, both at Greifswald, and afterwards at Heidelberg, but philosophy, or thought in the most elevated and abstract forms of its activity, and philology, or the study of the vehicle of thought in its manifold manifestations, presented to his vigorous and enquiring mind so many more attractions than the theology which had been his destined career that the latter was gradually abandoned. In 1830 he became a tutor at Yverdun in French Switzerland, but quitted that post the following year to become the master of a French gymnasium at Berlin, which, after about another year, he quitted for a gymnasium at Bromberg in Posen. He was constrained by ill-health to give up this appointment in 1834, and remained in private life till 1838, when he accepted the post of director, or head-master, of a collegiate establishment at Berlin for the higher education of girls, which he still fills. The duties of his appointment leave him leisure for the prosecution of his favourite studies and pursuits. His wife Ida, was sister of Dr. Gustav Eberty, now Stadtgerichtsrath, or one of the members of the central court of justice for Berlin, and also one of the members for Berlin in the Prussian House of Representatives. She died in 1870.

His published works are as follows:—

A Latin Essay upon the Homeric Zeus, 1834.
Licurgi Oratio in Leocatem. Berlin, 1836.
Preface.

Aristophanis Orationes XV. Berlin, 1838.
Dinarchi Orationes III. Berlin, 1842.
Theil II. 1845.
— —. Theil II. Berlin, 1865.
Alt-Englische Sprachproben. 1869.
Several essays and reviews in Noack's Jahrbücher für speculative Philosophie and in Bergmann's philosophische Monatshefte.
Essays in the philosophical periodical: Der Gedanke; edited by Michelet.
He was elected an honorary member of the Philological Society of London in 1869.
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INTRODUCTION.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The English language, at present diffused not only over Great Britain, Ireland and the surrounding islands, but also throughout the English colonies out of Europe, as well as throughout the commonwealth of North America, is a peculiar mixed language, formed within Great Britain. Its most essential constituent, the Anglosaxon, after the expulsion of the Celtic language, coalesced with Normanfrench elements, and has established itself as its formative power.

The primitive inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland were Celts. Immigrant Belgic populations, which, even before Julius Caesar's time occupied the coasts of Britain, were likewise of Celtic stock, the most civilized among them being the inhabitants of Kent. The Celtic language, peculiar to the whole of western Europe when the Romans took possession of Britain, is still spoken, as the language of the people, in Ireland, in the highlands and islands of Scotland, where subsequent immigrants from Ireland in the third century (Picts and Scots) displaced the ancient Caledonians from the West onwards; also in Wales and in the Isle of Man, as well as in French Lower Brittany. The Celtic literature of the druidical era has perished; a modern one has arisen only under the influence of foreign culture; its monuments extend up to the eighth and ninth centuries, but only in our own age have they become the subject of research. L. Diefenbach and Zeuss, among the Germans, have devoted to it most comprehensive investigations (Celtica, in two parts. Stuttgart 1839 and Grammatica Celtica. Leipzig 1852. Two parts) while its modern idioms have been variously explored by English and French scholars.

Even in antiquity a distinction was drawn between the two main branches of the Celtic tongue, the Gaelic (the same as Gaedelic, with a mute d) and the British. To the Gaelic branch belong: first, the present Irish, frequently called Erse; secondly, the Highland-Scotch, or Erse, commonly called the Gaelic; and, thirdly, the Manx. To
the British branch belong: first, the Welsh, or Cymric (Cymraeg) in Wales; secondly, the Cornisn in Cornwall, which died out in the eighteenth century; and, thirdly, the Armorican, (Breizounek,) in Brittany.

In English, with the exception of no inconsiderable number of proper names of towns, villages, hills, rivers and lakes, Celtic roots have been but scantily preserved, and of these only a few have been transmitted through the Anglosaxon. In modern times many Celtic words have been taken up by the language of the people.

The British Celts were (from Caesar, 60 years before Christ, to Agricola, 84 years after Christ; subdued by the Romans, with the exception of the mountaineers of Wales and Scotland, who, like their Irish congeners remained unconquered. Roman-british towns soon covered the flourishing land, which was traversed by well designed roads, and peopled partly by Roman colonists, soldiers, and maintained a brisk intercourse with Rome and her provinces. With the Roman constitution, Roman laws and the official use of the Latin tongue, England even received a tinge of Roman science and learning as well as eloquence. Here, however, in striking contrast with its influence in Celtic Gaul, the Latin tongue, although a necessary medium for intelligence in the towns, struck by no means so deep a root among the Celtic population as to become permanently influential in the subsequent formation of the English language. The gradual penetration of Latin into English begins with the introduction of Christianity and of its ecclesiastical language, advances with the development of mediaeval science, and continues to grow with the revival of classical culture. The linguistic traces of the Roman dominion are preserved only in names of places (such as those compounded of caster, chester, cester and coln, that is, castra, colonia). After nearly five hundred years possession of the country the Romans recalled their legions to Italy, then hard pressed by barbarians, and thereupon a fresh foreign rule began in Britain.

The beginnings of the Anglosaxon dominion are veiled in darkness. Marauding expeditions of German and Scandinavian mariners to the southern and eastern coasts of Britain began in the third century after Christ: the Romans maintained fleets in the ports of Britain and Gaul against the barbarians; in the South-east strongholds were founded for the defence of the coast. In the reign of Valentinian, Theodosius acquires the surname of Saxonicus through his defeat of German pirates. and, even in the fourth century, the seacoast bears the name of Littus Saxonicum, which seems to point to its settlement by Germans. The British towns, in 409, expelled their imperial officers and drove away marauding Saxons, inhabitants of the northern coasts of Germany, by force of arms. The prevailing portion of the population of the South-east seems, even before the subsequent immigration of the Saxons and Jutes, to have been of the Saxon stock. Modern enquirers, however, are wrong in ascribing the formation of the Scotch dialect to the contemporaneous invasion of Scotland by the Picts, as if these were a Scandinavian race from the North.

In various expeditions the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, ostensibly called in for succour against the Picts and Scots, came about the
middle of the fifth century to Britain and, after a prolonged contest, possessed themselves of the country. The earliest and most numerous settlers, the Angles, who appeared in the North between the Humber and the wall of Antonine, gave their name to the country (Englaland), although the Celts are wont even now to denote the English by the name of Saxons (Cymric, Seison Saeson). The Angles, for a while the most powerful, subsequently succumbed to the Saxons, of whom the Westsaxons, in 827, in the reign of Egbert, obtained the sovereignty over the whole country, as well as over Wales, while the less numerous Jutes, who are commonly mentioned as the oldest settlers in Kent and the Isle of Wight, played no important part politically. All had come from the northern coast of Germany, from Friesland to the peninsula of Jutland: their tongue, the Lowdutch, was spoken by them in various dialects, which, blended in England more than in their home, still betray their diversity in the popular dialects of modern English.

At the end of the sixth century we find the Angles spread over the greatest portion of the country. In the South of Scotland, between the Tweed and the Frith of Forth, where King Edwin in 620 built Edinburgh, as likewise in Northumberland (that is, Bernicia) also in Cumberland, Durham, (the bishopric) Westmoreland, Lancashire and Yorkshire (that is, Deira) they dwelt under the name of Northumbers. This Northumberland was, from the seventh till the middle of the eighth century, the chief seat of learning. They bore the name of Mercians in Cheshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, (Northmercians) and south of the Trent in Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire, Rutland-shire, Huntingdonshire, the northern part of Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Gloucestertshire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire, Staffordshire and Shropshire (South-mercians). In Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire and the Isle of Ely, as well as in part of Bedfordshire, they were called East Angles, in Leicestershire, belonging to Mercia, Middleangles.

The Saxons settled in the South, in Sussex, Essex, Middlesex and the south of Hertfordshire, as East Saxons; then, in Surrey, Berkshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire and a portion of Cornwall, as Westsaxons.

Lastly we find the Jutes in Kent, the isle of Wight and a part of Hampshire.

Masters, for the most part, of the soil, and, unlike the Romans, inhabitants of the open country, the language of the conquerors soon penetrated deeply into the life of the people. The Anglesaxon language and literature flourished, developing even early cultivated prose. The best manuscripts in the Anglesaxon language have their origin in the tenth century; the then predominant dialect, that of Wessex, maintained itself in this century unadulterated; of the earlier language we are ignorant, the earlier works having been moulded by the copyists according to their respective dialects. The decay of the language begins in the eleventh century, under the influence of the Normans. Of foreign elements, the Anglesaxon language after the introduction of Christianity into England in 597, (first into Kent) which spread rapidly in the seventh century, adopted a number of words,
originally taken from the Greek, from the language of the Latin church. A few more Latin words have been transmitted through the Anglosaxon, and have remained in the subsequent English.

From 787 the Danes molested the coasts of England. In the ninth century they possessed themselves of the north, and settled in Northumberland and Mercia. Alfred the Great, involved, like his predecessors, in conflict with them, and, for a while, bereft of his sway at last overcame them, although they afterwards, after fresh arrivals of their countrymen, again in union with Scots and Britons, combated the Anglosaxons, until defeated by Athelstan at Brunaburg. The Danish king Sweno afterwards invades England, and, from the year 994, is repeatedly bought off with Danegelt. In order to avenge the murder of the Danes by Ethelred in 1000, he returns, is reconciled by a fresh atonement, (Mandebod), and dies in a final attempt to conquer the country, in 1014. His son Canute the Great conquers it in 1016, makes himself monarch in 1018, and, being at the same time king of Denmark, he tries to blend both nations into one. His sons Harold and Hardicanute reign in succession till 1042 over England, when Ethelred’s son, Edward the Confessor, again comes to the throne, and dies in 1065, and whose successor Harold loses both throne and life in the battle of Hastings against William the Conqueror in 1066.

The language of these Danes, partly from its very nature, was impotent to exercise a transforming influence upon the Anglosaxon tongue, and moreover, such an influence upon the Anglosaxon was, on the part of the decidedly less cultivated Danes, scarcely possible. Even Canute’s laws were issued, not in the Danish, but in the Anglosaxon language, and they disclose but few traces of the Norse tongue. Solitary Old-norse words are still to be met with in English and have therefore overpassed the limits of a dialect. But it was erroneous to call, as was formerly done, the speech of the country occupied by the Angles, the Saxon-danish dialect. The memory of the Danish era has been preserved in such vigour that, in Northamptonshire even at the present day, the peasants call every coin found in the earth Dane’s money. In the investigation of words, a recourse to the Old-norse idiom is, further of great importance, where the Lowdutch dialects afford no clew.

With the commencement of the Norman rule, in 1066, the period of the violent repression of the refractory Anglosaxon nation, often provoked to open resistance, the Anglosaxon tongue disappeared from literature and from the laws. The French language and customs of the Normans were, even previously, not unknown to the court and to the upper circles of Anglosaxon life, for, during the Danish sway, the Princes, Lords and Clergy had fled to the Normans of the continent, who were superior to themselves in civilization. Normans had been trained at the Anglosaxon court and entrusted with offices: that their influence was disrelished by the people was the occasion of the king’s being compelled, in 1052, to banish them. But, after the conquest by William, the estates of the saxon magnates, as well as the archbishoprics, bishoprics and abbeys, soon passed into the hands of Normans. Royal ordinances were now issued in the French tongue, justice was administered in it, and it became the language of
The English Language.

5

instruction in the schools. The English youth of rank went to France, frequenting especially the university of Paris, in order to acquire its language, science and manners. Even in England French poetry flourished; here, where William the Conqueror’s daughter Adela, countess of Blois, herself practised poetry, sojourned the epic poets Richard Wace of Jersey, (died in 1184 in England) Benedict of St. Maure, Guerner or Gamier of Picardy, (in England in 1152), the didactic writers Philip of Than, (Thaun) from the neighbourhood of Caen, (in England in the 12th century) Geoffrey Gaimar, (12th century) Turold. Even Mary of France, (12th and 13th centuries) lived mostly in England. Along with French writers flourished besides numerous Latin authors, Latin being the language of the Church, of the schools and of learning generally; and in that tongue documents of every kind as well royal ordinances were also in part composed.

The neglect of the Anglosaxon tongue, which even exchanged its letters for the Norman characters, on the part of the upper ranks contributed essentially to its corruption by the French, so that the descendants of the Anglosaxons, as early as the thirteenth century, were hardly able to read their old writers. The common people, however, clung with tenacity to their tongue, which however could not resist the invasion of French words, and, being without a firm support in any popular written language, became more and more fluctuating in its forms, and, particularly, more and more mutilated in its grammatical inflections.

Meanwhile the Anglosaxon element of the Scotch idiom was being reinforced at the time of the conquest of England by numerous Anglosaxon refugees, who retired thither from the cruelty of William, and at their head was Edgar Atheling, whose sister King Malcolm the Third had married. But, even here the French penetrated. A number of Norman barons, disaffected towards their king, emigrated to Scotland, receiving land and vassals from the Scottish king. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries French was likewise in Scotland the language of the court; the speech of the people, on the contrary, maintained itself freer from contact with it. The Scotch dialect, which by its poets, as Barbour, (died in 1395) Dunbar (died about 1520) Lindsay and others, is certainly not wrongly called the English language, generally avoided French elements far more than did the English dialect, although a dirge on the death of Alexander the Third (in 1283) in not free from French ingredients.

In spite of the preponderance of the Norman-french language over the despised and degraded Anglosaxon, it was destined for the latter so far to overpower the former that in a certain peculiar mixture of both the Anglosaxon essentially determined the character of this new tongue. To this result political relations especially contributed. An important share is assuredly due to the spirit of the Anglosaxon constitution and to the free communities, which resisted victoriously both Danish rudeness and Norman chivalry, and shewed themselves effective in the development of the House of Commons, where, even in the reign of the first Edward, the English language began to strive with the French for the mastery, although Magna Charta was not translated into the language of the people till 1259. The
loosening of the connection of England with France through the loss of Normandy in 1203, and its total severance in the reign of Edward the Second, were also of importance to the language, as was also the struggle with France, with which ceased the education of Norman youth in France. The revival of the ancient schools, and the renovated institutions at Oxford and Cambridge, under the name of universities, contributed, at least mediately, to pave the way to a national culture. Even the mysteries, hitherto Latin, appear from, and perhaps even before Edward the Third (1327—77) in the language of the English people. The knowledge of French becomes lost, even among the educated, with striking rapidity. The enmity towards the French nation seemed to bring about a contempt for their language, so that in Chaucer's age (died 1400) French, was no longer spoken with purity by the upper ranks, which at this very time ceased to be the language of instruction. Under these circumstances, in 1362, appeared Edward the Third's order, drawn up in the French language, that all suits pending in the kings courts should be pleaded in English, although recorded in French, whereas the pleadings theretofore had been debated in the French tongue, and the records drawn up in Latin or French. In the House of Lords French was certainly spoken till 1483, for statutes were issued in French till then.

The language which now began to take the place of the French is to be regarded as a full grown language, the English. Its formation is preceded by a period of transition, that of the Half-Saxon (in the 12th century) which is expressed in literature by the extensive writings of Layamon and Orme (whence the name Ormulum.). The language is already called English (Ice Patt Pis Ennglissh hafe sett (compare Ormulum in Thorpe Annal. Angl. sax. p. 174). It has already taken up and assimilated many French words, perceptibly altered the former spelling and treated the alliteration with neglect. The declination exhibits the mixture of the single form with the strong and weak Anglosaxon form. The plural begins, with the abandonment of the distinctions of gender and declination, to adopt the plural in s. The forms of the pronoun still resist the complete obliteration of their terminations. In the adjective we often perceive the confounding of the strong and the weak form, but frequently also the strong and the weak form stunted. In the verb, along with the termination of the plural of the present indicative ad, ed, the termination en already shews itself; the prefix ge in the perfect participle of the strong verbs appears commonly in the form y, i, and the n of the infinitive, and the participle of the strong verbs is frequently dropped. The weakening of the unaccented and especially of the final vowels of all parts of speech and, generally, the shortening of words is observable even in the Halfsaxon.

The English language, in the stricter sense, begins in the thirteenth century. Its further and more or less constant development is nowhere abruptly broken, but in long spaces of time wide differences become manifest; wherefore we have to divide the period of the Old English and that of the New English from each other, the boundary being generally coincident with the commencement of modern culture.

Under the name Old English we comprehend the linguistic period
from the thirteenth century to the age of Elizabeth (1558). If, within this space of time we would distinguish an Old-English period (1250—1350) and a Middle English (1350—1558), we must consider on the other hand that, in point of fact, no epoch of change in the forms of the English language occurred in the middle of the fourteenth century, although the age of Edward the Third gave a new impulse to English literature. Those who wish to specify sharp distinctions in the forms of the language of these periods are justly in perplexity. No new principle of formation enters into the language, no one dialect is raised decidedly into a literary standard, it being currently said of the language, even by Chaucer: Ther is so great diversite in English and in writing of our tong p. 332 Tyrwh., with which Trevisa also agrees in his translation of Higden’s Polychronicon (1387). And, if the formation and renovation of the English tongue is still ascribed, as it was by Skelton, to the poets Gower, and to Chaucer, the unsurpassed during two centuries, (compare Skelton I. 75 and 377), this refers to the syntactic and stylistic aspect of the tongue more than to its forms and their mutations. Moreover we shall, in the exposition of the Old-English forms, have the authors of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries especially in our eye, who, in regard to the Anglo-Saxon vocabulary and to the strong verbal forms still preserved, are, of course, richer than subsequent ones; in which respect Skelton might say that Gower’s English was in his age obsolete; as also generally that, at the end of the Old English period, the linguistic revolution was so accelerated that Caxton could say, in 1490, that the language was then very different from that in use at the time of his birth in 1412.

The Modern English language, further developed under the influences of the art of printing, of newly reviving science and of the Reformation, and, from the sixteenth century, methodically cultivated, is, however, separated from the Old English by no sharp line of demarcation. Spencer and Shakespeare, who, in part consciously, affect archaism, stand on the confines and at the same time reach back beyond them. Yet the language now gradually gains more and more in orthographical and grammatical consistency, although the golden age of Elizabeth is not at the same time the age of classical correctness of the language, chiefly because the study of the ancient languages operated immediately more upon the form than upon the substance of the literature. Nevertheless this study soon contributed to fix also the English prosody, which, in Old English, was fluctuating. Although the spelling has continued in certain particulars uncertain and complicated even to the present day, the settlement of the orthography, prosody and grammar since the beginning of the seventeenth century is an essential mark of distinction between the Old English and the Modern English. Herewith is associated the securing of a literary idiom, to which contributed not so much the translations from the classical languages and from the Italian, as the translation of the Bible, composed by order of James the First, (1607—11) still the authorized one, and not only an excellent work for its own age, but, even for the present, a model of classical language. The home of the present literary dialect is moreover universally shifted to the
ancient confines of the Angles and West Saxons. Some place it in
the dialect of Northamptonshire (Thom. Sternberg); others, in that
of Leicestershire (Guest); yet the same freedom from provincialisms
is also attributed to the dialects of Bedfordshire and Herefordshire.
The language of the educated is at present every where under the
influence of the literary language, and it is a matter of course that
the living speech of the inhabitants of the capital is regarded as the
standard for cultivated intercourse, even in regard to pronunciation.

Although not unimportant, the invasion of numerous Latin words
in the sixteenth century is of only subordinate moment in determining
the character of the language. Many of these, called "inkhorn words"
by the purists of the time, have been preserved. Not more important
is the subsequent naturalization of Latin and Greek words through
Milton, (1608—74) and the extension of the domain of French words
in English, much that was repugnant having been rejected in more
modern times, and English being especially adapted, from the blunting
of its terminations, to assimilate foreign words of all kinds. A
more essential distinction between Modern English and Old English
is the loss of German words, particularly of strong forms. Even in
the sixteenth century Puttenham (Art of English poetry, 1598) warns
his readers against old grandsire words and phrases, and dictionaries
down to the present time progressively expel obsolete matter from
the language of the day. Moreover, Lexicography itself, (which began
towards the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth cen-
tury, at first as English-Latin Lexicography, and in the interest of
the acquisition of foreign languages, as of Latin, Greek and the
modern tongues, but from the seventeenth and especially the eight-
teenth century strove to collect a vocabulary of the English language,
with a regard, at the same time, to the pronunciation,) has essential
merits as to the correctness of the written and spoken language. A
final distinction between Modern and Old-English is the manifold
stylistic cultivation of the language in all departments of poetry and
prose, whereas Old-English, particularly in prose narrative, lagged
behind the endeavour for correctness and variety.

As principal constituents of the English language in regard to
its material are to be specified the words of Anglosaxon and Norman-
french origin, with which are associated modern words borrowed from the
Latin, Greek and Romance, and a few Germanic and even extra-European
tongues. In spite of the lessening of the Anglosaxon and the growth
of foreign elements, the Anglosaxon is still regarded as the main stock
of English. According to some, of 38,000 words regarded as genuine
English, the number of Anglosaxon in the English of the present day
amounts to about 23,000, or nearly 58. According to Chambers, there
are 53,000 English words, of which 3,820 are primitive, amongst which
2513 are common to the English and the Germanic and 1,250 to the
English and the classical tongues. According to Thommerel, the
number of words originally Anglosaxon is 12,000. However it be,
the mixture of ingredients in writings of different kinds is very dif-
f erent, so that in works strictly scientific the number of the Anglo-
saxon is the smallest, whereas in other prose works, as well as in
poetry and in common life in general, the Anglosaxon prevail, although
The English Language.

even here the cosmopolitan intercourse of modern times affords increased access to foreign ingredients.

With regard to linguistic forms Anglosaxon has operated along with French, yet in a greatly preponderant measure. English owes to Anglosaxon the remnants of inflective terminations in the noun, the verb and the pronoun, likewise its articles, its numerals, its chief store of particles in words of relation and in conjunctions, also the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective, and its adverbial formation. The Anglosaxon has bequeathed the facility of compounding words, and a considerable number of forms of derivation, and lastly has chiefly determined the formation of its periods. The influence of French shews itself first in regard to sounds: to it is perhaps to be ascribed the silence of the l before other consonants, like, f, v, k, m; as also the partial silence of the h and gh. It has also, perhaps, accelerated the silence of the final e, which in Chaucer is still often sounded. The introduction of the sibilant sound of c = s is also due to the influence of French, likewise the diffusion of the letters z and v instead of the original f. It may also have cooperated in consigning to the Anglosaxon s almost exclusively the formation of the plural. It has further conveyed to English a number of forms of terminations, which have given the language a fresh mobility, as they are often joined on to Germanic roots. Of no slight import is the influence of French upon the collocation of English words, whereby a freedom, not possessed by the German, is produced.

The blending of the Germanic with the Romance imparts to English in general a richness of expression for all shades of thought, possessed by no other modern language. Its Germanic prosody makes English more adapted for poetical forms than French, to which, however, it owes in part the diffusion of rhyme instead of alliteration, although rhyme was not quite foreign to Anglosaxon. With the boldness and force of Germanic speech English unites the flexibility and polish of the Romance languages, and only the stunting of the words and the poverty in inflections, which frequently cause a monosyllabic barking, obstruct occasionally the artistic cultivation of the language.

The English language, in the wider sense, is primarily divided into English, in the narrower sense, and Scotch.

a. English, even in the olden time split up into many dialects, most of them appearing also in literature, has, even now, numerous popular dialects, the investigation of which, in regard to sound, to the grammar and to the vocabulary is important both for the history of the language and for philology. Collections have, in modern times in particular, begun to be made of their vocabulary, so rich in what has been abandoned by the modern language. Although Anglosaxon, judged by its manuscripts, did not possess numerous dialects, almost every English county has preserved its own dialect, sometimes even divided into several shades. These popular dialects are distinguished from each other and from the literary language; firstly and chiefly, by their vocalization; secondly, by the transmutation of many consonants; thirdly, by the rejection and transposition of consonants; by the preservation, not only
of Old-germanic, but also Old-french words; fifthly, by the preservation of Germanic strong flexional forms, as well as by the interchange of strong and weak forms. Halliwell, in his collection of archaic and provincial words, has exhibited 51,027 forms of words, and numerous comparisons of words of various dialects are gradually offering more and more support to research.

The present popular dialects are divided, as they were by Verstegan (in his Restitution in 1634) into three groups; the Western, the Southern and the Northern. In the fourteenth century Halliwell fancies there were a Southern, a Middle and a Northern Group, of which the Southern at present remains only in the West.

The Western group is most sharply expressed in the counties of Dorset, a part of Somerset, Devon and Cornwall; less so in Wiltshire, Berkshire and Oxfordshire, and in Gloucestershire, the present dialect whereof is still similar to that of old Robert of Gloucester. Apart from their peculiar vocabulary, these dialects are seemingly characterized by the lengthening of the vowels, the broadening of the diphthongs, the softening of s into z and j into v, as also by suppressed pronunciation without the full opening of the mouth.

The so called Southern dialects may be divided into three branches. One begins with Kent, wherewith is allied Sussex, Surrey and Hampshire on the one hand, and Essex on the other, so that the dialects pass partly into the Western and partly into the East-anglian. The East-anglian form the second branch, which shews itself most decidedly in Norfolk and Suffolk, but to which also Cambridgeshire and Huntingdonshire, and, as cognate, Leicestershire and Rutlandshire are attached. These dialects are thin and have something of slegsone, whence the Suffolk "whining", and form a sharp contrast to the full-toned northern dialects. The midland dialects are to be regarded as the third branch, as, that of Herefordshire, Warwickshire and Northamptonshire, also at present that of Nottinghamshire, where the northern dialect was formerly native. They form the transition to the northern dialects.

The Northern group, which we may call the Northumbrian, exhibits itself most decidedly in the dialects of Northumberland, Durham and the North Riding of Yorkshire, and in Cumberland and Westmoreland. Broad, full-toned, guttural and passing into the Scottish, it is hardest in Northumberland and most monotonous in Durham. In Lincolnshire, where a northern dialect is divided from a southern one by the river Witham, the latter resembles the Eastanglian. The dialect of Lancashire recedes in the West from that of Yorkshire, but, like this, favours the a sound instead of o and ou, and puts the o sound in the place of eo and oy, and hardens the final g and d into k and t. These dialects, the most remote from the literary English, have enjoyed the most especial lexicographic research.

b. The Scotch language, or the speech of the Scottish lowlands, which has maintained its Germanic character with the greatest fidelity, is distinguished from the English by a broader vocalization, especially by the frequent employment of the obscure a instead of o, of ai instead of oa and o, the preservation of the guttural ch,
English gh, and the more frequent retention of the original g and k, likewise the frequent rejection of the final ll, of d after n at the end of a word, likewise of g in the termination ing. It often exchanges the participial termination ed for it, preserves many archaic forms and is distinguished by the employment of particular derivative terminations, such as the ukie, from ock: The Scotch language kept pace with the English as a literary dialect till the sixteenth century; but from that time the English outstripped it. Queen Elizabeth no longer understood the Scotch letters of Mary Stuart in the same age when it seemed to the publisher of Chaucer (Speght), in 1602, needful to subjoin a glossary of Chaucer's obscure words, which had not appeared necessary in the editions of 1542 and 1561, notwithstanding Spencer's Shepheardes Calendar in 1579 needed a glossary by reason of its "Chaucerisms". With the union of the two kingdoms in 1603, the removal of the court to England and the neglect of the Scotch by the upper ranks, the language lost its literary dignity and subsided into a mere popular dialect. It raised itself indeed, particularly with the commencement of the eighteenth century, (Allan Ramsay born 1686) in popular poetry into a certain finish in a narrow department; without, however, again acquiring the importance of a language of varied cultivation. In its stationariness the Scotch, originally very close to the English, has preserved many materials of speech which have been abandoned in English. The Scotch has litherto become more the subject of lexicographical than of scientific grammatical research.

The forms of English in the countries which have received it from its original home are hardly to be considered English dialects in the strict sense, although there it receives a provincial cast in the mouth of the people. The English of North America, for instance, which, like the speech of all colonies, has to keep up its intimate connection with the mother country chiefly through the language of books, is gradually diverging in pronunciation. It retains words already obsolete in England, elevates particular English provincialisms into expressions of universal currency, assigns new and peculiar expressions to many old words, and takes up many words from the American languages. The language of conversation in the colonies suffers everywhere from similar defects, but the general physiognomy of the tongue remains the same.

Linguistic varieties, such as the thieves' language of England, the "flash" or "cant" of thieves and beggars, likewise the mob language of the populace of great cities, a mixed language of divers dialects and, partly, of arbitrary formations, wherein words are employed with new and peculiar meanings, (slang words and phrases) do not come under review as dialects. The pronunciation of the common people of the great towns, such as that of the cockney speakers of London, has also no dialectic nature, properly speaking; like as the pversion of the vocalization and the guttural tinge to the dentals and to r, except at the end of a syllable, with the Irishman is to be ascribed to the influence of the Celtic, which also imparts a particular quality to the pronunciation of Wales.
PART I.

THE DOCTRINE OF THE WORD.

Grammar, or the doctrine of language, treats of the laws of speech, and, in the first place, of the Word, as its fundamental constituent, with respect to its matter and its form, in prosody, or the doctrine of sounds, and morphology, or the doctrine of forms, and then of the combination of words in speech, in syntax, or the doctrine of the joining of words and sentences.

FIRST SECTION.

PROSODY, OR, THE DOCTRINE OF SOUNDS.

I. THE WORD, ACCORDING TO ITS INGREDIENTS.

THE ALPHABET.

The English alphabet, the totality of its phonetic signs, has, under the influence of Norman French, instead of the gradually expiring Anglosaxon, become the same as the Romance. It contains at present the following signs, according to the usual succession:

\[
\text{ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ} \\
\text{abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz}
\]

Their names are expressed by the following English designations:

ai, bee, cee, dee, ee, ef, jee, aitch, i or eye, jay, kay, el, em, en, o, pee, cue, ar, ess, tee, u or you, vee, double u, eks, wy, zed.

These phonetic signs represent, either singly or combined, as ch, sh, gh, th, the various sounds of speech; combined letters also serve to represent simple vocal sounds, as ee, ie, ea, &c. The letters y and w at the end of a word, serve as consonants, else as vowels, although w only in conjunction with other vowels.

THE VOWELS IN GENERAL.

The vowel is the simple sound, which, without the cooperation of the moveable instruments of speech, proceeds out of the larynx through the more or less enlarged cavity of the mouth. Where two simple vowel-sounds flow together, there arises a double-sound, or diphthong, whose first or second constituent has the preponderance in pronunciation.

English presents more than any other tongue the striking phenomenon that the simple vowel-sound is represented by more than one vowel sign; diphthongs, on the contrary, by a simple sign; and totally different sounds are also often denoted by the same vowel
signs. These contradictions in orthography are partly the result of adhesion to a written language no longer according with modern pronunciation, partly also of the crossing of the Germanic and the French orthography, although the Germanic tinge remained of decided influence even in the French and other constituents of the language, so that we still find the general phonetic shades of the language in the Lowdutch and Scandinavian dialects of the present day.

Triphthongs, or three vowels flowing together, are unknown to English: In such words as buoy, u is either cast out or passes into the half consonant w.

Such combinations of vowels as ea are falsely called diphthongs in English and such as eau triphthongs:

English, like Anglosaxon, distinguishes short and long vowels, and gives even to vowels originally French the full value of the Germanic length.

In partial illustration of the modern English orthography the Anglosaxon vocalization may serve. a (ā), e (ē), i, o, u and y (this allied to u and falsely confounded with i) serve to represent short vowel sounds: the diphthongs ea (iē and ēo (io, iē) are to be regarded as half-lengths. The long vowels are ā, ae, ē, i, o, u, y; diphthongs ea and eō (io) along with which ei, eu, iē, oe and oi sometimes appear, mostly in Anglian dialects.

Instead of long vowels, reduplications of vowels are also found, which Old English still frequently shews (for instance hīi = heo, in Robert of Gloucester) but which Modern English, with the exception of ee, oo (and even the latter shortened) has abandoned, although even in Old English the extensions ee, ea, are frequently denoted by a simple e. The Old English vocalization also frequently departs otherwise from the modern English, as will be pointed out below in the exposition of the origin of the sounds.

Considered phonetically, the decided vocalization of Modern English is divided into twelve vowels (of which six long ones stand opposed to six short ones) and four diphthongs.

To these may also be joined, as a final vowel sound, the obscured sound of glibly spoken vowels in the unaccented syllable, which modern English Phoneticians denote by uh, and which does not lie on the scale of vowels from i to u, with greater or less enlargement of the cavity of the mouth, but arises from the mere opening of the mouth accompanied by the expulsion of a sound. This sound however nowise corresponds to all obscurations of sound. The shades of sound arising from the contact of those vowels with consonants are not taken into consideration. Neither are those combinations in which the unaccented e and i before other vowels pass into the consonant y, and, in union with preceding consonants, produce a partial sibilant, reckoned among diphthongs. Special and rare combinations, especially in foreign words, have also been passed over.

The phonetic system above touched upon, with its notation by letters, is represented in the following table. The sound is denoted by letters borrowed from other Germanic tongues.
Short vowels.

1. ī, ī, rarely ui, ie, ee (been)  
   Highdutch ī
2. ē, ea; i and y before r rarely ie, ai (said) a (ate)  
   Highdutch ē
3. å  
   Highdutch betwixt ā and ē
4. ō, ou rarely a (malt)  
   swedish å
5. ū, o rarely oo (blood)  
   Highdutch betwixt ō and ū
6. u, oo, ou (could, should)  
   Highdutch ū

Long vowels.

ē, ea, ee, i, ie, rarely ei, ey, ay  
(in quay)  
Highdutch ī or ie
ā, ai, ay, ea, ei, ey rarely e (cf. ere)  
Highdutch ē, ee
â, au (before n)  
Highdutch ā
å, au, aw, ou, rarely oa (broad)  
Lowdutch å, swedish å
ō, oo, oe, oo, ou, ow rarely ew  
(sew)  
Highdutch ź
ū, ue, ui, o, oo, ou, ew rarely oe  
(shoe)  
Highdutch ū

Diphthongs

ī, ī, (rarely ei, ey, ai)  
Highdutch āi (ei)
ou, ow  
Highdutch āū
oi, oy  
Highdutch źi
ū, ue, ui, ew, eu Highdutch źū.

As with the treatment of the primitive vowels in writing, their pronunciation has likewise the most consistency and decision in the accented syllable, whereas the unaccented syllables, from which that receiving a subordinate accent forms of course an exception, have suffered more or less obscuration of vocalization. The difficulty of apprehending and representing these dimmings explains the diversity in the views of orthoepists about such sounds and their notation by signs.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF THE VOWELS AND DIPHTHONDS IN DETAIL.

In the employment of the same simple or combined vowels for different sounds, as also of different vowels signs for the same sounds, we annex the discussion of the pronunciation to the series of phonetic signs ī, ū, e, a, o, u, by representing, with each of these, its combinations according to their phonetic value. In the first place we discuss the sounds in the accented, and then in the unaccented syllable. With regard to the temporal duration of the sound, we distinguish long and short syllables in the seat of accent, while, in the unaccented syllable, length, more or less weakened, may even be made shortness, and shortness may be suppressed into glib shortness, apart from the complete silence of the vowel.

With the seat of accent the quantity, and therefore also the phonetic tinge of the vowel, stand in the most intimate connection; but, along with these, the final sound of the syllable in general cooperates
essentially in the determination of its quantity. The subordinate accent commonly operates analogously to the chief accent.

The close syllable, that is, the syllable ending in a consonant, with a simple vowel, presents itself in every seat of accent as predominantly shortness, and the same is true of the unaccented syllable. But the syllable with a final consonant, followed by a mute e (organic or unorganic) is in general long, which however is only in a limited measure true of the unaccented syllable. The exceptions are chiefly syllables with a final l and r, more rarely m and n.

The open syllable on the contrary, that is, the syllable ending with a vowel, is long in words in which the accent falls on the ultimate or sole syllable (perispomena), as well as in those that have the accent on the penultimate (properispomena); whereas the antepenultimate accented syllables give words with a short accented syllable (proparoxytones). In this last position u, however, forms an exception; as do e, a and o in the case when the succeeding final consonant is followed by a double vowel (in derivative syllables) whose first is an i or e (as ian, iad, iacus, ean, eous, eor, &c.) mostly remain long also in the antepenultimate syllable, whereas this is not the case with i. Since, in the double syllables indicated, e and i have the inclination to blend as semi consonants with the following vowel, words of this sort are mostly to be regarded as properispomena. What is true of the vowel of the antepenultimate has also application to any syllable situate still further back, when it receives the accent. Another series of exceptions is formed by those penultimate open syllables (mostly with i, e, a) which remain short.

In all accented syllables the vowel preceding another vowel is wont to be long. This lengthening usually remains in the unaccented syllable also; but, in a syllable originally unaccented, a vowel before another vowel is short.

Conformably with these general views, a change in the quantity of the vowel frequently shews itself in derivations, in which the accented syllable remaining open is encumbered with final syllables: compare héro — heroine, condigne — condignity, profane — profanity, austère — austerity, týrant — tyranny, abdómen — abdominal, forekno w — foreknowledge; as also when the accent is pushed forwards or backwards from the original long syllable, the length often shortens: compare inspire — inspiration, discip lé — discipline, admire — admirable.

Yet a fixed principle is not carried out here.

The apprehension of the short vowel as the vowel of the close syllable has led to the phonetic peculiarity that, where the open syllable is sharpened, or short, the pronunciation draws the initial consonant of the following syllable immediately on to the vowel (Attraction) and, as it were doubles it, like as writing also after a short vowel frequently doubled consonants originally single (compare waggon with wagon; Anglosax: vägen; addice Anglosax: adesse; mätter French matièr e) and in derivations from oxytones the single consonant is doubled: wit — witty; begin — beginner; abet — abettor: on which account orthoepists, to denote the division of syllables for pronunciation,

put the accentual mark for shortness after what is, properly speaking, an initial consonant: compare sat’ in.

I, Y. These two phonetic signs, though often of very different origin, are essentially shared between the sounds of the Highdutch Y (seldom I) and the Highdutch diphthong ai or ei, as the Old- and Middle Highdutch long i is often represented as ei in modern High-
dutch.

A) In the accented syllable i answers to
1. the short Y
   a) in the close syllable: thin, fringe, shrill, filch, milk, mist, did, fit, stinking, industry, incapacity. *)

  Except «, here the accented syllables pronounced as the diphthongs, ei with silent gh (in gh, ght): nigh, thîgh, tîgh, hîgh; blight, plîght, fight, fright, Wîght &c.; with silent g (in ign): malignant, condign, sign, assign; with silent c (in cr): indict; with mute s in isle, island, and viscount, mostly with their derivatives, in which the consonant remains mute and the accent does not advance. Compare on the other hand con-
dignity, malignant, assignation, assignée, of which only the last retains the silent g notwithstanding the entrance of the i, as in sevennight, which is pronounced seûnit:

  Further, in roots with a final ad, like bind, find, blind, kind &c., to which is added ut pint, and those with id: mild child, wild, in whose derivatives however i appears instead of i: compare wilderness, children and the compound kindred. Ac-
  cording to Smart chîlde is sounded with a short i, according to others with i. Here also an exception is formed by wind = ventus, with its derivatives, as distinguished from wind (with i) with its derivatives, from which however windlass deviates, and also rescînd, together with all derived from the Latin scîndere. Gild and guild, build, in which u is not sounded, have also a short i:

  ei is lastly heard in climb and Christ, yet not in the deri-
vatives from Christ, as christen, christian &c. and not even in the compound Christmas (pronounced crîmsas).

β. Another exception also is formed by the syllable ır with a consonant after it, unless a second r, as in mirror, immediately follows it. In this syllable i passes over into the more obscure sound of ö like è and borders therefore on the sound u before r. The reason lies in the final guttural letter. Here belong sir, fir, chirp, gird, grit, skirt, mirth, birch, girl, фирм. Some pretend to find the sound in bird, first, flirt, thirßt deeper and more obscure. Even educated Londoners moreover pronounce the i in the most familiar words, as sir, bird, dirt &c. as sur, burd, dart &c. Before double r the sound remains, even in derivatives, as stirrîs &c.; and in squirrel it is commonly heard. In Sirrah some

In words in which a principal and a subordinate accent are to be observed we denote the principal accent by ‘‘, the subordinate by ‘, the latter only if the vowel upon which the subordinate accent falls has not a mark of quantity.
I. The Word according to its elements. — The vowels — 1.

denote it also by ā or ē or ū. Even in the open syllable of sirup, it is pronounced in common life ī, as in sürrup.

y. In some foreign words in and il in the close syllables are pronounced like the Highdutch ĭ, ie; chagrin, chequín, zechin (the latter also with the accented first syllable) chopín (likewise sometimes accented on the first syllable) bombasin, palanquín, capuchín, alguazil. (Others accent the first or second syllable) brasil or brazil, also invalid (substantive, as distinguished from the adjective invalid, weak). It is also pronounced thus in famille, on the other hand spadille, regularly. By some glacis is also referred to this rule.

b) In an open syllable the sound ĭ appears, if the accented syllable is the antepenultimate or a prior one and the following one begins with a consonant: participate, diminutive, civilize; — filial, niveous, opinion, exhibition; — inclinatory, erminatory, libertinism, familiarize; lination, ministerial.

Except some words in which i is pronounced like the diphthong ei, as primary, binairy, irony, nitency, privacy (according to some with ĭ) annihilate; also derivatives, as migratory; here belong also of course compounds, as īsingglass, īcicle (which, in spite of the mute e must pass for three syllables) and the compounds of micro-, as microcosm, microscopec, microscoical &c.

2) It corresponds to the diphthong (ái) ei

a) in every accented open syllable followed by a vowel; ióidine, bías, dial, cliēnt, dīēt, brier, hierarch, diadem, variety, prósdiaical, Egyptiacum, Leviathan, priapism; — scientifical, pioneér, violātio, hierarchical &c.; therefore also in those i falling under the subordinate accent from verbs in ĭ: vèrsifier, jùstifiable, pròphesier &c., also in every syllable formed by the vowel alone: îdol, îris, irony, except Italy and image (from the root im: compare the Latin imitor).

b) likewise in the penultimate open syllable followed by an initial consonant: bífīd, dīver, crēsis, spīder.

a. Exceptions from this rule, in which a short ĭ enters, are pretty numerous, as in the rest of the vowels except u. They regard mostly words originally Romance or Latin, without our having been able to detect the principle of adhering everywhere to the original quantity. Yet we readily observe that in most of the exceptional cases the root syllable is followed by an i or e derivative termination (perhaps also another root); the obscurer vowels a, o, u, ou &c. are far more seldom met with at the ends of words.

Thus words in ĭ are found here: līly, stīthy, (compare stīth), city, pity, privy; especially adjectives in ĭd: nitid, liquid, livid, rigid, frigid, vivid, insipid, timid; Compounds as trīfīd, quadrīfīd &c.; nouns in ĭc: civilized, critic, empiric; also compounds in ĭc, as prolific, pacific...

&c.; verbs and adjectives in *ish*: minish, diminish, finish, british, dimish, compare dim; on the other hand *Irish*; in *il*: sigil, civil; Nouns and verbs in *it*: digit, spirit, limit, visit, illicit, elicit, exhibit, inhibit, prohibit, explicit, implicit, solicit; Participles in *en*: risen, riven, shriven, thriven (true to the Anglosaxon *i*), also linen; on the other hand *i* = *ei* in the verb dizen; words in *el*: chisel, shrivel, snivel, swivel; and *er*: liver, river, primer, hither, shiver, wither, consider, deliver; in *et*: civet, trivet, privet, rivet. To which are added various other endings of words, as in britain, minim, and the compound prithee.

Terminations with obscure vowels are here far more rare, as *ar* in vicar; *age* in visage, spinach; *ate* in frigate; and in brigand, riband; *old* in ralald; *ard* in lizard, wizard, wizard; in *or* and *our* in liquor, visor, rigour, vigour; in *ot* in bigot, spigot; in *ure* in figure; in *ute* in minute (on the contrary minute adjective), tribute, attribute, contribute, distribute and in single words as ptisan, the compound litharge, bishop, citrul, tribune, continue, sinew, widow.

b. Some foreign words retain in the penultimate the sound of the Hightdutch *i*, *ie*, becafico (according to some with *ei*), Czarinna, capivi, serpigo (according to some with *ei*), vertigo (according to some with *ei*). China = porcelain is pronounced chanee.

c) It is a diphthong in those accented syllables ending in a consonant in pronunciation, which are followed by an organic or unorganic mute *e*: ice, ire, rise, prime, prize, bite, bribe, fine, vile, dike, tithe, stride, knife &c.; so also in *isle* (with silent *s*).

u. Except give and live, in which i sounds *i*.

v. A second exception is formed by foreign words, in which it is pronounced like the Hightdutch *i*, *ie*; they are mostly words in ique, ine, ice and ise: pique, antique, oblique; critique, unique; — machine, magazine, marine, ultramarine, transmarine, mandarine, routine, fascine, festucine, tabourine, tambourine, terrine, tontine, trephine, haberdine, Colbertine, gabardine, chippine (Shakspeare); — police, caprice, chemise, chevaux de frise, frize, moreover gris and verdigris, fatigue and intrigue, imbécile and some others, wherein a varying pronunciation and spelling prevails, as in Kasmire and Cashmere also Kersey-mere.

B) In the unaccented syllable the appearance of the *i* as a short vowel or a diphthong is to be analyzed in general in the following aspects.

1. a) The short *i* the most decidedly among the vowels retains its accented tinge in the unaccented syllable. Every unaccented *i* is in general short, both in the close and in the open syllable, unless the syllable ending in a consonant is followed by
a mute e. It appears less slight in the close syllable: inválido, irregular, histórico, ministerial; more slight in the open one: divide, perfidy, daintily, flexibility, although even here attraction prevails in some measure.

The i-sound is however dimmed like other vowels before a single r, an unaccented final ir as well as yr, er, ar, or, sounding almost exactly like ur, so that words like nádir, sátýr, róbbér, dóllár, author and súlphür have hardly any distinction in their final sounds.

If another vowel, unless it has a dental before it, follows the unaccented i, it often becomes hardened, especially after a short accented syllable, into the halfconsonant y: ónion, (speak onyon), piónion, minión, spániel, póniard, filial, military, million, rarely after a long syllable, as in alien; yet even here a hardening of the i is approached. The same phenomenon is also offered by the accented syllable in caviár.

If a dental t, d, s, x = cs, c, z, ch precedes the unaccented i in this case, the short i becomes commonly a modification of the dental, which is transformed into a sibilant: militia pronounced milísha, nítion, méntion, sátiate; — sóldier pronounced sóljer; — pérsian pronounced pérsh'án; — sócial pronounced sosh'ál, consciousness pronounced cónsh'ús, nóxious pronounced nóckshús; — gláziér pronounced glásh'ër; — fálchion pronounced fálchun, márchioness pronounced márshóness; yet in many words the i is suffered to sound, especially as y, as in asyán pronounced ash-yán, or even as a vowel, as in asiático, pronounced ashiático. If an s or x precedes the t, the more noble pronunciation requires the hardening of the i to y: christian = christyan, quéstion = quéstyon, mixtion = mixtyon &c. The popular pronunciation indeed suffers the t-sound to be heard, but nevertheless transforms y into sh.

b. The i remains short in some derivative terminations, in which a mute e still follows a consonant; thus constantly in the terminations ice, iée: active, native, defensive, opposite, infinite; and in substantives in iée, iée, as promise, treatise and apprénctice, jáundice, justice &c.; but not in exercise. Likewise in composition with pléce and fice: accómplice, artifice, édifice, òrifice. The derivative terminations ine and ile fluctuate partially with regard to their derivation. Those supposing the Latin i short, remain mostly: élephantine (elephantinus), crístalline, córralline, sán-guine (sanguineus); likewise imitations, as cáncrine, sáccharine, lacértine; — frágile (fragilis), fértile, sénile, fissile; yet i originally long are also shortened, as in mürine, (murinus), córvine (corvinus), vúlpine (vulpinus); — sérville (servilis), hóstile (hostilis), jóvenes and others, whereas others remain long. (diphthongs) as féline, férine, pórçine, bóvine; — gentile (gentilis) &c. The verbal termination ize remains a diphthong, as in réalize, équalize, étérnize, organize, naturalize (wherein ize may be conceived as falling under the subordinate accent). Endénize forms an
exception, because the termination does not here correspond to
the Greek τέμνει. The verbs in isse are fluctuating; ādverti-
së, éxorcíse, récogniße, have the diphthong, but not those
derived from substantives, as prémonse. Even in réconcîle
i is a diphthong.

In compounds the diphthong of the simple word is, as a rule,
retained, likewise as a compensation for the long i in words
originally Latin and Greek, as régieïde, ácrospiere &c.; in
those compounded of shire the i has however the dimmed sound
of the i: Yîorkshîre, Wîltshîre.

2) The i diphthong as ei without alteration of the accentual tinge:
   a) in an open syllable, followed by an accented syllable com-
      mencing with a vowel: âmbus, fónic, ióta, hiatus, diá-
      logism, diâmeter, miâsmal, pâcular, viâtic, diûrnal, tri-
      umphal. Except in foreign words, as niélo, piâster, siésta,
      piazzà and such like. This is also the case before
      accented syllables commencing with a consonant, when i makes
      a syllable by itself: âdéa, íráscible, íronic, irénical: i
      remains short in imâgîne, imaginary (on account of image,
      see above), also in words compounded of ín, as ínànity (from
      the Latin in-anis, compare vanus), inàugurate, where not i
      alone constitutes the syllable.

      With respect to the open syllable commencing with con-
      sonants before the accented syllable beginning with a con-
      sonant the usage fluctuates. Derivative words, whose primitives
      had the accent upon that syllable, usually retain the diphthong:
      migâtîon from mâgîrate (yet immigration, trânsmigâtîon
      from immigrate &c.) micâceous from mica; librâtio
      from librate; libràrian from library; licânte, licâcentious
      from licence; liquâtio from liquate; riválity from rivâl;
      pirátical from pirate; bîbácioust, compare imbîbe, yet imbi-
      bition; vibration from vibrate; vitality from vital; viâ-
      fic, vivificate, viviparous and others from vive Latin vivus,
      although on the other hand vivâcity; spînosity from spînous,
      spîne; citâtion from cîte; gigântic perhaps with a view to
      giânt (gîgas). Yet i is also a diphthong in nîgrészcent (Lat.
      nîgresco), nîhîlity (Lat. nîhil), trîbûnal (Lat tribunal).
      Sibèria, crîtérion Greek xîînóîor, and, perhaps with a view to
      the Latin, in dîtâtîon Lat. ditare. In compound words the pre-
      fixes bi (Latin bî), di (Greek and Latin di) tri (Greek and Lat.
      trí) have in this position the i diphthong everywhere except in
      diplôma, with its derivatives, likewise di (= Lat. di from diș):
      didùcîon, diváricate, as also under the subordinate accent.
      In other compounds original length remains as a diphthong; thus
      in those compounded with iso, Greek iôs-, pri-m —, prîmo (Lat.
      primus), with chi-r —, chi-ro (Greek χήρο) cli-no (Greek from
      zîkrîs), miçro (Greek and Lat. micro) and many such, to which
      also words like nilômeter, rhînócîros, rhîzóphûrous &c.
      belong.

b) The final i is a diphthong in Latin terminations of every kind:
amphíscíi, anthropóphagí, antíscíi, antáeci, áscíi, literáti, triúmvari; lapis lázuli; certiorári; álibi: but not in Italian words, as bandítti, bróccolí, vermicílli; however, in the foreign word rábbí, but which we often hear pronounced rábbí.

The Compounds of I with other vowels to represent sounds are ie and ieu (iew); in which, however, only the former has taken root in the language.

A) ie in the accented syllable serves
1. a) to denote the long í of the Highdutch, and therefore often answers to the English ea and ēe: as in mien, piece, priest, frieze, brief, bier, fiend, field, thief, shield, shrieke, siege, as in cáp-a-pie. Where the syllable ends in r the sound heard in the Lowdutch hier, English here, appears; tier = row, pierce, fierce, grénadiér, góndoliér, árquebusiéir.

By way of exception, the first syllable in gíereagle, gíerfalcon, which is also spelt gerfalcon, is pronounced like ger. Compare the Old-English gerfauk, gerfawcon, medieval Latin: gyrofáldco. Some also disregard the i in fierce and fierce.

b) It answers to the diphthong i, ei, in monosyllabic roots: lie, pie, fie, vie, tie, die, hie and their monosyllabic forms: dies, tiéd, as in adjectives: píed = variegated; píedness &c.; likewise in the forms of nouns and verbs in y: flíes from the substantive fly; tries from the verb try, but not in the second person present triest, where e sounds by itself = tri-est.

These sound also remains in compounds, even in the unaccented syllable: mágpie.

2) It has a short sound
a) like i in siéve = siv.
b) like e in friénd = frénd.

B) In an unaccented syllable ie, with the exception above stated, answers to the i unaccented: mischief, mischievous and very frequently in the monosyllabic forms of nouns and verb in y: citíes, dignítíes, cóuntríes; cárríes, pítíes, envied, pítied, áblebodied.

Ieu, iew the latter in one word only, belong to French forms.

Both in the accented and the unaccented syllable they answer to the sound of the diphthong û = iu, so that i almost hardens into a consonant (= ju): adiéú, lieú, view; — camáieu, púrlieu.

By way of exception ieu in an unaccented syllable is pronounced like e with a v (instead of u) in lieúténant = lèvténant compare Old-English levetennante; likewise like è in messiéure = mésyèrz. We also hear lèfténant, lèfténant and even lüténant as well as méschürz pronounced.

Y, in Old-English, often standing instead of i at the beginning of a word, now in the middle of a word in words mostly Greek, rarely persisting as the final sound of the root in inflection or composition, but commonly transmuted into i, shares the phonetic relations of i.
A) in the **accented syllable** it answers to:

1) the short **I**

- **a)** in the **close syllable**: nymph, lymph, lynx, pym, sylph, system, gypsy, h nonsop, mysticism.

**By way of exception** y before a simple r passes over into the dimmed sound, like ir Myrmidon, myrtle, also in myrrh, although before two r's belonging to different syllables the genuine t-sound remains: Pyrrho.

- **b)** in an open antepenultimate or prior syllable before an initial consonant of the following: pyramid, hypocrite, tyramny; — myriad, lydian, — hyperbôndriast, typographical  
  (on the other hand typography from typo).

**By way of exception** the original diphthong ei is heard under the subordinate accent in hymenèan, hymenèal from hymen. In compounds this is natural, as well as in those beginning with hypo and hyper, hypercritical, hyperstátical, as well as in those compounded of hydro, cyclo &c., hydrophobia, cyclopædia &c., chylifaction from chyle &c.

2) On the other hand it is a diphthong with the sound (ai) ei:

- **a)** in every accented open syllable followed by a vowel: flying, crying, dryad, myopy, h yacinth, hyades, hyloid; h yacinthin; as also in the syllables belonging to the stem and ending in y: my, thy, by, fly, dry, sly, sky, cry, apply, esp'y, den'y, descr'y, defy.

**By way of exception** my and by, when they lean proclitically on a subsequent noun, are pronounced like mè, bè, and thè undergoes the same in popular Speech. In composition, moreover, the absence of accent does not destroy the sanedei of the stem as in oursèy, kilndry.

- **b)** in the open penultimate followed by an initial consonant: cypress, tyrant.

**Exceptions**, in which instead of ei the sound of y enters, are even here to be found in words ending in ic, il, ish &c.; in ic: lyric, physic, tipic, chyamic; in il: Sylvia; in ist: chymist; inge: syringe. In panegyric, panegyrist, yr sounds like èr.

- **c)** in the syllable ending with a consonant followed by an organic or inorganic mute e: lyre, rhyme, pyre, scythe, gyve, tyme, thyme, chyle, chyme.

B) In the **unaccented syllable** y has

1) in general in the close and the open syllable the same sound as

- the unaccented i: synonymy, Egypt, physician, analysis, cyclèped, dynamical. The sound is dimmed in the final syllable yr, like yr: sót yr, márt yr, márt yrdom.

2) It is a diphthong however (ei):

- **a)** in the open syllable before the accented syllable beginning with a vowel: hýéna, myology, hýémal (by some pronounced hýemal). With regard to the open syllable, beginning with a consonant, before the accented syllable beginning with a consonant,
the maintenance of the diphthong of the stem is true, as it is of
{i: ly}ceum, týrânic, týrânnical, chylâceous, hýdâ-
tides (plural, from the sing: hýdatis), gýrâtion (from gyre)
in tôpography (from type) and other compounds. So also
in those compounded with hýpo and hýper, as hýpóstasis,
hýpótenuse &c., hýpérbolæ &c. and those with hýdro-, hýdr-
and hýgro: hýdôpic, hýdráulic &c., hýgrôlogy &c, mostly
technical expressions.

b) in some verbal terminations, as well as in their inflectional
forms: ôccupy, próphesŷ, ôccupŷing. The verbal endings
fŷ and plŷ are properly stems (-ficare, -plicare) jûstifŷ, múl-
tiplŷ &c. and are in the same predicament as other compounds:
see above.

Of combinations of the vowel y ye alone exists: it is a diph-
thong in ei: bŷe, rŷe.

E has partly the power of e, partly of i.

A) In the accented syllable it has

1) the sound of the short è

a) in the close syllable: men, neb, fetch, left, ell, help,
chess, pence, défence, présant, expénisible.

e) an excep tion is here again formed by the syllable closed by
r (even with another consonant following), in which the gut-
tural dims the e, so that it appears to have the power of ō,
although the pronunciation of the vulgar Londoner, who says
mûrcy instead of mûrcy, is false: hér, detër, fën, hêrd,
fêrvîd.

Even here the influence of the guttural is softened, when it
is followed by a second (dental) r: intérrogate; yet not when
rr concludes the stem érr.

b) In some syllables ending in r, e assumes the a-sound (er = ar):
clerk, sêrgeant; formerly in many others, as mûrchant
compare Old-Engl. marchandye; Bêrkeley compare Old-Engl.
Barcseyre Dêrby and others, and thus still, provincially, for
example in Leicestershire: marcy, desarve &c. and with the
vulgar Londoner sárâvant beside sûrant. So in other provinces
e becomes a before other consonants also; for example, in War-
wickshire: laft, fatch, batty = left, fetch, betty.

y) The short ù-sound but rarely appears, as in England, énglish
cf. Ingland also sec. XVI b. Halliwell I. p. 469 II., prêtty,
chêmistry (prounced kimistry) and clêf (where some say
clêf); yes is also often pronounced yis: compare Old-Engl. yis
(Gower) yis (Piers Ploughman); retch sounds just like
rêch.

b) in an open syllable, when the succeeding one begins with a
consonant and that accented syllable is the antepenult or prior
one; yet no double vowel, the former of which is i or e, must
follow the consonant which follows the accented syllable: né-
bula, légacy, léchery, bétony, béverage, dêvîlish, gé-
neral, génerous, génesis, several, hêsitate, hêresy;
— cémîtery, nécessary; — cêmêntation, génerâtion.
This also appears where the prefixes de and r have the principal or subordinate accent: dérogate, délégate, déliquate, référence, rélevant; déclaration, détonation.

The chief exceptions are words derived from stems with e, in which e sounds like i, that is to say ĭ, as: légalize, béhemoth, cenatory, plenary, schematism, schematist (on account of ζημων) and others; and some among those compounded of de and re, when there syllables fall under the subordinate accent, where the ē-sound else appears: décomposé, décomposé c. der., déhortation, détestation; with re this case appears, where it has the more pregnant sense of again: réposséss, reproduce, resalûte &c. Exceptions such as vehement, vehicle Lat. vehemens, vehiculum perhaps have the ĭ sound because h does not completely remove the hiatus, compare above annihilate (from Lat. nihil). In composition with prêter e under the subordinate accent remains a long ĭ: prétermit, yet short under the principal accent in prêterit; likewise in derivation, as prêterition. Prê also, Lat. præ, remains ĭ under the main accent in precept, and commonly also under the subordinate accent in presupposé, présûrûse, préconçevê, préconception and others. Exceptions of another sort are bédlery (beadlery) and many more.

2) the sound of the long ĭ, ie

a) in the accented open syllable followed by a vowel: déismo, deist, deity, real, réalize, théatre, léo, léonine, theory, déodand; also in re under the subordinate accent: réadôrn, réabsôrb; and in the accented syllable formed by a single vowel: éon, éven, évil, evening, édict, équable, équalize, équinox &c.; élasticity, éruption, érepsis; as well as in monosyllabic words ending in e: bé, hé, me, we, thė.

By way of exce'tion the e of this sort is shortened, especially in the antepenultimate accented syllables and maintains the ĭ-sound; as emulate, émanate, égotize, égotist and even égoist, as well under the subordinate accent: érubescént; also in the penultimate: éver, épode, éphod.

Among the above-named monosyllabic words the proclitic article sounds ie only when spoken emphatically; else, before vowels th̩; before consonants th̩, as glib shortness; and generally, these words, proclitically or enclitically, often lose some portion of their quantity.

b) in the o en penultimate followed by an initial consonant: lé gist, Péter, fevr, féline, cedar.

Exceptions again are here formed by many words in which ĭ appears, especially before a derivative syllable, or terminations containing i or e; in y: lévy, bêvy, replévy, véry, téchy; in id: fêtid, têpid, intêpid, gêlid; in ic: polémic, energetic, sphéric, généri and others; in ish: rélish, Rhenish, replenish, splenish, perish, blémish, Flémisch; in il. ile, (yl): pêril, bêryl, dêvil, stérile, dê-
bile; in in: résin; in it: mörit, inhérít, crédit, decré-pit, débit; in ice: crèvice, Vénice; in en: léven (other-wise léaven), éléven, séven, hélében; in el: lével, rébel, rével, bévél, dishélvel, shékél; in er: néther, néver, léper, alléger (from allége), sèver, assever, cléver, to-gethér, théré; in et: génét, ténét; in ent: clément, présent; also anomalous words, as shérriff, Zéphyrr, relict, prémiss; - lévee, prébend, désert, tréble.

Words ending in obscure vowels are here also rarer; in al: médal, métal, pétal; in age: présage; in ace: ménace, préface; in ate: prélate, légate, sénate; in ant: péendant, ténant, lieuténant; in on: mélon, lémon, félon, hérion; in or: ténor, and a few other, as séraph, hérald; — Hé-rod, méthod, vénom, envelop, second, record; — chérub, déluge, refuge, prélude, réfusé, ténure, sphé-rule, gérund; — néphew, mémoir.

c) in the accented syllable ending in a consonant, and followed by an organic or unorganic mute e: ève, glèbe, thème, thèse, Crète, hère, sévere.

Except a few words in r, in which e receives the sound of the English ã = ë, much as in the Hightdutch Ehre (dimmed by the gutteral r): ère, where, there compare Old-Engl. ar (are), ware, pare (Rob. of Gloucester). Thus too the Englishman pronounces the French commère. In weren e is shortened.

d) in the accented syllable (under the subordinate accent also), when followed by a double vowel sound, the former of which is i or e: spécies, apérient, aurélia, comédian, abbré-viate, allégiance, périod, sénior, région, génius, prévius, égregius, prémium, supersedeas, mezéreoun, meteor; under the subordinate accent: gêniàlity, dévia-tion, médiation, médiocrity, périodic, meteorology.

Exceptions are rare, as espécial, discrétion, précious.

B. In the unaccented sylláble, e, where not silent, (see the silence of the vowels) is always shortened into the power of i. This tinge comes out more distinctly in the open syllable before the accent, likewise at the end of the word, if e is audible at all, and in these positions is distinguished by a lengthening, which however is insignificant, because the attraction is weakened: depárt, sedáte, repóse, élaborate, économí, évént, and at the end of latinized Greek words: Phébe, Penélope, epitome, récipe, apócope, simile, pósse, also in puisne (sometimes spelt püny). It is strictly long in the latinized Greek termination es: ambágès, antípodes. The i-sound comes out less decidedly in an originally close syllable: restlessness, pôt, cóvet, hélmet, quárrel, bárren, linen; more distinctly in the termination es after a sibilant: boxes, faces, ashes, he débáses.

In the syllable er it is equal to the dimmed ir, ur: pertúrb, persuáde, número, partáker, even in émperor (compare Old-Engl. pepir = pepper, aftur, hongur, longur), softened by the subsequent consonant: cómmerce. It is to be observed that
the final *bre*, *tre*, *cre*, *gre* are exactly equal to the unaccented *ber*,
*ter*, *cer*, *ger*, as they were often spelt in the older English and still
sometimes are; and that final sounds such as *payer*, *player*,
*slayer* are hardly to be distinguished from those in *care*, *fair*.

Lastly we must also remark the influence of the nasal *n* (in *ent*,
*ence*) on the obscurer tinge of the unaccented *e* (approaching the
English *i*): *prüfent*, *ächtent*, *aümendment*, *órnament*, *décence*,
*excellence*.

Of combinations of *e* with other vowels, to represent vowel (and
diphthongal) sounds, *ee*, *ei*, *ey*, *ea*, *eau*, *eo*, *eu* and *ew*
are to be cited.

*ee* is chiefly found

A) in the *accented* syllable, and serves there
almost solely to represent the long *i*, *ie*, equal to the English *ê*:
needle, bleeed, frée, féeling, caréen, caréer, debtée, bargainée.

In Beelzebub both *e’s* are to be pronounced; it sounds Beélzebub
or Béélzebub. In *e’er* instead of *ever* and *ne’er* instead of *never*
*e’er* is pronounced like *ere* in *there*.

By way of exception *ee* appears shortened into *i* in *been* (Old-
Engl. *ben*) and in common life in *threepenny*, *thréepence* (= *thripenny*,- *ence*); we also pronounce *breeches* (from *sing.
breech*) like *britches*: compare Old-Engl. *brych* (Rob. of GLOU-
CERST). B) In the unaccented syllable *ee* is shortened like the unaccented *e*
of the power of *e*: *coffee*, *committee*, *lévee* (according to some
levée); in *juiblee* we use to leave to *ee* the long sound.

*ei* and *ey*, whereof the former belongs chiefly, though not exclu-
sively, to the end of stems and to some derivative terminations, are
equivalent in their phonetic relations, and are divided into the *e*-, the
*i*-, and *ei*-

A) In the *accented* syllable *ei* has

1) commonly the sound of the long *ê* or the English *â* and *á*:
eight, neigh, *né*ighbour, vein, deign, obéisance. Before
*r* it receives the dimmed sound as in *there*: their, theirs,
*heir*, *héress*.

2) sometimes that of the *long* *i*, *ie*, Engl. *ê*: *céil*, *cêiling*, *sêize*,
séizin, sêine, *sêignior*, re-per-de-con-cêive, decêit,
concêit, recêipt, invêigle, léizure, and in propernames as
Leigh, Leîth, Kêil, Kêith, Kêighley, Kéightley &c. In
Pléïads the pronunciation divides plê-yads.

3) still more unusual is the *diphthong* sound *ei*, like the English *î*
in *height* (from *high*), sleîght, heîgh-ho! In *éither* and
*néither* too some think to hear the diphthong *ei*.

By way of exception we pronounce *ei* as a short *ê*, English *ê*
in *héifer* and in *nonpareil*.

B) In the *unaccented* syllable it answers to the short *i*: *fôreign*,
*sôvereign*, *fôrfeît*, *sûrfeiT*, *côunterfeiT*.

*ey* has

A) in the accented syllable
1) usually the sound of the long ē: trey, grey, they, hey! obéy, convey, Heytsbury; before r with a dimmed vowel, as in there: eyre, ëry, on the other hand, also spelt ërie, is pronounced with ë.
2) as a long ï in key, lëy (for which also léa stands).
3) as ei diphthong in ëye, eyliad (pronounced il-yad) and eyas.
B) In the unaccented syllable ey answers to the short ñ, ï: alley, bärley, chimney, causey, Turkey, Sidney.

ea makes sometimes the e-sound, sometimes the i-sound predominant. Linguistic usage does not divide shortness and length by fixed etymological or orthoepical principles.

A) In the accented syllable ea represents
1) frequently the sound of the short ē (English e):
a) mostly in a close syllable, and especially when ea is followed in position by more than one consonant: bréast, abréast, hëalth, stéalth, wéalth, brédath, rëal; in verbal forms: dréant, lëant, méant, déalt, lëapt (otherwise spelt leaped) and in cléanse; in the compounds cléanly c. deriv.; in the compound breàkfast also ea has been shortened; the same takes place in tréadle from trëad. The derivatives of sëam remain unshortened, although sempster is spelt along with sémster.

If in this case r stands immediately after ea ë is dimmed like ē before r: ëarn, lëarn, yëarn, ëarnest, ëarl, pëarl, ëarly, hëard, ëarth, dëarth, hëarse, rehëarse, sëarch, resëarch.

Except bëard, with ë. ea in position before r rarely passes into the sound a (ä), which fluctuates between length and shortness in hëárken, hëart and hërth (by some pronounced hërth).

But even in some words ending in a simple consonant, with their inflectional forms and derivatives and in compounds êa is short ê. They mostly end in d, t and th, and one in f: lëad, rëad (from rëad), rëady, brëad, dëad, drëad, trëad, thëad, stëad, spëad. hëad; thëat, swëat; dëath, brëath; dëaf; consequently also in lëaden, rëady, dëaden, thëadren, thëaten; dëafen, drëader; in ahëad, behëad, instëad, bestëad, alrëady, stëadfast &c. but not in brëathe &c.

b. in the open syllable we find ëa short in hëavy; lëaven, hëaven; léather, fëather, wéather, trëachery, pëasant, phëasant, pëlasant, mëadow; wëapon; endëavour; zëalot; méasure, plëasure, trëasure.

2) Moreover ea represents a long vowel both in the open and the close syllable, and that the long ë (Engl. ë): léa, pëa, plëa, flëa, sëa, éach, pëak, lëague, shëath, pëace, bëast, appëar, hëar, bëaver, créature &c.

By way of exception ea has in a few words the sound of ë (Engl. æ): greàt, break, steak; before r it sounds in this case like ë in there: pëar, bëar, teár (= to rend), swëar. Dialectically the sound ë is often used for ea; thus in Warwickshire sëa sounds like say, mëat like mait.
B) In the **unaccented syllable** ea, as representing a single vowel sound, is rare. It is then equivalent to the unaccented e or y with the power of i: guinea pronounced ghinny; Anglesea sounds like Anglesey, which is also written; longer in collégue. Ea is found elsewhere as an original double syllable, in which, however e is often hardened into y consonant, and then enters into combination with the consonant, or ensures the dental sound to a guttural: pageant, vengeance, ocean (pronounced ōsh'ın). In compounds the e-sound remains: bééstëad.

**eau sounds**

A) in the **accented syllable** like along o: beau, bureau; yet like ū (iū) in beauty.

B) in the **unaccented syllable** it loses little of its quantity as ō: flâmbeau. portmánteau.

**eo**, like the last combination, seldom employed to represent a sound, is

A) in the **accented syllable**:

1) to be pronounced like a long ï in pōple, Thēobald.
2) like a long ō in: yeōman, yeōmåny; where some pronounce it like ē, others like ū: compare Old-Engl. ȝeman, ye.man. In George e only serves to denote the softening of the original guttural; else eo forms two vowel sounds as in géotic.
3) eo is pronounced like iú in féód, with its derivatives, which is also spelt feud. Galleón sounds according to some galoon, usually gál-lë-on.
4) it is pronounced like a short ě in féoff and its derivatives féof-f, féoffment &c., lēopard, jēorpordy and jēofail (= jéf-fail).

B) It does not occur in an **unaccented syllable**; where eon seems to be the final sound, e serves to indicate the softening of an original guttural: trüncheon, scútcheon, wīdgeon, dúnegeon, hābergeon.

**eu** and **ew** are essentially equivalent to each other.

**eu** is

A) in the **accented syllable**, equivalent to ū (iū): Europë, feûd, deûce; the i-sound weak in itself, as it passes over into the y-sound, becomes unobservable after r (rh): rheûmatism.

B) In the **unaccented syllable** -eur is pronounced like -yûr in grán-deur; by some like jur.

**ew sounds**

A) in the **accented syllable** like ū (iū): ewry, ewer, new, few, dew, Tewksbury; also with a following mute e: ewe. The i-sound is here also unobservable after r: brew, drew, crew, shrewd; almost so after l: lewd, Lewis; as well as after an initial j: Jew, jewél.

**By way of exception** the long ō is denoted by ew: sew, shew, strew now commonly spelt with ow. Sewer = a drain is pronounced like soor or söer, and even shör.
B) In the unaccented syllable the sound iú loses something of its quantity: nêphew, cărfew; after r, i here totally vanishes: hé-
brew, yet not with l: cărlëw.

A fluctuates in its phonetic relations and its quantity in many ways, not merely under the influence of the open or close syllable, but also of the final consonant. It denotes the sound of a and e, receives a sound lying between a and e, even that of o, and even ranges sometimes in the unaccented syllable into i.

A) In the accented syllable a has

1) the short sound, coming near to the Highdutch á, if we bring this a shade nearer to a.

a) in general in the close accented syllable: äm, ädd, mäp, päck, fäct, scrätx, äspec, sädness, däffodil. Syllables in which a consonant follows n, f and s have a feeble inclination to lengthen it, as in plänt, command, cräft, gräss, gräsp &c., in which formerly the vowel sound was broadened, which is no longer done.

Exceptions are here dependent on initial and final consonants

a) The short vowel answers to the short å, English ö or shortened English aw, when preceded by u or w, and not followed by a simple r or l: quab, quash, quântum, quântity, quândary, squab, squash, squat, squad, wan, wand, wâmble, wash, was, wânton, swan; before rr and ll in quärrel, quârry, wárrey, wárrior, wâllov, wâllop, wâllet; also before dr, which here makes position in an originally open syllable: quàdrait, quàdron, quàdtrature. Of those beginning with wh what and whap (also spelt whop) belong here.

Quâf and quàg c. der., wâft, wâggon, wâg remain true to the rule.

Of other words chap, pl. chaps, and the verb to chap (also pronounced chäp) follow the exception, in contradistinction to the other châp (= chëapener and châpman), yâcht (pronounced yët) and scâllop (pronounced scöllop); in common life also slâbber; according to some also jâláp instead of jâlap

b) Under the influence of a following r and l this a (d) becomes long:

1. where qu, w, wh precede the a, which is followed by an r or r together with another consonant: quàrt, quàrter, wâr, wârd, wârt, whârf.

2. In stems ending in ll, with their derivatives and compounds, even where these lose an l: áll, bâll, fâll, wâll, instâll, appâl, withâl; — càlling, appâlment; — âlso, âlways, wâlrus and in the foreign word Bengâl.

Where a simple stem is not found in English the word in ll follows the rule: tàllow, pâllet, bâllast &c., gâllic and many more.

3. where l stands in a syllable long by position before the dentals d and t: âlder, âlderman, Álderney, bâld, bâl-

dric, bällderdash, fältage, fältstool, scáld, chäl-
dron, căldron, Kirkäldy; — álter, álter, Alton, pálter pältrey, Bältic, Báltimore, fältar, wälttron, wältz, hält, hälter, exált, basált; — sált and målt
on the contrary are often pronounced with a short å. Foreign
words, such as bälldachin, basaltes &c. retain regularly
the short å.

The sound of the long å, is rare in another position, as
with s in hálse (to embrace) palsy, pálgrave, bálsm, fálse, fälchion, and on account of the collision with s in
pronunciation, also in Sállisbury pronounced sálzbery; more
rare with a labial letter, as in Wälpole, Trälbot, Albany,
according to some also in pälfrey and hálberd, where,
however, å is pre ferred. Wälnut has likewise a long å.

4. Lastly a long å also prevails where l is silent before a guttural, c or k: bált, wält, tält, stält, chált, cält, mältkin (otherwise spelt mawkin, maukin), fältcon; so also
before s in hálse (otherwise spelt hawse) and hálser.

g) A has the sound of the long Hightdutch å in a close syllable:
1. in words in th: láth, báth, páth. Wrath is shortened by some; scath, on the other hand mostly pronounced with
a short å.

2. in words in which l is silent before m, f and v: álms, ál-
omer, álmond, pälmer, bälm, cálm, mälmsøy, half, cálf, sälve, hälve, cälves. In hálm and shálm (other-
wise spelt shawn) it is pronounced like a long å: in ál-
manac it is shortened according to the rule; the compounds
hålfpenny, hålfpence sound like hápenny &c. with a
long ó, according to some hóppenny &c.

j) In the accented syllables ending in r or r together with another
consonant following, and generally in position before other consonants (except in the cases specified under 1 and 3. 1.) å is
lengthened and broadened by the guttural, although many deem
dyllables of this sort short: bår, stär, càr, árm, àrt, regärd, càrp, märble, mærches, sårcaem, chärcoal, bärbarism. Where r is doubled in derivatives this vowel
sound remains: stárry, chàrry, tãrry; so also in pärri-
cide; but in general the rule otherwise general comes into
operation with rr: ärrow, mãrry, tãrry, pàrrrot, sàrra-
cine. — In chàr and in scàrce å is pronounced like a
long ó.

s) A receives the sound of the long ø (Engl. å) in position be-
fore n and dental g: mäng, stränge, mängy, dänger,
mängar (but not in ängélic with an advancing accent); so
too in words in äste with their derivatives, where the influence
of the mute e takes effect after the double consonant: päste,
chåste, håste; pástrey, pásty, hästy, chåstên, håsten
(in the two last with the silent t) but not in chüstity,
chåstize. In some words the å-sound appears before mb:
chåmber, chámberlain, cåmbrie, Cåmbridge; åmb-
ace: before ne in åncient; likewise before ss in bàss.
b) The short ā also stands in the open antepenultimate or prior syllable, if the following one begins with a consonant, not, however, followed by two vowels the former whereof is i or e: lāteral, rādical, bōzanite, fāmily, fātuous; gātherable, comparative, lāpidary; lāterally; lāpidārian, lāteritious, cīmeralistic. This also appears where a constitutes originally a syllable by itself: āmorous, āmical, ānimal, āpennine, āperture, ādeling, ānagram. The exceptions are mostly words derived from English stems with long ā, such as: cāpable, cāpableness, ēbleness, plācable, sānable, sāvoury, stātary, bābery &c.

2. A has the sound of the long ē:

a) In the accente open syllable followed by one vowel: lāical, lāity, cáolin, pharisaical, Archelāus; the case is rare, where a, by itself constituting a syllable, represents a long ē under the principal or subordinate accent: āer, āorist, ācorn, āmen; in derivatives from long syllables, as āpish, knāvishness, ābly; very unusual in the antepenultimate and farther back, as in ācrasy, ābeedarian.

b) In the open penultimate followed āy an initial consonant: lābour, lādy, nāvy, pātron, bāsis, vāry, creator, scābrous, — meditative.

«) Here again is found a considerable string of exceptions, where a short ā again occurs, mostly before derivative syllables with i or e: before terminations in id: ārid, āvid, ēcid, rāpid, rābid, vālid, invālid, vāpid, plācid, tābid, cālid; in ic: māgic, pānic, bārbāric, fābric, trāgic; in ǣh: lāvish, rāvish, pārish, bānish, fāmish, vānish, spānish; in ĭl, ĭle: cāvil, āgile, fācile, frāgile; in ĭt, ĭte: ēhbit, īnhābit, āgrānite; in ĭn, ĭne: mātīn, lātin, rāvin, bāvin, sāpin, sāvin or sābine, sātin, spāvin, cābin; ĭmāgine, ĭxāmine, rāpine, fāmine; in ĭce, ĭse: āmīce, mālice, mātrīce, ānice; in ĭn: rāven in contradistinction to rāven (a bird); in el: enāmel, rāvel, pānel, trāvel, jāvel, chāpel, cāmel, grāvel; in et, ette: plānet, vālet, tāblet, clāret; pālette; in ern: tāvern, cāvern; in ent: tālent, pātent; and singular cases, as zāny, tārif, tānist, cālends, lāther, ādept, trāverse, trāject &c.

Words in age have obscure vowels: ādage, mānage, mismānage, disāpärage, rāvage, dāmage, sāavage; in at, ate: cārat; āgate, pālate; in ass, ace: pālace; mātrass, hārass; in ant and ance: pāgeant; bāalance, vālance; in ard: hāzard, hāgard; in on: bāron, fāgon, tālon, cānon; in om: ātom, fāthom; in or, our: mānor, vālour, clāmour; in ue: vālue, stātue and a few others, as lázar, dāmask, plātane, sālad, scārab, ānarch; shādow; cārol, fāgot, hāvock; ālum, lārum or alārum, gāmut, stātūre, stātute, also shāmois. Sātire and sātyr are likewise mostly shortened; but Sātan is mostly pronounced with a long ā.
A. A answers to the short ē in any, many; compare Old-Engl. eny (Rob. of Gloucester); likewise in Thames (with mute e) pronounced temz Old-Engl. Temese.

b. The sound of the long ă (ā) is given to wāter, Wāterford and Rāleigh.

c) in the syllable ending with a consonant, and followed by an organic or unorganic mute e: āpe, māce, làne, rāge, dāte, tàme, collāte. If r precedes the mute e, the guttural tinges the ā, so that it approaches nearer to the Highdutch à: māre, shāre, bāre, căre.

Except hāve, bāde, in which a is ā short.
In āte (also spelt eat) it sounds like ē (ē).
In āre, from to be, a sounds like a german ā.

d) in the accented syllable, if followed by a double vowel, the former whereof is i or e: āpiary, āsian, nāiad (pronounced nāyad), bacchanālian, barbarian, acācia, emāciate, reputation, occasion, various, spācious, sagācious, rādius, epithalāmium, sānies, sāpience, pātient; gālea, subterrāneous, illāqueate, nectāreous, ãquous &c.

Here, however, we find many exceptions; a is shortened into ā, especially before iō, where no dental precedes: compānion, battālion, tātterdemālion, clārion, chāriot, gāliot; but also else: glādiate, retāliate, vāliant, spāniel, gāseous, āgio &c.; even gymnāsiun.

Also occasionally in further derivation even an a is shortened in such a case, as in nātional, nātionalize (from nātion), rātional, rātionalist (from rātio).

B) In the unaccented syllable the vowel a becomes obscured, through the more glib utterance, into a sound of the power of o, approaching the English ā spoken glibly; thus in an open syllable before initial consonants: alōne, abāck, ádamant, mīracle; as well as where it is the final sound: Africa, álpha, drāma; and this is the predicament of the prolocitic article a in a book; less so in a close syllable, in which the sound is nearer that of ā: accēpt, plūral, cápital, ádamant, álmanac; in compounds, as Highlands, Hōlland. This sound is more obscure before a final r: dōllar, liar, pōlar, partāke, mústard, óutward.

A remains nearer the long ē in quantity and colour before vowels: Aōnian, áórta, āérial, cháotic, árchaism; likewise in the final ade and ate (this latter, however, only in the verbal termination): cómrāde, óperāte; in words like rēnegāde, óperātive a falls even under the subordinate accent.

In the terminations age and ate (as a termination of nouns) the ē-sound inclines towards the clearer i: péerage, village, pátronage, bárorage; òbstinate, fōrtunate, illìerate; also in the terminations ace and ase: pálace (compare Old-Engl. paleis), sōlace, pürchase.

The sound of the short ā (Engl. ő) is also maintained in the unaccented syllable of all words beginning with quadr-, as qua-drātic &c.
The long ã (ã) remains in the prefix ãl: ãlthough, ãlready, ãlmighty; and is heard in jãckãl, of course also in cátcãll, as a compound.

As compounds of a with vowels to represent simple sounds, aa, ae, ai, ay, ao, au and aw occur, of which aa and ao have hardly found admission.

Aa seldom occurs as one syllable, although the two syllables easily coalesce into one.

A) In the accented syllable aa appears

1) with the sound ë, almost the same as in āaron, in which this sound only arises through the confluence of ã ã; in Bãal, Gãal, Lãadan and others these syllables are more decidedly separated.

2) On the other hand aa occurs in modern foreign names with the sound of the long ã (ã), for example, in āar, bazãar, Sãar-bruck, Sãal, Sãale; similarly, ma’am (= mãdãm) is popularly contracted into one sound. The English verb baa is perhaps the only English word with ã.

3) aa sounds like ã long (ã) in ãalborg.

B) In the unaccented syllable the two a's blend in such words as Ísaac, Bãlsam, Cãnaan into one a, which is somewhat shortened in quantity.

Ae appears in foreign words mostly in the form æ, particularly in Greek and Latin words.

A) In the accented open syllable

1) æ has usually

a) the sound of the long ï (ie): ëgis, ðæan, ðæmon, Cãsar, Ælia, Æacus, Æantãum (conformably with the rules for e).

Here appears in proparoxytones the sound of the short ë: Dëdalus and others; so too under the subordinate accent: ëstivãtion, ënôbãrbus, ærugïneous; yet not without exception, since even here a long ï appears, as, for instance, in Ægipan, Æginéta and others. Occasionally e is written instead of æ, especially where it is short, as in ëstital, ëstitivãtion; but also for æ long, as in Ýgyp.

b) in syllables long by position æ has the sound of the short ë: Ætna, ëstitivãtion.

2) æ written separate has on the other hand

a) the sound of the long ë (Engl. ã) in such names as Mæes, and in Gãel, gãelic (properly Gã-el, but commonly pronounced = gãl); also ãeriform, ãeronaut are spoken with a silent e.

b) short ë occurs in a syllable long by position, as in Maëstricht (pronounced mëstrikt).

B) In the unaccented syllable æ appears as ï (ie), analogously to ë, mostly in an open syllable immediately before the accented syllable: Æthûsa, phãnômenon, ãesûra; but also in its original position, for instance in ãësthetic. — In Michael the two syllables æ-el are usually blended into one; in Michaëlmass æ is to be regarded as totally neglected.

Mätzner, engl. Gr. I.
Ai and ay are related to each other like ei and ey, so that ay commonly appears at the end of stems or derivatives, ai at the beginning and in the middle.

A) in the accented syllable
1) regularly the sound of the long ē (Engl. ā): āim, āid, pāin, pāil, faith, tāil, maiden, bālliwick, obtāin. Before r the sound becomes deeper, as in pāir, fāir, chāire, glāire, lāird.
   In aisle, ai is spoken like ā.

Occasionally in the close syllable ai receives the sound of the short ā: plāid, rāillery; according to some also in plāintiff, commonly pronounced plāintiff.

In some words it sounds ē: wāinscōt (pronounced w’en scot), said, saith and says from to säy, compare Old-Engl. sede, ysed; wāistcōat also is pronounced in common life wēscōat. Orthoepists almost unanimously give the pronunciation of ai in against, some even in again, as that of ē. Compare Old-Engl. ažen, ayenst.

B) In the unaccented syllable ai standing alone before the accented syllable is ē long: āizōum, likewise in the close syllable māintāin (according to some like ā) and in the middle of an open syllable: bāttāilōsus (according to some like battalous in Milton).

In the unaccented final syllable ai is mostly shortened into the power of i, as in mōuntain, Brītain, fōuntain, villain, cáptain, chāplain, cūrtain, trāvail &c. Compare Old-Engl. parfit, modern French parfait, Old French parfet, parft.

Ay passes likewise
A) in the accented syllable
1) for a long ē (Engl. ā): pāy, dāy, awāy, delāy, plāyer, plāyhouse; in the word māyor o is disregarded, so that it sounds like māre.

Quay, according to Sheridan equal to kā, is generally pronounced like ke (ki); so too in quāyage.
It sounds like a short ē in says (see above).

In ay=yeś, the two vowels are sounded: ā-i.

B) In the unaccented syllable the ē-sound becomes somewhat shortened; more observable in common life in the names of the days of the weeks: Sūnday, Mōnday &c. almost ā. Mōray is pronounced like Mùrrē.

Ao serves to represent a vowel only in gāol, gāoler, which are pronounced and even spelt īal, īalier. Cāoutchouc is pronounced like the English coōchōok (with a long and a short u).

Au and aw are equal in their phonetic relations, so that they often interchange with each other in writing at the beginning of a syllable, as they did in former times especially.

Au represents
A) in the accented syllable chiefly
1) the sound of the long ā (ā): ŝaught, tāught, dāughter, lāud, sāuce, vāult, āutumn, sāusage, āutobiography.
In modern times \textit{au} before an \textit{n} is exceptionally pronounced like a long \textit{a} (\text{\`a}): \textit{aunt}, \textit{t\`aunt}, \textit{d\`aunt}, \textit{j\`aunt}, \textit{g\`aunt}, \textit{m\`aund}, \textit{l\`aunc}, \textit{p\`aunc}, \textit{cr\`aunc}; \textit{l\`aundress}, \textit{j\`aundice}, \textit{l\`aundrey}, \textit{s\`aunter}, \textit{sk\`aunce}, \textit{St\`aunton}, \textit{L\`aunceton} \&c. Some such words have nevertheless collateral forms in \textit{an} and are derived from words in \textit{an}. Many orthoepists give many of these however the \textit{\`a}-sound; most give it to the verb to \textit{v\`aunt} in contradistinction to \textit{v\`aunt} = \textit{van}.

Also before \textit{gh} the same sound is given to the \textit{au}, in: dr\`augh (also spelt dr\`aff) dr\`aughts, l\`augh (where \textit{gh} sounds like \textit{f}).

So too in some French words the sound of the French \textit{au} = \textit{\`o}, is preserved: h\`au\`tbo\`y, mar\`a\`nder, roquel\`aure.

In gauge, French jange, \textit{au} is pronounced like the English \text{\`a} (= \textit{g\`e}).

2) \textbf{Short \textit{\`a} (Engl. \textit{\`o}) represents \textit{au} in l\`aurel, l\`aundanum and, according to some, also in c\`auliflower.}

\textbf{B) In the unaccented syllable} \textit{au} retains the sound of the long \textit{\`a} (\text{\`a}): aust\`ere, auth\`ority; in d\`ebauch\`ee the unaccented \textit{au} has the slightly shortened sound of the long \textit{\`o}. In the compound haut\`g\`out it retains the French pronunciation.

\textit{Aw}, often interchanging with an initial \textit{au}, but never with a final \textit{au} in genuinely English words, has always the sound of the long \textit{\`a}: dr\`aw, h\`awk, t\`awny, t\`awdry, awkward.

\textit{O} is analogous to \textit{a} in receiving, in a higher degree than other vowels, a particular tinge from the succeeding consonant.

\textbf{A) In the accented syllable the \textit{o} receives}

1) \textbf{the short sound \textit{\`a} (Engl. \textit{\`o}), answering to the long \textit{\`a} (Engl. \textit{aw, au})}

a) \textbf{in the close syllable: \textit{\`o}f; \textit{\`o}x, r\`o\`b, p\`o\`mp, pr\`o\`mpt, f\`o\`nt, s\`o\`ng, l\`o\`dge, cr\`o\`tch, c\`o\`nfident, c\`o\`mpromise, c\`o\`mpo\`sition. Words in \textit{ff}, \textit{ft}, \textit{ss}, \textit{st} and \textit{th}, undergo a lengthening in pronunciation, as \textit{off}, \textit{coffee}, \textit{often}, \textit{moss}, \textit{toss}, \textit{gloss}, \textit{lost}, \textit{tost}, \textit{troth}, \textit{cloth}; yet modern orthoepists limit this lengthening to \textit{o} before \textit{ss}, \textit{st} and \textit{th}.}

\textit{\textit{e}}) \textbf{An exception is made by syllables ending with a single \textit{r}, or with \textit{r} before another consonant, in which the guttural occasions a lengthening and deepening of the vowel sound: nor, for, abh\`or, orb, thor\`p, short, Lord, north, form, horse, corpse \&c; f\`o\`rmer, en\`o\`r\`mous \&c.}

We find a more decided prolongation of the vowel in port (and except imp\'ort\'ant, imp\'ortun\'ate c. der. everywhere in the syllable port), fort, sport, ford, sword, for\`th, corps, porch, p\`ork, f\`orm (= bench), w\`orn, t\`orn, sh\`orn, h\`orde, f\`orce, f\`orge, div\`orce. Two \textit{r}'s restore the shortness: h\`or\`ror, h\`or\`rent.

\textit{\textit{\textit{f}}} \textbf{\textit{o} before \textit{r}, when the vowel is preceded by \textit{w}, has the sound of the short \textit{\`o}, Engl. \textit{\`u} (which, as a shortening of the long \textit{\`o}, yet with a shade of the High\`dutch \textit{\`o}, is to be regarded as similar to the inclination of the short \textit{\`a} towards the High-}
dutch ā): worm, word, world, worse, wórship, worst, worth, and even before double r in worry; similarly with w preceding n in won (from to win, but not wón = to dwell) wón·der, and, on account of the prefixing of a w, not written, in one, once; compare won = one (CHAUCER) wan and wance in dialects.

But also in other words o becomes ō in pronunciation without a w's preceding, especially before n and m, as in ton, son, in möneý, monetary even in an open syllable; fronts, afrón·t, món·day, month; particularly when the n is followed by a guttural: monk, món·key, móng·er, món·grel, món·corn, amón·g, amón·gst, bón·grace; also in sponge, allón·ge; and when a labial or m follows the m: lomp, rhomb, bomb, bómbast, bómbasin, póm·mage, póm·mel, póm·pion.

Here also occurs a number of words with the prefix con and com (whereas others retain ō): cónduit, cónjure, cón·stable; cómpass, cómpany, cómbat, cómfit, cómfuture, cómfort, discómfit, discómfur·ture &c.; also cómfrey the name of a plant. The same sound also takes place in attórn, attó·ney, as well as in dost and doth (from to do).

γ) It receives the sound of the long ō before a final l, before ld, lt: ról·l, stróll, óld, ból·d, gold, Bol·ton, sóldi·er, ból·t, cólt &c.; rarely before a simple l: patrół, párasól, and before lst: bol·ster, hó·lster; also before a silent l: fólk.

ō remains short in lóll, dóll; of course also in fóllow, hó·llow.

In a few words in ss, st and th this prolongation likewise exists: gróss, engross; móst (of course also in compounds in the unaccented syllable: úmmost &c.), póst, hóst, ghóst; lóth (also lóath), bót·h, slóth (compare Old-Engl. slóthe SKEL·TON ed. DYCE I. p. CVII).

By some quoth is placed here; yet it is more correctly pronounced with short u; compare Anglo-Sax: cv ōd with short ā.

Of other words belong here cómb, ómber, ónly and dón't, wón't.

δ) o sounds like a short Highdutch ú (Engl. ōo) in wolf, Wól·ston, Wól·stoncraft, Wól·sey, Wól·verhám·pton, Wór·cester (pronounced wooster) and wór·sted (by some pronounced woosted with a rejected r) góm (= man).

ε) Lastly like a long Highdutch ú in whom, womb, tomb.

b) The sound of the short ā (ō) prevails also in the accented antepenultimate or prior open syllable, unless the initial consonant of the following is not followed by a double vowel beginning with i or e: ómínous, pópulace, córró·borate, astőn·ishment, cúri·ó·sity; in compounds: apó·logy, astrô·nomy, bi·og·raphy &c. — dé·popü·låtion, dé·nomi·na·tion, có·ron·né·tion, pró·sec·å·tion.

O is, however, exceptionally a long ō not only in derivative words with light derivative termination, as: có·gency, só·lary,
vōtary, vōtaress, vōtarist, nōtable; but also in those compounded with próto: prótocol, prótoplast, prótype, prótomártyr.
In other words it has the sound of the short English û: có-lander, cóvenant, sóvereign, sómerset and sómersault, and drómedary.
chórister is pronounced like quirrrister.
2) The sound of the long ō:
a) in the accented open syllable followed by a vowel: pōet, pōem, pōetry, bóa, Mōab, Mōaphēnes; as well as where o makes a syllable of itself: ōmen, ōver, ōval, ōvary, except ōlid, ōrange; and where it is the final sound: ló! bō! hō! nō, prō, frō, sō, gō, ūndergō, also with an h after it: ōh!
From the last case are excepted with the sound ū (Engl. ōo): who, do, adó, of course also in dōing, and to, which becomes essentially shortened proclitically as a preposition, and also before the infinitive, and preserves the u-sound more decidedly only before vowels. To, however, sounds tö in tōward, tōwards.
b) in the penultimate open syllable followed by an initial consonant: pōtent, dōtard, cōlon, cōgent.
The exceptions which take place here are not so many as with the vowels e and a; yet they are split into three sorts:
a) Words in y have the sound of the short ā (ā): bódy, cópy; in id: parótid, flóríd, sólíd; in ic: apostólic, históric, tónic; in ish: mōnish, admōnish, astónish, pólish, abólish, demólish; in ile: dócile; in it: prófit, vómít, repósit, depósit; in in: róbín, rósin; in ice, ise: nóvice, bódice, promise; in el: módel, nóvel, bróthel, hóvel, gróvel; in er: próper, hóver, chóler; in et: próphet, cómet, clóset; in est: módest, hónest, fórest; and anomalous words as Córhint, próvince, Florence, móderm, próblem, prócess, prógress, próject, próverb, sólémn, Róbert, lōzenge.
Much rarer are obscure vowels in the final syllable, age in fórage, hómage; al: móral, córal; ule: módule, nóodule, glóbule; and in anomalous words: mónd, móarch, grógram; hónour, prólogue, jócund, cólumn, próduce, próduct, vólume.
Some words have the sound of the English short ū: cóny (yet else pronounced cóny; the former popularly), móney, hóney, stómach, rómage (also spelt runnage); bórage, bórough, thórough; cōlour; cóvey; óven, slóven, cō- vin; cōver, recóver, cōvert, plóver, góvern; cólonel (pronounced cūrnel); shōvel; cōvet; óther, móther, pó- ther, bróther, smóther, nóthing; cózen (also coz), dó- zen; commonly also the compound twópence.
ɔ sounds like û (Engl. ōo) in bósom and the compound wō- man, in the plural of which it is like i: wōmen.
c) in the syllable ending in a consonant with a subsequent mute \(e\): whole, throné, dote, code, slope, globe, thöse, głöze; the vowel is dimmed before \(r\): shöre.

o sounds exceptionally like a long \(\ddot{u}\) (Engl. \(\ddot{o}\)) in Frome (a town in Somerset), move, prove, behöve) (also spelt behouve), lose, whose and gambóge; — occasionally like a short English \(\ddot{u}\) in: some, come, becöme; done, none, one (see above); love, dove, shove, glove, aböve.

On the contrary it has the sound of the short \(\ddot{o}\) in göne, begöne &c., shöne. Some give to the participle göne the broader sound; compare the Lowdutch gân.

d) in the accented syllable before the initial consonant followed by two vowels, whereof the former is \(i\) or \(e\): quötent, crö-sier, censőrian, ambrősia, ambrősial, collőquial, ző-diac, öpiate, foliage, schőliast, főlio, explősion, dëvo-tion, empőrům; hýperfőrean, corpőreal, petróleum. Solitary exceptions, as töpiary, önion, pöniard and a few others occur even here.

B) In the unaccented syllable \(o\) in general is shortened, both in the open and the close syllable, as also where the close syllable is followed by a mute \(e\); yet it preserves its accental tinge in a higher degree than \(a\), except in final syllables. Here it mostly passes over, like \(a\), into the dimmer sound, which approaches the English \(\ddot{u}\).

The sound of \(o\) can therefore in general be considered as losing less of its otherwise determined quantity before the accented syllable; as, for example, where it makes a syllable by itself: omit, oměntum, obéy, tobácco; and even in the close syllable: pom-pósity, pollůte, dëmonstrátion; whereas after the accented syllable in the interior of the word the sound appears slighter and weaken in its accental tinge: hármony, cómmoner. At the end, on the other hand, it loses essentially, as in kíngdom, mé-thod; Húdson, Hóuston, Richmònd; even where a mute \(e\) would seem to maintain it clearer, for example, in the termination some: händsome; quärrelsome. Even in compounds, as tôuch-stone, lúmestone, Êddystone, it is dimmed, as in púrpose; and almost as much in pédagogue, dïalogue, dëmagogue and the like, wherein the composition is no longer sensible.

Or is also equivalent to the final syllables \(ir\), \(er\), \(ar\): áctor, émperor, érror, órator, whereas the final syllable is suffered to come forth clearer in words recognized as Latin ones, as in stúpor, cálor. Thus it happens that, before \(n\) in many frequent words in ton, son and some others, \(o\) is to be considered as totally silent (see below); whereas elsewhere before the nasal a short, rapid \(\ddot{o}\) is adhered to, even in this position, as in dëmon, félon, unison, horízon, sëxton &c.

The combinations in which \(o\) is employed to represent vowel sounds are oo, oe (and \(e\)), oi, oy, oa, ou and ow.

Oo serves essentially

A) in the accented syllable ever
to represent the long ü: loo, too, boom, gloom, spoon, tool, poor, boot, food, roost; loose, choose, oozë, soothe.

Usage has exceptionally favoured α) a shortening of the ü into ū in syllables ending with the guttural k, as well as in some ending with d, and even with l: look, rook, book, brook, shooë, hook, cook and crook; — foot, soot; — wood, stood, hood, good; — wool.

β) the pronunciation of oo as a long ò in flëor and dòor, also in bròoch.

γ) as a short Engl. ü in blöod and flöod.

B) In the unaccented syllable oo appears shortened into ū: liveli-hood, childhood, knighthood.

Oe is to be distinguished from the form α, united in print, which points to a Greek-latin origin.

Oe serves

A) in the accented syllable, to denote the long ò: röë, föë, töë, döë, slöë, höë; ò’er (=över) is pronounced similarly.

Exceptions are the long sound ü (Engl. oo) in shoe, canoe; and that of the short English ü in does.

B) Even in the unaccented syllable oe, as long ò, is little reduced in its quantity: féllöë, álë; as in the compounds röckdöë, mistle-töë.

Œ, on the otherhand, for which an English e is often substituted in writing is equal

A) in the accented syllable:

1) to the long ï (Engl. e) before a vowel, where it constitutes a syllable of itself, and in an open penultimate, as well as in an open syllable before an initial consonant, followed by a double vowel beginning with i or e: Òäx, Òonus, Ònea, fœtus, Antœci.

Here it is found exceptionally shortened into e (ê) in diar-rhëtic.

2) It is equal to the short ë (ê) in many words in the accented antepenultimate or a prior syllable, as in assafrëtida (compare Engl. fëtid), òécumënalë, òconëmics. Yet it remains even there a long ï in less usual words: Òbalus, Òylus, even Òdipus and Òcumënius.

B) In the unaccented syllable, especially before the accented syllable, it continues similar to the Engl. e in the like case: òdëma, Òchália.

The concurrence of α with a following i and u is found in a few French words: æi in œil1iad, is denoted in pronunciation by the diphthong ë (ei), according to some by the Engl. e (ï), according to others even otherwise; œu in manœuvre sounds û, but, among scholars, conformably with the French pronunciation.

Oi and Oy are in the same predicament as ei and ey, ai and ay; in the accented syllable they are both mostly diphthongs.
Oi
A) is a diphthong in the accented syllable as ói, yet with greater preponderance of a deep o, than could be represented by the old and middle Highdutch oï (cf. Moin = Moenus; froïde = freude) and is therefore not quite equal to the Highdutch eu. oï is comparable with the combination of the Engl. aw and é: oil, oint, moist, voice, adroit, défoid, avoirdupoïs, fóison, hóïden.

In French words not yet assimilated, as dévôir, écritôir, scrutinôir, réservôir, oïr is exceptionally pronounced almost like the English wâr. In turkôis also turquoïse and Iroquoïs oïs is pronounced like ís (Engl. ěz); choir sounds like its other form quire.

B) In the unaccented syllable oï is found shortened into a slight ï, in tôrtôise and shâmôis or châmôis (pronounced shämëmi); pôrpoise sounds like porpüs and is sometimes spelt so or pôr-pess, in avoirdupoïs oïr sounds like a rapid ěr. Connoisséûr is pronounced like connaïssûr.

Oy
A) is a diphthong as ói; it belongs essentially to the end of stems: boy, toy, coy, joy, allôy, jôyousness, of course retaining its sound in compounds, as háutboy (pronounced hôboy), viceroy and many others.

Oa serves
A) in the accented syllable almost always to represent the long ô: óak, môan, lôaf, pôach, bôat, bôast, côax; a final r tinges the sound as it does ô: ôar, bôard, côarse.

It has exceptionally the value of the long â (Engl. aw) in broad, abroad and groat. In the compound oatmeal the vowel sound is heard in common life shortened into ô.

B) In the unaccented syllable oa remains a long ô with a slight loss of quantity: côcôa, bészôar. It is often shortened into in û in common life in the compound cúpîoard.

Ou and ow are in general in the same predicament as au, aw and eu, ew.

Ou appears
A) in the accented syllable:
1) chiefly as the diphthong âu (whereby is to be observed that many words, ending with gh, ght, l and r with another consonant, belong, with others to the categories following below): out, ounce, thou, plough, bough, flour, hour, foul, proud, pouch, doubt, mount, pound, mouthe, grouse, lounge, doughty.
2) ou represents a long vowel, and that in three modes:
a) partly a long â (English aw) in words ending in ght: ought, nought, bought, brought, fought, wrought, thought, methought, sought, besought.
Only drought and bought (= a twist) have âu.
b) partly a long ô (Engl. o) in syllables ending with a mute gh,
I. The Word according to its elements. — The vowels — o. 41

l and r, mostly with another consonant following: dōugh, thōugh, trōul (mostly spelt troll), sōul, mōuld, shōulder, smōulder, pōult, pōultry, pōultice, cōulter (also spelt colter); in those in our, o is obscured by the guttural: fōur (also fōurtéen), bōurn, mōurn, cōurt, accōurt, cōurtier, gōurd, gōurdiness, fourth, cōurse, recōurse, sōurce, resōurce, tōurment, tōurney.

c) partly as a long ū (Engl. oo) more rarely in Germanic words, more frequently in French ones which preserve their original sound: ōupe, ōuphen, ouse (also spelt oose), ōusel or ōuzel, bouse, through, you, your, youth, houp (= hoo- poo, hoopoe), wound (also pronounced with âu), shough! — soup, croup, group, cōucheé, capóuch (also spelt capóch), cartōuch, rouge, gouge, beige, accōutre, gout, sūrōut, ragōut, sous (also in the unaccented final syllable of rēn dezvous), agōuti, bōutefeu, route, fōumart, gōujeers, trōubadōur, tour, tōurist, amōur, contōur, cōurier, fōurbe, and many others; bouillon is pronounced bōolyōn.

3) it likewise stands in the place of the three corresponding short sounds:

a) short â (Engl. ĕ) in a few words in which gh ends with the sound of k or f in the stem: gh = k shōugh, (also spelt shock), lōugh (= lake), hōugh, to hōugh; gh = f: lōugh (= pret. laughed), trōugh, cōugh.

b) short Engl. ū (between ō and ŏ), in a few stems ending in gh and f: rōugh (= ruff), enōugh, toūgh, slōugh, chōugh; and in ng, nk: yōung, yōngster, yōinker. The same shortening takes place in many words, mostly of French origin, particularly before r in position, but also without it, as well as before pl and bl: adjoūrn, journal, jōurney, tourniquet, gōurnet (also spelt gurnet) courtesan, courtesy, courteous, bōurgeon, scōurge; — nourish, flourisht, cou rage, enco urage; — couplé, accouplé, coûplet; — double, trōuble; besides in touc h, jōust, couisin and cou ntry. — The original diphthongs are also thus shortened in hoūswife (pronounced hūzwif, popularly hūzwif), as well as groundsel in familiar speech grünsel, and sōthern, sō therly sounds like sithern, sithyer, sōuthward like sūthard, Sōuthwark like sithwârk. Generally speaking the original diphthong often passes over in dialects into ū: as in Warwick shire pound, found, ground into pun, fūn, grūn.

c) short ū (Engl. oo) in would, should and could.

B) In the unaccented syllable the accentual tinge of the specific sounds is not often maintained without considerable shortening, as in the compound prōnoun.

The diphthong āu, especially, is often shortened into ū in names of places compounded of mouth: Exmouth, Falmouth, Wey mouth, Sidmouth.
The long $\ddot{o}$, which maintains itself in slightly reduced duration, in thórâugh, bórough, intercôurse, becomes essentially weakened with the augmentation of the word: bórough-monger, thórâughness, thórâugh-going &c.

In French words the $\ddot{u}$-sound is maintained especially before the accented syllable: Louïsâ, rouléâu, routine, bouquéât, bou-tâde, fougâde, toupeg, coupée, accoucêhéur &c.

The sound appears the most slightly in the terminations ous, ious as a glib $\ddot{u}$: lúminous, rúinous, fâmous, jôyous, vir-tuous, — ôdiouis, sérôius, stúdiouis; in the termination our arises the dimming peculiar to or: lâbour, cândour, sâviour. Moderns also often substitute or for this syllable.

**Ow sounds**

A) in the accented syllable

1) usually like the diphthong âu: now, bow, bówels, prow, brow, vow, how, cow; owl, fowl, scowl, lôwer, (= to look black), shôwer, howl, cowl, growl; town, down, clown, gown; blowze; Pówel, Hôwel &c., pówder, côward.

2) a) in other words as a long $\ddot{o}$: mûw, lûw, belôw (from that derived lôwer = to bring lôw), rûw, bûw, blûw, flûow, tûw, trûw, thrûw, sûw, snûw, sôw, stûw, bestôw, shôw (of course with its derivative shôwer), crûw, grûw, glûw, knôw, and ôwe. Only in derivatives is a concluding consonant found: ôwn, flûwn, glûwn, grûwright.

b) the sound of the long $\ddot{u}$ is rare: flôwk (= floök) flounder.

3) In a few words ow is equal to a short vowel:

a) it is shortened into $\ddot{o}$ in knôwledge;

b) into a short $\ddot{u}$ (Engl. oo) in owler.

B) In the unaccented syllable ow is in general a long $\ddot{o}$, with but little loss of quantity: nárârow, fôllôw, winnôw, hâllôw, yêllôw, Glâsôwô. But in béllows and gâllows the sound of the short $\ddot{u}$ is given to ow. With the amplification of the words through subsequent unaccented syllables there arises a similar glib short-ness: hóllowness, bôrrower; likewise in compounds, as hóllow-eyed, Hâllowel; but Hârrôw-gate.

U is divided essentially into sounds with the power of o and u and the diphthong $\ddot{iu}$.

A) In the accented syllable $u$ has

1) the short sound lying between the Highdutch o and $\ddot{o}$ in the close syllable: plûm, bünn, lûll, düll, güll, pûrr, fûr, büt, bûd, sûch, Dütch, exûlt, turf, lûxury (x = cs), üsher (sh originally sc and ss), büffalo, cultivate, üsquebâugh.

Exceptially, $u$ receives

a) in a series of words mostly in ll or l in position, as well as $sh$, and a few others the sound of the short $\ddot{u}$ (Engl. oo): pull, bull, full, pûlly, pûallet, bûlly, bûlion, bûlet, bû-lletin, bûllace, bûllock, fûlling-mill, fûller, fûllery,
fúllage; bílrush, bílwark; púlpit, Fúlham; — push, bush, búshel, cúshion, cúshat; — besides puss; put (but not in the substantive put = clown), bütcher, púd-ding; cúckoo and cúciean.

β) it sounds like a long û (Engl. oo) in rúth, trúth.

γ) like the diphthong iú (see below) in impúgn, expúgn, oppúgn, repúgn, propúgn (wherein g is silent) and their inflectional forms and the derivatives in er: oppúgner, not in others, for instance repúgnant (with a sounding gut-tural g).

2) it appears on the other hand as a diphthong iú in such wise that û receives the greatest weight in utterance, and i therefore, weakened as a vowel, is in process of being hardened into the consonant y, and often (like the unaccented i or e before a second unaccented vowel) uniting with a prior dental, when û alone is a vowel, for example ñure (= bùòòr). The cases of this sort are mentioned along with the respective consonants.

a) the diphthong iú belongs to every open syllable under the accent: únit, púlpil, fúmy, dúbious, cúbic; exúberant, búlimy, funerai, dúplicate, cúbature, cúlinary; fúsi-lier, accúmulátion. The i is totally lost after r and rh: rúmour, prúdent, frúgal crúel, rhúbarb; it appears very slightly uttered after l: lúcid, lúdicrous; represented in writing by Smart: l'óócíd, l'óódícrous; as well as after i: júry, as it were j'òòry. The pronunciation of cúcumber with the diphthong au instead of iú belongs to the uneducated; yet the first syllable in búcáníer as well as in Búchan, pas-ses for short. Many also say púmisc instead of púmics.

As exceptions in which u in an open syllable represents short sounds originally foreign to it, the cases are to be considered in which it

a) sounds as a short ï: busy, búsilý, búnisíness compare the Old-Engl. bísyhed, býsischyppe.

b) as a short ë: bûry, Bûry, bûrial compare Old-Engl. beriel, beryd (= buried); dialectically berrin (= funeral).

γ) as a short u: súgar (pronounced shoogar).

b) in the syllable ending in a consonant followed by an organic and unorganic mute e: úse, múse, repúte, fûme, dúke, excúse.

Here too the i of the diphthong falls out after r: rûde, ab-strûse; after l and j the slighter utterance of i takes place, as, above lûte, Lûke, Jûne. With a prior y consonant i of course coalesces likewise with it completely: yûle.

B) In the unaccented syllable the short and the diphthong u separ-ate. In the syllable closed by a consonant (not followed by e mute) the short sound û remains to the u, although pronounced more glibly: pûlmónical, cúncätión, pûrlóin, cúcmber.

Compounds with the unaccented ful (= full) preserve the sound of the Highdutch û (Engl. oo): gáinful, hópeful. It also appears before the accented syllable in hurráh! huzzá! hussár.
The open diphthong syllable retains in general its accentual tinge with its quantitative weakening, more decidedly before than after the accented syllable: únáimíus, púnitión; régúlar, distribútive, constítúent. After an r a feeble intonation of i maintains itself: érudíte, férrula, vírúlen = éróodíte &c. A mute e maintains the diphthong clearer: vólúble, récítúde, púrpúre, óvertúre; yet the termination (s)ure after the accented syllable undergoes the shortening of the close syllable: méasure, léasure, tréasure; so too in cónjure, and similarly in an open syllable in names of places in bûry: Sálisbury, Cánterbury. u is reduced even into i in férrule, minute, létitude in general intercourse.

Among the compounds of u with other vowels a few, namely ui uy) and ue serve to represent vowel or diphthongal sounds; in ua and uo uoi (uy) the u, as often with ui and ue, is hardened into a w consonant, or it serves other purposes, as a graphical sign handed down from other tongues.

Ui is employed
A) In the accented syllable in general to denote the diphthong in (= û): súit, pursúit, súitor, sûitably &c., nûisance, pûisne, and loses after r, like û, its i: bruit, recrúit, fruit, bruise, crûise; i is weakened after l and j: slûice, jûice.

By way of exception it appears instead of the short i in build c. der. Compare Old-Eng! bilder = builder (Chaucer).

B) In the unaccented syllable it has the sound of the short i: bis-cuit, cîrcuit, cîrcuitéer, cónduit.

After g, u commonly stands as a Semi-consonant w: quill, quîb, quick, sqûint, antíquity; except in hárlequin, pálanquîn, in which gu = k. U has almost the same effect after c (= k) in cuiss, cuïnâge, cuirass. This is also the case after g: gui-niad, dîstînghish, ânguîsh, exînguîsh, lânguîsh, lân-guido. After g, u sometimes only serves to indicate the guttural sound before i: guîle, guîde, guîse, guîld, guîlt, Guîllemot, guînea, guîtar. After s we may regard it almost hardened in the word suite, properly a French word.

Uy sounds in buy like ei.
Else it serves as a half consonant w after q: óbloquy, solî-loquy.

After g, u is the sign of its guttural sound: Guîy, rôguîy, plâ-guîy.

Ue is likewise
A) in the accented syllable at the end a representative of the diphthong iu: hûe, cûe; the i is lost after r: rûe, trûe; it is weakened after l: blûe, glûe, clûe.

B) In the unaccented syllable it represents the same diphthongal final sound slightly shortened: árgûe, ágûe, vîrtûe; in issue s becomes sh through the influence of i before ue. With the amplification of the word ue loses the e before another vowel (comp.
issuer) and passes into the sound of u under similar circumstances. This also happens when e remains before a consonant: issuance.

After q in the middle of a syllable it commonly represents we: quench, quest, conquist, quésion, banquet; so also after c (= k) in cuérpo, after g: in Guelf, and after s in assuetude, mansuetude, désuetude. Ue after q and g also often serves solely to designate the guttural k- and g-sound as in pièquet, coquête, conquér, conquéurer, chécquer, máiquerade; guess, guest, guédon, guérkin (commonly ghérkin). At the end of a syllable we is, in such a case mute: oblique, intrigue. See silence of the vowels.

Us either lets its u pass into a half consonant w after q, g, s as in quality, antiquary, guaiacum, guáva, assuage, persuade, language; or u serves after q and g to denote its guttural sound as in piquant, quadrille, guarranteé, Antigua, (antéga); guard and its derivatives, also guárdian.

Uo after q is equal to wo: quôte, quotation, quóndam, quoth &c. quo is like co in liquor.

Uoii and uoy are compounds seldom occurring: uoi is found in quoif, quoit, also spelt coif, coit; and Iroquois (= k); uoy in buoy, which is pronounced bwoy and on board ship commonly bôy.

Silence of vowels.

We might reckon also as cases of the silence of vowels, those in which of two vowels employed to represent a sound, one suffices to denote the same sound, as in seize (= sëze), wealth (= wëlth) &c. The silence of vowels in the narrower sense, as we here apprehend it, is the rejection of vowel sounds in pronunciation which takes place in the unaccented syllable where, in writing, the vowel is nevertheless retained. It rests in general upon the same linguistic process by which the rejection of vowels in written language is conditioned. See below.

It is not however to be always taken as a complete extinction of the vocalization, since the voice here and there retains an almost evanescent vowel sound between the two consonants and even vowels which are to be uttered together. e is in general most subject to rejection. We consider separately the silence at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the word.

1. At the beginning. The casting off of unaccented vowels is here usually denoted in writing, so that forms like escalop and scallop, escutcheon and scutcheon, estate and state, esquire and squire, espy and spy and others, appear concurrently. In other cases writing makes use of the sign of elision ' to indicate vowels cast off at the beginning of a word, by which the misunderstanding often obtains currency, that forms without a prior vowel, which were the original forms but are now abandoned, had arisen only by elision: 'bove along with a bove is the Anglosax bufan, Old-Engl. bove, as gain in compounds is the Anglosax: preposition gægn
and not an abbreviation; 'fore along with afore = before, Anglosaxon foran (fore is still dialectic); 'gainst along with against, 'mong, 'mongst along with among, amongst; 'bout along with about Anglosaxon bûtan (bout still dialectic, yet only = without, except, like but) and others. Many rejections, as in 's instead of is and us, 't instead of it, 'm instead of am, 'rt instead of art, 're instead of are, and many other forms, belong to the glibness of speech; their vowels, although retained in writing, may yet fall off in every day speech or in rapid reading.

2. In the Middle. In the interior of the word i is seldom cast out in pronunciation; thus in bûsiness, Sâlisbury, Gârdiner, in common life in vênison and in the syllables in and il almost universally in râisins, bâsin and côusin, dévil and évil; but not in lâtîn, pûupil, jérkin and others, in which this pronunciation is vulgar. i is also not pronounced in careless pronunciation in ordi-

nary (compare órdinance along with ordânce). i is mute before a vowel in fâshion, cûshîon.

The unaccented e is most frequently cast out in final syllables, but also outside of the final syllable in Chêltenham (pronounced Chëlt'nam) and together with consonants in wêdnesday (pronounced wënzday), Wêdnesbury (the pronunciation of wednes has perhaps arisen out of Metathesis, as we at the commencement sec. XVII also find wendsday written) and Wôrcester (pronounced Wooster). In the final syllable en, e is commonly not audible after a non-liquid consonant, as, for example in hêaven, gûarden, lêsên, lôosen, hâsten, strêngthen, hearken, yet also in brôken, fâllen, stô-

len, swôllên. On the other hand it sounds in âspen, léven, slô-

ven, hôphen, pâtten, mîtten, mûrten, súdden, gûlden, hâtethen, dênizen, kitchên, tickên, chicken and the like.

In words in el, e sometimes vanishes before l, in the same manner as in words in le after consonants, as tâckle, dâzzle, especially in words in vel and zel: nâvel, râvel, drîvel, snîvel, swîvel, shrîvel, shôvel, grôvel, âasel, wëasel, önse1, crîzzel, shêkel and châtél. This silence can here only pass for the exception.

In the inflective syllable ed of verbs e falls oft, except where a prior t or d of the stem prevents its expulsion: lôved, tålked, plá-

ced, fêtched, fôllowed, jûstified (but not in printed, âdded).

If participles of this form are used as adjectives (from which dámned forms an exception) e remains audible: a lêarned man, a cársed thought; likewise in ulterior formations from the participles: amázedly, forcédly, amázednîss, defürmednîss. Also in measured delivery, for example, the reading of holy writ, or in prayers, e is made more prominent.

In the inflexional syllable es of nouns and verbs e is mute, except when preceded by the dental letters s, x (== čs), z, sh, c, ch, g which cause a difficulty in the elision: tâmes, sâves, hâres, cânes (on the other hand without elision kisses, bóxes, mázès, âshes, râces, bénches, cágès). Greek and Latin words form here an exception; see above e. e also is rejected in Thames.

In the obsolete inflexion of verbs eth, e was silent even in the 17th century (compare Joh. Wallis Gr. linguae Angl. ed. 3. Hamb.
1672, p. 40), although Shakspeare still frequently treats *eth* in verse as a complete syllable.

Before a vowel *e* is mute in serjeant; likewise where it is employed to give the dental sound to *g* before obscure vowels: *pâgeant*, *véngeance*, *Geóre*, *dúneon*, *hâbergeon*; or to *c* in a similar position: *péaceaable*, *sérviceable*. In some words this is also the case after the dental *ch*: *lûncheon*, *pûncheon*, *trûncheon*, *scûtcheon*.

The vowel *a* is seldom rejected between consonants, as in *cárabîne* and together with *u* in *victual* (pronounced *vitt'l*). Before vowels this sometimes happens after *i*: *marriage*, *cáriage*, *míniature*, *pârliment*; also after *i* in diamond *a* is not pronounced in common life. Before *o* and *ou* in extraordinary and *caoutchouc* (pronounced *couchook*) it is rejected.

Except in *colônel* (pronounced *cûrnel*) *o* is scarcely suppressed otherwise than in the final syllable *on*; where it may be considered as equivalent to an evanescent *e*, particularly after a prior *t* and *s*: *mutton*, *côtton*, *Brighton*, *réason*, *másón*, *lésson*; yet also after *d* in: *párdon*; and gutturals in: *bácón*, *bécôn*, *réckon*.

The vowel *u* is naught for pronunciation, only when it is added to the guttural *g* before clear, and seldom before obscure vowels, as well as to *q (= k)*. See *ui* above. Of its silence in *victual* *c.* der. I have spoken above.

Poetry, as well as the language of common life, often expels unaccented vowels, which have not been touched upon here. Writing then commonly applies the mark of Elision (*'*). Poetry also frequently superfluously casts out the by itself mute vowel: thus, frequently the *e* from *ed* in the verb, except with a preceding *t* or *d*: *endu'd*, *fum'd*, *reign'd*, *reviol'd*, *reviv'd*, *pleas'd*, *disgrac'd*, *provok'd*, *fabl'd*, *plann'd*, *serv'd*, *drench'd*, *lodg'd*, *confess'd*, *ask'd*, *perplex'd* &c. (Cowper Poems Lond. 1828). Even in Spencers age the drama only rarely used *ed* as a complete syllable, whereas lyric poetry offered still more numerous examples. Even the attributive participle is thus shortened, especially the proparoxytones: His *powder'd* coat; the feather'd tribes; the scatter'd grain; his alter'd gait (Cowper); yet also other forms: His arch'd tail's azure (id); ye curs'd rulers (Otway); the turban'd Delis; no high-crown'd turban (Byron Bride of Abydos). The verbal termination *est*, except with a prominent sibilant, had, even in the 17th century, a mute *e* in poetry, although Spencer frequently uses the complete syllable. It commonly appears with an elided *e*: *speak' st, look' st, talk' st, think' st* (Otway Venice preserved Lond. 1796), *stand' st, seem' st, hold' st* (Cowper); *see' st, dar' st, know' st* (L. Byron). Even the *e* of the superlative termination is cast out thus with proparoxytones: *wicked' st, damned' st, pleasant' st, wholesom' st* (Shakspeare ed. Collier), *cruel' st* (Otway). Lastly, in poetry an unaccented vowel betwixt consonants is frequently cast out after a short, and also after a long vowel, especially before *r* and *n*. The following are examples from Cowper:
r: gen'rous, op'ra, lib'ral, diff'rence, ev'ry, rev'rend, sov'reign, int'rest, flatt'ry, blund'rer; — av'rice; — mem'ry, am'rous, rhet'ric, vig'rous.

after diphthongs and long vowels: loit'rer; — bound-d'ry; — iv'ry, hum'rous; — num'rous, scen'ry, should'ring, dang'rous; — lab'ring, neighb'ring, fav'rite, sav'ry.

n: list'ning; — heav'nly, mulb'rry, reck'n ing, pri-s'ner.

after diphthongs and long vowels: pois'n ing, op'ning, ev'n ing, chast'ning.

This is rarely the case before other consonants, as in en'my, ven'son, Abr'ham.

These instances are, properly, proparoxytones, yet other words also belong here, as heav'n, ev'n; the participles giv'n, ris'n, fall'n, stol'n. Of scarcely different nature is the substitution of an e cast out immediately after diphthongs in: bow'r, flow'r, tow'r and many more, since this crasis, like those elisions, only imparts a graphical fixity to the process which is going on in popular pronunciation.

Another sort of shortening, particularly of proparoxytones, not so much by casting out as by the hardening of one unaccented vowel before another, a process often shared by poetry with the speech of common life, must also find a place here.

To metrical licenses namely belongs the disregard of the short vowels i, e, and even of the diphthong unaccented u (= iu) before a following vowel, by which especially the compounds of yi, ie, ia, io; ea, eo; ui, ua, uo in terminations like ying, ien, ient, ience, ier, iet, ian, iant, ial, iate, iage, io, ion, ior, iot, ean, eo, eon, eor, eing, uant, uance,uous and others come into consideration, which in verse may appear as monosyllabic endings of words. This long known synizesis, permitted in modern English poetry in the widest extent (See Tycho Mommsen, Shaksp. Romeo and Juliet. Oldenburg 1859 p. 118) is based upon this; that i and e (= i) as well as u, in the gibbness of utterance lose the vowel sound, and pass over into the halfvowels y (j) and w, whereby the dactyl is readily transformed into the trochee. Cultivated speech has gradually appropriated this transformation, so natural to popular language more and more in refined intercourse, so that at present the pronunciation of alien (äljö), brilliant (briljönt), dominion (dominjöö), as well as the blending of the i-sounds with preceding dentals (see below) whose hissing sounds at the end of the sixteenth century still seemed totally strange, and at present are still often reproved by orthoepists, has become a universal custom in the speech of educated persons. Synizeses certainly remain in verse, as: cărry-ing, búr-y ing, glóriöüs, météor, Àéthiöp, Mántu ā, tempéstitüus and others, whereas in words in iage and others, as above observed, the synizesis has already transformed itself into a complete rejection of the second vowel.

3. At the End. The silence at the end of the word concerns the e, which is, partly; organic, that is to say, the remnant of a
primitive final syllable ending in a vowel or a consonant; or, inorganic, that is to say, without a basis in Etymology. In many words, especially those ending in le, re after a mute consonant e has arisen by metathesis from el, er. The organic e has been in many cases rejected, the inorganic in many cases added: the fluctuation is in this respect sec. XIV, uncommonly frequent. In modern English e after a simple or a mute and liquid consonant has been preserved or added, mostly after the long vowel, and its part is therefore, though mute, to serve for a sign of the prolongation of the syllable now ending with a consonant sound: pâne, scène, hère, ôre, glèbe, weave, grieve, able, idle, trifle, metre; even after a long syllable not accented: théâtre. e even stands after a short vowel, and after a mute and liquid consonant: ripple, ruffle, rattle, drizzle. It is rare after two other consonants, as after st: taste; except in unassimilated foreign words, as banquette &c. and a few others, as child (along with child). After a simple consonant, it sometimes stands, partly unorganically, after the accented syllable: âte, bâde, hâve, dove, glève, love, côme, ône, nône; were. It frequently concludes unaccented derivative syllables: rápine, exténsive, pressé.

For exceptions in Greek and Lat. words, see above, e.

After c and g it serves, either with or without a previous second consonant, after a long or a short vowel, although arising organically or by metathesis, to designate the dental sound of those gutturals: pièce, siège; prince; hénce, scônce, hinge, bilge, lôdge, lôdge, bridge; so too after ng and a long syllable: chânge.

After th it becomes significant of the soft th: bréath — bréathe.

It stands in union with u after g and g in the French mode: pique, antique, risque, casque, mosque; fatigxe, plague, catalogue, rogue, harângue, tongue.

This mute e also remains mute, when preserved before consonants in the amplification of the stem through derivation or composition: crime — crîmeful; confine — confîneless, confinement; sole — sóleness, sólely; arrânge — arrângement; lodge — lôdgement; note — nôtebook. Exceptions are formed by wholly, áwful, and, if we reckon we here; dúly, trúly, in which e falls out. Some also spell judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment instead of judgement &c. After gutturals, which have become dental it stands as a mute letter even before obscure vowels: nôtice — nôticeable; lodge — lôdgeable; courage — couràgeous.

Consonants in General.

The consonant is formed by the action of the moveable organs, the lips, the tongue and the throat, the breath which renders the formation of sound possible being modified either through the lips, on the teeth or in the throat. Thus we distinguish lipsounds, toothsounds, and throatsounds (Labials, Dentals, Gutturals).

If, in the production of the consonant, the mouth is completely closed and again opened at any definite place, the consonant is called

Mätzner, engl. Gr. I.
explosive, is divided or divisible in its production, and may therefore, under certain circumstances, in collision with others, or at the end of the syllable be shortened by its latter half. If, in the pronunciation of the consonant a mere approximation of the organs takes place, without an interruption of the vocal breath, the consonant is fricative, or is audible as friction, and therefore uninterrupted, or continuous. The liquid consonants, or melting sounds, \( l \) and \( r \); \( l \) produced by the partial closure and the slight pressure of the lip of the tongue, and \( r \) produced by vibration, and the tremulous movement of the tongue or the palate (dental and guttural \( r \)), partake of both qualities. The nasals, \( m \) and \( n \), belong according to the place of their origin, to the labial or to the dental letters, and are, in the mode of their production, at the same time explosive, but, a simultaneous opening of the channel of the nose (the nostrils) taking place, they become nasal. Inasmuch as they can be made to sound continuously they have been reckoned among the liquids. Semivowels, that is to say, sounds formed under the cooperation of the consonantal organs, while the voice, in commencing to form a vowel, does not set the glottis in decided vibration, are \( w \) and \( y \).

A representation of the phonetic relations of consonants in modern English in the respects above stated, is contained in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nasals</th>
<th>Liquids</th>
<th>Interrupted or explosive</th>
<th>Uninterrupted or continuous</th>
<th>Semivocal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lipsounds:</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>hard</td>
<td>soft b</td>
<td>f, ph, gh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tooth-sounds:</td>
<td>n l r t d</td>
<td>Lipping sounds ( \text{th} )</td>
<td>Hissing sounds</td>
<td>( \text{th} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throat-sounds:</td>
<td>ng r c, k, qu, ch g, gh, gu h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A compound of the throat and the toothsound is \( x = cs \) and \( gs \); its \( s \) may therefore pass into the sibilant.

**General Observations.**

The representation of sounds by different consonants and combinations of consonants rests partly on the mixture of the Anglo-Saxon and the French modes of representation, partly on the retention of sounds, justified etymologically, but whose pronunciation has changed. The representation of various sounds by the same sign springs partly from the same cause, but on the other hand, in part, from the becoming identical of vocal signs originally different.
1) Lipsounds. The introduction of the sound \( v \), along side of \( w \), the latter of which corresponds to the Anglosaxon \( v \) (\( w \)), is to be ascribed to the influence of the French. The combination \( \text{wh} \) is, properly, a composite sound. It is the inverse of the Anglosaxon \( \text{hv} \), with the retention of the ancient succession of sounds, unless \( w \) is silent (who = hu). On the unwarranted \( \text{wh} \), see below. \( \text{gh} \) as \( f \) is retained etymologically, although phonetically transformed.

2) Among toothsounds the initial dental and the final guttural \( r \), either with or without other consonants are to be distinguished (right and her, hard). The hard and the soft \( th \), two lisping-sounds corresponding to the Anglosaxon \( p \) and \( \partial \) (at is were \( th \) and \( dh \)) although no longer strictly divided into the initial, the medial and the final, are both often expressed as in the later English by \( th \), so in Old-English by \( p \) concurrently with \( th \), as in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER \( \text{pis} \), per, \( \text{pou} \), \( \text{Bape}, \text{oper}, \text{wollep}, \text{bep}, \text{forp} \). The \( s \) is divided into a hard and a soft hissing sound (sister and his). The \( c \) of the same sound before clear vowels (certain, cancer) is to be ascribed to the Romance influence. The Anglosaxon seems not to have known the sound \( z \), which is also represented by \( s \) (frozen, zeal; wisdom, bosom) as it also rarely employs the sound \( z \) instead of \( \partial \). Moreover \( z \) in the middle of Gothic words seems to have been soft, as \( s \) seems everywhere to have been hard. The sibilant \( ch \) is frequently met with in non-Germanic as well as in Anglosaxon words. As distinguished from \( sh \), \( t \) is prefixed to the former, except in modern French words. \( s \) and \( t \) are equivalent to the sibilant \( sh \) in those cases where the sound of \( y \) hardened into a consonant is developed out of \( i \) or \( e \) (also \( i = ii \)) and blends with it (mansion = man- shon, nauseous = naush'ous, nation = nashon, sure = shure, censure = censhur). To these hard sibilants are opposed the soft \( j \), \( g \) (under French influence) and then \( s \), \( z \), in which \( y \) developed out of clear vowels unites with the dental. The dental \( d \) is placed phonetically before the sibilants \( j \) and \( g \). The Anglosaxon sound \( j \), which we find interchanging with \( g \), \( ge \) and \( ige \), answers only to the English \( y \). In the case specified English orthoepists denote the sound of \( s \) and \( z \) by \( zh \), as opposed to \( sh \) vision = viz- hon, pleasure = pleazhur, raze = ražhur). In Old-English the sound \( sh \) is often found represented by \( sch \), also by \( ss \).

3) The nasal \( ng \) cited among the throatsounds is the sound in which \( n \) is affected by a guttural. \( n \) experiences a similar affection before gutturals in general (vanquish, anxious). See more particularly below. The Anglosaxon \( c \)-sound for which the \( k \), frequent in Gothic and Anglosaxon was seldom substituted, is now often represented by \( k \), and the guttural \( ch \), appearing chiefly in non-Germanic words, shares the same sound, to which also the Latin romance \( gn \) (conquer) partly corresponds, being, on the other hand, equivalent to the Anglosaxon \( cv \) (quick). To this hard guttural is opposed the soft \( g \), which at times becomes known as such by a suffixed \( h \) or \( u \) (\( gh \), \( gu \)), while \( gu \) (analogous to \( qu = cv \)) replaces the combination of \( ge \) (distinguish). The \( h \) is hardly ever preserved phonetically save at the commencement of Germanic and non-Germanic words, although it seems in Anglosaxon to have sounded strongest
and to have been partly equivalent to the High Dutch ch, precisely where in English it has completely disappeared. The Old English often employed for g and y the Anglosaxon ȝ, which, strange to say, is often rendered in modern copies by z.

Among the English consonants j can never end a syllable; v, as well as the dental c and q appear only with a following mute e, g with ue at the end of a syllable.

The pronunciation of consonants in detail.

1) The nasal and the liquid sounds m, n, l, r.

m at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of a syllable, sounds like the High Dutch m: man, márry, com'plaint, ambition, immórtal, imitate, claim, form.

The words formerly spelt compt, accómpt, comprótl, comprórólle are at present spelt count, accóunt, contróll, contrórólle, and the former, when they occur, pronounced like the latter. The first two answer to the Latin: computare, Old-French contér, cunter, in modern French dissimilated into compter and contér (m becomes n before the dental). The latter come from the French contrôlé (= contre-rôle Lat. rotulus).

The final m appears doubled in mum, wherein only one m sounds.

n has in general the sound of the High Dutch n: nail, enórce, enjóy, éngine, énumity, hen, hand, finch, discérm. In Banf and Pontefract n is pronounced like m (= bamf, pomfret) as the latter is also sometimes written.

Before gutturals n assumes in general the sound of the Greek γ or the Gothic g before a guttural (compare Gothic briggan, págghjan), which we are wont to represent by ng and which we denote by n*: úncle, ink, múnkey, báñquet, ánghuish, cónger.

In these cases n is on the one hand tinged with a guttural, but on the other hand also the guttural becomes audible at the end or the beginning of a subsequent syllable; compare: in-k, con-ger, Én-gland.

To this, however, exceptions are found. In syllables ending in ng the guttural n is alone heard, without the aftersound g: sin(g), lon(g), bóiliín(g), although dialectically, for example, in the North-East of England g is sounded after it (kín,g, lon-g). In derivatives from such stems also n alone continues audible: sin(g)ín(g), sin(g)er, win(g)y, youn(g)ster. Yet here again the comparatives and superlatives from long, strong, young (lón-ger, yóun-gést) form an exception, an anomaly blamed by some orthoepists.

In words whose stem syllable ends in ing, the convenience of pronunciation often completely extirpates the guttural tinge of the derivative syllable, so that we hear singin, bringin spoken, a

*) In comparative Grammar this sound is usually denoted by n with a point over it; for want of this character we have been forced to select n.
natural bias to dissimilation of syllables, which is nevertheless justly blamed.

In composition a syllable ending in \(n\) undergoes before a guttural no guttural tinge (compare vanguard; otherwise, where the composition no longer comes into consciousness: Lincoln = Lindum colonia, pronounced Lin'-kun). Yet in prefixes ending in \(n\) the exception takes place that they assume the sound \(n\) under the principal accent: conqüer, conqüest, cóngress, cóngruent, inchoate, inquinate; con even under the subordinate accent: cóng- coãgulate; but in regard to the prefix \(in\) there is no consistency or agreement income, increase, increate, inclavated, inquest being denoted as the usual pronunciation. In the unaccented syllable every guttural tinge is removed: congruity, inclement, unquiet. This happens even in other unaccented syllables, as in august.

Final \(n\) is seldom doubled. (Compare inn) where it sounds like a single \(n\).

1 has the sound of the Highdutch \(l\): lamb, plural, blue, slang, climb, soil, fault, bulk. It sounds after a consonant before a mute \(e\), as in people, table, trifle; shuttle; see above. A final double \(l\), which is usual at the end of monosyllabic words, is not to be distinguished from a simple \(l\): kill, full, all; therefore in compound words the \(ll\) of the stem becomes a final single \(l\) without any sacrifice of sound: fulfil, wilful, withal, hândful. \(ll\) also, in immediate contact with a subsequent consonant, (also with a mute \(e\) between) sounds as a single \(l\): kill'd; as \(ll\) only sounds as a single \(l\) before a clear vowel hardened into \(y\): bullion (= bôolyon). Even a strongly aspirated initial double \(ll\) is like the single \(l\): Llandáff, Llanêlly. (The Celtic sound is represented in English by \(ll\) or \(l\h\)). Moreover \(ll\) in the middle of words, before vowels sounds at once as the final sound of the prior and as the initial sound of the subsequent syllable: ally, billow, follow.

\(l\) is exceptionally pronounced like \(r\), this often arises out of an \(l\): in colonel (pronounced cîrnel) in Spencer also coronel (comp. Span. coronel, French colonel), and in Cashalton (pronounced cåshor'tn).

\(r\) is either dental or guttural (see above):

a) dental at the commencement: run, rose; also in combination with other consonants: pride, bride, fresh, try, draw, spread, stride, crown, grow. When in the middle of a word \(r\) begins a syllable after a short vowel, it becomes by attraction at the same time the final sound of the previous syllable, and therefore apparently doubles itself, so that \(e\) commences with a guttural sound and sounds on with the succeeding syllable as a dental: pêril (like per-ril), fêrest, bárón. Even after long vowels, when it begins the following syllable, it has a guttural influence on that vowel: various, serious, fury.

b) guttural at the end of a syllable even with subsequent consonants: fir, her, star, cur, mûrmur; hear, air, door; cóbler, cóllar, ábor; herb, earth, pearl, lord, hurt, worm,
work, turf. This is also naturally the case where \( r \) is followed by a mute \( e \): fire, here, ware, shore, pure; jointure. At the end, with another preceding consonant, it produces, as it were, a metathesis of the \( re \) and has the guttural sound: théatre, mássacre, sépulchre, = théâter, or -tur \&c. The same metathesis appears in íren = íurn, àpron = àpurn, in common life also in children, húndred and the like.

Uneedicated persons let the \( r \) entirely disappear in words like hard, lord. The broad guttural pronunciation of the \( r \), called burr in the throat, is peculiar to the northern dialects.

Double \( r \) in the middle of a word places the guttural and the dental \( r \) beside each other, the former, however, essentially softened, unless it comes from a stem ending in \( r \), as in stárry of star, on which account the former does not essentially affect the vowel; at the end, where it is equivalent to a single guttural \( r \), it is only used exceptionally: err, serr (= sorry), purr.

2) The Lipsounds \( p \), \( b \), \( f \), \( (ph, gh) \), \( v \), \( w \), \( (wh) \).

\( p \) sounds in general like the Highdutch \( p \): pity, pebble, pá-gan, pound, pure, play, prince, up, damp, slept.

In common life \( p \) is assimilated to a subsequent \( b \), in cúpboard; in rásberry (pronounced rasberry) we may regard \( p \) as completely rejected on account of the collision of three consonants. Thus too it is assimilated to the succeeding \( ph \) in: Sáppho, sáphic, sáphire, pronounced Sáffo. The softening of the \( p \) into \( b \) occurs in póther, which, according to this corrupted pronunciation is also spelt bóther.

\( b \) has the sound common to the Germanic tongues at all parts of the word: báby, blow, broad, bob, gobble, barb.

Double \( b \) at the end is only exceptional: in ebb.

\( f \) has the sound of the Highdutch \( f \): fáncy, fly, friend, múffin, chiefly, áfter, thief, wife, calf, craft.

Double \( f \) at the end of polysyllabic words after a short vowel is usual with some trifling exceptions, even polysyllables have \( f f \): off, cliff, staff, plaintiff, caïff, wherein \( f f \) sounds like a single \( f \).

In the unique particle of, \( f \) sounds like \( v \), but not in composition, as thereóf, whereóf \&c.

The sound of \( f \) is also represented by \( ph \), corresponding to the Greek \( ϕ \), which has passed through the Latin and the Romance. The Anglosaxon seldom has \( ph \) (philosoph, pharisée with farisee). In Old-English \( f \) and \( ph \) alliterate: Fare wel Phippe and Faunteltee (Fiers Ploughm.p. 205). In Modern-English they are likewise interchanged; gulph and gulf, Guelphs and Guelfs: philósopher, phóspor, phrase, phlegm.

\( v \) appears softened into \( v \) in Stéphen, Old-French Estevenes, Hollandish Steven, Old-English Steuene (Rob. of Gloucester), also sec. XVI Steuen (Jack Jugler c. 1562) and in néþew, Old-English neuew, the French neveu alongside of the Anglosax. néfa; some orthoepists demand here the pronunciation of \( f \) as \( f \). Thus in writing also náþew and návew (Lat. napus, French navet) stand alongside of each other.
Before th ph transform itself into the sound p (unless it is altogether silent, see below): náphtha, diphtongh, opéthálmic. Moderns demand here in diphtong and others the pronunciation dif, so inconvenient before the lisping sound th.

gh also sometimes represents the f-sound, yet only after au and ou and in a short syllable in the words draught (also spelt draft) draugh (also draft) laugh, laughther; = chough (pronounced chif) clough (pronounced clif), Brough (pronounced břif), cough (pronounced cōf), enough (enif), rough (pronounced řuf), slough (pronounced slūf in the substantive “shakesskin”), tough (pronounced tūf), trough (pronounced trōf), chincough (pronounced chincōf), Loughborough (pronounced lūf-būr-ō). Usually thus even in the seventeenth century. Instead of hiccough (= hícōf) hiccup is also written.

v always has the sound of the Highdutch w or the French v: vain, valley, υlvet, love.

w as a consonant commences (as distinguished from the Highdutch w) almost like a vowel, and at the same time leans like a consonant, on the subsequent vowel, so that it may be compared in some measure with the combination uw. It is never a final consonant sound, and only tolerates dentals (t, d, s) as audible consonants before it: wait, wáyward, twice, dwell, swállow (compare qu = cw).

In combination with h as wh, the h before it sounds (unless it is wholly silent) = hw Anglosaxon hw: which, whet, why,

3. The toothsounds t, d, th, s, c, z, ch, sh, j, g.

a) the sound of the Highdutch t, when at the beginning of a word it tolerates only r and w after it, m only in Greek words: tmé-sis; term, take, tráitress, twist, tempt, tent, hilt, art, rapt, drift, mast, text, act, settle; with silent letters before it: debt, fraught.

Its reduplication at the end is rare: butt, smitt.

b) but it often experiences, like other dentals, an influence through an unaccented vowel following it, i, e (and the i preceding in u) when this is followed by another vowel: ie, iu, io and u (= íu), eo, eo. As in such combinations the i-sound has a decided bias to harden into a semivowel, so the dental has the tendency to combine with it, by which a hissing sound, either hard or soft, may arise. To retain the i in such cases as a y consonant, as is prescribed by many orthoepists of the more solemn style, offends, in many cases at least, against an universal usage.

It is moreover to be remarked that, before Germanic terminations, such as the comparative i-er, i is maintained pure: migh-tier, pitiest, and only Romance terminations are considered.

a) t-i appears as a hard sibilant tsch:

α) in conversational language when s or x precedes the t: christian, fústian, celéstial, quéstion, mixtion; when,
however, the t is wont to be attracted by the last syllable: pronounced christ-sh'an, célest-sh'ül, kwest-shűn, mixt-shűn. The more solemn pronunciation is declared to be célest-yül and so forth, particularly with the termination ian.

p') further, where t-i arises from the combination of t with the terminations eous, une, ure, ual: righteous, főrtune, créature, spiritual, pronounced rį-ch'us, főrt-shoon, créet-sh'oor, spirit-sh'ool; in the termination uous this is rare. The t is moreover here. as above. attracted after a short vowel or a close syllable. Here, too, the maintenance of ůu or yu passes for the more solemn pronunciation.

b) as a soft sibilant, and thus usually in the Romance derivative terminations, ient, ia, ial, iate, ion, ions by universal agreement: paciente, militia, partial, satiate, méntion, cautious, pronounced pash'ent, melish'ä, pársh'äl &c.

In the pronunciation of Latin words like ratio, the i is still suffered to sound separately: ră-shëô, as well as in words in iate after a long syllable; satiate pronounced såshëate.

In the cases cited the sibilant of course remains even after the amplification of the words by other derivative terminations, as in partiality, rational &c. If, however, the i is accented, the fusion ceases: sатiety, and t sounds like t.

In words in -ier the more solemn style does not permit the transformation of ti into sh: courtier (court-yer).

d corresponds

a) with its soft sound, in general to the Highdutch initial d, and, like t, only tolerates r and w after it at the beginning of a word: din, do, draw, dwell, bändage, kindred, kind, bold, drünkard, learnt, drudge.

b) it hardens into l in the verbal inflection ed, when e is silent, and it is preceded by the hard consonants p, k, f, gh (= f), the sharp hissing sounds s, c and x (= es) or the sibilants ch, sh: dripped, râked, râcked, stůffed, cůughed, châsed, pâssed, plâced, perplëxed, snâtched, lâshed. The physiological reason of this pronunciation has produced the phonetic style of spelling, frequent in Old-English, common in modern English, yet in modern times of very confined use, such as whipt, hëapt, askt, crost, fixt, punisht, watcht.

c) In the pronunciation of common life d, like t, with a subsequent unaccented i, e (also in u as iů) hardened into a semivowel, enters into a combination before a second vowel, which as a soft sibilant, is denoted by j (= dg). Walker prescribes this usage as the rule; others admit it only in the most frequent words, whereas they pretend to preserve to others the semi-consonant y: sóldier (sôl-jér), insidious, hideous (hid'-zh'us), grândeur, árduous, vérdure &c.; even in éducate we hear du sometimes as dzh. A pure d with a subsequent feebly hardened i (y) seems almost always to pass for the more correct pronunciation. The transformation of an initial d, before accented vowel
generally, into $j$ is provincial, as in Warwickshire: duke, dead, deal &c. (= juke, jed &c.)

th, a lispingsound, wanting in Highdutch, produced by a breathing forced between the tongue and the teeth, after the tongue has been laid between the rows of teeth, appears, when the breath is slightly vocalized, as a hard, when not, as a soft th. Even the Gothic $p$ may pass for an aspirated $d$: the Anglosaxon $p$ and $d$ are the origins of their double tinge.

a) the hard $th$ therefore corresponds to the Anglosaxon $p$, Islandic $p$ and Modern-Greek $\theta$

a) At the beginning of words thick, thank, théatre, throat, thwart.

Except the personal pronoun of the second person and the demonstrative pronouns, together with the forms and particles derived therefrom, in which $th$ is always soft: thou, thee, thine, thy, the, this, that, they, them, these, those, their, then, than, though, thus, there, thither.

In composition the hard sound remains to $th$: athirst, athwart, bethúmp, bethráll &c.

b) At the end: filth, sheath, death, mouth, zénith. In eighth, instead of eightth the $t$ has a twofold function, as $t$ and as an element of the sound $th$.

Except those ending with the soft $th$: benéath, undernéath, booth and smooth adjective and verb, the particles with also in all its compounds, and verbs which sound like a noun (for dissimilation), as mouth, wreath and the like, although these are frequently spelt with a mute $e$.

Before an inflectional $s$, $th$ is softened: paths, mouths, oaths.

γ) in the middle of words originally Greek and Latin: Áthens, catholic, orthodox, author, likewise in Lútheran; in words originally Anglosaxon before and after a consonant: southern, filthy.

Except words originally Anglosaxon in which $th$ is preceded by $r$. In this case $th$ is soft: fárthing, fárther, fárthest, wórthy c. der., nórrthern, bûrthen (also bûrden), fúrther, mûrther (commonly murder). Also in bréthren the soft pronunciation of brother is retained, as -ren is also metathetically pronounced like ern.

b) The soft $th$, equal to the Anglosaxon $p$, and the Modern-Greek $\theta$ at the beginning of a word, occurs at the beginning and in the middle of words only exceptionally (see above). But it is always found in the middle of words not originally Greek or Latin between vowels: hither, thither, either, neither, together, feather, father, mother, brother, southern.

In bróthen it sounds hard.

c) It sounds as a simple $t$ in Thámes, Thómas, thyme; also with $ph$ at the beginning of a word, when $ph$ is silent: phthisis ($= tí-cis$), phthisic ($= tíz-zick$), phthisical &c.; also in the
middle between s and m: Ísthmus, ásthma, also after a single s: Êsther, Démosthénès, likewise in Anthony.

t and h are moreover to be divided, as final and initial letters respectively, in compounds, as: Chátham (chát-ham), Wítham and others.

s represents a hard, or sharp, and a soft hissing sound, and becomes by means of the following vocalization a hard or soft hissing sound.

a) is a sharp hissing sound, like the French sharp s or ç:

\[ a) \text{ at the beginning of all words: sea, systém, so, súmmer, smart, snail, splash, spade, sway, stab, skim, scar, school, squab, split, sprig, struggle, scratch.} \]

Except sûre, súgar, wherein s sounds like sh (see below). Also in the compounding of notional words an initial s retains its sharp sound: seaside, pólýsyl láble, lóvessong, midsummer, góselp (= god-spel), quicksilver. Therefore also in Thomson (-son = son), as well as in those compounded of some = Híghdutch sam.

In composition with particles ending in vowels or consonants the subsequent initial s is in general sharp: aísunder, besiege, fóresight, cosécant, párasite, présume ct, inside, unaén, obsess.

In cousin, the composition of which (consobrinus), is no longer perceived, the rule for the middle of a word is observed.

There is uncertainty with some particles: after ab s is soft in absolve c. der., yet not in absúlute c. der. and absúlution; after ob in obsérve c. der.

This is particularly the case after re, pre and de, after which an initial s with a vowel following, according to the rule for the middle of a word, is soft. Yet here logical considerations have been suffered to prevail in part.

After re s is sharp especially when it adds the meaning "again" to the stem, when the consciousness of particle and stem is maintained clear; hence sharp in: réséat, reséize, reséll, resénd, reséttle, resil, résalúte, résurprise, résurvéy &c. On the other hand soft in: résist, résidue, reside, résémble, resént (= to take ill), resolve, resound (= to echo), résúlt, résúme &c.

The sharp or the soft s corresponds therefore to notional differences, as in resound (to sound again) and resound (= to echo); resign (= to sign again) und resign (= to give up).

Nevertheless the sharp s has been preserved, where the meaning "again" is not present: research (French recherché and rechercher = to inquire, inquiry), résipísence, resóurse, resúpinate. On the other hand the soft s is to be met with where that meaning is near, in résurréction.

After pré the sharp s appears when the former expresses decidedly the meaning "before": presignify, présuppôse, présurmise, présage and to présage, préséntiment,
préséntation, on the other hand préside, preserve, pré-
súme, présent, présence with the soft s.

After de the initial s is sharp, when a decidedly negative
meaning belongs to it: desiderate to lack, to miss; desic-
cate dry up; désinent extreme, ceasing, ending; desipient
silly, désist leave off, désécrate profane, désûme borrow,
désuétude disuse, désultory unsteady; desulphurate take
out the brimstone, désynonymize.

Yet a sharp s is found in desidiose, properly, enduring,
sluggish, and désudation, properly, sweating away, strong
sweat. désignate c. der. and design c. der. with a sharp s
are striking, although usage fluctuates with design.

The rest of the compounds with de have the soft s, as de-
sire, deserve &c.

b) s (and the frequent ss) are sharp in general at the end of a
word, without a mute e after it, unless this s arises from in-
flexion: this, yes, us (not the inflectional -s, compare Anglo-
sax. dative and accus. us, Gothic unsis, uns), thus, Léwis,
Paris, métropólis, gas, bias, pioum.

In further formation or composition this s commonly follows
the laws of the s in the middle of a word, therefore is soft
between vowels and before certain consonants (see below): cf.
gas and gasómeter; similarly also a sharp s before e: gós-
ling (from goose), husband (from house).

On the other hand, in the prefix mis, as in trans the s always
remains sharp (unless transformed into the sibilant by sub-
sequent vowels, whereas dis in various regards has the sharp
or the soft s. Its s is sharp, when the subordinate accent lies
upon dis: disobedéy, disagrée; when the following syllable
begins with a hard consonant: discipline, dispatch, dis-
figure, disturb, discrówn, dishábit; before the u diph-
thong: disíse, disúnion, s before the accented syllable
beginning with a vowel is soft: déséase, désórder; also with
a mute h: dishónest; or with a soft consonant: dismántle,
dislike, disróot, disdáin, disguise &c. In discérn c. der.
(pronounced dizérn) and dissovle c. der. s is likewise
soft. In dismal is dis not the same prefix.

Except:

a) as (comp. whereas) and was. [In has and is an in-
flexional letter appears, as in his, and analogously ours,
yours, theirs.]

b) words in s from the ancient tongues, and not preceded by
a mute e: spécies, séries, cáríes, Móses, Diógenes.

c) words in s, before which stands a mute e after a soft con-
sonant: besides, whíles, Jámes, Jónes, Chárles,
Réées.

d) words in s, immediately preceded by a soft consonant: lens,
Simmons, Tibbs, needs, tówards.

γ) s is sharp in the middle of a word when it doubles itself, as
well as when it encounters another consonant. This is good also for the s sounding with another consonant before a mute e: pressing, assassinate; hospital, sister, ransom, parson, tipsy; pulse, verse, nurse.

Except:

a) among words with ss: possess, scissors, hussar, and hussy, misseldine (comp. c) and the compound dessert (compare above dis), wherein ss is soft; and those wherein ss or s before vowels passes into a sibilant.
b) before and after m, s is soft: whimsy, crimson, damsel; — cosmetic, cosmical, criticism.
c) before l, r, b, d, s is soft after a vowel: grisly, Islamism, Islington, muslin, Israelite, Lisbon, Lésbia, Búsby, wisdom, Désdemona.

Also in mistletoe, wherein t is cast out in pronunciation, s is so in misseldine (of like meaning) compare Old Norse mistiltein; on the other hand not in the like rejection of the t in nestle, whistle, and others
d) after m, n, l, r, in an accented syllable before y and ey s is soft: clumsy, quinsy, palsy, Jersey, also in cléanse.

b) s is soft, like an initial Highdutch s:
a) in general in the middle of words between vowels, to which case also belongs the final s before a mute vowel: riser, season, easy, nasal, bosph, wise, rise.

This bias is in part common to Germanic and Romance tongues; even in Gothic s between vowels readily passes into z (=s), like the same sound in French.

Exceptions are, of course, those words in which s before vowels passes into a sibilant. Besides

a) the adjectives in s-ive and s-ory, the abstract substantives in sis, sy, and os-ity, in which s is sharp: decisive, conclusive; derisory, delusory; crisis, thesis, basis; poesy, extasy, leprosy; curiousity, animosity. This also takes place of course in further derivatives from adjectives: diversively, derisiveness. It is also sharp in argosy ship of burden, but not in pösy, which is deemed to be abbreviated from pöesy.

b) Further, some other substantives with an s in the middle are with drawn from the rule, and have a sharp s: basin, mason, garrison, caparison, sausage, palisade, crusade, abésance and obésance; and words originally Greek, mostly compounds: chrýsalis, chrýsolite, philósophy (-phise, opher, but not philosophical); those with Greek prepositions: épisode, prósody, próspopœia, prósopolépsy, dúsentery &c.

c) likewise adjectives ending in se: concise, obése, base, morose, loose, profuse; only wise has a soft s.
Verbs sounding like adjectives follow the main rule, as close, diffuse &c. Yet the sharp s is retained in: loose (also loosen), débâse.

Those words in ly and ness, derived from adjectives retain their primitive s: morésely, báseness.

d) a series of substantives in se has likewise the sharp s: ánise, prémise, prémise(s), mórtise, préctise; -- lease, reléase, décéase, crease, décéase, incréase, grease; -- base, chase (French chasse and chasser), púrchase, case (French cas and caisse); — dose, púrpose; — use, abúse, réfusé, excúse, reclúse, hypóténuse; goose (also in pl. geese), cruise; — rise (= act of rising &c.), páradise; -- louse, mouse, house (pl. houses), grousé, chouse, souse; — pórpoise, tórtoise.

Many of these substantives are distinguished from verbs of the same spelling by that the latter receive a soft s, like the words: grease, use, refusé, abûse, excúse, rise, prémise. Yet other words have the same form with the sharp s as prémise, préctise, léease, reléase, créase, décéase, incréase, décéase like the simple cease, púrchase (also encháse = enchásser), dose, púrpose, chouse, souse to pickle.

Other verbs with a sharp s are crásé and souse (to throw down).

b) In general also at the end where s arises through inflection of the noun or of the verb, unless it is preceded, either immediately or separated by a mute e, by a hard consonant: in declination seas, widows, pens, pen's, pens', ánnals, wáters, bills, fields, birds, rags, hares, wives, syllables; and conjugation says, does, swims, sounds, neighs &c.

In composition, also, where s constitutes the connecting consonant, this is treated as an inflectional letter: hogshead, tradesfolk, kingsstone.

Of course s also remains soft, where a hissing sound or a sibilant precedes e before s: in declination âsses, âshes, pláces, bóxes, bénches; and conjugation kisses, prízes, despâtches.

Except, therefore, forms like: tyránts, cáps, cliffs, óaks, óptics, months &c., pipes, gátes; — helps, barks &c., débátes, mákes &c.

e) But the s also receives a double sibilant, usually denoted by sh and zh.

a) s receives the hard sibilant sh, before the combination of the unaccented i, e, with other following vowels, as well as before u (=iũ), before ion and u (=iũ); however, only when s is preceded by a second s or by another consonant. The vowel or semivowel sound often still remains to the i-sound: Asian (ãshyan), ásiátic (ãsheátic), pérsian (pérsh'an), náusea (náushea), náuseous (náush'ús); mission (mishún), pássion,
mansion (mánshün), emulsion, sensual, (sénsshoal), sensual, pressure (presh'oor), censure.

At the beginning of the unaccented syllable s = sh only in sure, sugar. See above.

b) the soft sibilant zh (j, dg) before the termination ion and u, if the syllable previous to s ends in a vowel: visión (vizhün), cohésion, evásion, usury (úzh'oory), usurer (may usúrious = uzúrious), usual, mesure, pleasúre, trésure.

c has, as a dental letter:

a) the sound of the sharp s, analogous to the French, before the light vowels i, y, e (a, ə), also only at the beginning of a word or syllable, and at the end before a mute e: civil, cympal, cypress, Cæsar, centre, mercy, face; likewise before a rejected e, if this is indicated by a mark of elision: plac'd. This sound also belongs to sc in a similar position: science, prescind, scène (except in séptic c. der., scirrhous, where sc = sk).

By way of exception c sounds soft, like z (s) and sc like zz in: suffice, sacrifice (as a verb, on the other hand sharp in the substantive sacrifice) and discérn.

b) the sibilant sh, in combination with an unaccented i, e, with a following vowel: efficient, ancien, social, spacious, Phocian, ocean, crustaceous. Where no derivational form is perceived in the termination, the original double sound is nevertheless preserved, as in hármon.

In these cases too sc is equal to c: conscience, conscious (where an unaccented stem appears as a termination).

Except a few Italian words, wherein c sounds like ch: violoncello, vermicelli.

In pronunciation we also hear cia pronounced like cea, to avoid the recurrence of the sibilant.

z, rare, and mostly in foreign words, at the beginning, and at the end, usually with a mute e.

a) has in general the sound of the soft s: zeal, zéphyr, zódiaic; lazy, frózen; fréeze; also the final double z: fizz, frizz, whizz, buzz, fuzz.

After a hard final consonant it hardens into a sharp s: fitz, Mentz, Metz = fits, ments, metz or mäs. In mézzo zz is considered equivalent to ts or tz.

b) the soft sibilant zh (j) in combination with the i-sound of the terminations -ier and -ure: glazier, grázier, ásure, rázure (glázh'ér, ázh'oör).

The word vizier is pronounced vízyer; we also find vizir and viseir written.

ch as sign of a sibilant occurs mostly in words originally Anglosaxon and French,

a) wherein it usually represents the sound tsh; at the end, rarely at the beginning a t is wont to be placed before it after a short vowel, which indicates the reduplication of ch by its first con-
stituent, as with the really intentional reduplication of the sound its first constituent is alone repeated; the reduplication of the dental $g$ as $dg$ is in the same predicament: chin, chaff; reach, bench, church, wretch, crutch; — chief, châmber; arches, ostrich; scútheon. This sound also tolerates $s$ before it: eschew, eschét; but, as to sch, see below, $sh$, and guttural $ch$. These words belong to the Anglosaxon and Old-French: words from the ancient languages are rare and have perhaps come through the same channel. The prefix arch, archi, arche, Greek αρχή, Anglosax. arce, has $tsh$ in the first form before consonants: archbishop, archduke; and before vowels: archénemy, archéunuch &c., with the exception of archángel c. der. On the other hand archi, arche have always the $k$-sound: architect, archetyp. Also in chérub, Râchel and stómacher (alongside of stómach = äk) $ch = tsh$.

Here and there it fluctuates between $tsh$ and $k$: archives is mostly pronounced with $k$, by some with $tsh$; likewise éléch. b) it sounds like $sh$ in words which have been received in modern times from the French with their original sound, as chîcâne, chévalier, chagrin and chagrîen, chârlatan, châm-pâgne (pronounced pâne), champâign, châmois, châise, machine and many more.

$sh$ serves to denote the sibilant $sh$ in all parts of the word, tolerates only $r$ after it at the commencement, and has at the end no consonant before it except $r$: ship, shut, shy, fâshion, bush; shriek, shrine, harsh.

Sometimes, as in Old-English, mostly however, in oriental or modern Germanic words, $sch$ represents the same sound: schédule; schah, scheik, schorl &c., where, however, $sh$ is preferred in writing.

In the encounter of a final $s$ and an initial $h$ no sibilant arises: mishâp, mishéarten = mis-hâp &c.

g serves, as a dental, to denote a soft sibilant, which may be symbolized by a French $j$ with a $d$ preceding it ($dj = dzh$). As a sign of its reduplication $d$ is usually placed before it after a short vowel (see above). It stands at the beginning only before $i$, $y$, $e$; a mute $e$ follows it at the end (on judgment instead of judgement, see above). At the beginning of a word the dental $g$ belongs to French, Latin and Greek stems: at the end $g$, especially when doubled as $dge$, answers also to Germanic words, a single $ge$ after consonants to Romance and Germanic ones. A $g$ in the middle between vowels is Greek, Latin or Romance: giant, gem; Egypt, òrgiès; pledge, wedge, edge, lodge, judge, vigilant, marriage, privilege; targe, hing, singe, also before an elided $e$: fring’d. Where in Latin words $g$ is doubled, $gg$ is written, but only pronounced singly, like $dzg$: suggest, exâggerate.

In gaol, also spelt jail, $g$ sounds like $dzg$, in spite of the $a$ after it.

$j$ is always equivalent to the dental $g$ ($= dzg$). Since the 17th century $j$ has been written instead of $i$: jay, joy, just.

In hâllegújah $j$ sounds like $y$. 
4) The throat-sounds c, k, q, (qu), ch, g, (gh, gu), h, y and the compound x.

c has its guttural sound, equal to the High Dutch k, where it begins the syllable with an l or r after it or before obscure vowels a, o, u: climb, cross, cable, coy, curious, scorn, scray, sclovonian; as well as where it ends the syllable either alone or after and before a consonant: musique, plastick, tale, act, acme, acclaim, accident.

se before obscure vowels likewise sounds like sk. Upon ck see k.

In many words a barely perceptible y-sound is made to sound after the guttural c, precisely as with k, which orthoepists indicate by a mark of elision: c'ard, k'ine, k'ite, k'ind, k'erchief; likewise after the guttural g: for example: g'uard, g'uide, g'ruise, g'irl and others.

k, of the same sound as the guttural c, has been compelled to serve as a substitute for the c which has passed into the hissing sound before light vowels, therefore stands at the beginning of a syllable chiefly before i, y, e, rarely, and mostly in foreign words before a, o, u, as well as before l and r. At the end of a syllable k appears after a long vowel or another consonant, otherwise after a short vowel in the combination ck, which is to be regarded as a reduplication of c or k, and like all double consonants, sounds single at the end of a syllable. This ck also stands in the middle of a syllable between short vowels after a short syllable: kid and kyd, key, kind, skeptic alongside of sceptic, skirmish; — kantism, kali, koran, kumiss; — klick alongside of click, kremlin; — sleek, slink, remârk, attâck, clock, rankle, twinkle, knuckle, baskett; — läckey, attâcker.

In encountering g, ck assimilates itself to the g, as in blackguard (= bläggard).

q appears as k only in combination with u, which, especially in the stem after an initial q is heard as a semiconsonant w: queen, quick, quack, quâdrupe, quinquennial; bâquet.

But qu has the simple k-sound, particularly in French and some other foreign words; seldom at the beginning of the word: quatre, quadrille; frequently at the end in combination with the mute e (que): antique, opaque, oblique, burlésque, grotésque, cinéque; — pique, critique, cirque, risque, cásque, mósque (also spelt mosk); also in the middle of the words: piquet, étiQuéte, dôquet (also spelt docket), coqué; hárlequin, pâlanquin; côquer (but not in côquest), exchéquer, lâquer, fâquir (also Fákir), liqûor; másquerâde, mosquîto, roque-lâure; piquánt. Iroquois.

ch, as a guttural, equal in pronunciation to k, rests upon non-Germanic throatsounds, except ache, wherefor also ake is used. At the beginning of a syllable it may stand before all vowels, as well as after all at the end. Commencing along with l and r it is always guttural, in the combination sch, mostly equal to sk (se sk): chyle, ChérsoneSE, châos, chaRacteR, bâldachin, Buchánan; chlo-
rid, chrónicle, schéme, school; — hémistich, lilach, loch, éunuch.

choir is pronounced and also spelt like quire.

g is guttural before obscure vowels a, o, u, before l and r and always at the end of a syllable, either alone or combined with l and r: gab, gain, gaunt, go, goat, good, gulf, glory, grind. — leg, crag, dog, eagle, shingle, agre. Before light vowels i, y, e it stands, especially in Anglo-Saxon or other Germanic, also Celtic and Oriental words: gild, begin, geese, get; — Argyle, Elgin, Amager; — Géber, Gibeon; — also in the inverted ger instead of gre: tiger, Latin tigris, French tigre, conger, Latin congrus, French congre, and in the derivational syllable -er after an originally guttural g: singer &c.

This is rarely the case where g in Latin or Romance words stood before a light vowel: ginglymus, gibbous and others, see below.

For the nasal ng in thing, young see above p. 52.

Double g in the middle of a word, unless sprung from a Latin gg, is guttural: nóggin, rúgged, dágger, giggie; and at the end in egg. While g in gh is silent at the beginning and at the end of a word, it often sounds in the middle, as in signal, malignant &c. see below. In Champignon, cógnac and other words properly French it sounds as in French.

gu appears often instead of the simple guttural g (apart from the cases in which gu sounds like gw, as in Guelfs, guáicum, guáva, guiniad, anguish, lánguish, dístinguish, extínquish, lánguind, lánguage). It commonly, as in French, ensures the guttural sound before light vowels, and often in French words: guide, guile, Guisborough, Guelders; at the end, as guè: fatigue. Yet it also occurs in words originally Germanic: gues, Old-English gessen; guild and tongue, seldom instead of the expected dental g: pro-rógue, compare French proroger. u is idle before obscure vowels, as in guárantéé, guard, guarédian c. der.

gh likewise sometimes represents this sound, always at the beginning: Ghibelline, ghost, Ghent, Ghaunts, so also in the compound aghást. At the end it is a guttural g only in burgh c. der.; sometimes, on the other hand gh is hardened into k, in the substantives hough and shough. This sound likewise belongs to it in Celtic words: lough (Lough Neagh = lók-nè), Léighlin (= lék-lin). See above gh p. 55.

h, when it appears by itself (not in combinations, like ph, th, sh, ch, gh) sounds only at the beginning of syllables (unless altogether silent). like the Highdutch h: here, hair, Hull. On its transposition in vch see w p. 55.

The aspiration almost disappears before ew and u, on account of the semivowel i (y) which therein sounds before u: hew, Hugh, húman, humídity, almost like yu, yúman &c. Yet the aspiration is not quite destroyed in careful pronunciation.

y as a consonant, answers to the sound of the Highdutch initial j: year, yésterday, yawn, York, youth. In the middle of a
syllable it is found in foreign words, as bāyard, bāyonet, where it is mostly treated as a consonant (j). Some quite destroy it and say bā-ard, bā-o-net.

In the context a slight sibilant can mingle with y after a word with a final dental, when that beginning with y is unaccented I'll meet you, so that here ğh, as it were, sounds before y.

The compound sound x is expressed by the sign which was written in Anglosaxon for ks, cs, sc and gs = sg, and in Old-French often interchanged with s (ss).

a) It has the hard double sound ks.

"a) at the end of the accented syllable (having the principal or subordinate accent) in which case the s may also commence the next syllable: axe, wax, fix, axle-tree, éxit, éxercice, excellent, éxhibition, Aix-la-Chapelle, orthodoxy. So too in orthodox and such like Greek words.

Except the case mentioned under c).

b) in the syllable before the accent, if the accented one begins with a fresh consonant, (h excepted): extént, expásion, exchéquer.

b) it sounds like gs before the accented syllable, in which a vowel or h follows the x: exist, exált, exért, exált, anxiety, auxíliary, luxúriant, exhibit, exháust.

But words derived from such with a hard x (ks) retain exceptionally, even in this case their hard sound: fixátion from fix, vexátion, vexátions from vex, luxátion and lúxate from lux. This is also the case in dóxology.

In exempláry, as belonging to exemplá, x, even under the accent, remains = gs.

c) it sounds like ğsh, analogously to the single s, tinged, before an unaccented i, with the following vowel and u (=iu): án-xious, fléxion, fléxure, luxúry; yet many give to x in unfrequent derivational terminations its ks-sound, as in axíom, even in luxúry.

d) at the beginning of a word it sounds like the English z and mostly occurs in words originally Greek: xíphias, xistós, Xénophon, xébec.

Silence of Consonants.

The silence of consonants, retained in writing, rests partly upon the physiological difficulty or unaccustomedness of pronouncing them together, in which the rejection of a third between two others is particularly frequent. Much of this belongs, however, to the glibness or carelessness of conversation, which gradually becomes law. Old-English, with more consistency, entirely rejected the unspoken consonants. That consonants no longer sounded were still heard in the fourteenth century, prove, amongst others, alliterations in: Piers Ploughman, as well as the following for kn: Thanne kam ther a
kyng Knyghthod hym ladde (p. 7 ed. Wright); Yet I courbed my knees And cried. p. 28) for wr: And yet wolde he hem no’wo That wroughte hym that peyne (p. 25), and at the silence of the b in debt, doubt; of the l in calf, half; of the gh in neighbour and neigh the pedantic schoolmaster still takes offence in Shakspeare (Love’s labour’s lost V, I), gh was in the seventeenth century still in great part audible by an aspiration which at the least was perceptible. However, even in Old-English, the silence of consonants is not always indicated in writing. Moreover, etymological considerations have here and there restored to Modern-English consonants cast out in Old-English.

1) The nasal and liquid sounds m, n, l, r.

m is silent before m at the beginning of a word: mnemónic; thus, even in Old-English, in which mn alliterates with n: And by-nam hym his mnam (uot) (Piers Plough. p. 131); also between r and l in Dunfermline (= dünferlin).

n, although frequently cast off, is nevertheless, after m and l, where it is mute, often preserved in writing. It is mute after m at the end of a word: limn, hymn, contémn, damn, sólemn, au-tumn, column; also where a syllable beginning with a consonant is added: sólemnly; and where the inflectional termination ed with a mute e is added: limned, condémed; but not in the adjective form, where e is audible: dámned. Generally, where a termination commencing with a vowel is added, n is the initial sound of the following syllable: contémner, sólemnity, dámnable, au-tumnal. Some grammarians except the termination ing, wherein n must remain mute, so as not to render the fundamental form unrecognizable by the inaudible sound of the stem. But this would also apply with equal justice to all other derivatives. In conversation we certainly hear hissing instead of hymning, but also condémer instead of condemnner.

n is mute after l in kiln, kilndry, brickkiln; hence brick-keel in southern dialects.

l is mute, in particular, before other consonants ending a word with it, especially m, f (ve) and k, and only after obscure vowels a, o, ou; after a before m in: ałms, pàlm, Old-French palme, paume; psalm, Old-French salme, saume; calm, quàlm; calf, half, calve, calves, halves, salve (according to other sílve), chalk, French chaux, bark, walk, talk, Dun-dalk, Fálkland. Derivatives from these words commonly retain the rejection of the l, for example pál-mer, pálmy, quálmish, călving, tálkative &c; yet not for example in pálmed, pálmipe, pálmistry, palmiferous, pálmetto. l is mute before n in auln (aulnage) Old-French alne, aune; Calne (pronounced kàwn) and Alnwick (pronounced ãnnik); before s in hâlse, hâser also spelt hawse, hawser.

Except, among monosyllabic stems tálk (talk, talck) and válve.

l after a is moreover mute in a few polysyllables: álmond, Spanish almandra, French amande, málmsév, French malvoisie, Málmesbury, sálmon, French saumon; fálcon, Old-French falcon,
faucon, mâlkin also spelt maukin; in châldron (= 36 bushels) some do not pronounce the l, we also find chaudron written. The Old-English had also auter, Modern-English àltar; sauter, Modern-English psálter; fauhhon, Modern-English fálıchion.

l after o is silent in folk and yolk, in Hólborn and sólder also spelt soder, in common life also in sóldier; so in the proper names Líncoln and Lânghól/m.

l after ou is mute in would, should, to which in modern writing could has been assimilated (Old-Engl. coude). — Also in vault, Old-French voûte, voute, vaute some suppress the l.

At the end of a word l is silent in the properly French word fusil. Dialectically l and ll are often thrown off; for Example in the Scotch a'= all, fu' = full, ca', caa, caw = call; so in Derbyshire aw = all &c.; also before d: bowd = bold, coud = cold.

It is also silent before several consonants in Chélmsford.

r, although often sounding feebly as a guttural r, is seldom quite silent.

The dental r is left out in glib utterance in the title Mrs = mistress (pronounced missiz) else, it sounds in this word.

The guttural r is mute in Mârlyborough and wórsted (= yarn, not in worsted = defeated); also in rôqelaùre many make the r inaudible, contrary to the more elegant usage.

2) The lipsounds p, b, f, (ph), v, w, wh.

p is not seldom silent, especially at the beginning of a word before n, t, s, sh mostly in Greek words: pneumatic, ptìsan, Ptólemý, psalm, psálter (Old-Engl. sauter; compare The sauter seith in the \( \text{Psalme} \). (PiErs Ploughm. p. 132), psychoLOGY, psóra &c., pshōw! (pronounced shaw).

It is also mute betwixt m and t: attempt, émpty, Northámpton, adémption; as well as before a final t in récipient; compare Old-Engl. dècéipt (Spìnsor) now dècèît.

It is cast out betwixt m and f in Bápmpfield, Bápmpfylde; betwixt m and b it is cast out along with the assimilated b in Câmpbell (pronounced kæmel); before tf in Déptford.

b is mute at the beginning of a word in bdélíum (pronounced délýum).

It is silent before t in débt, débtor, súbtle c. der., but not in súbtile, although Old-Engl. sótile.

At the end of stems in mb and their derivatives b disappears: climb, comb (also in cátacombd [pronounced come]), tomb, dumb, rhumb, bomb (pronounced bûm); and so climbable, climber, combed, thûmbed &c.; but not in bómbard &c. Compare in Spencer frequently clim, lim, lam and the like.

We except accumb, succumb and rhomb together with rhômbus c. der.

in which b sounds decidedly.

The b is also silent in ámbs-ace (pronounced ámbz-ace) which in Shakspeare is also spelt ámes-ace.

f is mute in common life, together with l in hálfpenny; it is certainly sometimes cast off in o' instead of of.
The ph, of like sound, remains, on the other hand mute at the beginning of Greek words: phthisis, phthisic, phthisical; and in the compounds: ápophthegm (pronounced ápothegm), which is also spelt apophthegm.

Upon v see the rejection of vowels and consonants. Otherwise its rejection is indicated in writing, as in e'er, ne'er, o'er and the like.

w is in many ways extinct in pronunciation.

At the beginning of a syllable it is silent before r: wrinkle, wrap, wrong, wry; of course in compounds, as aurú, bewráy &c.; before h in words in which h is followed by o (also by oo): who, whose, whole, whose, hoop (also spelt hoo)

Except whop c. der. and whorl. According to Walker and Perry it sounds in whortleberry (perhaps mutilated from the Anglosaxon heorotberige through the influence of the English whurt of the same meaning).

It is mute after t in two and its compounds; after s in sword.

In composition w is silent after an initial s in answer, Anglosaxon and-svarjan, an-svarjan; analogously in common life in boatswain (pronounced bōs'n) and cockswain (pronounced cōxen = cōcksn) from the Anglosaxon svān = bubulcus, juvenis. Thus also a single w is rejected after a consonant, when the single consonant after a short vowel seems reduplicated: gúnswale, commonly pronounced and even spelt gunnél, and especially in names of places compounded of the Anglosaxon vic = portus and vic = habitatio, also víca = castellum; Greenwich, Norfwich, Droitwich, Sheldwich, Dúlwich, Dúnwich, Annwick (pronounced Annick), Berwick (pronounced Bérick), Hárwick (pronounced Hárrick). Sédgwick &c. Thus the pronunciation of housewife „hüssif" otherwise also hüś-wif and the spelling hüssy (pronounced huzzy) has arisen. After th an initial w is silent in the negligent pronunciation of southerward (pronounced sütherd) and southernwood (pronounced süthernwood) as well as in the vulgar pronunciation of akward and Southward, which is almost corrupted into Sóddrick. w is extinguished between vowels in tóward, tówards c. der., wherein ōw is taken as the vowel.

Upon the silence of an originally consonantal w at the beginning and the end of a word, by which the vowel signs ew, aw, ow &c. partly arise, see below, (the origin of the vowels.)

3) The toothsounds t, d, th, s, c, z.

T is frequently silent betwixt consonants, particularly in the collision of sl: whistle, thistle, mistletoe, wréstele, pésztle, cástle, Cástlebar, Cástleton, hóstler, thróstle, bústle; and stn (commonly with a preceding mute or rather glib e): chéstnut, listen, listener, hásten, moisten, and analogously with fin: óften, sóften; seldom in the muting of stn: Christmas; or stc in common life: wáistcoat; also in the combination rtg in: mörtgage, which also appears a matter of course with pte in bánr uptey. In the popular boatswain (bōs'n) it is lost before sn. Where t stands before ch, it is as idle in pronunciation as every other final reduplication: fetch, catch &c.
At the end of French words, not assimilated to the English pronunciation, it is silent, in the French manner: bille'doux, trait, eclat, gout, hautboy and many more.

d is silent at the beginning before n: Dnieper, Dniester.

In the compound hand'kerchief d is rejected and n becomes nasal (= n). In careless utterance it is readily rejected between n and s as in: Windsor, handsome, handsel, groundsel, although this is not approved by orthoepists. On the otherhand wéndesday is universally pronounced wenzday. Fieldfare is commonly pronounced without a d, and in Kirkcudbright (say kirkköbr) it likewise does not sound.

At the end of a word d after n is often not pronounced dialectically: riband is pronounced like ribbon, which is the better style, also weasand, Anglosaxon væsand, væsend, is here and there pronounced like væz'n.

The reduplication of g after a short vowel by d with a dental g (= dzh) is to be treated like that of t before ch.

th is, perhaps, silent in clothes (pronounced clöze) only. See above, th before s.

s is not silent at the beginning of a word, unless we consider it mute when combined with the dental c, as in science where, however, e may with the same reason pass for mute.

In the middle of some simple and compound words s (partly inorganic) is silent, particularly l, n, and m: isle, island, Islay (pronounced ëlà), aislé, Carlisle, Lisle (pronounced Lisle, Lille), mësne (= middle), demësne also spelt demain (Old-French demaine), pûisne (pronounced pûny), dîsme (pronounced dëme, Old-French disme, dixme), as well as in viscount, Lewis'd'or and Grosvenor.

At the end of many French words not assimilated, s, as in French, is rejected: avis, vis-a-vis, pas, chamois, shamois (pronounced shámmy, as it is also spelt) sous, rendezvous, corps and others. Yet it is pronounced in glaciés and here and there in other words.

z is silent in the French rendezvous.

The throatsounds c, k, ch, g, gh, h, y

c is mute at the beginning of foreign words before other consonants, as in Cnéus, Ctésilas, czar, czarina c. der.

In the middle of the word it is mute betwixt s and l: muscle, árbuscle, côrpuscle; yet not in derivatives, as corpúscular and many such. The rejection of c before t is also usual in vícidual (pronounced vitt'l), compare Old-French vitaille, Latin victualia; indict, indictable, indictment and other derivatives alongside of which indité, indité is written.

c is likewise silent in Connecticut; cf. Pontefract and Pómfret.

k is always mute before n at the beginning of a word: knee, know, knuckle, knight.
ch is silent after an initial s in schism c. der; in schédule *sch* is pronounced like *sh*; it is also mute in yacht and drachm (also spelt dram).

g is mute, like k, before n at the beginning of a word: *gnat, gnome, gnoff*.

In the middle of the word the silence of *g* before *m* and *n* occurs:

before *m*, when it concludes the syllable: phlegm, *apôphtheigm, paradigym, parapegm*; but not with the augmentation of the word, when it becomes the initial sound before a vowel: phlegmatic, paradigmatical.

Before *n*, likewise, when this concludes the syllable: imprègn, féign, expûgn, oppûgn, propûgn, design, malign, foreign, sovereignty; in derivatives, only when their forms begin with a consonant, as ment, ness, ly, ty, cy: desigment, foreignness, malignly, sovereignty, ensigncy. Among the derivational forms beginning with a vowel, those in *ing* and *er* alone make the *g* mute: feigning, designing, oppûner, foreigner. Before all others beginning with vowels *g* becomes the final and *n* the initial sound: imprègnate, signal, benignity.

Moreover, *g* is not sounded in pôignant; côgnizance (in the legal sense) connizance, and cocâgne is, according to Smart, pronounced cockâne.

In the encounter of *gl* and *gn* with an unaccented *i* after it and another vowel arise forms of the iota *l* and *n*, in which *g* before *l* and *n* may in English be considered as cast out and *i* as having passed into a semi consonant *y*: intâglio, serâglio, óglio, bâgnio, séignior, signior.

The silence of *g* in the verbal form is provincial, for instance, in Derbyshire and Scotland.

*gh* is silent in the middle of the word, where *gh* stands before both an initial and a final *t*: eight, straight, sought, bought, fought, night, might, right, flight, fright, sight, Connâught, mighty, rightly, slaughter, daughter, doughty, as also in the long (or diphthong) accented syllables ending in *gh*: weigh, neigh, neighbour, though, dough (pronounced doe), although, through, usquebáugh (Erse, whence whisky), pugh! nigh, sigh, high, bough, plough; Anmágh, Armágh, Néamágh. But this happens also in unaccented final syllables: Râleigh, Chúmleigh, Hádleigh, Dénbigh, Kéogh, Conemáugh, borough, thórough c. der., fúrlough. Even in Old-English we certainly find *u* and *w* substituted for *gh*: plou, plow = glough.

In the compounds of burgh this word is often made to sound like borough, (burro); Édinburgh, Jédburgh and others.

With the silence of *gh* is connected its rejection (together with *u*) at the end thó', altho' and even bro' instead borough.

*h* is by general consent, silent only in a few words not originally Germanic: *heir, hónest, hónour, hóstler* (also spelt ostler), *hour, humble* and all their derivatives and compounds; but, of course, not in merely related words not immediately betraying an
English stem; as héritage, hórál &c. Many also add herb and hôspitol to the above list. The inclination is, however, universal to regard h as mute in the unaccented syllable, beginning with h at the commencement of a word, on which account the article an instead of a is wont to be put before adjectives of that sort; for instance héro and an heróical &c.

About h before ã see above.

In Greek words beginning with rh, h is mute: rhétoric, rhú-barb, rheum, also in rhyme; so too in the combination dh in Búddha.

Even where h begins an unaccented syllable after one closed with a consonant, a proneness exists to drop the aspiration, as in ípecácuánha, in shépherd, dúnghill and others, for which reason also in names of place, as Amherst, Dúrham, Húverhill (pronounced háveril), the h remains disregarded in the mouth of the people. Otherwise in an accented syllable, as abhór.

Before another final consonant it has likewise no phonetic value: John, Johnson, compare Old-Engl. Jon; buhl, búhlwork.

At the end it is mute after vowels and consonants: eh! ah! hah! buh! oh! foh! sírrah! Messiah, Sárah, hállelújah; brámah, dählia; catárrh.

Silence of vowels with consonants.

The rejection of consonants with a previous or a subsequent vowel is ordinarily speedily exhibited also in writing; yet the speech of the people has sanctioned abbreviations of this sort, not acknowledged by the written language, particularly in proper names.

Thus in the unaccented syllable a consonant with a mute e at the end is cast out as be in Búncome (pronounced bünkum) and Edgecombe (pronounced ej'kúm). In the middle of words ce in the common pronunciation of twélvemonth, Háverford also Havreford; te in lútestring (also spel lustering); de in the vulgar pronunciation of Hýdepark; ce in names compounded with cester: Leícester, Glóúcester, Wórcester (commonly also pronounced with an elided r) and others.

Conversely both vowel and consonant are lost in: Léominster (pronounced lémster); av; Abergavénny (pronounced āberghénny).

Two consonants with the included vowel in an unaccented syllable are cast out, like ven in sévennight (pronounced sennit) cf. sennet (SKELTON I, 107), Sévenoaks is pronounced in Kent: Súnnuck; cf. fortnight = fourteennight; ver in Wávertree (pronounced wátry); ren in Círencester (pronounced cis-e-ter), wherein at the same time s falls out before t. Compare Exeter in Rob. of Glóúcestrfr Exetre and Excestre I, 5 and 4.

Upon a similar glibness of the speech of common life rest rejections indicated by a mark of elision, like gi’me (give), I’ll (will, shall), I’d (would), thou’dst (hadst, wouldst), he’d (had, would) and many more, which remain foreign to the more solemn language.
The syllable and the division of syllables.

The syllable consists either of a single vowel or diphthong, or of a combination of a consonant with a vowel, or conversely; or of a vowel surrounded by consonants. We recognize them as such by that all sounds constituting them are produced with an impulse.

A word, the sensuous expression of an image, may consist of one or of several syllables. The number of its syllables is articulated for the ear according to the number of sounds produced at one impulse. The division of syllables in writing is especially evident by the interruption of the word at the end of the line, and has, besides, a theoretical interest.

But by the peculiar influence of the accent in English upon the totality of the syllables of a polysyllabic word, and the proneness towards the attraction (see above) of the initial consonant of a subsequent syllable, as well as by the glibness of many final syllables, the division of syllables is hardened for apprehension by the ear, and often rendered still more difficult for the written language. The parting of syllables is most obvious where several consonants between vowels encounter each other which are separated by physiological conditions of the organs of speech, as in ac-cōm-plish; less decided, where a simple consonant appears between vowels, so that after a long vowel, as in appārent, with the glibness of the final syllable the division appā-ent or appā-ent may more readily catch the ear, and, after a short, attracted consonant, as in ēpic, the divisions ēp-ic and ē-pic seem to correspond alike ill to the phonetic relations.

With respect therefore to the division of syllables in writing, there is no complete agreement either among grammarians or in its employment in common life and in typography.

But with the principle which appears so natural, to consider in the division of syllables the sensuous articulation of the word as the standard, is associated the theoretical interest to render evident the stem and the termination, and, in the compounding of words, to render the separate stems manifest. But in this is also to be considered, that in English many derived and even compound words are no more present, as such, to the linguistic consciousness.

In the exposition of the principles for the division of syllables upon which authority is pretty well agreed must therefore be stated a) the general and leading points of view and b) their limitations conditioned by etymological considerations.

a) General Rules.

1) Two vowels, not serving to represent one simple sound or diphthong, are separable: di-al, deni-able, soci-ety, previous, perspicu-ous, destroy-ing, know-ing, apprōpri-ate, superi-ōrity.

2) If a consonant (with which, of course, must be reckoned the signs of simple sounds ph, th, sh, ch) stands between two vowels or diphthongs, then, apart from the inflectional and derivational
syllables beginning with a consonant, and cited below, the consonant is drawn to the following vowel: féa-sible, pâ-per, fâ-ther, nó-tice, hú-mour, bí-shop, spi-rit, bá-che-lor, ori-gi-nal, gé-ne-ral, áu-tumn, acknow-ledgement, compá-nion.

This principle is often not observed with a short accented vowel, so that we frequently meet the division: prës-ent, cán-opy, philôs-opher, abôm-inate &c., consistency with which is, however, not found throughout even in good lexicographers.

A mute e alone is never broken off from its preceding consonant: mouse, house, hinge.

3) Two consonants, standing between two vowels or diphthongs, are divided as the final and the initial sound, unless a mute stands along with a liquid consonant and can form the initial sound of the last vowel, which is not the case, if the liquid commences a derivative syllable: mán-ner, púl-ley, bég-gar, mûr-der, sêg-ment, prin-ciple, dig-nity, bap-tize, apâr-ment, fûs-tian, progrés-sion, obstruc-tion, Egyp-tian.

The combination of a mute and a liquid consonant at the beginning of a syllable is mostly confined to r: â-pron, pro-priety, péne-trate, álge-bra, sé-cret, sâ-cred, orthô-graphy; l, on the other hand does not combine readily: pûb-lic, pûb-lish, estâb-lish, neg-lecting, even dec-lamá-tion; although pêo-ple, scrû-ple, syl-la-ble, trî-fle and the like are written.

ck is always drawn to the last syllable: pôck-et, chick-ens, Cóck-eram; likewise x, even when it occurs in words not com-pounded: vex-âtion, véx-il, prox-imity.

4) If three consonants separate the vocalization, the last two, if consisting of a mute and a liquid or of two consonants combined at the beginning of stems, are drawn to the following syllable: mêm-brane, cúm-brous, dôc-trine, màgis-trate, scép-tre, hûn-dred; bûb-blîng, cât-tle, mid-dle, swîn-dler, sprîn-kle, strûg-gle.

Yet we usually find, after a nasal n, the consonants kl, gl separated, (except before a single mute e): twînk-ling, ming-ling, éng-lish.

But if the two latter consonants are not of the kind above indicated, the former two are drawn to the former syllable: distinc-tion, émp-ty, absór-p-tion, presûmp-tive.

b) Limitations through etymological considerations.

1) The inflectional and derivational terminations condition divisions of syllables not according with the rules generally valid, especially for stems.

a) derivational terminations commencing with a consonant (resting partly upon composition) are always separated, even from prior consonants, as ness, ment, ly &c.

b) on inflectional and derivational terminations beginning with a vowel no perfect agreement prevails; but their separation
from the stem ending with a consonant only takes place with terminations felt decidedly as derivational forms. The separation is readily avoided in many cases.

The termination *ing* is unanimously separated from the stem: *lēad-ing*; *despōil-ing*, *būild-ing*, *léarn-ing*, *ādd-ing*, *fāll-ing*, *spēll-ing*. — Double consonants are given to the syllable of the stem, unless they first appear with the termination, else they are usually separated; hence *rūn-n ing*, *fit-t ing*, *blō-t-t ing* &c. Even if the stem ends with a consonant and a mute *e*, with the rejection of the *e*, the consonant usually remains to the stem: *giv-ing*, *unit-ing*, *hāv-ing*, *móv-ing*, *apprōv-ing*, *detēr-g ing*; although many then draw the consonant to the termination: *detēr-g ing*, *wri-ting*; and thus also before other terminations. On *twēnt-ling* &c. see above.

In substantives in *er* derived from verbal stems the same thing happens: *tēach-er*, *rēad-er*, *hēlp-er* (yet not with reduplicated consonants: *skim-mer*; likewise when the stem ends in *e* *wri-ter*) and in words in *ard*: *drunk-ard*. In the comparative and superlative the *er* and *est* are also separated from the stem: *grēat-er*, *brōad-est*, *nēar-est*.

The terminations *ence* and *ance* are likewise usually separated: *réfer-ence*, *differ-ence*, *exist-ence*, *appēar-ance*, *acquaint-ance*, *perform-ance*; on the other hand *excērs-cence* and, according to the correct feeling, *violen*; also *age*: *bānd-age*; *ary*: *diction-ary*; *ure*: *dēpārt-ure* even *displēas-ure*. Thus also *ity* is separated: *quāl-ity*, *chār-ity*, *regular-ity*. Of verbal terminations *en* and *on*: belong here: *dārk-en*, *short-en*, *réck-on*; *ish* and *ize* are also found separated: *pūn-ISH*, *abōl-ISH*; *cāracter-ize*, *gēnerāl-ize*; as well as *ate*: *adūlt-er-ate*.

The verbal inflection *ed* is regularly separated: *fābricat-ed*, *dēmand-ed*, *dēmēnt-ed*.

Among the adjective terminations we find *ish*, *īcal*, *īst ic*, *ian*, *ent*, *able*, *ous* and others separated: *fōōl-ISH*, *crīt-ical*, *chāracter-īst ic*, *differ-ent*, *rēasion-able*, *rēmark-able*, *resōlv-able* (even *move-able*), *pōison-ous*, *dānger-ous* &c. It often depends upon that the syllāble of formation is added to a stem universally known (which itself may contain a derivation) which one thinks it is not permitted to deprive of its final consonant. Strict consistency is not observed even by the correctest writers.

The separation of the unaccented vowels *ia*, *ie*, *ei*, *io* and the like, particularly in derivational terminations beginning with *s*, *c*, *t*, as *argilāce-ous*, *sagāci-ous*, *possēss-īon*, *conditi-ōn*, is decidedly disapproved. We divide: *spē- cial*, *intervē-nient*, *argilā-ceous*, *relā-tion* &c., although also sometimes: *prov-is-īon*.

2) Where the composition is present to the linguistic consciousness, the constituents are separated in the division of the syllables, without regard to the above general rules; wherein the nature
of the constituents is indifferent: in-active, Eng-land, a-stráy, an-o-ther, up-ón, re-strán, re-spéct, be-tween, dis-ease, as-certain, de-stróy, when-ever, shép-herd, béef-eater &c.

Yet we find divisions such as ab-stáin, ab-scórned, dis-tilled and the like, through mistaking the constituents, or from the greater case of pronunciation, as divisions in words like pen-ul-timate and others no longer allow the consideration of composition to appear.

The word and its accent.

The word, as expression of an image, consists, in its simplest form, of one syllable. Polysyllables arise through the junction of syllables of formation to the syllable of the stem (Suffixes), as well as by the conjunction of still recognizable stems, either with or without further syllables of formation. Syllables constituting the simple or compound word, are recognized as the expression of one total image by being comprehended under a principal accent. This is received by one syllable, which is therefore called the accented syllable, the others having a subordinate accent.

The monosyllable can, in regard to its accent, be measured only within the sentence; many monosyllables (as the article, pronoun, preposition and auxiliary word) may attach themselves proclitically to the accent of the following word, or enclitically to that of the previous word and are prejudiced not only quantitatively and qualitatively in regard to their vocalization, but also in strength of sound.

Words of more than one syllable, and especially polysyllables have a gradation of accent within themselves, and, besides the prin-cipal accent, a second, (rarely a third), called the sub-ordinate accent, may come forth.

The English tongue, in the accenting of its words, has had various principles to adjust among each other. The principle of ac-centing the syllable of the stem of the simple word proceeded from the Anglosaxon elements of the language; the Norman-French stock of words established the accenting of the full final syllable; the Latin and Latin-Greek elements, coming in along with the study of the classics, procured admission for the Latin principle; according to which in disyllables the first, in polysyllables, the penultimate or the antepenultimate necessarily has the accent.

In general the principle of accenting the syllable of the stem in words of more than one syllable has carried off the victory; the French principle of accenting the final syllable has maintained itself in many cases, as it were, exceptionally; yet the Latin accenting, particularly in the Latin-French forms of words in the modern English has obtained intensively, through the cooperation of philologists.

A distinction takes place, however, in certain cases, in the ac-centing of simple and of compound words, with the Germanic and other constituents of the compound, although many words originally compounds are no longer felt as such.
In treating primarily of the accent of the word, as sole or principal accent, we consider first the simple word, and then the compound word, whereupon ensues the exposition of the relation of principal and subordinate accent.

A) The Doctrine of the Accent, as principal Accent.

1) The accent of the simple word.

a) In general the endeavour is visible in modern English, to give the accent to the syllable of the stem, which, in the simple word, is regularly the first, and to maintain this in the further formation from that word, whence it may happen that the accent recedes to the sixth syllable from the end: discipline, disciplinable, disciplinableness, although a counterpoise is in many cases given to the multitude of unaccented syllables by the subordinate accent.

Instances of this accenting, which has its bound in the limitations specified under b, c, d are offered by all classes of words having derivatives to exhibit: ape, ápish, áphisly, áphisnness; apt, ápty, áptness, áptitude; fish, fisher, fishery; dédad, dédly, dédliness; change, chângeling, chângable, chângeably, chângeableness; coop, côöper, côöperage; crime, criminal, criminalness, criminous, criminosly, criminousness, criminate, crimatory; author, authoress, authorize; ídol, idolish, idolize, idólider, idolism, ídolist; bánish, bánisher, báníshment; cástle, cástlet, cástellan, cástellany; álien, álienable, álienate, álienator; cásuál, cásualness, cásualty; cástigate, cástigator, cástigatory.

It is to be remarked, however, that in the accenting of the syllable of the stem in words of three and more syllables, on the one hand the length by position of the penultimate (a mute and a liquid letter not being reckoned) is avoided, and that in the multiplication of the syllables of formation ness, ment, ling, ly, ry, ty and cy beginning with a consonant chiefly make length by position, that a collision of the vowels of the penultimate and the final syllable is likewise avoided, and that polysyllabic words with the accent on the syllable of the stem mostly contain a series of unaccented syllables of a simple consonant and vowel, with the exception of the last.

Compare the trisyllables: ánimal, ánmorist, ávarice, án- glican, éscentul, órigin, númerous, nótary, pénitence, báchelor, bóundary, dángerous, chângeable, célature, gárgarize; with length by position in the penultimate: bó- yishness, púnishment, fóstering, blésséedly, blázony, cruelt, agency, brigandage, cówardice, bástardize; dúellist, scintillate, óscillate; yet also chámber- lain and a few others.

tetrasyllables: ímagery, cémterey, bálneary, áuditory, ágrimony, délizacy, álopecy, ágitator, literature,
créditable, alterative, liberalize, bóronetage, cán- nibalism, sántuazize; with length by position in the penul-
timate: actualness, actually, casualty, cásuistry, bril-
liancy, árbalister, álabaster and the like. Length by position in previous syllables certainly occurs without influence on the accent: libertinism, báltistry, miscellany.

Words of five and more syllables: disciplinable, disci-
plinary, bálneatory, álterableness, ámiableness, só-
ciableness, disciplinableness.

The terminations ful, less, some, ship, hood and the like, which, properly speaking, form compounds, are always unaccented, and therefore are joined to stems without prejudice to the accent.

That, however, in polysyllables the length by position other-
wise allowed remains here and there not without import, is shown by forms like argumentative, documentoary, éle-
méntary, in which the originally subordinate receives the place of the principal accent: clandétine, lacérétine, ele-
phantine, whereas crystalline, córalline and the like are tolerated.

b) But a number of words has the accent upon the last syllable

a) Here in the first place must be mentioned the principle of Dissimilation followed here and there, especially in disyllabic words, which is often considered in compounding, and accord-
ing to which different parts of speech with a like form of the word are distinguished by the accent. Compare augment substantive, to augment; férment substantive, to férmént; tórment substantive, to tormént; fréquent adjective, to frequént; (although cémént, lamént appear both as sub-
statives and as verbs fomént only as a verb) bóm bard substantive, to bombárd; reversely brevét substantive, to brévet; hallóo Interjection to háalloo; lévant adjective levánt substantive; minute substantive, minute adjective, Aúgust (the month), augúst adjective; gallant adjective, gallánt adjective and substantive; supine substantive, su-
pine adjective, buffet (a blow) buffét a sideboard.

b) But a not inconsiderable number of words retains the accent upon this syllable, which was given to it in its French, Latin or other foreign home, and eludes a thorough analogy. Betwixt the originally French or Latin accent a distinction is not often to be drawn, both commonly coinciding.

Here belong substantives: basháw; rouleáu, bureáu, chateáu; canoé, bambóo, Hindóo; chagrin, bombasin; nankéen, cantéen, caréen; chamáign, benzónin; arti-
sán, caraván, courtezán; gazoña; Brasil, fusil, gazél; chevál, canál, cabál (an English word); contró substantive and verb (properly a compound), mogúl; bazáár, bou-
doir, abattoir, abreuvoir; accouchéur (a compound), amatéur, corridór, amóur, estafét, bidét, buffét, ca-
dét, coquet, curvét, canzonét; cravát, marmót, sabót; glácis, abattis; alcaid, caréss substantive and verb, ma-
tross, placard, basalt, elench, bombast, marine, magazine, machine, tontine, chicane; bastile; caviare; chemise, caprice, Chinesé, finesse, grimace, cabóose Hollandish kabuys), accouchéuse, embrasure, embouchure; giraffe, alcove, finance, harangue; champagne, allemande and others.

Adjectives of this sort are: benign, malign, acerb, superb, august, extrême, sincére, austére, serene, terréne, divine, saline, canine, supine, humane, polite, mature; the disyllables in ute: minute, hirsute, nasute; alérite and others.

Verbs are rare, as cajole, carouse, calcine, baptize, chastise, cornique (to cuckold), create, narrate (according to Smart), possess (properly a compound). Words with an inorganic e, as esquire, eschew &c., have the accent upon the syllable of the stem, on the other hand not esteem; in obéy (obedio = obaudio) the accenting has hardly proceeded from any consciousness of its composition.

7) Other words follow more decidedly a conscious rule, as to which it is to be remarked that the accenting of definite syllables of formation concerns compound, as well as simple words.

1) Names of persons in ee have the accent on the last syllable:

2) Names of persons and things in oon: Maróon, buffóon, dragóon; ballóon, bassóon, batóon, dublóon, macaróon.

3) Names of persons in eer and ier: muleteer, musketéer, buccanéer also bucanier, volontéer, enginéer; brigadier, financier, cavalier, gondolier. Names of things likewise occur: caréer, chandelier, yet not without exceptions, especially disyllables in ier: pannier, bárrier, cárrier, even names of persons: courtier, cóurier.

4) Abstract and concrete nouns in ade: ambuscáde, promenade, blockáde, fougáde, cavalcáde, rodomontáde. Exceptions are: ambassade, (Walker has the accent on the last), ebrillade, márimalade, bálustrade, drágoonade and others.

5) Words in ette, properly French: étiquétte (according to others étiqutte), banquétique, brunéette, gazette, grisette.

6) Adjectives in őse if disyllables: aquóse, moróse, nodóse, rugóse, verbóse, jocóse; a few among polysyllables, as acetóse, armentóse, whereas others accent the syllable of the stem: púlicoese, bélicoose, véricose, cálculoose, córticoose &c., having commonly subordinate forms in ous.

7) Words in esque: morésque, burlésque, grotésque, romanésque, piturésque.
Further derivatives from such words retain in general the accent upon the same syllable; compare diviner, cajóler, benignantly, buffóonery &c.; although exceptions also occur, as dragoonade from dragóon (see above).

In the fourteenth century the French accenting of the full final syllable is still very common: thus we ordinarily find in Chaucer: honóur, humóur, licóur, resóñ, prísón, squiér, burgésis, contré, and in words in the then not always silent e: madáme, náture, coráge, Turkie, vertúe &c. also in Skelton: queréll, counsél, serpént, mercý, pleasúre, saváge and many others; rarely in Spenser in disyllables such as forést, whereas in polysyllables the last syllable frequently appears under a subordinate accent, as a masculine rhyme: furious, hideóús, dalliáunce, merrímént &c.

c) Many words have the accent on the penultimate.

a) A number of Latin, Greek and Romance words have retained this their original accent and betray their foreignness mostly by their terminations. To these belong again especially substantives, which are often quite foreign to the popular speech: chiméra, córóna, auróra, censúra; Greeks words in ηα and ουμα: empyéma, glaúcómá &c.; báñana, cavatína, bravádo, armáda, cántáta, Jacóbus, canáry, anchóvy; eńchinus, pápýrus, pomátum, abdómen, legúmen, decórum, cadáver, tribúnal, Jehóvah; Orion, choréous, lycéum, mausóléum, empyréon; ænigma, arbístum, aspháltum, oméntum, involúcrum (compounded), colósus, melánder, novémbér, décembérm, Augústins &c. andánte, tobácco; therewith idéa (δεα), assássín, cham-pígon, and the Germanic éléven. The Greek words in ηας; and ωις always have this accent: mimésis, mathéisis, exégésis, narcósis, chlorósis and others. Adjectives have hardly been thus brought over, as sinister (however with a metaphorical meaning sinister), the Italian maestósó and a few others. Simple verbs of this class are likewise rare, as imáginé, alátérnate (according to the rule for compounds) fratrénize and many others.

b) But some derivational terminations require regularly this accenting in polysyllables; here belong:

1) nouns in ic, which sound may also be the penultimate: chal-dáic, heróic, angélić, dramátic, lacóníć, scórbútic, forénsic, anárchić, ecclesiástíć &c.

Exceptions are formed by only a few among the great number of nouns: árabic, ársenic (but adjective arseníć), aríthmećtic, lúnatic, rhétoric, pólicit, phlégmatic, sul-phüríć, splénećtic, héretíć (all with an open penultí mate).

2) among adjectives in ous a few in or-ous, Latin órus: dećó-rous, sonóróus, canóróus, except deōcóróus (Latin órus); and those with a penultimate syllable long by position: atraméntóus, moméntóus, enór móus, inér móus.
I. The Word according to its elements. — The accent of the simple word.

3) Adjectives in *al*, when the penultimate is long by position: baptismal, autúrnal, éternal, matérnal, nocturnal, oriental, atraméntal, colóssal &c.; rarely out of position: machinal, vaginal, corónal, sacerdótal, mostly with a regard to the original accented syllable; on the other hand naturel, original &c.

4) Trisyllables in *at-or*, which receive the accent on the syllable accented in Latin: equátor, narrátor, testátor, dictátor, spectátor, curátor; yet even here exceptions are found: órator, bárator, sénator; polysyllables, even compounds ones, have only the subordinate accent upon *a*: aliéñátor, ámbulátor, ádulátor, administrátor, assásiñátor, instaurátor.

5) Nouns in *eun*: Éuropéan, Manichéan, Atlántéan, adaman téan, Augéan, lethéan, Pythagoréan, Sábéan; yet many have the accent upon the antepenultimate, mostly with reference to Latin forms: marmórean, cerúlean, cerbérean, Prométhean, Hercúlean, ebúrnean, elýs ean.

6) Words in *ive* always have the accent upon the preceding close syllable. Since this syllable of formation mostly attaches itself immediately to a participial syllable of the stem, no deviation from the first rule takes place here. Moreover most words belonging here are compounds with a close syllable in position: possessive, instructive, offensive &c.; that other monosyllabic stems must also have the same accent is clear: adhésive, collúusive &c.; on the other hand not polysyllabic forms with an open penultimate: pósitive, primitive &c. (see below).

c) A great number of derivatives requires the accent upon the antepenultimate, whether this is the syllable of the stem or not; here belong

1) terminations in which a final syllable beginning with a vowel is preceded by *i*, *e* and *u*. How these proparoxytones are often transformed into paroxytones for pronunciation has been above remarked. Here belong: *ian*, *ian*, *ent, i-ence, i-al, e-al, u-al, i-ar, i-or, i-ad, i-ate, u-ate, i-ast, i-asm, i-ous, e-ous, u-ous, i-ac and others.

*ian*: élýsian, musician, barbárian, censórian, civilian (on *eun* see above).

*ion*: opinion, foundação, cessação, quadrillion, batallión, Phócion.

*iént, iénc*: pátient, obédient — obédienc.

*iánt, iánc*: brilliánt, váliánt — válianc.

*iáal, eáal, uáal*: aérial, artérial, esséntial; ethéreal, corpóreal; habitual, individual.

*iár, iór*: familiáir, auxiliáir; inférior, antérior, su-périor, postérior.
iad: Íliad, Olýmpiad, mýriad, chliad.
iate, iate: humiliate, centúriate; habituate.

iast, iasm: enthúsiaist, encómiast; enthúsiasm (properly compounds).

ious, eous, ous: alimónious, licéntious, labórious; erróneous, arbóreous, sanguineous; volúptuous, tu-múltuous, conterráneous; yet also spírituous (with a regard to spirit).

iac: éléphántiac, démóniac, genéthliaç, clúniac, cárdiac; but not elegiac.

Latin-greek words in ἴς, ἴα, ἴum, ἴes, which have been immediately brought over of course retain the accent upon the antepenultimate, whether it is or is not the syllable of the stem; in simple and compound forms: Július, Sírius; Victória, nánia, encénia, ópium; minium, bdéllium, elýsium, allódium, herbárium, millénnium, gerá-nium; effígies &c., as well as those in ἔς, ἔα: Cadúceus, náusea, especially the Greek words in ἔν, which are resolved into ἔς us: Orpheus, Ótreus, Théseus &c.

2) further, words in which a connecting vowel precedes a termination beginning with a consonant, or a consonant a termination commencing with a vowel. These are, essentially, double suffixes, which are joined to stems or to already suffixed stems. Here belong the terminations of substantives:

i-a-sis: proriasis, elephantiasis, pityriasis and other Greek words.
i-ty, e-ty: annúity, ability, antiquity, barbáry, captivity; ebriety, anxiety, variety.
i-tude: beátitude, vicíssitude, simílitude.
er-y, corresponding to the French in érie: artillery, ma-chinery, chicábery.
ic-ism: fanaticism.

Many terminations of adjectives, as ive, al, ar and ous, which are preceded by another termination consisting of a simple vowel and consonant.
it-, at-, ut-, iwe, yet not without important exceptions, and mostly only in polysyllables and words compounded of prefixes: pósitive, primitive, infinitive, acquisitive; négative, tálkative; diminutive; otherwise in compound notional words: législative, lócomótive, and even imá-ginative and émanative.
im-, in-, ic-, ac-ul: millésimal; original; elénchal, babylónical, cylíndrical; demoniaca1; but cárdiacal.
ul-, c-ul-ar: tríángular, artícular, navícular, cani-
cular.
in-, it-, at-, ic-, er-, or-, ul-, c-ul-ous, generally those with an open penultimate: lúminous, résinous, bombýcinous, abdóminous; fortútous, calámitous; exanthéma-
tous; véntricous, várices; slánderous, cadáverous;
vigor ous (on órous see p. 78), vénturo ous; fáb ulous, ventric ulous, miráculo ous &c.; except desir o us.

\(o-, u-leu t: sí m n o lent, có rp ulent, cín é r ulent\).

The adjective and verbal termination \(ate\), which, especially in compounds, does not readily permit the accenting of the penultimate, (see below) therefore throws it on the prefix, has also in simple words the accent upon the antepenultimate, if \(ate\) is added to another syllable of formation, hence especially in the forms: \(im-, it-, ic-, ul-, c-ul-ate\): legitimate, capacitate, domé sticate, acidulate, capitulate, articulate.

2) The accent of the compound word.

Compounding is in English of a twofold kind. The elements of the compound are either present in English, whether they are of Germanic or of Romance origin, or, the compound has been transferred and partly even imitated from other tongues. The former, although hybrid (consisting of Germanic and other elements) are nevertheless to be regarded as genuine English, the others to be distinguished from them as foreign compounds.

a) The compounding of nouns and verbs among and with each other.

\(a\) English compounds are distinguished from those of other Germanic tongues in regard to the accent in this; that not in every compound, even of notional words, a subordinate goes along with the principal accent, but the word rather receives by its accentuation, the character of a simple word unless the weight of its greater number of syllables demands a decided subordinate accent, on which account we may here in general disregard the latter.

Yet the accented words ordinarily retain their quantity, although exceptions occur, as shép herd, vineyard &c.

On the whole, in the classes of words here considered the rule prevails to accent the first constituent, as the determining word:

Substantives: bowstring, boatswain, daylight, séserpent, chambermaid, handkerchief; gentlemen, gentlewoman, broadsword, blackbird, first-fruits; áms-ace, állheal (plant), állspice, álnight, bréw-house, dráwwell.

Adjectives: áwful, cáreful, cáuseless (these terminations are treated precisely like syllables of derivation); bárefaced, brówbeat, créstfallen, éarthly-minded; fourf orted, fivefold.

Numerals: fourteen, fifteen; yet these lean to the accenting of the last syllable, and the Ordinals: thirteenth, fiftéenth &c. are chiefly accented upon the last by orthoe- pists.

Pronouns form partly an exception: thus mysélf, him-
sélf &c.; the indefinite somewhat, somebody, something, nobody, nothing follow the rule of substantives. The generalizing ones compounded of particles whoéver, whosoéver, whichéver &c. accent the particle; yet not whóso.

Verbs, máinswear, Anglosaxon mánswerjan, báckbite, dúmbfound, finedraw, new-model, bréakfast; yet vouchsáfe, backslide, new-fángle.

Deviations, as in mankind and mántkind (in Milton), hobgóblín and hóbogóblín, highwáy and highwayman are rare; but uncertainly and variation take place in compounds betraying the character of a syntactic relation. Here belong especially substantives preceded by an adjective in the attributive mode: free-cóst, free-will, black-púdding, black-ród, bloody-sweet, ill-náture, ill-will, human-kind, Black-Mónday, all-fóurs, all-hállows &c.; and according to the French accent and collocation: knight-errant, earl-marshal, tomtí (as it were, a proper name), Jack-púdding and in the additional relation: north-éast, north-wést &c.; especially substantives with a genitive preceding: Chárlés’s-wáin (a constellation), Lády’s-cóm (a plant) and many more; and names of days, as all-souls-dáy, all-saints-dáy; but also popular designations: Ashwéndés-day, ládydáy, bulkhéad, bondbálíff and bumbálíff, and others. If, further, attributes are annexed to the noun, especially with prepositions, the principal accent falls upon the attribute, as in Jáck-by-the-hédge, Jáck-a-lántern &c. Yet the popular pronunciation leans to the contrary: són-in-law, fáther-in-law &c. Adjectives seldom, as in cláre-obscúre (substantive) áshy-pále, let the accent rest upon the last constituent, yet the syntactical relation is predominant, especially with participles preceded by a determination operating adverbially, as in near-sighted, faint-heárted, fresh-watered and the like, especially in those compounded of all: all-seéing, all-accomplished, and many such.

β) Compounds originally foreign to English are, for the most part, substantives, and have partly become foreign to linguistic consciousness, as compounds. They have the predominant bias to accent the originally determinant word. Modern imitations belong here also.

Disyllables of this sort therefore have the accent upon the first syllable:

Substantives: návarch, héptarch, — áugur, áuspice, sólstice, — mórtgage, háutboy, kérchief, cúrfew, cinque,-foil, bélédam, bóngrace, bóutefeu, máinprise.

Adjectives hardly exist.

The compound verb máintáín has the accent upon the last syllable.

Modern unassimilated words, especially French ones, have retained their accent: bonáir, bonmót, haut-góút, and many more.
The Word according to its elements. — The accent of the compound word.

Trisyllables mostly have the same accent, especially when they have an open penultimate, to which belong in particular the Greek and Latin words with the connecting vowels i, o:

Substantives: monarchy, misanthrope, pédiagoge, démagogue, stratégie, strángury; — monologue, hippodrome, hólocaust; — àqueduct, úsufruct, manu- script; — armiger, armistice, sánquisuge, dápifer, párricide; vérmituge, gírasole, bélamie, trípmadam, chánticleer; yet also mainpernor.

Adjectives: orthodox, múltiform, úniform, násiform.

Verbs: mánumit, crúcify, cálefy and all compounded of fy.

Exceptions are formed by many with a quantity and accent originally Greek, Latin or French, as: chiragra, factórum, portfólio; especially with a penultimate long by position: arúspepx, arúspeece; portcúllis, portmánteau, cham- pérto, champéry and many such; likewise all adjectives compounded of fic: maléfic, magnífic, pacífic &c.

In polysyllables, borrowed and partly imitated from the Greek and the Latin, the language reveals the decided effort not to transport the accent back beyond the antepenultimate, according to the Latin fashion, but to fix it there, through which the accent often falls upon the connecting vowel:

Substantives: monópoly, théomachy, polýgamy, mis- ánthropy, cranióscopy, hendécagon, monógamist, hermáphrodite, barómetor, zoográpher; — omnipo- tence, benéficence, soliloquy, attiloquence, funambulist.

Adjectives: homólogoous, homótonous, ambiloquous according to the law for ous), altisonant, bellígerent, benéficent, mellífluent; convexo-cónave and therefore also Anglo-Sáxon, Anglo-Nórman, Anglo-Dánish.

Here therefore the accent frequently omits the fundamental word. Yet with many the inclination prevails to accent the determinant word upon the syllable of the stem, even before the antepenultimate, for example: állegory, òrthoepy, cárdialgy, hieroglyph, héresiar, mélancholy, áristo- crate and many more; àéronaut, ágriculture, hórти- culture &c.

With others, on the contrary, length by position effects the transfer of the accent to the penultimate: polyándry, lithodéndron, ágonístarch; benefácior, Benedíctine, as in áqua-tínta, aqua-fórtis; polyándrous, heptaphýllous (according to the rule for -ous).

Even without this reason we find such accenting as in om- niprésence (compare omnipotence).

The verb ánimagvért has the principal accent upon the last syllable.

Those derived from polysyllables follow the rule of the removal of the accent back, so far as derivational terminations do not decidedly require it on any particular syllable, for example:
orthodoxy from orthodox, mélancholize from mélancholy, and so forth.

b) Compounding of particles with particles and other parts of speech.

Here peculiarities, as well as differences, shew themselves, which are partly ascribable to the employment of Germanic or non Germanic particles and come particularly under consideration in the compounding with nouns and verbs.

a) Compounding of particles with particles.

The general rule in these words compounded of Germanic elements requires the accent on the last constituent of the compound. To them belong those compounded of inseparable prefixes, as a, be: afóre; beyond &c.; even with an originally double prefix: about, Anglosaxon á-be-útan, as well as those consisting of independent particles: although, unless, until, upon, without, wheréof, whérát, hereby, whenever, moreover, throughout, underneáth, overagainst &c.; with which even a part may even be compound: thereupon, henceforward, whèreintó, whéréuntó (from into, unto with the accent changed); Interjections, as weláway (Anglo-Saxon vá lá vá), slapdásh! whereas others, as hip, hop! accent the first constituent, or like héyédáy! both alike.

Variations there certainly are, to which belong into, unto, hitherto, also; those compounded with ward, wards, properly adjectives: upward, toward, towards, hitherto &c., some with where, there, here: whéréfor, whéreso, whéréabóut, héréabóut, théréfor &c., elsewheré, nówhere; with thence: thénceforhóth, théncefrom (but thencefrom); those with the pronominal some: somewheré, somewhere, sómewhither, somehow, also furthermore and some others, as the substantive while in érstwhile &c.

Those cases cannot be considered as exceptions which must in fact be regarded as compounds of nouns: somewhat, mostwhat, nóway, nóways, sómertime, likewise &c. The adjective superlatives inmost, òutmost &c., do not belong here.

Particles consisting of prepositions and nouns, in which the proclitic preposition has its effect, accent the noun: indeed, outright, forsooth, perhaps, perchance and so forth. Yet here afórehand, afóretime, aféterall, and overmúch (cf. oversón) form exceptions.

β) Compounding of Particles with Nouns.

1) of Germanic Particles:

aα) Nouns of this sort, among which but a few adjectives have been preserved, throw, with the exception of the inseparable particles a, be, for, as well as of the negatives un and mis, the accent upon the particle. Mis certainly often receives the subordinate accent; where it has the principal accent,
the noun rests upon forms originally French, as mischief, miscreant c. der. Un has the accent in unthrift. Parasyntheta, that is, derivatives from other compounds (here from verbs) retain the accent of their primitive; substantives in ing, since they also may be regarded as parasyntheta, fluctuate here and there.

Here come particularly under consideration forms of nouns with the particles in, after, on, off, over, out, under, up, by, fore, forth, thorough and well.

in (often hard to separate from the Latin in): Substantives: inmate, inland, income, indraught, inlay, but as a verb inlāy &c. Adjectives: inly, inward &c.

after: Substantives: afterbirth, afterthought, aftercrop &c.
on: Substantives: önsel, önslaught.
off: Substantives: öffal, öffspring, öffscum, öffscouring.
over: Substantives: överfall, överlight, överjoy, övercharge, överbālance, also överréacher and överrūler, in spite of the verbs överrēch, överrūle. Adjectives: övergreat, överfrūitful; yet commonly with the principal accent upon the fundamental word: överprōmp, överlārge, överbūsy, överhāst, övererē dulous &c.; hence also in the substantives derived therefrom, as överquietness.
out: Substantives: öutlaw, öutroad, öutgate, öutline, even öutgoing, ötpouring, also öutraider (yet not in the sense of the verb outride). Adjectives: óutblown, óutborn, óutbound, but outlāndish.
under: Substantives: ūnderléaf, ūndergrōwth, ūndercroft &c., yet in polysyllables often with the accent advanced: ūnderfacular, ūndershēriff, ūndertrēasur, even ūnderfellow. Adjective: ūnderbrēd.
by: Substantives: bŷ-end, bŷ-name, bŷ-pūrpo; compounded of polysyllabic, mostly Romance words, often, however, accented upon the fundamental word: bŷ-depēndence, bŷ-concērnment, bŷ-interēst, bŷ-design.
fore: fōrefoot, fōrehand, fōresight (but Adjective foresightful &c., and many parasyntheta, as forebōder, forewarning &c.; yet also forespūrner without the corresponding verb). Some retain the accent on the fundamental word: forenōtice. Adjectives, mostly with participial forms without the corresponding verb: fōrecited, fōrementioned, fōreposessed, fōrehanded, yet also forevouched, forespēnt and forewōrn &c.
forth: few substantives with a verbal accent: forthcōm-
ing, forthissuing, on the other hand forthright (as adverb).

**thorough:** **Substantives:** thórough-wax, thórough-wort, on the other hand thórough-básé; **Adjectives:** thórough-bréd, but also thórough-lighted, and many such.

**well:** **Substantives:** wélfare; yet in the form well fluctuating in the accent: well-willer, well-wisher; on the other hand well-being, and **adjectives** with the participial form: well-born, well-bred, yet well-favoured and many such.

Other compounds assume the adjective form instead of the adverb before the fundamental word, and fall into the sphere of the compounding of nouns.

**Verbs** with Germanic particles, except those with the above mentioned unaccented ones, only compounded of: in, over, out, under, up, fore, with and gain; with the exception of gain all have the accent on the fundamental word: inb réthe, inlóck (in is frequently hardly to be separated from the Latin in) overáwe, overcárry; outáct, outpáce; underbér, understánd; updráw, upgrów; foredó, forejúdège, but fóreimágine; withdraw, withstand; on the other hand gáinsay, gáinstand, gáinstrive.

**Parasy ntheta** follow the accent of nouns: outlaw: to outlaw; outline: to outline; fórdér: to fórdér.

2) of **Non-germanic particles:**

Here the Romance, that is, those particles originally Latin, coming mostly through the French, come under consideration, in addition to which the Greek particles, likewise partly passing through the Latin and the French, deserve mention.

**a.)** In compound **nouns** the principles of Germanic and of Latin accenting cross each other (in regard to the open penultimate or to that closed and long by position, even in regard to its vowel when long by nature) as well as the French, which applies the accent to the last full syllable. It is readily understood that those terminations which do not allow the accent to go beyond a certain syllable in simple words, are also the standard here.

The **Romance prepositional** particles therefore chiefly follow the law of Germanic ones, if the fundamental word is a **monosyllable**, or the last syllable is a glib short one, (as in ble) and have the accent upon the particle.

**Substantives:** índex, insect, instinct, édict, effort, abstract, abscess, advent, énsign, office, rélic, réfuge, préfaçe, préverb, tréspass, cómfort, cóncord, college, cónsul; with disyllable particles: interlude, interdict, interreign, anteroom, antetemple, circum stance, suíperflux, c' 'ntradance, cónterscarp; but intrórít.
Adjectives: ímplex, íntant, ábsent, ábject, ádverse, áffable, próstrate, distant, convex, constánt; with disyllabic particles: circumspect, suérfine.

But monosyllabic fundamental words often have the accent, not only when they remind us of French ones, as affair, affráfónt, degréé, désére, déféat, retréát; adréít, obliqué &c.; but many preserve, especially in the final syllable closed with a double consonant, their original accent: compare, Substantives: évént, exéss, abséss, annéx, afféct, concént, deféct &c.; with several prefixes: antépenúlt; Adjectives: exéempt, adúlt, attént, abróupt, ocúlt, conjúnt, corrúpt &c. often coinciding with verbs of like sound, although otherwise distinguished from these by the accent (see below). Sometimes a vowel originally long is maintained under the accent, as in the adjectives: compléte, attrité, contrite, concíse, connáte, acúte, obtúse, abstrúse &c.

With disyllabic fundamental words the particle commonly has the accent with an open penult: Substantives: effigy, company; rémora; ávenue, rétinue; ímplement, excrement; accólent, incídent; référence, rétiçence; affínage, appétite; abáture; ássuetude; — circúmference &c. Adjectives: expletíve, appósite; ímmanent, cómpétent; aßónant, córrúgant; àdéquate, àccurate; óbvious, àbsonous, dépilous; ábólute; — íntércalar, circúmfíuent, circúmfíuous &c. With disyllabic prefixes a syllable long by position in the antepenult keeps the accent.

Length by position in the vowel of the penult mostly hinders the recession of the accent: Substantives: delínquent, appéliant, apprétîce, deperúdit, advénture, adoléscence &c. Adjectives: adnáscént, decúmbent, abúndant, retíntive, extrámunández, íntercómmon, ínterfúlnent, àntemúndane. The originally long vowel of the penult also sometimes retains the accent: expóñent, appárent, imprúdúent, íntérÚçent, impánáte (Latin pánis); yet a short vowel also is often erroneously lengthened: affábrous (Latin affáber), compláçent (Latin pláceo); círcumjácént (Latin jácéo); even a short vowel lengthened: cíncólour (Latin concílor).

Yet even the position of consonants is often not heeded: ántecúrsor, ántechápel, ántechamber, cónsfessor, réncounter, íntellect (intel = inter). Fundamental words of more than one syllable leave the accent on the prefix, according to the principles obtaining for simple words, as cónditóry, cónsitóry, éxpletóry, éxplicable, ápplicable &c. Derivatives from verbs retain the verbal accent, as far as possible.

Among the rest of the Romance particles the negatives in, non, ne, bene, male, vice, bi, ambi, demi, semi, and the like, are to be remarked.
in is in general unaccented: immund, imprudent, immature, incorrect, ignoble &c. It is accented in impotent, impudent, indolent, innocent, impious, infinite, infidel, and the substantives infant, inscience, mostly according to the Latin mode. On the other hand non readily takes the principal accent: non-age, non-claim, non-sense, — non-aged; Nonchalânce, non-paréil are accented in the French manner. ne may receive the accent in nouns, for instance négli vant, négative.

bene and male are treated as integral portions of the word and take the accent with a regard to the more general laws: bénédit, bénéfice (but bénéficient, as well as maléfice, mégaléfice, maldéfice, mâltalent; (in mâlecontent e is mute), mâlefactor. vice has the accent only in viceroy and viscount c. derr. bi, demi, semi readily take the accent, as bifid, bigamy; démigod, démidévil, sémicircle, sémicôlon &c.; but let it pass on to the fundamental word, in consequence of the influence of position and termination upon the fundamental word: bicôrnous, bidéntal on account of position, biangulous, sémiannular; but also biquâdrate &c.ambi and others hardly come under consideration: ambideexter, ambiguous obey the well known influence.

Particles originally Greek are on the whole to be treated from the points of view which are good for the Romance particles.

Monosyllabic fundamental words: éclogue, méthode, prôem, problème, symptom; with a disyllabic prefix: épitaph, ánagram, ápophthégm, métaphrâse, périod; yet eclipse.

Disyllabic fundamental words: ecstasy, prótasis, synecope; with disyllabic prefix: anástrophe, antipathy, metâbasis, hypoténuse. The accent does not readily go beyond the antepenult; yet sometimes in open syllables after the accent: ánîtomy. Length by position often operates in the penult: apôstle, metacárpal, metalépsis; yet even here it is neglected: párergy, áncdote, ánalepsy. An originally long vowel of the penult has the accent in disyllables and polysyllables (see above on the terminations éma, ésis and ósis): diôrâma, anacolútho.

But among the prepositional particles following the same rules the alpha privative (α) is to be noticed, which is wont to keep the accent fixed: ámazon, átímy, átheist and ágaláxy, átaráxy.

Prefixes, such as eu, dys and archi are felt and accented as decidedly determinate words: éulogy, éupathy, éucharist, éuthanasy; dýsphecy, dýsury, dýsantry, dýsury, dýsentery, dýsorexy; architect, architrave &c.; although length by position in the penult operates, even here: eurithmy, eupépsy, dysópsy. The prefix archi, (arch, arche) which has passed through even the Anglosaxon
as well as the French, is likewise subject to this influence: archángel, archbishop; is however else unaccented: archdúke, archdéacon, archénemy, archipélagó.

ββ) With verbs the endeavour to accent the fundamental word is predominant.

This is most clearly exhibited in monosyllabic fundamental words: impél, illúde, abstérge, abhór, adórn, obtáin, recláim, perpénd, defénd, discérn, dený, seléct, transcánd. This is seldom departed from with a monosyllabic prefix, as in édit, rével (Old-French reveler, Latin rebellare, as distinguished from revél = to draw back) and those compounded of ferre: differ, óffer, próffer; pérjure, cónjure (as distinguished from conjúrare), cónquer, tréspass. Even French words follow the rule: achieve, agist (mediaval-Latin agistare, adgistare from the French giste, gite) and others. Even disyllabic prefixes commonly allow the accent to remain on the fundamental word, as inter, intro, contra, super &c., which content themselves with the subordinate accent: intercéde, intercépt, intromít, cóntrapóse, cóndradít, cóuntermánd, súperádd, súpervéne; yet these sometimes draw the principal accent to themselves, particularly ante and circum, yet others also: àntedate, àntepone (except antécédé), circumvént, circumscribe, also super in súperpose, súperpraise, súpervive, inter in interlink and intérpret, contro in cóntrovért and others.

The principal rule also obtains for verbs compounded of several particles: réappróvé, récôlléct and récôlléct, récômménd, résurvéy, prééxist, prééconcéive, préconcért, déobstrúct, décompóse, disémbárk, disan-núl, súperexált, superinspect &c. A few withdraw themselves from it, as réconcile, récompense, récognize.

Such parasynthetha as, although in an unaltered form, are derived from nouns, like circuit, circumstance do not belong here; although with many it remains doubtful whether they spring from a noun or from a Romance verb already derived from the noun as cómmerce (French substantive commerce, verb commercer) and many others. But the accenting of verbs upon the fundamental word is frequently opposed to the accenting of nouns, else of like sound, upon the prefix, as impáct, impórt, impréss, insúlt; essáy, escórt; exíle, expórt, extráct, absént, abstráct, abjéct, affix, accent; objéct; rebél, refúse, retáil, recórd, perfúme; présént, preságé, premíse, préfíx; protéést, projéct; trájéct, transpórt; digést, discórd, détáil, désért, descánt; subjéct; compáct, compóst, compóund, complóit; compréssé; conféct, confine, conflict, convict, convént, convóy, contést, contéxt, contráct, condite, condúct, concért,

concrète, consort; collègue, collect; also with polysyllabic prefixes: interdict, countermarch and others.

Inversely, conformably with the genius of the language, substantives developed from verbs, are, in contradistinction to the latter, accented upon the prefix, as the substantives increase, assign, permit, produce, transfer, survey, conserve and the like; whereas parasyntheta (especially with further derivative terminations) otherwise follow their compound fundamental word.

Disyllabic and polysyllabic fundamental words are mostly stems further developed through assignable syllables of formation. Disyllables leave the accent on the syllable of the stem of the fundamental word: impéril, endánger, enrupture, exhibit, extinguish, revisit, revómít, dismémber, disfúrnish, persevére (compare Latin persevero) &c. Those ending in esce have the accent upon this syllable: effloresce, effervesce, acquiesce. But with disyllables and polysyllables a regard to the open or close penult is sometimes manifested. Thus verbs in ate, with an open penult, have the accent on the antepenult, whether this makes the prefix or not; yet, when the penult is long by position, on the latter: déviate, récreate, aggregate, cónsecrate; expátriate, emásculate; on the other hand deálbate, restágnate, avertérncate. Even here the original length of the open penult is sometimes regarded and accented: instáurate, impánate, deliráte, délibate, despúmate, süperfétate &c. Verbs in ute partly follow this principle: éxecute, prósecute; on the other hand attribute, contribuete. Verbs in ize, ise mostly have the accent on the syllable of the stem of the fundamental word: inthronize, denationalize, disórganize, imbástardize; yet some with a disyllabic fundamental word leave the accent on the prefix: exorcize, advertise. Óccupy follows the compounds of fy, as jú-stify &c.

Particles not prepositional are treated in like manner: biséct, impárir (on the other hand Adjective impair), ignóre but injúre. Words like diplómate are parasyntheta.

B) Of the subordinate accent.

The Germanic simple words of the English tongue, which are mostly not amplified by compound derivational syllables, commonly comprehend the whole number of their syllables under one accent. Germanic compounds also, mostly consisting of monosyllabic words, have scarcely any prominent accent besides the principal one, as earthnut, earlap, eagle-eyed. Such comes out most clearly in non-Germanic, polysyllabic, simple or compound words. The immediate succession of a principal and subordinate accent or the reverse,
through which the word would be interrupted by a slight pause, is repugnant to the English language wherefore, disyllabic compounds almost always lose their subordinate accent. To the word àméén therefore, both syllables of which are accented, two accents, not discriminated as principal and subordinate, are attributed, whereby the word becomes monotonous. The subordinate is divided from the principal accent by at least one depressed syllable.

The subordinate accent is, in polysyllables, natural, and a physiological necessity; but the glibness of popular pronunciation produces in a series of syllables an unconscious syncope of the vowels, so that in words like nécessaire, nécessairely, nécessitiveness, customable, customarily, errorneousness, abbreviatory, christianize &c. the decided prominence of a syllable with a subordinate accent appears less needful.

The more elegant language, and artistic or oratorical delivery are richer in subordinate accents. The observing them has become the task of modern Grammarians and lexicographers. Here of course, much is conventional.

In general the following principles may be established:

1) If an derivative syllable of a simple word, or a word compounded of an unaccented particle, requires the accent, the principal accent falls upon it; the subordinate accent then falls on the syllable of the stem originally accented, if the latter is separated by at least one syllable from the former: cànnàonde from cànnon, hálberdier from hálberd, làpidàtion from làpidate; élémental from élément; músculàrity from múscular; sérpentàrius from sérpent; — remémoration from remémoràte. It may however be separated by two syllables from the subordinate accent: càricàture, remúnerabilité, irrévoca-bility.

If the syllable of the stem comes immediately before the syllable of the principal accent, the subordinate accent may hit a prefix: énérvàtion, àdmiràtion; but if the primitive had already thrown its accent upon a derivative form, the subordinate accent then recedes to the proper syllable of the stem: élasti-city (from élastic), làmentàtion (from làment compare làmente). However the accent does not go beyond the previous third syllable long by position; hence irràscibility from irràscible. In general, two syllables before the principal accent cannot remain without a subordinate accent.

2) If the principal accent falls upon the syllable of the stem of a simple word or the accented syllable of a word compounded of an accented prefix, a syllable of derivation separated therefrom by at least one syllable receives the subordinate accent, unless a series of unaccented and chiefly open syllables permits an even gliding of the stems, wherefore only more sharply prominent terminations require an accent. Here belong especially the terminations àted, àtor, àtory, àtrix, àtive, àster, àcre and other endings encumbered with more syllables: làmellàted, cùspidàted, lànceolàted, èmulàtor, gràtulàtory, médià-
tix, nūncupātive, mūltiplicātive, adminīstrātive, mēdicāster, mēdiōcre, ŏbsolēteness, ādvertiser, ādvertisimg &c.

2) As far as particularly regards compound words, the subordinate accent becomes prominent in the compounding of notional words, only where the fundamental or determinant does not appear to be monosyllabic, although the weight of the fundamental word is especially effective; hence: bārber-mōng-, pēnywórth, hālfpennywórth, bārgemāster, pēpperbōx, pēpper-gingerbread, cŭstombhōuse and many more; on the other hand also certainly hāndkerchief and hāndiwork, and many other suppressions of the subordinate accent. It is also to be remarked that the compounding of a polysyllabic substantive with a subsequent proposition gives the latter the subordinate accent; as hāngera-ōn.

Polysyllabic nouns compounded of polysyllabic Germanic prepositions likewise receive the subordinate accent: āfterāges, ūnderwōrker, ŏverbālance. With a monosyllabic fundamental word the language also leans towards the accenting it, yet not always decidedly; as ēndergrōwth, ŏvermātch and the like.

In substantive forms, as hūrly-būrly, tīttle-tāttle, the first part of the conjunction is accented, yet occasionally the second also: līnsey-wōolsey; as in the adverb hīggledy pīggledy.

Foreign compounds of nouns are to be treated according to the accent of the simple words: compare pnuēmatōlogy, mēteorōlogy, bēnēfāctor, mūriatīferous, plēnilūnary; bibliomāncyc, āristocrāt, āgricūlturē, hōmicīdal.

In the compounding of particles with verbs, particles, according to the general law, have the subordinate prior to the principal accent. In compounding with several particles, the accent readily recedes to the third syllable before the principal accent: sūpexālt, mīsunderstānd; as is also the case with similar nouns: inapprehēnsīble.

4) More than one subordinate accent occurs in derivative forms, which are based upon doubly accented forms: disaccōmmodātion (disaccōmodate), imprescriptibīlity (imprescriptible).

It is to be observed, in conclusion, that rhetorical reasons may produce a departure from the usual accent. For instance, the reference to an opposition may demand the prominence of the stem instead of the termination: prōbabīlity and plausibility (instead of -ility), or of the termination instead of the stem: dēbtōr and dēbtēe (instead of dēbtor); or of the prefix instead of the fundamental word: We see that the Autobiography does not so much misstate as ĭnderstate (Lewis); by which even to the simple notion its contrary, with an accented prefix, may be opposed: to use and mīsuse, to give and fōrgive &c.

Variety of accent is, in English, mainly produced in common
II. The Elements of the Word according to their origin.

We have to do with the arising of the present elements of the English word chiefly from the Anglosaxon and the French. We are concerned with the preservation or the transmutation of old vocal signs which, only in a limited measure, preserve their old pronunciation.

The consonant ever remains in the course of time the more fixed element in writing and in sound; the vowel is more changeable. The treatment of the vowel conforms to more fixed principles in the accented than in the unaccented syllable, especially after the accented syllable, but otherwise before it. In no tongue has the system of sounds been so much disturbed in the course of time as in English; nowhere has the mutilation of the word down to a monosyllable proceeded so far; nevertheless the vocal hue of English has remained essentially Anglosaxon.

Origin of the vowels and Diphthongs.

The original Anglosaxon vocalization has suffered most, the OldFrench less, that of modern words received from French and Latin, the least, which last we have not to treat in detail, although pronunciation often alters in many ways the hue of the vowel. The primitive quantities are effaced, the consonants and the position of the syllable in the word chiefly governing the quantity. The original length of the vowel is however often retained, being indicated by an mute e, either appended or preserved. Clear and obscure vowels are on the whole discriminated in accented syllables; in unaccented ones they easily pass into one another.

I answers

a) in an accented syllable with the value of the Highdutch i with a short sound, chiefly to the short Anglosaxon i and y, sometimes to the broken eo and e, but also here and there to the long Anglosaxon i, y, eo and even æ.
Anglosax: i: in (Anglosax: in), if (gif), it (hit), with (wiþ), ship (scip); give (giban), liver (lifer); swim (svimm), win (vinnan), begin (beginnan), bid (bidden), spit (spittan), wit (witt, wit); inn (inn, in), will (substantive ville, verb villan), spill (spillan), thick (piece), hilt (hilt), milk (miluc, mile), swing (swingan), wink (vincipan), bitch (biece), fish (fisc), silver (silfor, seolver, sylfer).

Anglosax: y: thin (pyonne), kin (cynn), sin (synn), trim (tryman), hip (hype, hypp), knit (nyttan), hill (hyl, hill), kiss (cyssan), filth (fyld), dint (dint), little (lytel, litel), kitchen (cycene), listen (hlyst), sister (svyster, sister), stir (styrjan), gird (gyrdan), birth (byrd), thirst (pyrstan).

Anglosax: eo often interchanged with i in Anglosaxon: silk (seoloc, seolec), widow (veoduve).

Anglosax: e, likewise interchanged with i and y: brim (bremme, brymme), grin (gremjan), bring (brengan along with bringan), think (pencean, pencan along with pyncen, pyncan, think), smirk and smerk (substantive smeirc, verb smercjan).

Anglosaxon i: stiff (stiff), rich (ríc), nip (hnîpan), withy (vídig), witness (witness), wisdom (visdôm).

Anglosaxon y: wish (vîscan), fist (fyst), which (hvîlic).

Anglosaxon eo: sick (seôc, sioe, syc).

Anglosaxon æ: whiffle (væflan, Old-norse veiﬂa), riddle (rädels).

Old-English here often puts e in the place of the sound proceeding from the short i, as yeve (give), leve (live, anglosax: libban, lifjan), seluer (silver) &c.; on the other hand u instead of the i arising from y, ÿ: hull, gult, cussed e (kissed), yfulled (filled, Anglosax: fyllan), wuche (which), fust, luper (Anglosax: lyðer) &c.; but often y instead of i: hym, ys, yt, tyn, mydde, brynge &c.

The French often presented i in a final accented syllable (ie). An accented i in words originally French mostly appears accented in modern English. Here i stands in the place of the French i, e, and even a and u. The vocalization is often fashioned after the Latin.

Old-French i: issue (Old-French the same), history (histoire, estoire), cinque (cinc, cinque), city (cîte, pity (pîte, pitie), vigour (vigor, vigur), mirror (mireor), dinner (dîner, disner), river (riviere), vermilion (compare vermillor) so frequent in modern words.

Old-French e, also interchanging with i: chivalry (chevalerie), chimney (cheminee and chimene), cinder (cendre), virtue (vertu), circle ( cercle), lizard (Modern-French lézard), frigate (Modern-French frégate), abridge (abréger), skirmish (eskermir). The Old-English still often has e: chevalerie, chevalrous, vertue &c. Print points to an Old-French ei (prendre, prendre); mistresse, Old-English maystres to ai (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), mastres (SKELTON).
Old-French a: fringe (frange, mediavel-Latin frigia, Old-English frenge), crimson (French carmoisi, Italian carmesino, cremissino).

Old-French u: ribbon (French ruban), bittern (butor), perhaps also sirloin (surlonge) and sirname (sur-). Compare the reverse umpire (perhaps properly impair) Old-English nounpere (PIERS PLOUGH.) from the Old-French peer, pair, par. Provincially u often becomes i, for instance in Cheshire.

In the unaccepted syllable it mostly proceeds from the German and French, as well as Latin i, in prefixes as well as in terminations, yet here representatives of many other obscure, particularly Romance vowels occur, for instance of å. Wiécliffe, Anglosax: Vígłáf. i stands alongwith u, as well as in Anglo-saxon in the termination ing, beside unq, English only ing: ébbing (ebbunng) &c. and otherwise: dévíl, Anglosax: déoful, -ol, deôf, ostrich, French autruche; often instead of a Romance e; súmmit, Old-French som, sum, modern-French sommet, rétinue, Old-English retene; instead of ei and ai (in Old-French often i. e): vénison, Old-French veneison, venison; chánfrin, French chanfrein; comparison, French comparaison; órison, Old-French orison, -eson, -eison; benefit, Old-French bienfait, -et; instead of oi: parish (paroisse); ánguish Old-French angoisse and anguisse; instead of a: húrricane, Spanish huracan; capárisón, French caparaçon; instead of ou: cartridge, French cartouche &c.

b) The diphthong i, foreign in sound to the Anglosaxon as well as to the English even down to the 14th century (see ei) illustrated by J. Wallis in the 17th by the sound of the French pain, main, arises in the accented syllable primarily out of the Anglosaxon i and ÿ, but then also passing over into i out of i and y, especially before certain Anglosaxon consonants c, g, nd, ld, ht, as well as mostly before gh, ght (Anglosaxon h and ht) also eō, ea and eo, ea and i.

Anglosaxon i: time (tima), wine (vīn), while (hvīl), wipe (vīpjan), wife (vifi), drive (drīfan), write (vritan), ride (rīdan), writhe (vriðan), wise (vīs), ice (īs); like (lic), iron (īren), idle (īdel), light (liht also leōht, lāht = levis), light līthan = levare).

Anglosaxon ÿ: de-file (fīlan), mire (mīre = palus) and mire, pismire (mīre, Old-norse máur), fire (fīr), hide (hīd), bride (bīyd), hithe (hīd = portus), līce (plural līys).

Anglosaxon i: under influence of c and g: 1 (ic), Friday Frigedāg, nine (nigan); before nd: bind (bindan), find (fīndan), wind (windan) but not wind (wind = ventus) c. der.; grind (grīdan), hind (hind = cerva), behind (hindan), blind (blind); on the other hand hinder (hinderan); before ìd: mild (mīld), wild (vīld), child (cīld or cīld) yet the plural children; see pronunciation; before ght: sight (siht), right (riht), plight (substantive plight, verb plīghtan), dight (dhītan), Wight (Vight): — but also pīne (pīn, pin, yet Latin pinus), ĭvī,
Anglo-Saxon iy̯g, Old-HighDutch epi, ephi; and cl̄m b (climban, Old-English and Scotch climen).

Anglo-Saxon y̯: before nd: mind (mynd), kind (cynd), but not in compounds kindred; yet also brine (bryne); before ht, English gh̯t: fright (fyrthu), wight (viht, vuht), wright (wyrtha).

Anglo-Saxon e̯o, eo: file (fe̯ol), tithe (te̯o̯da); before gh and ght: thi̯gh (pe̯oh), sigh (compare se̯ōfjan), light (le̯oth = lux), bright (beorht, bryht), fight (feohtan).

Anglo-Saxon e̯a, ea: nigh (neāh, néh), high (heāh); might (meah, miht), night (neaht, niht).

Hight belongs to hátan, hēht; the obsolete pight to the Anglo-Saxon pyccion, pycte. Compare the Old-English Benedight (Chaucer).

The employment of the i, taken from the Romance, Latin and Greek languages, is without principle; original length is seldom the reason of its being a diphthong, its position in the word alone decides. Yet a primitive i commonly lies at the root. Compare entire, Old-French entir, enter; require, Old-French querre, quierre, requierre, Old-English requere (Chaucer), squière, Old-French escuer, esquier, Old-English squier; ivoire (ivoire), prémier, liryary &c.; crime, vice; yet i also sometimes rests upon e, ai: giant, jaiant, Modern-French géant, Old-English geaunt (Maunde), repri̯sal, French représaille &c., even upon the Old-French u: contrive (truer) see ie. i has the same relation to the Cymric u, which has nearly the same sound as the French u, in kîte, Cymric cûd, cút, Anglo-Saxon cita, cyta.

In the unaccented syllable an originally long i is sometimes preserved, as į, as in fêline (Latin felinus), bōvine and the like; else the diphthong is even here determined by its position in the word.

Ie in the accented syllable;

a) with the i-sound in the close syllable in Germanic words is almost always rendered in Old-English, by e, instead of:

Anglo-Saxon e̯o: lief (le̯o̯f), fiend (fe̯ōnd, fiénd), thief (te̯o̯f), priest (pre̯ōst); — friend (fre̯ōnd, friénd) with altered sound; Old-English fend, frend.

Anglo-Saxon i: field (field, field), shield (scild, scèld), sieve (sife); Old-English felde, scheld.

Anglo-Saxon ĭ̯ (ţ̯), ĭ̯ (y): believe (gelēfan, -lyfan), wield (gevylde, -veldan), Old-English leven, beleven, welden; also ĭ̯: shriek, Old-norse skrîkja.

Old-French i̯e, along with e, often lies at the root: cap-a-pie (piet, pie), niece, piece, grief, fie̯f, brief, chief (Old-French the same), tierce (tiers, tierce), fierce (fier, [fiers]), cierge, bier (biere, bierre), cavalier, arquebusier &c., achieve (achever, acheiver), besiege (assieger, asseger), grieve (grever, grief), pierce (percer, perchier), Old-English chevetain (chieftain), acheveu̯, assegen, percen &c.

Old-French i: liege (lige), frieze (frize), mien (mine).
Old-French u: (Modern-French ou): retrieve (truver, trover, trouver), reprieve (repruver). Old-English has here commonly e, where Modern-English mostly chuses o: preven, repreven, meven (Old-French muevre, movoir), ameven, remove, keveren (cover); thus also the Old-Scotch. The Diphthong i (ei) has been exhibited above in contrive.

Many ie are to be distinguished from the above as two vowels, both in the accented and in the unaccented syllable, as in acquiesce &c.; forms like pityed, countries (with silent e) &c.; orient, alien and the like.

b) ie sounds with the diphthong i in the open syllable of the stem, in Germanic words, under the influence of a following original c, g, instead of:

Anglosaxon i, ea, y (g): lie (liegan, liggan, ligēan), vie (vigeljan, viggan), hie (higjan), die also dye (deāgjan = tingere), (yet die = mori is Old-norse deyja to divian); tie (tēgjan, týgan, even the Anglosaxon tyan, tian); otherwise stems of this sort end with the English y, (ye) sound. ie also arises by inflection out of y: flies and thus in Romance words cries &c., also in derivatives, as fiery (fīre).

Old-French ie is a diphthong in pie (pica); i in fie along-with fy (compare the Old-English fyen = to say fy!); e in die plural dies and dice, Old-English dis, dees, deys.

ie in brēr and ia in friar are to be taken as broadenings of an Anglosaxon e and a French e (ê) before r: brēr, brær, French frere, Old-English the same. They have become disyllables: compare fiery from fire.

Y stands in words of Germanic, Romance and Latin-Greek origin, yet only in Germanic words at the end.

a) as a diphthong it arises out of:

the Anglosaxon i and ē: mē (min), thē (pin); with following g: stē (stige = hara); whē (hwē, hvē, hū); skē, Old-norse skē, compare Anglosaxon scuva, scūa = umbra.

Anglosaxon eo (g, h): flē (feōgan), flē (feōge), shē (scēoh), slē (Swedish slug); frē (Old-norse friō, fræ, Old-French fraye).

Anglosaxon i and y under cooperation of a following g: bē (big, bi, bē) unaccented be, Old-English be and bi, dry (dryge, drē); in buē, where u stands idly, the same process takes place (byeogan, Old-English buggen, byggen, bien).

In the form ye it proceeds from i, ea (g) in ryē (rige, ryege), dyē (deāg, deāh), Old-English substantive deyer; compare Wye (Latin Vaga) in Wales.

Old-French i, mostly before e, likewise gives ē: trē (trier), crē (crier), affē (affier), denē (denier), defē (defier), frē (frier, freir), applē (from plier, Old-French appliquer), complē (com-plier), descrē (descrire), espē (espiē).

Old-French e (ê), gives in the accented syllable sometimes ē: supplē (Modern-French supplēer).

A primitive y (ê), which has passed through the Latin and French, mostly receives the diphthong sound through its position, as tyrant, cypress, hydromel &c. See the pronunciation.
In the unaccented syllable the same is mostly good for the original y. The words in i: fy (fier) and pły (plier) have always the diphthong; ōccupý (occuper), próphēsý exceptionally.

b) By far the most frequently a y not primitive becomes an unaccented ï, especially in final syllables. It arises from:

the Anglosaxon įg: penny (penig, properly pending), body (bodig), busy (bysig), rainy (rēgenig, rēnig), twenty (ventig), bury (byrigan) &c.; so also lily (līje, līlege), berry (berge, berge) &c.; it also interchanges with ow: holy (hālig) and hālloow, see ow, and is also developed out of the mere g: jelly (felg) also felloe, Cánterbury (Cantvaraburh, burg); so also out of ìc: only (ânic) &c.

Old-French iе and ě (Modern-French é, ê) are transmuted in Modern-English into y; thus in verbs in iеr: cárry, váry, stúdy, énvy, márry (carrier, charier &c.); in substantives in iе: hóstelry, týrranny, fáncy, chivalry &c.; also in i: mérêy (mercit, merci), énemy, jolly, as in ë (é): píty, city, charitý &c.; in ee: armý, jelly (gelée), duty (Old-English duetee); in ary, orý, rising from aire, oire by transposition under Latin influence &c.; nécessary, victóry &c.

Some of these y's develop themselves out of ai, ei (öi), as very (verai, Old-English veray, verray), bëlfrìe (belfreit, bele-froi). The Old-English frequently has ie instead of iy, iy and so forth. hevie (heavy); a plashie ground (NOMENCLATOR 1585). The Cobler of Cánterburie (1590). Fortie mark (Cryy match 1639. p. 14.); carien, studien; envie, hostelrie, chévalrie, victorie &c., commonly even down to the 16th and 17th centuries dictionarie, historie, phantasie, societie &c.; instead of ë (é, ê) frequently ee: pitee, charitee, solempnitee; also perhaps a mere e: cite, pite &c.

In Latin-greek words a primitive y is often in part an accented, in part an unaccented ï: týrranny, lýric &c. Égýpt, análysis &c.

E is divided unequally into the predominant short and long sound. Primarily

a) in the accented syllable a short é mostly develops itself out of the same vowel, thereby proving itself to be the most fixed vowel of those tongues which are the basis of English. It arises out of

the Anglosaxon e and ē, whether these point to an original a or i: den (dene, denn), wen (venn), wren (vrenna), sell (sellan, syllan), step (steppan), neb (nebb), net (nett), bed (bedd), bench (benc), rest (rest, rāst), merry (merh, mirig); well (vêla, vēl), get (gētan, gītan), melt (mēltan, miltan), sold (sēld, soldan); nest (nist, nēst), self (silf, sīlf, seolf), fennel (fīnul, fēnol), pepper (pipor, peopor, pēpor), fetter (foetur, fētor).

Anglosaxon untransmuted i and y seldom give the Engl. e: desk, beside dish (disc), sheriff (scirgerfa), welcome (vil-cume, verb vilcumjan); — elder (yider), kernel (cyrnel), whelk (hvylca, fledge (flycge).
Anglosaxon eo, interchanging with i in: herd (heord, hiord), seven (séofon, siofun, syfon), Fredrick (Freoðoric, freoðo alongwith friðu), her (hire, heore).

Anglosaxon a and ã: pebble (pabol), produced in where (hvar, hvår); egg (äg), elf (älf, elf, ylf), Alfred (Alfréd), less (läs), Old-Engl. ware (Rob. of Gloucester), lass; and ea: belch (bealcjæn), stern (stearn), Berkshire (Bearrucscir); even ã: emmet (ämæte, ämAte). In Old-English and dialectically e often takes the place of a: esp, exile, extortion, (LYDGATE) = axletree, edder &c. See À.

Anglosaxon Æ passes here and there into ë: errand (årende), erst (årest); produced in ere (ær), there (ær, pér); were (værë, væron), ever (æfre), never (næfre, néfor), wet (væt), let (leatan = sinere), wrest (v्रæstæn), wrestle (v्रæstijan); Old-English arande, pare, wrastle, arst; even or instead of ere; ye war, ware often in Skelton.

Anglosaxon è rarely: reck (rècan = curare), reckless (rècelæs), bless (bätzjan, bléssjan).

Anglosaxon ëa in red (réad, réól), Edmund, Edgar, Edwin (Eádmund &c.); on the other hand Eadbert (Éádbert) and in the unaccented syllable -less (leás = less).

Anglosaxon eð: in devil (deóful), theft (pëfér, pëfòf).

Anglosaxon o and ð is also found rendered by e in welkin (volcen) and Wednesday (Vòndesdåg), Wednesbury (Vòdnesboehr), Old-English walkne.

Among the French elements e is, with regard to its place in the word, the basis of the short ë, as also the e of other tongues. Old-French e: gem (gemme, yet Anglosaxon gimm), repént (repentir), regré (regreter), clef (the same), err (errer), serf (the same); clergy (clergie), remémber (rememberer); also in the open syllable: séveral (the same), bërverage (the same), ténant (the same), précious (precios, -us) &c.

Old-French a, which, before the nasal, interchanges with e even in Old-French: trench (trancher and trencher), merchant (marcheant), Old-English marchant, as clerk and serjeant assume an ë, at least in pronunciation.

Old-French ei, ai, ie, which likewise interchange with e: vessel (vaisseil, veissel, vessel), pledge (pleige, plege), science (síecle, scecle).

Old-French i: cemetery (cimetiere), sketch (French esquisse), lemon (limon), level (Italian livello), Ex (Latin Isca) a river in Devonshire.

e seldom takes the place of oi: perry, French poiré; or u: ferret, French furet, to the Latin fur.

In the unaccented syllable before the accent e mostly arises out of ë; on the other hand it is weakened down to a glib ë, after the accented syllable out of all Germanic and Romance vowels. Examples are everywhere to be met with, even apart from the organic, silent e. Thus e stands in the place of the Anglosaxon a, o, u: answer (andsvarjan), rather (råder),
éarnest (eornost), fënneal (finul, -ol); even Anglosaxon takes
the lead in this weakening; compare Anglosaxon hungur, -or,
-er, English húnger; Anglosaxon endèlfum, -efun, -efen (Da-
tive), English éléven and so forth. Old-French i, ei, ai, ie,
oï, a &c. give e: kênneal (chenil), Garrett (garîte), courteous
(curtsine), counsell (conseil, conseil, consol), màrvel (mer-
veille, mervolle), mitten (mitaine), südun (sudain), tràvèl
(travailleur, travailleur), pòîtrel (poitrail), màîner (manière);
so màtter, river &c. cóvèt (covoiter, coverye), hârness
(harnas, harnois), mànger (mangeoire), Íônnet (Benoit),
scârlet (escarlate), châllenge (chaloner, chalenger) &c. Old-
English often reverts or approximates to the old vocalization:
hungur, lengur, betur (Rob. of Gloucester), conseil,
merveilous, courtesie, sodayn, sodeyn (the latter even
in Skelton), Beneit.

b) as a long e with the ï-sound, e stands in modern-English mostly
in non-Germanic words in the open syllable (see pronunciation).

The Anglosaxon æ, é has partly this sound in the open syl-
labl: hë (hë), më (më), wë (vë), yë (gé), even (ëfen), èvil
(yfel, eofel, èfel and êbul), màètre (métier), ëvéur (fêfer, com-
pare French fièvre), bèsom (bèsma); the older spelling is hee,
mee &c., as even now thee (pë), often to distinguish the accented
from the unaccented pronoun:

Also the Anglosaxon æ: éve, even, evening (ëfen), these
(pâs, gen. pissa, Old-English this, this); ea and è: èke (Con-
junction eàc, èc, Substantive eáca, verb ècean, ècan); and éo:
be (bôn).

Wherever e appears lengthened in an open syllable, it rests
upon a Romance, Latin-Greek e (also a primitive æ, oe), and
preserves or gains its length in great part by its position in the
word: compare sevère, scène with génius (genius), pè-
riod (périodus). Dèmesne, also demain, points to the
French ei, ai (demeine, demaine).

In the unaccented syllable e inclines to the ï-sound, more in
the open than in the close syllable; Latin e in the termination
es (Latin ës) preserves the length: ambágës.

Eë is chiefly the representative of the lengthened e and shares
with ea the long ï-sound. In Old-English ee frequently stands instead of
the ea now in use: leef (leaf), heep (heap), heeth (heath), feet (feat),
deen (dean) Piërs Plougïhm.), perhaps with the sound ë, as it was
even in the 17th century. But a simple e likewise stands in an open
syllable or with a mute e after it: meke (meek), sene (seen), quene
(queen), whële (wheel), wepen (weep), seken (seek), kepen (keep),
kñelen (kneel), but also before other syllables beginning with a con-
sonant freadom, and ben (been).

It especially answers to the Anglosaxon è as the modification of
ô: feel (félàan), keel (célan), seem (sèman = judicare, compare som
Substantive), green (grène), quene (çvën), weep (vépan), keep
(cëpan), meet (mètan), sweet (svëte), speed (spëdan), feed (fëdan),
sleeve (slêf, slýf), geese (gës), teeth (tëd), seek (sècan soecan),
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beechen (bècen); — sweep (to svápan compare the Lowdutch swoëpe).

To the Anglosaxon é along with ea, commonly ea in Modern-English: need (nèad, nèd, nyéd), leek (leác), reek (réc, réac), cheek (ceace, cèce), steep (steáp).

To the Anglosaxon æ mostly interchanging with é: eel (æl), needle (nædl, nædl), sleep (slæpan, slapan), sheep (sœcp, scœp), seed (sæd), weed (væd), leech (læce, léce), speech (spæc), greedy (grædig, grädig), seely (sælig).

To the Anglosaxon éo frequently: bee (beó), flee (fleon, fleó-han), [compare be (beón)], tree (tréo, trë), knee (kneó, kneóv), reel (hreól), wheel (hveól, hveoval), beer (bœr), deer (deor, diór), steer (steórán, stiórán, stýran), steer (steór = taurus), deep (deóp), creep (créópan), see (šeóðan, sióðan), freeze (freósan, frýsan), fleece (fleós, fîفس), beetle (biótul, beótel, bêtel, býtel).

To the Anglosaxon i: free (frî), three (prü), scree (scir and scœre) and even

To the Anglosaxon i, é, eo and u = Gothic i: shire (scire), thee (pë) see above e, see (see), week (vice, veoce, vuce), Old-English woke, wyke (Rôb. of Gloucester). Thus keeve, stands alongside kive, Anglosaxon cyf = cupa.

The Old-French e, particularly in an open syllable and where it interchanges with ei, ai and oï is often represented by ee: agree (aigner), degree (the same), careen (Modern-French carêner), cheer (cherche, chiere) along with chear, chânticleer (chantercleer), peer (par, pair, per), peel (poiler, peiler, peler), Old-English secrée (secreit, secroi); decree (decret), see (siez, se, sed), proceed, exceed, succeed along with recède, precède (proceder, succeder), discreet (discret), see (foible, Modern-French faible); thus also is the French termination e (atus) represented in abandonee and other names of persons, likewise in names of things: rappée (rapé). A regard to the Latin é often prevails therewith: beet (French bette, Latin bêta, Old-highdutch bioza, bieza), spleen (splén) &c.

Also the French termination ier along with aire and ière in modern words, is often represented by eer, together with ier and er: pioneer, volunteer, career &c.

The Old-French i is often rendered thus in Modern-English: genteel (gentil), Old-English gentle; veer (virer), lee (lie), esteem (estimer), redeem (se rédimer) &c.

The Old-French oe, ue, modern French œu: beef (boef, buef) Old-French o: fleet (flote or Anglosaxon flota = navis?) stand alone.

In the unaccented syllable, where it is rare, it rests upon the French é (ée): cóuche, lève, jéte, coffee, committee.

Ei and ey seem down to the 17th century to have had only the sound of a long é, which is even now predominant; the Old-English often puts it in the place of the ai, now in use: feire (fair), seint (saint), pleyn (plain), heyre (hair), deys (days), susteynen (sustain), pleyen (play), seyen (say); often also instead of the present diphthong i: heigh (high), neigh (nigh), deyen (die).
The \textit{ei} in the middle of a syllable, rare in Germanic words, arises in the accented syllable, mostly before a succeeding \(g\) (\(h\)) out of:

- the Anglosaxon \(\acute{a}\) (\(\ddot{a}\)); their (p\(\ddot{a}\)ra, p\(\ddot{a}\)ra); — either, neither (\(\acute{a}\)hv\(\ddot{a}\)der, \(\acute{a}\)\(\ddot{a}\)er, \(\acute{a}\)\(\ddot{a}\)er, yet compare also \(\acute{a}\)ghv\(\ddot{a}\)der and n\(\acute{a}\)hv\(\ddot{a}\)der) now sounding with \(i\).

- the Anglosaxon \(e\alpha\): eight (e\(\acute{a}\)th, \(\acute{a}\)th, ehta).

- the Anglosaxon \(e\acute{a}\): height he\(\acute{a}\)h\(\ddot{a}\)o\(\ddot{a}\), along with h\(\acute{a}\)igh (he\(\ddot{a}\)h) sounding ei and ne\(\acute{a}\)ighb\(\ddot{a}\)ur (ne\(\acute{a}\)hb\(\ddot{a}\)r) with \(e\), along with n\(\acute{a}\)igh (ne\(\ddot{a}\)h), and he\(\acute{e}\)ifer (he\(\acute{a}\)fh\(\ddot{a}\)re, he\(\acute{a}\)f\(\ddot{a}\)re) with a short \(\acute{a}\).

- the Anglosaxon \(\ddot{a}\)e: ne\(\ddot{a}\)igh (hm\(\ddot{a}\)gan); and \(e, \ddot{i}\): weigh (\(\ddot{v}\)egan), weight (\(\ddot{v}\)iht). In slight (to sl\(\ddot{y}\), Lowdutch sl\(\ddot{u}\), Swedish slug) \(e\ddot{i}\) again prevails.

In words originally French it mostly stands in the place of the Old-French \(e\alpha i\), interchanging with \(a i\) and \(e i\), partly with the \(\ddot{e}\) sound:

- ve\(\acute{in}\) (ve\(\acute{e}\)ne), de\(\acute{e}\)ign (de\(\acute{e}\)igner, da\(\acute{e}\)igner, de\(\acute{e}\)igner \&\(\acute{e}\)c.), heir (hoir, heir), veil and v\(\acute{a}\)il (voie, veile), re\(\acute{e}\)ins (rein, rain); partly with the \(i\)-sound: se\(\acute{e}\)ize (seisir, saisir), se\(\acute{e}\)ine (the same sag\(\acute{e}\)na), le\(\acute{z}\)eire (loisir, leisir), rece\(\acute{e}\)ive, perceive, dece\(\acute{e}\)ive, conce\(\acute{e}\)ive (rechoivire, re\(\acute{e}\)ovire, perchoivire \&c. along with reciever, receveir, recivoir \&c.), therefore also rece\(\acute{e}\)ipt, dece\(\acute{e}\)it, conce\(\acute{e}\)it; ceil, (secli\(\acute{e}\), se\(\acute{e}\)eler, se\(\acute{e}\)eler = sigil\(\acute{a}\)are, figuris ornare).

Instead of \(e\ddot{i}\) and \(a\alpha i\): o\(\acute{e}\) bee\(\acute{s}\)i\(\acute{a}\)nce, hein\(\acute{u}\)ous (ha\(\in\)nos) compare Old-Engl. heyne.

For \(e\): re\(\acute{e}\)in (resne, regne, Modern-French \(\ddot{r}\)ene); Latin \(e\): in\(\acute{e}\)ve\(\acute{e}\)igh (in\(\acute{e}\)ve\(\acute{e}\)hi). Inveigle (with \(I\)) is said to have been corrupted from the Italian invogliare; perhaps out of the Old-French avogler = aveugler.

In the unaccented syllable \(e\ddot{i}\) arises out of the French \(a\alpha i, e\alpha i:\) fo\(\acute{r}\)eign (forain), so\(\acute{e}\)vereign (soverain), fo\(\acute{r}\)fei\(\acute{t}\) (forfait), co\(\acute{n}\)u\(\acute{e}\)rfei\(\acute{t}\), surfei\(\acute{t}\).

\(E\ddot{y}\), now likewise divided between \(\ddot{e}\) and \(I\) is likewise rare in Germanic words. It arises in the accented syllable, in words originally Anglosaxon, mostly with the weakening of \(g\) into \(i\), out of:

- The Anglosaxon \(\acute{a}\) (\(\ddot{a}\)); they, (p\(\ddot{a}\)), we\(\acute{e}\)y and weigh (\(\ddot{v}\)ag, \(\ddot{v}\)ag).

- The Anglosaxon \(\ddot{a}\alpha\): whe\(\acute{e}\)y (\(\ddot{v}\hq\)ag), grey\(\acute{e}\)hound (\(\ddot{g}\)r\(\acute{e}\)ghund, gr\(\acute{e}\)gh); on the other hand gray (\(\ddot{g}\)seg); with \(I\): key (\(\ddot{g}\)seg). Compare bey, Turkish beg.

- In eye (c\(\acute{e}\)\(\acute{a}\)ge) \(e\ddot{y}\) becomes ei; eyel\(\acute{i}\)ad (vei:\(\ddot{a}\)lade), eye\(\acute{e}\)let (vei:\(e\)let) are transformations into the Anglosaxon form.

Old-French \(e\alpha i, o\alpha i\) gives \(e\ddot{y}\): prey (preier, proier, praier = prae\(\acute{e}\)-dari), tre\(\acute{e}\)y (trei, troi, trois), convey along with con\(\acute{e}\)voy (conveier, con\(\acute{e}\)voier); obe\(\acute{e}\)y (ob\(\acute{e}\)ir), pur\(\acute{e}\)vey, surve\(\acute{e}\)y (veoi\(\acute{e}\), veec\(\acute{e}\), veer); also ai: ey\(\acute{r}\)y and \(\alpha e\)rie (French airee).

In the unaccented syllable it answers to the Anglosaxon \(\ddot{e}\) (\(g\)): R\(\acute{a}\)m\(\acute{s}\)ey (Rammes\(\acute{e}\)ge), Ang\(\acute{l}\)ese\(\acute{e}\)y (Angles\(\acute{e}\)g). \(i\) (\(g\)): h\(\acute{o}\)ney (hu\(\acute{n}\)ig); compare b\(\acute{a}\)r\(\acute{e}\)y (Cymric bar\(\acute{y}\)lls), Old-English b\(\acute{a}\)r\(\acute{e}\)y (Maund); more frequently Old-French \(e\alpha i, o\alpha i\): mo\(\acute{n}\)ey (mo\(\acute{n}\)oie, mo\(\acute{n}\)eie) t\(\acute{o}\)ur\(\acute{n}\)ey (tour\(\acute{e}\)i, tor\(\acute{e}\)i), l\(\acute{a}\)mp\(\acute{r}\)ey (lamp\(\acute{r}\)ioie, Anglosaxon l\(\acute{a}\)mp\(\acute{r}\)ed\(\acute{e}\)); l\(\acute{a}\)ck\(\acute{e}\)y belongs to la\(\acute{i}\)quai, Old-French also la\(\acute{q}\)uet; a\(\acute{b}\)b\(\acute{e}\)y (Old-French abb\(\acute{a}\)ye); and Old-French \(e\ddot{e}\) (Modern-French \(\ddot{e}\ddot{e}\)): \(\ddot{a}\)l\(\ddot{e}\)y (all\(\acute{e}\)e),
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Ea, even in the 17th century representing the sound of the long e in distinction to ë in the close syllable (meat and mét) (J. Wallis), now mostly long ï, and besides short ë, without the carrying out of a principle, although resting principally on the Anglosaxon ea, is rendered mostly by e in Old-English in words originally Germanic and Romance: eche, shefe, etc. clene, weke, heren, beren, dede (dead), bever, rene (realm), resen, sesen, grese, egle &c.; as well as also by ee: see (sea), Modern-English still appear and appear, aread and areed, as bëdle and beadle. On the other hand in the 16th and 17th centuries it often takes the place of the English long and short e (ë and ë), where it has been subsequently abandoned. It represents in the accented syllable:

The Anglosaxon ea as ï: flea (fléa), beam (beám), bean (beán), year (gær, gër), leap (hleáp), leaf (léaf), leave (léaf = permis-sio), bereave (bereafjan), beat (béátan), east (ést), beacon (béacen); — as ë: deaf (déaf), threat (préátjan), lead (léád), death (déad); — as é: great (gréât).

The Anglosaxon æ as ï: sea (sé and sëo), lean (léen), mean alongwith moan (mænán), heal (hélán), fear (féar), bleat (blétan), lead (mæd = pratum), sheath (sčæd, sòað; sção), tease (tæsan), each (eæc), teach (tæccan), geason (gæseen), heathen (hæden); — as é: dread (dréad), thread (préad), breath (bréad), health (héló), weapon (væpen, veþpen), cleanse (chænsjan), early (ærlice).

The Anglosaxon ë as ï: wheat also weal and wale, (hvèle = putredo), leave (léfan, Lýfan = permettere), hear (hèran, hyrán), read (rédan), weary (vérg), vórir); — as a: hearken (hércnjan, hyrcnjan).

The Anglosaxon ï as ï: cleave (clífan), wreathe along with writhe (writhe).

The Anglosaxon ë as ï: dear (dèore, dió, dýre), cleave (cléo-fan, clúfan), dreary (dréoríg); — as é: breast (bréost).

The Anglosaxon a as ï: pea (páva), Old-English po, poo, in Skelton still póhen; weak (vác); — as ë: sweat (svát), ready (from rád).

The Anglosaxon e as ï: meat (mete, mett), leak (hleéc = rimos-sus), wean (wenjan), heave (hebben); — as ë: heavy (hefig), lengthened in swear (sverjan), wear (verjan).

The Anglosaxon ë, ea, æ and y as ï: meal (mëlu, meolo, melo), steal (stélan), sheaf (scérán), spear (spër, spére, spio, spiere), smear (Substantive smér, verb smērvjan, smērjan), eat (étan), knead (enécdan), mean (mëdu = mulsum), leak (Old-norse léca = stillare), Anglosaxon leccan = irrigate), wreak (vrécan), lease (lésan = colligere), beaver (bӱfer, bëber, bøofer); seal (sёolh, sёol, söl, syl = phoca), lean (hlinjan, hleonjan), beaker (Old-norse bikar, Medieval-Latin bicarium), seal (sigel), beadle (bydel); as ë: tread (trédan),

gálley (galée, Old-French galie), vállé (valee), jórney (jornee, jurnee), chimney (cheminee, chimenee), cásuey (chaussée); also e (ë): attórney (atorne, medieval-Latin atratus); rarely Old-French ie: Tûrkýe, else y. Forms like moneie, valieie are still frequent in Old-English.
weather (vöder), feather (fïder, feóöer, feöer), earl (eörl, ürl), earnest (eornost), earth (eordë), learn (leornjan, liornjan), quern (cveorn, cvyrn), heaven (heofon); as a lengthened è: bear (bëra), bear (bëran, beorán), pear (përu), tear (tëran), break (brëcan); as a: heart (heorte), heart (heordë).

The Anglosaxon ea also ë as i: ear (ãher, ear), beard (beard): as ë: pearl (pëarl, pearl), earn (eørnjan), meadow (meadu, mëdu); as a: beard obsolete, alongwith bairn, barn (beard)

Old-French ai, oi, along with ë and è, become very frequently ëa mostly as i: clear (clair, cleir, cler), eagle (aigle), eager (aigre, eigre, egre), feat (fait), defeat, treat (traiter, compare Anglosaxon thræftjan, treahfigæan). plead (plaider), plea (plait from plaiz, ples), peace (paix, pais, pes), grease (graisse, gresse), lease (laisser, leisser, lessier), please (plaisir, pleisir, plesir), appease (apaisier), treaty (traite), reason (raison, reson), season (saison, seison, seson), feasible, obsolete faisible; pea (pois, peis? compare Anglo- saxon pisa, piosa), mean (moien, meien), dean (doyen), increase, decrease (croistre, creistre, crestre); so also ai: treason (traison);

as ë: peasant (païsent), as pheasant (faisan), Old-English fesaunt (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

Old-French e (Modern-French ë, ë, ë, ë) as i: zeal (zële), mean (demener = to behave), appeal (apeler, Substantive apel, apiel), reveal (reveler), congeal (geler), conceal (celer), repeat (Modern-French répeter), cream (creme), beast (beste), feast (feste), preach (precher, preesser), peach (Modern-French pêche, Anglosaxon përsue), breach (breche), impecch (empescher, empescsher), cease (cesser), decease (deces, dechies), tea (thé, Italian té), beak (bec, Gaelic beic), feature (faiture); also ië = e: arrears, arrerage (arier, arique), Old-English arrerage; — as ë: search (chercher, cherchier), measure (mesure), treasure (trosor), leaveen (levain).

Old-French i as i: beagle (bigle), league (ligne), peak (pic, pique); i along with e: treague (trive, treve, Italian tregua (SPENSER); as ë: treachery (tricherie, trecrei).

Old-French a as i: glean (gleaner, also gleener), dialectally glent = gleaned; appear (apparoir, appareer), Old-English apparence (CHAUCE), apparancy (GOWER); — as ë: jealous (jalous and engelus), Old-English Substantive jallowes.

The Old-French ea has been preserved as ë in: realm (realme, reame), yet Old-English also resme (MAUND.), reme (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

In creature ëa has been contracted as ë, as in: deacon ëa (dia- conus, yet even Anglosaxon diacon, deacon).

ea in an unaccented syllable, has rarely arisen, as it were out of the Anglosaxon è, ë (g): Anglesea along with Anglesey (Anglesëg), Chëlesea (Ceolësëg); or French e: colleague; or an original ea: guinea.

Èo with its various sounds does not stand in Germanic words;
only yeoman, Old-English yeman (man pl. men) is a decidedly Anglosaxon substantive. According to Grimm ye, yeo is the prefix ge (contubernalis, minister); according to others ye, yeo = young; belonging perhaps to the Anglosaxon geim = cura, attentio, Anglosaxon
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gymend = governor, as it were geammann. The Old-English has the verb yemen = to govern, to take care of and the substantive yeme (Anglosaxon verb géman, gyman = custodire, curare). Does the dialectical gemman = nobleman belong also here?

Otherwise eo exists only in Romance words, although e after a guttural is a sign of the dental pronunciation; compare dungeon (donjon, doignon), puncteion (poinçon); or as an original vowel it forms a double syllable with a following vowel (piteous). It arises from eo in Theobald (Tibald, Tybalt), Italian Teobaldo = Dietbald; from eu (ue) in people Old-English peple (pople, puple), jeopardy (jeuparti), Old-English juperti (Wright Dame Siriz 13th century), jeuptertys (GOWER); ieu: feoff (fieu, verb fiever, fiefer), feod along-with feud point to feudum, compare the Modern-French féodal.

Eu also occurs only in Romance and Latin-Greek words, except in eugh along-with yew (Anglosaxon éov), commonly from a primitive eu: Europe, eunuch, zeugma, eunomy &c., also deuce, (doi, deus); but whether also deuce (= devil), with which compare the Lowdutch diker, deukert? Feud, Anglosaxon féudh, fédg, Old-French faide rests upon a confusion with feudum, as, conversely the medieval-Latin faidium instead of feudum is found. In the unaccented syllable eu often stands in the French termination eur: grandeur &c.

Ew, as a diphthong iú, rarely ē, often interchanges with ú (iú), as in askew, askue; clew, clue, fewmet, fumet; fewel, fuel &c. and rests particularly upon:

The Anglosaxon éov: brew (breóvan), chew (ceóvan), crew = multitoudo (creóv? Old-norse krú), the preterites grew (greóv), blew (bleóv), kneu (kneóv), threw (preóv), crew (creóv); dialectically still mew (meóv), sew (seóv) = o: strew along-with strow (strejjan, streóvjjan, Gothic straujan); eog: tew = materials (teóg); iv: steward (stigeværd, stiveard).

The Anglosaxon eov, iv; ewe (eovu, eov, eavu, eav), new (nive, niove, neove), spew (speovjan), yew (eov, iv), lew (leovjan = calories), clew (clive, compare the Lowdutch klûgen); formerly he we, now hue = color (hiv, hiov, heov); = s: sew (sivjan, seovjan = suere).

The Anglosaxon eáv: few (feáve), dew (deáv), thew (Spenser) (peáv = mos), shrew, mouse (screáva), hew (heávan); flew arises from fleah, flagon, Old-English flægh, flæy.

The Anglosaxon áv, áv, òv (óg, óh): rew formerly along-with row (rév, compare stæfræg, stæfrýv), former preterite snew (snáv), mew (màv? mæv), lewd (læved, lêved, lëvd); drew (drog, drógon), slew (slôh, slógon), Old-English drogh, drough, draw; slogh &c.

The Anglosaxon ëv, ev appear as ew in shew along-with show with o (scavjjan, sceavjan, scevjan) and in the unaccented syllable in sinew (sineve). W proceeds from f and b in: newt along with eft (efete, eft), Old-English ewt, evet, and Shrëwsbury (Scrobbesburh). Ug gives ew in the Old-English Hew instead of Hugh (Old-Highdutch Hugo, Anglosaxon hyge = mens) compare Modern-English feverfew = febrifuge.
In words originally Romance *ew* also often stands in an unaccented syllable, ever with the sound *iū*; in the accented and unaccented syllable it arises from *u*, with a preceding or following *e* or *i*, or from a mere *u* (*ou*).

Old-French *eu*, *ieu*: *fewel* along with *fuel* (*feu*, *fu*, *fou*, compare the Substantive *fouee*), *pewter* (*peuttre*, medieval-Latin *pestrum*, *pewtrum*), *sew* formerly along with *sue* (*sevre*, *seure* = *suitvre*), Old-English *suwen*; often unaccented: *curfew* (*couvre feu*), *cūrlew* (*courlious*, *corliue*, medieval-Latin *corilivus*), *nephew* (*neveu*, Anglosaxon *néfa*), *hebrew* (*hebreu*), Old-English *ebreu* (*Maund.*), *Māthēw* (*Matthieu*); thus Bartholomew, Andrew &c. imitated; compare Old-English *maisondewe* (maison dieu). Mew answers to our miaoen, but *mewl* points to the French *mianuer*. *ev*, *iv* operates as in *iu*: *eschew* (eschiver, escheveir, compare Anglosaxon sceoh, Old-English eschive and eschue.

Old-French *ui* operates in *pew* (*pui*, *poi* = *podium*), *tewel* (*tuiel* = *tuyau*); thus also arose *Jew* (*juis*, *juif*, compare Anglosaxon *Ju-dēas*), Old English *jewerie* (*CHAUCER*), Old-French *juerie*, *juerie*.

Old-French *u* (*ue*) also *ou*: *mew* (substantive *mue*, verb *muer*), *fewmet* along with *fumet* (*fumette*), Old-English *remewe* and *remue*, *salewe* and *salue*, *jewise* (*juise*); — *jewel* (*juel*, *joel*, *joel*), Old-English *joweles* (*CHAUCER*), Lewis (Louis). strew substantive and strew verb perhaps belong primarily to the Old-French etuve, bain, Modern-French *étuver*; — *venew* (*SHAKESPEARE*) and *veney*, (venue), *view*, *interview* (vene).

The older language still presents many *ew*, as for instance, instead of *eg*: *flewme* = phlegm.

*A*, whose sound stands especially under the influence of consonants (see Pronunciation) has split itself into *ā*, *ā*, *ā* and *ē*, in Germanic words goes back to the short *a* sound, (Anglosaxon *a*, *ā* and *ea*) and borrows its accentual tinge essentially from the Anglosaxon *ā*, by the production of which the *ē*-sound seems to have arisen, whereas the Anglosaxon *a*-sound appears lengthened, particularly before a silent *l* and a sounded *r*. *e* certainly appears in Old-English, as well as in dialects instead of the Modern-English *a*, but particularly before *r* where the vowels rests, not upon *a* or *ā*, but upon *ea*, *eo*, *e*: *derk*, *yerde*, *merk*, *sterre* (*star*), *ferre*, *ferthing*, *kerven* (*carve*), *sterten*, *hereberwe*; also in Romance words: *gerlond* (garland), *merveillous*, *persone* (parson) &c. The partial transition into the *ā*-sound must have taken place early, the confusion of *a* with *o* having spread not only in Old-English and the dialects (mony, *lond*, *hond*, *strond*, *brond*, *stont* [standeth], dysemol), but appeared even in Anglosaxon, particularly before *m* and *n*, as in grōm, *homm*, *gomen* [game], *monig*, *monn*, *vonn*, *sond*, *ongel* &c. (see above). In the accented syllable *a* arises from:

The Anglosaxon *a* as *ā*: *ham* (hamm), *man* (mann), *lap* (lapjan), *crab* (crabba), *hāve* (habban, hābben), *ass* (assa), *ashes* (asce), *lamb* (the same), *land* (the same), *ankle* (ancleov), *apple* (appel, āpl), *cast* (Old-norse kasta), *cag* (Old-norse kagg); as *ā*: short in *wan* (*vann* = pallidus), long in alder (alor, air); as *ē*: *lame* (lam),
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bene (bana), ape (apa), late (late, läte), make (macjan); ware (varu), stare (starjan).

The Anglosaxon á as á: can (cann), Alfred (Ålfred), sap (säp), happy (häpp), at (ät), glad (gläd), mass (mässe), axe (åx, eax), waggon (vågen); — as á: water (våter), small (smål, smal, sméal); — as ä: path (päd, pad), father (fäder); — as e: acre (äcer), acorn (äcorn), grave (gråf).

Anglosaxon ea as á: shall (sceal), mallow (mealva), fallow (fealu = flavus), mat (meatte), narrow (mearh), slack (sleac, släc), wax (veaxan), flax (flex); — as á: all (eall, eal, al), fall (feallan), wall (veall, vall), gall (gealla), hall (healla), half (healtjan); short in warm (værm), warp (værp); — as ä: saline (sealf), half (healf, half); arm (earm), dark (dearc, deorc), spark (spearca), starve (steavjan), hard (heard), hark (hearpe); — as e: ale (ealu), dare (dearr), chafer (ceafor), gate (geat, gat).

The short Anglosaxon e, ê, eo have often, especially before a following r, passed into a; e as á: mantle (mentel), trap (treppe); Thames (Temese, yet also Tämese), mare (merihe, mere), share (scrjan, scirjan); as ä: mar (merran), marsh (merse), tar (terjan, tirjan = vexare), Harwich (Herevic), harbour (hereberge); e as á: thrash along with thrash (préscan), tatter (tëter), tar (tëru, teoru); as á: swallow (svelgan, svilgan); as ë: thane (þegen, þen), scrape (screpan, scroepan); eo as á: am (eom); as ä: far (feorr), star (steorra), barm (beorma, bearma), farm (feorm, fearm), fart (feort), hart (heort, heart) [on the other hand Hertford = Heorutford], dwarf (preorg), carve (ceorfan), bark (beorcan); Darwent (Deorvent, Därenta).

Long vowels, such as á, ë and ë and the diphthong eô, have seldom been transformed into a; as á: ask (åskjan), dastard (to dástrian); as ë: thrave (þræv = manipulus), mate (Old-norse mæti = sodalís), any (åning, anig), Old-English eny; as ä: mad (gemød, Gothic ga-meids = deficient), fat (fæeted contracted fætt), last (leætan), blast (bleæt), ladder (bleædder), bladder (bleædre, blœldre, blœddre); as á: thrall (þral, þral, þreal); as ë: blaze (þlæs); æ as á: bramble (þrembel), fadge (ge-fègean = conjungere, compare Old-English alle in fageyn (Towneley Mystr.) = altogether); as ë: waste (vëstan, compare Latin vastare); eô as á: darling along with dearling (deorling, dëyrling), farthing (þorðung, Old-English ferthing); also as á in lad (leôd, Old-English leode (Piërs Ploughm.), Oldscotch laid). Finally ea is also found transmuted into á: chapman, chapwoman (ceapmann).

Besides the French a, as likewise a in Latin-greek words subsequently introduced, e, especially before r, ai and au in the accented syllable, are changed into a, as the Italian à, rarely, however, except before r.

The Old-French a, which before n had been mostly transformed into au, but in Modern-English even there frequently returns to a (see au), has very commonly been preserved; as à: dam (dame), damsel (damisèle), damage (damage, damaige), dance (danser, dancier), abandon (abandonner), manage (from manage, manage = mansionaticum), manner (maniere), balance (the same), talent (the same), tarry (tarier), marry (marier), travel (travaille, tra-
veiller), pass (passer) &c.; — as ā before a simple r: marble (marbre), alarm (a l'arme); — as ē very commonly in an open syllable: rage, race, table, nacre (nacara, Modern-French nacre), cage, agent, nature, mason (maçon), danger (dangier), chaste (the same).

The Old-French e becomes a, particularly before m, n, before which, even in Old-French, it was often changed into a, and r, as ā: example, sample (exemple, essample), ambush (embuscher), enamel (from āmail, medieval-Latin smaltum), channel (chena, chenal), pansy (pensee, Old-French paunce (SPENSER), frantic (frenetique, compare frenzy, Old-English frenetike), janty (gentil); cratch (crebe, creche); — as ā: war (guerre, werre), Old-English werre, quarrel (querele); — as ā: marvel (merveille), parson (person), partridge (pertris), persley (persil), Old-English perselee, parrot (perroquet — Pierrot?), tarnish (ternir, Old-Highdutch tarnjnarn), varnish (vernir), garner (grenier, gernier), varvels (vervelle).

Old-French ai, interchanging with ei, e and a, gives ā in vanguard (vaincre, veincere, vencre), sally (saillir, salir), cash (caisse, casse), master (maître), Old-English maister.

Old-French au. mostly interchanging with al, also aul, in which the English often has preserved al, aul or au as ā: savage (salvage, sauveau), salmon (saumon), haqueton (auqueton, Modern-French hoqueton); — mostly as ō: safe (sall, sauf), save (salver, saver, savier), claife (caufer, caifer), sage (sauge, Latin salvia, compare Anglosaxon salvige), mavis (mauvis, Spanish malvis); with the l preserved mostly as ā: altar (alter, altel, autel), false (fals, faus), falcon (falcon, faucon), caldron (chaudron), (alongwith vault, assault); — yet also as ā: balm (balme, basme) alongwith balsam, and hence, enhance (enhalcer, enhauier) with the change of l into n; see moreover au.

a in an accented syllable has seldom arisen from other vowels, as from i in garland (gourlande, yet provincially garlanda), Old-English gerland.

In an unaccented syllable a primitive a is mostly found before the accent, yet the Old-French ē, as sometimes even in Old-French itself, has passed into ā, as in: anoint (enoindre), assāy (essaier, asaier), astōnish (estonner), asārt (essarter), affrāy (esfreer, effreer, effreier), Old-English aspie, astālishe, astāte &c.; also o: abēsance alongwith obeisance, rigadón (rigodon), platón (pelo-
ton). After the accented syllable, especially in the unaccented final syllable, a often stands in the place of e and ē in Anglosaxon as well as in other words: ērrand (arrende, ærynde), thōusand (pūsend) &c.; especially in the termination ar: liar (Old-English liere), bēggar (Old-English beggere), see derivation; — mānacle (manicle), sāusage (saucisse), Fāston (villa Faustini); instead of o: hūusband (husbonde), sycamore (sycomore) &c.; al is also found preserved instead of au: hérald (Old-French heralt, heraut, Medieval-Latin heraldus, Old-English herald). Confusion of a and n, as well as of a and ē have often formerly occurred in unaccented syllables. Compare T. Mommsen, Shakspeare’s Romeo and Juliatte 1859 p. 32 ff.

 Ai and ay often divide with ei and ey the province of the same
primitive sounds, yet with the preponderance of ai and ay in accented syllables. In Old-English ai often gives place to ei: wey, seyl (sail), streit, seint, feith, ordeinen, atteinen, mainteinen, feinen, preien, werreien, quientise (quaintness) &c. Alongwith these are found ee, e: slee, sle (slay) sede, ysed, sustenen &c.

Ai in the middle of accented syllables arises but seldom from simple AngloSaxon vowels, as from:
the Anglosaxon ä: bait (bät = esca, verb båtjan, Old-norse beita), swain (svän, Old-Highdutch swein), hail (hål) alongwith whole, raip (räp) along with rope, compare Lowdutch rép = raise (råsjan).
the Anglosaxon æ: hair (hær) = crinis, bait also bate = to attack (båten, Old-Highdutch beizjan = incitare, fraenare).

g, commonly with the softening of a g following the vowel, from:
the Anglosaxon æg: main (mägen), maiden (mägden, mäden, måden), nail (nägel), brain (brägen, bragen, bregen), faín (fågen, fågen), fair (fäger), wain (vägen, vägn, vän), tail (tägel), snail (snägel, snäel, snegel), gain (gågn, genn, gên), hail (hagel, hågel).
The Anglosaxon eg, æg: aïl (egljan, according to Bosworth, agljän like the Gothic), again (ongegn, ågên), twain (tvegen), laid (legede, lêde), rain (rëgen, rën), sail (ségel), braid, upbraid (brégdan, upgebrëgdan), said [partic.] (sägd, sæd); eh: drain (drehningean, drénëgän).

The Anglosaxon æg rarely in the middle, often at the end of a syllable, as ay: stairs (stæger).

From Old-French vowels ai very frequently proceeds, thus from:
The Old-French a, already sometimes interchanging with ai, ei: avail, prevail (valoir, valeir), explain (compare aplanier, aplagnier from plain), exclain, reclaim, proclaim (clamer, claimer, cleimer); compare cairn, Cymric carn.
The Old-French ai, ei, oi, of which ei is wont to be interchanged with the two others, give ai in the middle of a syllable: air (air, eire), aid (aider, eider), aïgret and egret (aïgrette), arraign (araismier, aragnier), bail (bailleur, ballier, baller), retail (retailler), flail (flael, faial), frail (fraile, fragile), caïtiff (caïtif, caïtif, chétif), gaiter (to the Old-French gaitreux, ragged, Modern-French guêtre), grain (graine), saint (saint, seint).

attain (atendre, ataindre), restrain (restreindre, restraindre), refrain (freindre, fraindre), disdain (desdeigner, desdegner, desdainner), paint (peint), faint (feint, faint), taint (teint, taint), praise (substantive prais, pris, verb praisier, praisier, prisers), impair (empirer, empeirer from pejor), despair (from desperer, compare 1. person present espeir, espoir), faith (feid, foit, fei, foi). — pain (poine, peine, paine), fair (foire, feire, fere = forum), quaint (conte = comptus), ac quaint (acjęont = acognitare).
The Old-French e has in a series of words produced ai: abstain, obtain, maintain, retain, pertain, contain, entertain (from tenir), ordain (ordener, ordoner) compare the Old-English ordey嫩 (Rob. of Gloucester), it was ordyned (Maund.), ordeigne (Piers Ploughman).
The softening of a g after i is to be met with even in Old-French,
as in many of the instances cited under \textit{ai}; otherwise the \textit{jn}, \textit{gn}
which have arisen from \textit{ni} through transposition are, after \textit{a}, treated
as \textit{in}: Spain (Espagne = Hispania). The Old-French often changes
\textit{ani} into \textit{aign}; Old-English has sometimes preserved the latter form:
campaign (campagne, champagne); even there \textit{agn}, \textit{aign} and \textit{ain}
stand alongside each other, where English chuses \textit{ain}, particularly in
the unaccented syllable: \textit{mountain} (montaigne, montagne, montaine),
bargain (bargaigne, bargagne, bargaine, compare the medieval-Latin
barcaniare).

In an unaccented syllable \textit{ai} has been mostly maintained out of
the Old-French \textit{ai}: fountaine, châpin, chieftain (chevetaine),
certain \&c.; here and there it has arisen out of \textit{ei}, \textit{i}: vérvain
(verveine), curtaine (courtine).

\textbf{Ay}, mostly of like origin with \textit{ai}, interchanges sometimes with
\textit{ai} in the middle of a syllable: vâivode and wâywode, and often
with \textit{aw}: Old-English daw and day, law and lay, the Modern-
English haw and hay, crawfish and crayfish. It arises from:
the Anglosaxon \textit{a}: aye = ever (à instead of âv).
the Anglosaxon \textit{ae}: wayward (væwîrdlice = proterve).
the Anglosaxon \textit{ag}: may (mäg), day (däg), hay (hög = sept-
tum); slay (slahan, slagan, contracted slean, slân).
the Anglosaxon \textit{eg}, \textit{ëg}: lay (leegan), say (segcan), Old-English
leggen, seggen, play (Substantive pîega, verb plêgian), way (vëg),
sway (svëgjan); \textit{ëg} in hay (hög to heâvan), bewray (vregégan, vreg-
gan, Old-English bewrey, bewrie).
the ancient Anglosaxon \textit{æg}: clay (clæg), gray along with grey
(græg, grêg, grig), blay (blæge = gobio).
the Old-French \textit{ai}, \textit{ei}, \textit{oi}: bay (bai = badius), bay (abaier =
aboier), bay (baie), lay (lai = laicus), lay (lais, Cymric llais), ray
(rais, rai = radius), ray (raie, Latin raja), pay (paier, paer), jay
(gai, jai, geai) and gay (the same), stay = (steir esteir, ester =
stare), and \textit{to} prop (étayer), yay hence fairy, properly abstract
(fae, feie, fee, Dauphinic faye = fata), delay (delai from delaier),
decay (from caer, keir, cair, cheoir \&c.), betray (from trair, trahir,
compare Old-Scotch betrais, Old-English betrained = deceived), mayor
(maire, maior, major); — pray (preier, proier, prier), ray, array
(roi, rei, rai; arroi, arrei, arrai), display (from pleier, ploier, plier),
allay and alloy (aloier, alieier to loi).
the Old-French \textit{ag} in an unaccented syllable has become \textit{ay} in
fôray (forragier = piller).

\textbf{Au} not unfrequently interchanges with \textit{aw}, to which it is equiv-
alent in pronunciation, compare aukward and awkward, bauble
and bawble, waull and wawl, maukin, mawkin and malkin,
haulser, halser and hawser. They have, however, in part different
origins.

In Germanic words the accented syllable \textit{au} principally represents,
although rarely, where it stands before \textit{gh}, (Anglosaxon \textit{h}) when
various primitive vowels occur:
The Anglosaxon \textit{ea}: laugh (hleahhan, hlîghan), Old-English
still lihe, lighe (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), laughte(r) (hleahtor), in the
obsolete raught from reach (reahte, reaht, reah, reht),
straught from stretch (strehte, streht or streah, streht), see the
verb. œ: taught (tehte, teht); o: daughter (dohtor); ö: draught
(dröht); œv with the like effect: aught and naught along with ought,
nought (avhht, åuht; növht, nöuht).

au in Maudlin = Magdalen has arisen out of ag, compare
Old-English Maudeleyne; the obsolete dwaule points to the Anglo-
saxon dvoljan = errare, delirare.

A simple a gives au in haul alongside of hale (Old-norse hala, Lowdutch hâlen, French haler).

The Old-French au is preserved mostly with the obscured sound
(a), as also the Latin and Greek au (see pronunciation): autumn,
august, audience, auspice, Gaul (Gaule), sausage (saucisse),
gauge (Old-Wallon gauger, Modern-French jauger), jaundice (jaun-
nisse), causey (chaussee), applaud &c. The forms al, aul, au are
partly rendered by au: hauberck (halberc, haubert &c.), auburn
(aubour = alburnum) also alburn; on the other hand fault (falte,
aute), fawt (Skelton), and commonly falcon, falchion (fauchon
from falx), vault (vole, voute, vaute), alnage an ellmeasure (from
alne, aune), also aulnage and auln = ell. For the Germanic balk
(Old-norse bálkr) bauk and baulk are also sometimes written; maul
and mail answers to the Old-French maule, Latin malleus.

The Old-French a, especially before n, gives au with the sound
ä (ä): aunte (ante = amita), maunch and manche (manche),
launch (lancer, lanchier), paunch (pance, pauche), vaunt (vanter),
avaunt! (avant), daunt (danter = domitare), staunch and stanch
(estancher), haunt (hanter), haunch (hanche), gauntlet (gantelet),
chaunt alongwith chant (chanter). En is sometimes made equal to
an: maund (mendier). The modern language gradually abandons
this au and restores a. The Old-English still frequently has au in-
stead of the Modern-English a in the accented and unaccented syl-
lable: daunce (compare dauncing [Randolph's Poems 1643 p.105]),
chaunen, graunten, straunge, geaunt (giant), braunched,
Luoncelet, Flaudres, Chaunteclere, auncestrie; servaunt,
tyraunt, ordinaunce, vengeaunce, stabstaunce &c.

Anglosaxon words are seldom taken by it, as maund, basket,
(mand, mond), askaunt, askaunce along with askant, askance
(see the adverb). Dialectically this is more frequent.

Even a mere a sometimes gives au: gauze (gaze); the Old-
English oftener, as auvis (Lydgate); aumail (enamel) and others.

Aw appears in Germanic words mostly with the change of a
final g, h, v into w, and is rare in Romance words. It arises from:
The Anglosaxon ag: maw (maga), law (lagu, lag, lah), draw
along with drag (dragan), dawn (to dagan), saw (sage), gnaw (gna-
ghan), haw, hawthorn (haga along with hâg and hagaporn, hâgpor
awn bristle (Anglosaxon egl points to the Old-Highdutch ah, agana,
Swedish agn).

The Anglosaxon eg: awe, verb overâwe (ege, verb egan, Go-
thic agjan).

The Anglosaxon eah: saw (seah). Compare Mawmet, Old-
French Mahom, Mahommet.

Müitzer, engl. Gr. I.
The Anglosaxon *av*, *edv*, *dvw*: *thaw* (pavan), *straw* (strav), *claw* (clavu, contracted clâ), *awl* (avul, âl); *raw* (hréâv) raw along with *rew* (râv). Thus also arises laundr from the French lavandière.

Even *f* and *b* are softened into *w*: hawk (hafuc), drawl (Old-norse drafa, drafla, Danish drave, drevle); crawfish also crayfish answers to the crabfish, but may also stand under the influence of the French écresis, as it is dialectically called crévis in the North of England. Chaw points to the Anglosaxon ceâf = faux, alongside whereof géâfl and géâgl stand; now commonly jaw, which may have become confounded with the Old-French *jow*, Modern-French *joue* Scrawl stands alongside of scrabble, and crawl answers to the Lowdutch krabbeln, krawweln = to creep, and alongside thereof kraulen. A wâk, awkward answers to the Old-Highdutch abuh = perversus, Middle-Highdutch ebech, Gothic ibuks, Old-English aquare (Skelton).

The Anglosaxon *â*, *ed* produce *aw* in: yawn (gânjan), along with which yawn occurs, spawl (spâtl, verb spâtljan), gawk (geac, Old-norse gaukr), compare Old-English goyk = Gawky. In general *a* seems sometimes thus obscured, particularly before *l*: brawl (Lowdutch brallen, Danish bralle), to bralle (Skelton 1, 131.), Old-English yawl = to yell (Spenser) Old-norse gala = cantare, Anglosaxon galan), wrawl (Danish vraale), bawl (compare Lowdutch ballern = to strike, so as to sound) *Aw* also takes the place of *al*: hawm, haum, haulf, helm and hame (Anglosaxon healm, halm), hawse and halse, hawser and halser (hals, heals?); chawdron reminds us of the Lowdutch kaldunen, Danish kallun = entrails. Compare chawdun = chaldron, a sort of sauce, in Reliq. Antiq. I. p. 88. Dialectically, for example in Shropshire, *l* is many times changed into *w*. *Aw* before *n* has arisen from *a* in pawn (Old-norse pantr, Old-French pan), tawny (to the French tan, compare the Medieval-Latin tanare). In hawk, hawker *a* has likewise become *aw* (High-dutch hökern, hòker, Lowdutch hâkern, kâk for instance liethâk &c.).

Paw (Cymric pawen, Old-French poe, poie), point to Celtic forms, bawd = a pimp (Cymric bawlyd from baw = sluttish, filthy), lawn (Cymric lawnt, lawnd, Amorican lann, French lande from the Germanic land).

The Old-French *eo* gives occasionally *aw*: pawn along with *peon* (peon, Modern-French pion, Latin pedo), fawn = young deer (feon, faon) whence fawn = to bring forth a fawn (feoner, faoner), but not in fawn to wheedle, to cherish (Anglosaxon fagenjan, fâgnjan, fahnjan = exultare).

In lawn the French linon is contracted.

0 in an accented syllable, variously tinged as a short or as a long vowel, has a narrower range in Modern than in Old-English (see *à*) where it not only frequently took the place of *a*, but also till oftener took the place of the Modern-English *oa*, as in brode, brod (broad), othe (oath) &c. Even now the language fluctuates betwixt doate and dote, cloak and cloke, loath and loth and some others. Where it appears at present instead of the Anglosaxon *ed*, *ed*, *eo*, *y*, *e* was frequently substituted for it Old-English, as lesen,
lese in the 16th century (Jack Jugler p. 9, Skelton 1. 131). (lose), ches, chees (chose), shet (shot), clef, cleef (clove, cleft), hefe (obsolete hove = heaved), werk (work), swerd (sword), worse (worse) &c. Fluctuations betwixt o and u are not rare in Modern-English: encomber and encumber, bombast and bumbast, bombard and bumbard, clock and cluck; the Old-English often substituted o for the present u (see u). In preterites in the Anglo-
saxon ð the Old-English a has been preserved. The phonetic tinges of o as English õ, û, ð and ô were essentially fixed in the 17th cen-
tury.

The Anglosaxon o gives a short and a long, variously tinged o. It appears short, like an English o, for instance in drop (dropjan, drupjan), hop (hoppan), lot (hlot), shot (scoten), sod, sodden (so-
den), god (god), knot (cnotta), body (bodi), moth (mòð), oft, often (oft), clock (clocjan), lock (Substantive loc, verb lucjan, locjan), ox (oxa), fox (fox), otter (otor), follow (folgjan), hollow (hol, Swedish holig), morrow (morgen, morn), borrow (borgjan);

as a lengthened ð (ð): for (for), storm (storm), horn (horn), thorn (porn), bord (bord), organ (organ), horse (hors), born and borne (boren), torn (toren), shorn (scoren) &c.; rarely as û: word (vord), oven (ofen); often as õ: over (ofer), open (open), smoke substant-
itive smoca, verb smocjan), toll (toll), colt (colt), gold (gold), folk (falc), stolen (stolen), broken (brocen).

The Anglosaxon u chiefly as û: some (sum), come (cuman, cwi-
man), ton (tunne), son (sunu), London (Lunden), honey (hunig), love (lufjan), above (bufan), tongue (tunge), monk (munuc, mo-
 nec), borough (buruh), worm (vurm, vyrn), wonder (vundor); sometimes as a Highdutch short û: gom (guna = homo), wolf (vulf);

rarely as an English ö: clock (cluge, bell).

The Anglosaxon eo, i, y, which in part relate to u, in part pass into o (u), mostly after w, as an English û: work (veorc, vèrc), wort (vyr, virt = herba), worth (substantive veord, vyrò, vuò), worse, worst (adjective vyrsa, yvrsest; adverb virs, vyrst), world (veorold, vorold, vorld, viaruld); — as a lengthened ð (ð): sword (sveord, svurd, sword). In woman i appears as a short û (vifman, vimmann, vemmman), whose plural has preserved a short i. The contraction wo'n't (wo'nt = will not), has a long o.

The Anglosaxon a (Þ, ea), which, especially before m and n was exchanged for o even in Anglosaxon, has become o as an English û or ð, mostly before ng; as û in among (âmang), minger (mangere), also won (vann), quoth (cväd); as ð in from (fram, from), long (lang, long), wrong (vrang, wrong), song (sang, song), strong (strang, strong), got (geat), trod (träd), poppy ( papig, popig = papaver); as a lengthened ð (ð) before r: boren (bär), tore (tär), shore (scär); as a long ð before ld: old (ald, eald), bold (bald, beald, bold), fold (feald), told (tealde; teald), sold (sealde; seald), hold (healdan), cold (ceald, cald), (Scotch and North-English auld, bauld, cauld, hauld &c.), as in stole (stäl), broke (bräc) and clover (cläfer); before mò: in comb (camb, comb); on the other hand as û in womb (vamb, vomb). The Anglosaxon sva, sic; svå, ut, gives só; av (au) works in côle (cavl, caul, céavel).
The Anglosaxon ð has remained long as o before r: ore (ôr, ôra, ôre), whorr (hôre); as û in do (dôn), else shortened into û: other (ôder, Gothic anpær), mother (môdor), brother (brôðor), month (mônandâ), monsyan (mônandâg), don (gedôn), glove (gîlôf); sometimes as ð: rod (rôd), soft (sîfte, sêfte), blossom (blôtina, blôsma), foster (fôsterjan); as a short Highdutch û in bosom (bôsum, bôsm); to, together with too, is the Anglosaxon tô.

The Anglosaxon êô is to be met with as ê in moss (meôs, Oldnorse mosi) and lengthened in the obsolete frory (freôrig), with the û sound in lose (leôsan).

The Anglosaxon ê, which else passes into oa has been often changed into a long ê: home (hâm), only (ânlic, ænlic), bone (bân), drone (drân, dræn), stone (stân), whole (hâl), holy (hâleg), more, most (mâra, mæra; mæst), lore (lâr), sore (Adjective sår, Adverb säre), rope (râp), grope (grâjpân), strokes (strâcjân), spoke (spâca); and the preterites with the Anglosaxon ê which have been preserved: drove, throve, wrote, smote, rode, strode, rose, abode (drâf, prâf, vrât &c.); both (hâ, Old-norse bâdír), ghost (gâst, gøst); also go (gangan, gân). A shortening into ê takes place in one, none (än, nân), shone (scân), cloth and to clothe (clâd, clâjjan), hot (hât) and the ancient wot (vât = scât); in the unaccented syllable: wêdlôck (vedlâc = pignus foederis); lengthened in wroth (vrâð = iratus, alongside of vræð = ira). ê appears as û under the influence of a preceding w in two (tvâ); as an English ê in lord (hlâford), where ao seems to have produced the sound; not, with ê, has been shortened from nought, naught (ne-â-viht, nåuht, nóht, nåht, nôt). Northern dialects, like the Scotch, often preserve a and therewith ai (as if for oa): bane, haly, bainy (bony), hail (whole), mast, maist (most) &c.

The Anglosaxon eaô appears as a long ê in the preterites: chose, froze, clove along with cleft (ceás, freás, cleáf), formerly also in crop (crept), rofe (reáf — fidit), shofe (sceáf = trusit); as ê still in sod (seøð) = seethed, and shot (sceát), in an unaccented syllable also in hémlock (hemlèac = cicuta).

The Anglosaxon û answers to the English û in dove (dufe, Oldnorse dúfa), as well as in an unaccented syllable in Wilton (Vil-tûn), Northampton (Norûhamtûn) &c.

In Romance, as well as in later received Latin and Greek words, o in an accented syllable commonly answers to an o, namely if we recur to the Old-French for the words received from the French, where a primitive o, u, au, eu mostly appears as o, along with u and ou, whereas Modern-French discriminates o, au, eu and au. The quantity and accentual tinge of this English o depends, as with other non-Germanic vowels, mostly upon influences foreign to the fundamental forms.

The Old-French o (Modern-French o) appears as an English ê in: nombril, solemn, folly (compare folier, foloiier), forest (the same) astonished (estoner), honour (honor, honour), orison (orison, orison), opulent, offer (offeire, offerer, offerir), office, coffin (coîn), lozenger (losangier, losengeor); rarely û; covet (coveiter, cuveiter), covin (covine, couvaine), money (moneie); lengthened as
\( \dot{o} \) (\( \acute{a} \)): form (forme, fourme, furme), port, porche, corse, corpse (cors, corpse), morsel (morsel, morcel), pork (porc), sorcerer (sorcier) &c.; as \( \dot{o} \): odour (odor, odour), glorious (glorios, glorious), sole (sole = solea), sojourn (sojorner, sejorner) &c.; host (ost, host), noble &c. Moreover \( o \) passes into \( ou \).

The Old-French \( o \) along with \( u \), \( ou \) (Modern-French \( ou \)) partly as an English \( \acute{u} \): colour (color, -ur, -our), plover (verb plovoir, plouver, plouvoir), govern (governor, guverner), cover, recover (covrir, cuvvrir, cuvvrir), covey (verb cover, cuver, couver), dozen (dozaine); as an English \( \dot{o} \): forage (verb forrer, forragier, fourragier, fouragier), novel (novel, nuvel), sovereign (soverain, suverain), bottle (botte, boute, boutille), cost (coster, couster); lengthened in: torment (tormenter), fork (forche, forque, fourche, yet even the Anglosaxon forçe); as a long \( \acute{o} \): condole (doloir, douiroir), overt, overture (overt, ovrir), trover (to trover, truver), roll (rolier, roeler, Modern-French roulier), to which control (= contrerôle, contrôle); as \( \acute{u} \): in move, prove, approve, improve, reprove (moverir, meuvre, mouvoir, prover, pruver, pruver); the Old-English has here \( e \) and \( ee \): meven, meeven, preven, appreven &c., compare above \( ie \). This \( o \) is also found as \( u \) and \( ou \) in the English, as it fluctuates in French.

The Old-French \( o \) (Modern-French \( au \)) proceeding from a primitive \( au \), \( av \), as \( \acute{o} \): impoverish (povre), ostrich (ostruce, ostruche), lengthened in restore (restorer); compare above côle, Anglosaxon calv, calv.

The Old-French \( o \) (Modern-French \( eu \)) rarely: poiplar (paplier = peuplier).

Other vowels lie at the root in some words, as the Modern-French \( eui \), \( oui \) before \( i \): föliage (feuillage), patrôl; \( o \) arises from \( e \) in dölpbin, Old-English delfyn (perhaps under the influence of the French dauphin); from \( a \) in pöpe (yet also the Anglosaxon papp-döm); cömrade (camarade), coffe (café), corporal (caporal) and many others.

In the unaccented syllable Romance prefixes in \( o \) commonly are preserved; the syllables after the accent in Germanic and other words have frequently developed themselves out of other vowels. Thus an Anglosaxon \( e \) before \( m \) and \( n \), especially, has frequently passed into \( o \): fäthom (façem), ïron (îren), bèacön (béacén, bèacn), wággon (vägen, vägn), âcorn (âcern, acirn); as this \( o \) is readily inserted before nasals: rëckon (reccan), Old-English recken (see Amplification of the Word); on the change of the Anglosaxon \( ã \), \( û \) in \( o \) see above, \( u \) in bullock (bulluca) &c.; \( õ \): kingdom (cyningdöm) &c.

In Romance words besides \( o \) (\( ou \)) also \( oi \) (\( ei \), \( e \)) are represented as \( o \): mänor (manoir, -er, -er), otherwise even the Old-French or along with \( oir \): râzor (rasor, rasoir), mïrror (mireor). The terminations \( or \) and \( ou \) stand alongside of each other in Modern-English, compare emperor (empereor, empererour) see \( ou \). Or \( (i)or \) frequently proceeds from \( er \) (\( ier \)) through assimilation, on account of the meaning, for instance in wârrior (guerrier), bâchelor (bacheler, bache- lier), even visor (visière); both are mingled even in Old-French, compare côunsellor (conseiller and conseilleor). \( on \) is also found
instead of *en*: *súргeon* (surgien), *éбон*, *éбон* (ébène); in cushion
the French coussin appears, Old-English quishin (*CHAUCER*).

**Oo**, represented in Old-English also by *o*: *some* = soon, *sothe*
= sooth, *rote* = root, *tok* = tok, *tok* = took, *skoke* = shok &c.,
serves in Anglosaxon words especially to represent the Anglosaxon *ō*.
Thus we still find *behoof* chооve and along therewith *behove*
in Modern-English (behôf, behôfjan).

The pronunciation as *ų*, which is shortened in some cases, was
universally acknowledged in the 17th century. As *oo* in Old-English
interchanges also with *oa* as well as with *ō*, it seems to have long
preserved the *o*-sound.

The Anglosaxon *ū*, even where not answering to the Old-High-
dutch *uo*, appears as a long *ū*: *too* (tō), *broom* (*bròm* = brām),
*gloom* (*glōm*), *doom* (*dōm*), *moon* (*mōn* = mãna), *noon* (*nōn*, Latin
*nona*), *pool* (*pōl*), *moor* (*mōr*), *hoop* (*hör*), *root* (*rōt*),
*mood* (*mōd*), *food* (*fōda*), *tooth* (*tōd*); sometimes as a short *ū*:
*look* (*lōcjan*), *hook* (*hēc*) and others in *k*; as in foot (*fōt*) and soot
(*sōt*), *wood* (*vōd*) = mad, *good* (*gōd*), *hood* (*hōd*); and as the
English *ū* in *blood* (*blōd*) and *flood* (*flōd*). Before *r* a lengthened
*ō* arises in *floor* (*flōr*).

The Anglosaxon *ū* becomes *ū* in room (*rūm*), compare also
booty Old-norse *bytí*, Middle-Highdutch *būten*; a short *ū* in:
*brook* = endure, *bear* (*brūcan* = uti, frui).

The Anglosaxon *o* and *u* appear as a long *ū* in *soon* (*sona*, *suna*),
*swoon* (*śvunan* = animo deficiere, a suspicious form, however), *stooop*
(*stupjan*), as a short *ū*: *cook* (*coc*, Latin *cōquus*), *wood* (*vudu* =
vidu), *wool* (*vull*); as a lengthened *ō* in *door* (*dur*, *dor*, *dyr*).

The Anglosaxon *ēo* appears as *oo* = *ū* in *choose* (*ceōsan*) and
*shoot* (*scéótan*), Old-English chesen, cheten, Lowdutch *kesen*, sche-
ten, whereas other *ēo* now pass into *ea* and *ee*: *cleave* (*cleōfan*,
clāfan), *freeze* (*freōsan*), *seethe* (*sēōdan*).

The Anglosaxon *ēa*, *ē* answer to *oo* in *loose* (Adjective leás
to the verb *lēsan*, *lŷsan*), *smooth* (*smēðe* and *smēðe*, Cymric *mwydh*,
alongside of *smēðe* = *laevis*, *mollis*).

Dialectically (in the Isle of Thanet) *woor* and *wor* are found,
Scotch and North-English *wair*, ware, Anglosaxon *vâr*.

Old-French *o*, *u* (Modern-French *o*, *ou*, *au*, *eu*) sometimes also
gives a long *oo*: *boot* (to the Old-French *botte*, *boute*), *fool* (*fol*,
fous, yet the Old-norse *föl*), *troop* (trope, *trupe*), *poop* (*Modern-
French *poupe*), *proof* (*prove*, Modern-French preuve, compare Angola-
saxon *prōfjan*), *poor* (*pouvre*, *poure*, *povere*, Modern-French *pauvre*),
Old-English *poore* and *povere* alongside of each other (*PIERS PLOUGH*
*p. 216*).

In modern words the termination *on* is often changed into an
*accented* *oon*: *monsōon*, *poltrōon*, *pantalōon*, *cartōon*, *gal-
lōon*, *salōon*, *spontōon* and many more (*monscon*, *monçon*, *pol-
tron*, pantalon, carton, galon, salon, esponton).

In an *unaccented* syllable the Anglosaxon *ū* has become *oo*, but
shortened into *ū* in the Anglosaxon syllable *hād* = *Hightduck* heit,
as in *childhood* (*cildhâd*), *priesthood* (*preōsthâd* &c. Sometimes
*head* is found alongside of it in Modern-English: *gōdhead*. The
Old-English had hode: ma\n hode, pre\n sthode (Maundev.) along with hede: fals\n hede, ma\n hede and the like. In c\n u\nc\n koo the French coucou, Latin cuculus and cuculus is represented; Old-English cuckow.

Oe proceeds from the Anglosaxon ḥ, mostly with a primitive v and h, after it; e is to be regarded as a sign of the lengthening of the final vowel, long wanting in Old-English (mo, wo, jo &c.), as even now the ancient mo and wofil are usually written. In Old-

English also we sometimes find a preserved, as in the Scotch ja, ra &c.; Modern-English moe, mo (mā, māre), roc (rāh, rā), foe (fāh, fā), woe (vā = váva), toe (tāh, tā), mistletoe (misteltā), doe (dā), sloe (slāhe, slâ).

The word throe = pain, agony, points to ed (préā instead of préāv to préovan = agonizare) and thus hoe may belong to head (from heavan), which certainly occurs only in an abstract signification (ictus). In sense it answers to the Old-Highdutch houwa, French houe. Compare o, arising from ed.

oe answers in shoe to the Anglosaxon ó (scôh, scô, sceô, Low-

dutch schau) and sounds with a long ū; Old-English sho, in the Plural shoon, shon as to, toon, ton.

The unaccented oe in félloe (félg, felge), a collateral form from fell, is equal to forms in ow, which interchange with y (see ow).

Oi, oy answer to Romance forms, the former only in the middle of words, in the accented syllable as ói diphthong. In the 17th century some words were pronounced with ūi, as oil, toil (ūyil, tüyil).

Oi in an accented syllable rests essentially on the Old-French oi, ui, (Modern-French oi, ui, oui, eu): join (joindre, juindre), es-

soin (essoigne, essoine), point (the same), oil (oil, oille, ole, Modern-French huile), moil (moillier, muiller), boil (boillir; buillir, bolir), broil, embroil (to the Old-French broil, bruil, Medieval-Latin brogillus, broilus, Modern-French brouiller), spoil, despooil (despoiller), soil (soillier, compare Anglosaxon syljan) and soil (soil, Modern-French sol), [here belong also in unaccented syllables tre-

foil, cinque-foil (foille, feuille)], foible (foible, Modern-French faible), coif (coiffe, coiffe), void (void, vuit, Modern-French vide), avoid (vooidal, vuider), choice (chois), voice (vois), cloister (cloistre). The verb toil, Old-norse toylen, seems to be a collateral form of till (Anglosaxon tiljan, teoljan), Old-English tulen, Holl-

landish teulen, tuylen.

The Old-French og, often also og (before n), operates like oi: loin (logne = lumbea, Modern-French longe), roin (rogner); compare the Old-English Boloine, Coloine &c.

The Old-French o and u give oi in broider (broder); foil points to afoyer = maltraiter, blessier; foiling, French foulées; foist (fust) recoil (reculer). Choir is the French chœur.

doit is the Hollandish duyt.

Many forms are unclear; hoist answers to the Hightduch hissen, French hisser; foist the Hightduch fiesten, whence foisty, musty, not to mention others.

In the unaccented final syllable oi in tortoise points to a French form, which would have corresponded to the Provencal tortesa (from
the Latin tortus); porpoise is porcus piscis, which the spelling porpess indicates more precisely.

Oy, initial as well as final, coincides completely with oi in its origin.

The Old-French oi, ui gives oy: annoys (anoi, anui, verb anoier, anquier), joy, enjoy (joir, Substantive joie, goie) also joyous (joios, joious), coy (coi, coat = quietus), decoy (probably belongs to coy, as a verb in SHAKESPEARE, Old-English coyen, but is confounded with dechoivre, deceiver), alloy (aloier), oyster (oistre, Modern-French huître), destroy (destruire), Old-English destruen, voyage (voyage), royelet (roitelet).

Old-French o (oui): cloy (cloer, clouer from the Latin clavus).

Here is clearness; hoy, a sort of boat, answers to the Highdutch heu; toy to the Hollandish tooi, tooijen; boy seems connected with the Highdutch Bube.

In Old-English oy is always written instead of oi.

Oa with the sound of the long o, frequently denoted in Old-English by a simple o (othe, brode also brod, rosten), often by oo (boor = boar, boot = boat, looth = loath, loone = loan, loof = loof), in Scottish and North-English rendered also by a, ai (fame = foam, grane = groan, tatde = toad, also fain, faem, grain) principally serves as a substitute for the Anglosaxon â in Modern-English. In the 17th century John Wallis in his Grammar declares oa to be a simple sound: loam (lâm = lutum), foam (fâm), groan (grânjan), oar (âr), roar (rârjan), boar (bâr), hoar (hâr), soap (sâpe), loaf (hlâf), boat (bât), goat (gât), road (râd = iter equestre), woad (vâd = aluta), toad (tâdje, tâtige), goad (gâd = stimulus), oath (âd), loath (lâd), cloath (clâd), hoarse (hâs), oak (âc); as â in broad (brâd); Anglosaxon œ is represented by it in moan (mænan) alongside of mean, Old-English still bemenen = bemoan.

oa is seldom employed as the substitute for a short vowel, as for the Anglosaxon â in load (hladan); and more frequently the Anglosaxon o: foal, else also folle (fola), throat (prote), coal (col), hoard (hord = thesaurus), roach (Danish rokke) alongside of ray, float (flotjan); boast may belong to the Lowdutch bost = breast, silk bosten, to throw oneself on the breast.

A Romance o is likewise represented by oa: roam (romier, roman) = Italian romero, a pilgrim), soar (esseror, Provencal eisaurar), doat and dote (redoter, Hollandish doten), coat (cote, cotte), coast (coste), roast (rostit or immediately to the Old-Highdutch rôstjan), toast (properly to broil from the Latin tostus; the French toster, is derived from the English), poach (pocher, empocher), coach (coche), broch (broche), approach (aproughier), reproach (reprochier), accroach (accrecher), board = to accost (aborder).

oa comes from oua in roan (rouan). The English road answers to the French rade, but perhaps belongs to the Anglosaxon râd, which may lie at its root; compare hrânâd = balaenae via = oceanus.

Ou and ow are equal to one another in their phonetic relations, representing the Highdutch au and u. The 17th century ascribes
both sounds equally to them. The Old-English interchanges with both, especially where the diphthong ou appears, in the middle of a word: thou, owre, dowghty, thowsande &c. instead of thou &c. and reversely: toun, doun, broun, croun, goun, toure, shoure, foul &c. instead of town &c. tower &c. fowl, and even outside of this phonetic tinge, both are found frequently interchanged. In Modern-English ou is found more altered in its phonetic tinge and quantity than ow.

Ou arises from the Anglosaxon ā and u in a more limited measure, as well as out of several other vowels, under the influence of a subsequent guttural.

The Anglosaxon ā gives ou (as in other cases, especially in the end of a word and before liquid and nasal letters ow) as au: thou (pā or pu), foul (fāl), our (ūser, ūre), out (ūt), grout (grāt), clout (clūṭjan=consuere), proud (prūt), mouth (müd), south (sūd), shroud (scrūd), mouse (mūs), house (hūs), touse (Lowdutch tūsen), thousand (pūsend).

Anglosaxon u as au before nd: pound (pund), sound (sund), hound (hund), ground (grund); with a primitive y: pound (pyn-dan) and in the preterites and participles: bound (bundon-bunden), found, ground, wound (Old-English often o instead of ou), whereas wound (vundjan, vulnerare) commonly preserves the long u instead of au; as ā before ld: shoulder (sculdor), Old-English shulder; and Anglosaxon o (y) mould (molde, myl, Gothic mulda); yet as a short ā in: would (volde), should (sculde), Old-English wolde, sholde, shulde, to which could (cūde), has been assimilated, Old-English coude.

The Anglosaxon ā, o, ea, ea, ā (also āv), u before gutturals are represented in Modern-English as ou, yet with various colour of sound and quantity: as a long ā: sought, besought (sōhte, sóht), bought (bohte, boht), brought (brohte, broht), wrought (vrohte, vroht instead of vorhte, vorht), fought (feah, fohten), thought (peahte and pohte, poht) [along with such forms as broghte, wroght, thoght, taghte are found here even early in Old-English those with ou], ought along with aught, nought (āviht, āuht; nāviht, nāuht); as a short ā (ō): trough (troh, trog), hough (hōh, hō), cough (compare ceahhettan = cachinnari), the obsolete preterite lough (hōh = laughed) and lough (luh, compare Celtic loch), couth (compare the Old-Highdutch couch, gawk), shough = shaggy dog (to the Old-norse skegg); as au: bough (bōh?), plough (Old-norse plōgr), doughy (dyhtig to duguð), drought (drugāð, drugōð) often in Old-English ou; as a long ō: dough (dāh, dāg), though (peah); as an English ā: enough (genōh), Old-English ynoh, enow; rough (rūh, rūg, rūv), tough (toh), slough (slōg); as a long ū: through (pūrh), Old-English thurgh, thorgh.

Some words with a primitive ēō are of a particular kind, as ē: four, fourth (feōver, feōrdā); as ā: you (eōv), your (eōver); as ū: young (geōng, jung), youngster, younker, Old-English yong; with āv as o: soul (sāvel, sāul); and ū as ū: ousel, ousel (ōsle, Old-Highdutch amisala).
In Romance words the o, u, ou, occurring beside each other in the same verbal forms in Old-French, mostly resting upon a Latin o and u, are represented in an accented syllable before consonants, by ou, and pronounced partly as the diphthong au, partly as a long ò, partly as a short English ù. The pronunciation as a long ù points frequently to words of later reception, spelt in Modern-French with ou.

The Old-French o, u, ou appears as ou with the sound au, particularly before the nasal n, either primitive or arising from m: noun (nom, num, noun), mount (monter, munter; Substantive mont, munt, compare Anglo-saxon munt and mont), count, account (conter, cunter), count (conte, cunte, cuens = comes), counter- (contre, cunter, conter, cunter), fount, fountain (font, funt; fontaine, fontaineaux), round (roond, rund, reond), found (fonder), profound (profond, parfunt), confound (confondre, confundre), abound (abonder), redound (redonder), compound (com-ponder?), ounce (once, Italian lonza = lynx), ounce (once, compare the Anglosaxon ynce, yndse), pounce (ponge = pumex), pronounce (froncer, fruncher), announce, renounce, pronounce, denounce (noncer, nuncer), counsel (consol, consel), lounge (compare longin, longis, a loiterer, Old-French longer; is it to be compared with the Lowdutch lungen?). Before other consonants we more rarely find the diphthong, as in hour (hore, houre, ore, eure), flour along with flower (flor, flur, flour, fleur), pough (poche, yet pocket immediately from the Anglosaxon pocca, poça, poha, whence the French poche), avouch (vocher, vocier = vocare), espouse, espousal, spouse, spousage (espous, espous; esposer, espusser, espousaige), oust (oater), devout (devot, compare voer, vouer), doubt (dote, dute with b inserted again) gout (goutte); also stout (Anglosaxon stolt) points to the Old-French form estout, estot.

Words with the ò-sound before l and r are not frequent, as poultry (compare Modern-French poulet), Old-English pultry, coulter and colter (compare coltel, cultel, coutel), court (cord, curt, cour) and others. On the other hand the ù-sound has often been developed: nourish (norir, norrir, nurir), courage (corage, curage, courage), scourge (escourgee, Italian scuriada), journey (jornée, juryne), country (contreaie, cuntree), couple (cople) &c.; likewise ù: in soup (sope, soupe, supe, compare English sup), gourjéers (gouje?) and many words easily recognizable. See the pronunciation.

In the unaccented syllable ou seldom, except in compounds, such as Exmouth, goes back to Anglosaxon forms; thorough is the Anglosaxon puruh, purh, Old-English thorowe, still in Skelton thorow; borough Anglosaxon buruh, burh, bury. Compare under ow. In Romance words a French ou is retained, especially in modern words before the accented syllable, as in rouléau &c. The frequent termination oux, as in précious, vigorous, vicious, answers to the Old-French os, us, eux, ous (precios, -us, -eus, -ous; vigoros, vitiuos &c.). The termination our at present frequently exchanged for or, has in Old-French the forms or, ur, our, eur alongside of each other: valuable (valor, -ur, -our &c.). The Old-English has the termination our not only in abstract nouns, but also in names of persons, such as traytour, conquerour &c. The Norman forms are here us and
ur, whereas eus, ous and our mostly belong to the Picard forms. The Old-English language also frequently makes use of the broader analogously formed termination ioun instead of ion (regioun, description &c.), no longer known to Modern-English. Moreover, even in Old-English the forms in o, u, ou run parallel with each other; compare marvelose (TOWNELEY MYSTER. p. 1.), mervelus, graciously (ib. p. 20.).

In derivative forms o is very frequently found in an unaccented syllable instead of ou, as vigour — vigorous; this rests partly upon the French process, where, with the advanced accent (vigouër, — vigorous) the vowel was wont to be reduced. Yet in English the mixture of forms going back immediately to the Latin contributes even more, as is also partly the case in Modern-French. Compare, for instance, colour, colourable, but colorate.

Ow is substituted in the accented syllable for the Anglosaxon ò with the sound of au, and mostly at the end of a word or of a syllable, although appearing also before n and ï, and, occasionally before other consonants: now (nû or nu?), bow (beôgan, bûgan), cow (cû), how (hû), bower (bûr), shower (scûr), brow (breav, bræv, brëg, but also ofer-brûg), brown (brûn), town (tûn), down (dûn and adûne = deorsum alongside of dunveard), down (Old-norse dûn, Lowdutch dûn), lowt and lout (lûtan = inclinari), generally a Lowdutch û (Modern-Highdutch au also eu): hOWL (Lowdutch hiulen, hülen Old-norse yla, ylfa, Old-Highdutch hiwilôn, Modern-Highdutch heirlen), cower, lower (Lowdutch lûren), drowse (Lowdutch drûsen, whence drusseln, Anglosaxon drusan or drûsjan = cadere?), scowl (Lowdutch schûlen to the Anglosaxon scoelh, scyl = strabo).

A short u under the influence of a following g gives ow = au: sow (sugu, sug, or súg?), fowl (fugol), cowl (cugle, cuhle = cu-culla).

Out of the Anglosaxon eó arises the diphthong au in crowd (from creódan = premi). In tower (torr) the influence of the Old-French tor, tur, tour seems also to have made itself felt.

The Anglosaxon òv gives ow with the sound of the long ò: row (râv = series), mow (mâvan), blow (blâvan), sow (sâvan), snow (snâvan), throw (prâvan), know (knâvan), crow (crâvan), North-English low, a hill, (hlæv, hlâv); òv operates in like manner: row (ròvan = remigare), low (hlôvan = mugire), blow (blôvan), flow (flôvan), glor (glôvan), grow (grôvan); blow a stroke belongs to bleòvan = ferire, like troop = treòvjan, tróvjan. Even av is thus represented: slow (slav, sleav), tow (tav, tov), show along with shew (scajvan, sceajvan, scevjan, compare sceavu, sceâv = scena, substantive show. The Scotch and North-English dialects have here knaw, snaw, blaw &c.

The Anglosaxon òg, ag, og, eog likewise sometimes pass over into ow as ò; own (ågen), Old-English awen, auen, aughene, the obsolete mowe (magan, whence the English may), bow (boga = arcus), rainbow (rënboga), tow (to th = tractus), whence towage, French touer, touage; and even low (lège, lîge = flamme) belongs here; low, in Skelton’s time lawe, else even earlier lowe, answers
to the Old-norse lágr. Compare also enōw (genôg), along with enough.

The Old-French o, u, ou, analogously to the Anglosaxon â, transformed into ow as the diphthong au, when a word or a syllable ends therewith, sometimes also before n and l: vow (vo, vu, vou, veu), avow (avoer, avouer), allow (allouer), endow (doer, douer), dower, dowyery (doaire, douaire), prow = valiant (prod, prud, prou, preu, pros, Modern-French preux), prowess (proeece, procesce), power (pooir, povoir, poueir), coward (coard, cuard, cuart); to which cow = to depress with fear, and cowish = fearful (SHAKSPEARE) belong; flower (see above flour), rowel (roele, rouele), towel (toaille, touaille), bowels (boele, buele, boiaus, Latin botellus), with which we must compare vowel (voyelle), trowel (truelle, Latin trulla, truella), powder (poldre, puldre, poudre), trowsers (to the verb torsoer, trosser, trusser, Modern-French substantive tresses); howitzer, howitz, also hōbit, French obus, descends from the Dutch haubitzte, like frow. Ow stands before a final n and l in gown (gone, gune, yet also the Cymric gwn, Diminutive gynyn, gynan), crown (corone like the Middle-Highdutch krône), renown (nom, num, nun, nōne — renom), on the other hand noun, compare Old-English renown; frown (re-frogner); cowl, seems to refer to cuvel, Modern-French cuveau; howlet answers to the French hulotte, compare the Old-Highdutch hûwo; hiuâlê. On the other hand ow sounds like ō in prōw = prora (Modern-French proue) and bowl (boule).

In an unaccented syllable the termination ow (as o) appears very often in Anglosaxon words; the w here is to be regarded as the substitute for a primitive v, h, and g, even in the termination ig, which sprang from j, in which case o enters without regard to the conservation or the rejection of the primitive vowel in the Anglo-

saxon word, whereas the Old-English has here e or no vowel at all: widewe, faIewe, harewe, harewen &c and narwe, yelwe, holwe, pilwe, sorwe, herberwe &c. Modern-English: méadow (meadu, -eyes), shádow (scadu, -yes, verb scadvjan), hârrow (hereve, hyrve', swállow (sveale, savelve), widow (viduve), fârrow and far (feahr), fûrow (furh), bîllow (Old-norse bylgia, Danish bôlge), fóllo (folgian), hârow (herjan, hergjan), willow (vîlg, vêlig), sâllow (salig). Ow and y are often interchanged in Modern-English, as in the Adjective termination holy and hâllow (hâlûg, Old-English haligh, hâlegh, Plural halewes) and otherwise; felly and even felloe substituted for felg, felge; bêllow and belly come from belg, belig = bulga, yet the Old-norse belgr = follis, bulga = venter; colly and cóllow signify soot; and popularly we hear berry pronounced instead of bárrow, (Anglosaxon bearu, -ves = nemus?). Ow also interchanges with ough, see above. Window points to the Old-norse windaugu. For féllow, Old-English fellow, the Anglosaxon form felâv is cited.

U, in general represents the sound of a short û and of the diphthong ûu, in Germanic words, however, the former; in Romance, Latin-
greek and others, the latter in an open syllable, as well as where a mute e follows the final consonant. Many o also appear in the present language as a short English ü; Old-English often employed o in the place of the short ü, both in Germanic and Romance words,
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of which the latter mostly contain o, along with u, ou. Compare thomb, dome (dumb), gomme (gum), gonne (gun), dake (duck), walnote, moche (much), sotel (subtle), sodeinly, bokeler (buckles) &c.

The Anglosaxon u remains u as an English ū in a syllable closed by a consonant: sun (sunne), stun (stunjan), spur (spura, spora), up (upp), cup (cupp, also copp), dub (dubban), gut (guttas), thumb (puma), dumb (the same), hunt (huntjan), sprung (sprungen), swung (svungen), drunk (drungen), stunk (stucen), turf (turf), curse (curssjan, corssjan), dust (the same), tusk (tuse, tux), under (the same), sunder (sunderjan), thudder (punor); summer (sumor), furrow (furh); in some words the sound has been preserved as a short Highdutch ū, especially before l: pull (pulljan), bullock (bul-luca), full (full).

Where the Anglosaxon y is at the basis, the Old-English has also i (y) and e: murder (myr injuring), mark (myrc), bury (byrigan, byrgēan = sepelire), burden (byrōen), busy (bysig, biseg), butt (bytt), thrush (pryscē), shut (scyttan), shrub (scyrbē), stubbe (stubb), stunt (stynyan), church (cyrice), churl, churlly, church (ceorl, ceorllic, curlic) and others; Old-English: mirk, stibborne (stubborn), chirsche &c.; besy, shetten, stenent, cherche, cherl &c.; so too the Old-Scotch, and even in the Modern-English mickle alongside of much (micel, mycel, mucel); busy still has i in pronunciation, bury e at least.

The Anglosaxon ū and ū often represent themselves as u: unter (üder, üdr), plum (plume), shun (scunjau, sceonjan), utmost (ütemest, ütemest), husband (husbonda), Old-English housbonde, husbonde, bulk (Old-norse bülki), blush (blýsjan, Old-Highdutch blůsigōn) with an unusual transmutation of s into sh.

The Anglosaxon ed answers to ū in Ludlow (Leódhlaw; hlav, hlāv = agger), rud (reód), along side of red, Anglosaxon red.

More rarely other Anglosaxon vowels pass into ū, as ð in rudder (réder = remus), gum (gōma), or o, e, ê under the influence of a following r: murder (morūr), burst, bursten (bérstan, bossten), where the form of the preterite burst (burston) may exercise influence, churn (cernan) see below; ed in shuttle (sceátel).

Other forms, as gust (gist), rush (hriscjan = vibrare?) go back to a primitive u, Old-norse gustr = procella, hrysc = irruptio, Gothic hruaskan; the present run (rinnan) has been assimilated to the preterite (ran, runnon; runnen). The words dull, such (dval, dvol, dol and svilc, svolc) Old-English swiche have softened v into u; compare the Old-norse subst. dul, duir.

Huge appears with u (iū) diphthong. It seems to belong to hyge = mens, hygjan, compare the Old-norse hugadr = audax; the older English has here a short ū: the hudge olfaunt (Skelton L 365). Also truth has a long ū as belonging to true (trowu, trývū), Old-English also trouthe.

The Old-French o, u, ou frequently passes in a close syllable into ū, where it appears as a Modern-French o: sum, summit (som, sum; somme, sune), plommet (plom, plum; plommee), number (nombre, nombre), umbrage (ombrage, umbraige), encumber (en-
combrer, encumber), pump (pompe, Spanish and Portuguese bomba, pump), trumpet and trump (trompette, yet the Old-Highdutch trumpa), tunny (thon, Latin thynnus), fund (fond, fund), plunger (to plom, plum, Modern-French plonger), dungeon along side of donjon (donjon, dungun, doignon, Medieval-Latin dongio, Irish daingean, fastening), trunk (trone), juggle (jogler, jugler = joculare), brush (broce, broche, brossse), Tuscan (Toscan), truck (broquer, Spanish substantive trueco), mostly pointing to a primitive u.

The Old-French o, u, ou, Modern-French ou: fur (Substantive forre, foure, fuerre, verb forrer, fourrere), incur (corre, curre, courre), furnace (for, Modern-French fournaisse), furnish, furniture (fornir, furnir, prov. also formir, fromir to the Old-Highdutch frumjan), purple (porpre, pourpre), furnish (forbir, furbir to the Old-Highdutch furban, furbjan), curve (corber, curver), curt (cort, curt, court, Latin curtes, Old-Highdutch churz), curtain ( cortine, cortine, courtine), purse (bourse, bourse), nurse, nurture (norir, nurir, noriture, noreture), supper (soper, super, souper), glut, glutton (gloz, glos, glous, gloton &c.), mutton (molton, mouton, muten, Medieval-Latin multo), truss (trosser, trussere), mustard (moutarde from the Latin mustum), mustache (moustache), musket (moschete, mouskete), budge = to stir (boger, budget (bogette, bougette belonging to bulga = valise), buckler (boecer, bucler, bouclier). Some of these words likewise mostly pointing to a primitive u have the full short u-sound: pulley (pouli, although belonging to the Anglosaxon pulljan), pullet (poulet), push (pousser, Spanish puxar), butcher (boucher to boch, bouc, Cymric bwch); pudding (boudin? Cymric pwding and potten).

The Old-French o, u, ou, Modern-French eu: demur (demorer, demurer, demourer).

A short ù has sometimes arisen from wi, oi, although even these occasionally present collateral forms in u in Old-French: cuill (cuillir, coillir, cueillir), crush (croissir, crusir, Medieval-Latin cruscire), usher (huissier, also ussier), frush = to crush (froisser, fruisser), punter (pointeur, Old-French point, puint), punch, puncheon (poinçon), bushel [sounding with a] (boisseau, Medieval-Latin bustellus). Compare Usk, a borough in Brecknockshire (Old-Cymric Uisc, Wysc, Latin Isca); also in some measure Dutch (Duitsch).

u appears to have sprung from i in umpire, properly an odd, third person (imperfect, since in Piers Ploughman noupere occurs instead of it p. 97), compare succory (chicoree, Latin ciciorium); likewise out of e in summons (semonse) and in urchin (hérissôn = erinaceus), urchone in Palgrave, on account of the following r, as in turpentine (terebenthina), burgamot along side of bergamot, and in Old-England lurne instead of learn, urthe instead of earth, see Halliwell s. v. and others. Compare above ù before r in Anglosaxon words. Moreover hirchen occurs instead of urchin.

The diphthong iu appears in the open syllable or that lengthened by a mute e, mostly in Romance words and others out of a primitive u not effaced by the intermediate language; the i which sounds before it in English is only encumbered by preceding liquid letters: fume (fum), mule (mul, mule), pure (pur), dupe, mute (mut, mu), rude,
use (us, verb user), muse (muser), duke (duc, duch); plume, prude, truant (truant, truander, Cymric tru, truan, Medieval-Latin trutanus, -danus, -anus).

Out of eū, with rejection of the e arise sure (segur, seūr, Modern-French sūr), rule (reule, riule, riegle, compare Anglosaxon rēgol, regul, reogol); a diphthong ū also answers to the Old-French o, ou, Modern-French eu, in fuel (fu, fou, feu), bury is the Modern-French beurré; like oi, Modern-French eu, in lure, allure (loire, loirre, Modern-French leurre; loirer, Modern-French leurrer, Middle-Highdutch luoder); ue, ui in pūny (pues, puis-nè); it is equivalent to the French iau in pule (piauler, Italian pigolare). Prune = to lop, Old-English proine, also proigne, points to the French provignier, to propagate.

In an unaccented syllable no peculiarities take place, except that in the final syllable of the words inorganic ū's have sometimes crowded in, as in léisure (loisir, leisir), Old-English also leysier, pléasure (plaisir, plaisir, pleisir); the Old-English often interchanges in the unaccented syllable with e, y, u like even the Anglosaxon, especially before the r, compare the Old-English other and othur.

On the shortening of the sound in pronunciation see above.

Ue shews itself with the sound of ū diphthong, which is only prejudiced after liquid letters; e appears in oe as a sign of production at the end of a syllable. In Old-English we find eu, eue instead of ue: trew, rew, sew (compare ensue): trewe, sewe; thus even now clew and clue &c. are found alongside of each other. See above.

The Anglosaxon ēov, eov and iv give ue: rue = sorrow (hreov, verb hreóvan), true (treóve), hue (heov, hiv), blue (bleoh, bleov, bleó, blió), Tuesday (Tivesdāg), Old-English Tisday.

The Old-French ev, iv likewise: ensue, pursue (the simple verb sew in Old-English = sevve, sivve &c.); but also u and ue: glue (gluz, glut), due (du, Modern-French dô), rue (rue, on the other hand Anglosaxon rūde), oe, eu: cue (coe, qene, queue); ui: subdue (sosduire, souduire) with resumption of the Latin form of the prefix.

In unaccented syllables of Romance words ue often stands, where originally u or ū lies at the root: réscue verb and substantive (rescorre, rescurre, rescoure), alongside of which as a substantive réscous (rescosse, -usse, -ousse) occurs; aģue, feber (agu, ague, Medieval-Latin acuta), tissue (tissu), issue (issue, oisssue), détinue, rétinue (de-, retenu), vâlue (value); aģue, construe (arguer, construire) may lean immediately on the Latin; vênue, also vêney = Italian stoccata, comes from the French venue, on the other hand venue, alongside of visne, is mutilated from visnet, visnes, alongside of veisnìet, veisinte, belonging to voisın, veisin.

Ui, uy sometimes stand to denote a vowel sound, in which case one or the other vowel may be regarded as mute. The pronunciation of ui as a diphthongal or at least as a long ū is old. Gower rhymes deduit with frute (Halliwell s. v. deduit).

No Anglosaxon word has ui as a long ū (iū), except bruise (brýsan = conterere); on the other hand many Romance ones, in which it either rests upon ui, iu, as in suit (suite, siute, seute),
pursuit, nuisance (noisance, nuisance), fruit, cruise (belonging to crois, cruz, cruix), or to u: juice (jus), recruit (recruter), sluice (escluse, Hollandish sluis, Middle-Highdutch sluize, Medieval-Latin exclusa).

Apart from the shortening of ui to i in unaccented syllables (see pronunciation) ui appears as i in build, Old-English bilden, belden, dialectically in North-England beeld, beldyne (SKELTON I. 385), compare the Hollandish beelden; the Anglosaxon is bilden = imago; u has been subsequently inserted.

uy diphthong as ei in buy (Anglosaxon bycgan), Old-English buggen, byen and bien, Old-Scotch by, the compound aby even in Shakspeare (abycgan = redimere).

The cases wherein in Anglosaxon and Romance words ui is hardened into vi in pronunciation, rest either, after Gutturals, on an Anglosaxon vi, as quick (civic); as ve as ue appears in quell (cveljan), va as ua &c. quake (cvacjan) and others; or upon ui in Romance, Latin and other words (as ue upon ue, ua upon ua, wo upon wo &c.), compare quiver (couire, cuevre, cuivre, on the other hand the Anglosaxon cocor), cuish and cuisse (cuisse) &c. On the other hand quince reminds us of the French coing, Latin cydonius, whereas the French cointe gives the English quaint. See under q.

In quill the French quille, Old-Highdutch kegel is at the root, mingled with the Old- and Middle-Highdutch kil (= caulis) and the Old-Highdutch chiol, Anglosaxon ceole.

Even in the unaccented syllable the sound grounded upon ui appears: anguish (angoisse, anguise) &c. In distinguish the verbal termination has passed into the form of the French verbs in ir with -iss, Latin isc-ere, inserted.

Origin of the Consonants.

We consider the consonants here not strictly according to their vocal relations; but, where the same vocal sign belongs to more than one class of sounds, we comprehend the various sounds under the class to which the sign originally belonged. We do not here regard separately the words brought over immediately from ancient or modern tongues, since in those a transmutation of sounds rarely comes into consideration, and they generally conform to the most general rule.

1. The nasal and the liquid sounds m, n, l, r.

M answers to a primitive m in Anglosaxon and Romance words: milk (miluc), mare, nightmare (mara), grim (grimm), svarm (svearm); — mace, a club (mace, mache), murmur (murmurer), remain (remaindre, remanoir). Before n, m is preserved in Romance and Latin words, when the final n is, however, silent, or to be regarded as assimilated (see above at page 67): remnant (remanant), solemn (solempne), hymn, automn.

m often springs out of n; thus after an initial s in smack (Anglosaxon snace, Old-norse snákr = navis genus, Hollandish smak,
French semaque). Especially n before lipsounds p and b, in Germanic and Celtic words in m, is transformed into n: hemp (hanep, hänep), hamper along with hanaper (Medieval-Latin hanaperium), Bamborough (Bebbanburh), Cambridge (Old-English Cantebrigge), Cymbeline (Latin Cunobelinus), Dumbarton (Celtic Dun-Breton, castle of the Britons). Even in Romance words m stands for n before an inserted p, which in Modern-French has again been cast out: tempt (tenter, tempteur), attempt; so too before f, where French preserves n: comfort (conforter), comfit alongside of confect, confiture. Compare Pomfret (Old-English Pountfreit in Rob. of Gloucester).

This happens also before other consonants and vowels: brimstone (Swedish bernsten), Montgomery (Mongon-byrry) (Percy Rel. p. 4), Latimer, an appellation of the interpreter Wrenoc ap Merrick (= latin interpreter).

m instead of n is particularly frequent at the end of Romance words: lime (Anglosaxon lind) Old-English lynde, linde, in the Craven-Dialect lin, lyne; maim (mahaigner from mahain, compare the Anglosaxon bemancian = truncare, Medieval-Latin mahemiare), random (randon) compare a gret random (Maundev. p. 238), ransom (raancön, raiancön), Old-English rancon, ranson (Rob. of Gloucester), venom (even venin, venim) compare envenom (envenimer), megrim (migraine), badigem alongside of badigeon (French the same), perform (par-fornir, -furnir) compare performen (Piers Ploughman p. 291), Old-Scotch perfurnis, originally m containing, Old-Highdutch frunjan, compare Anglo-saxon freman; vellum (velin), marjoram (Italian majorana, French marjolaine)

Old-English had often m at the end of the word, for instance Kaym, Caym instead of Cain, bothum (bouton) and others, dialectically brim instead of bring (eastern dialect). Summerset, somerset and somersault are corrupted from the Old-French soubresaut; in malmsey m has taken the place of r, Old-English malvesy (malvaise), but it rather stands with a view to Monembasia.

N arises out of the Anglosaxon and Romance n: nine (nigon), winter (vinter), wen (venn), dun (dunn = fuscus); — nurture (noriture, norreture), language (langage), tense (tens, tens, Modern-French temps), Old-English dan (dans, dant = dominus), count (cuens, conte, cunte together with cunte), noun (nom, noun, nou); on the other hand renownd for renowned is still found in Spenser and Marlowe.

As m from n, so conversely n often proceeds from m, as even in Old-French in some examples just quoted: ant = emmet (Anglo-saxon æmète), Benfleet (Beámfleot) in Essex; Dornford was formerly called Dormceaster; the ancient Rûmcofa is now called Runckhorn, Hants stands alongside of Hampshire (Hâmscire). In Old-English fron stands instead of from; paynen (Rob. of Gloucester I. 119) along with paynym and others.

n has sometimes taken the place of l: baneister has arisen out of the French baluster, baluste. Compare the dialectic win instead of will in Modern-English. See under l.
L has been preserved in Anglosaxon and Romance words: little (lytel, adverb lytle), lock (locc = cirrus), slumber (slumerjan), glisten (glishnjan), wallow (vealovjan, vealvjan, valvjan), welter (from veltan), halt (healtjan), whole (hål), till (tiljan); — limmer (limier), lodge (loger), parliament (parlement), false (fals, fax, faus), cattle (catel).

Although frequently silent before consonants (see page 67), l has been often preserved in Anglosaxon, as also in Old-French words, where Modern-French has rejected it, and even Old-French admitted the rejection with the substitution of u for l, compare fault (falte, faute), assault (assalt, assaut), vessel (vaissel, vaissians), castle (castel, castairs): Forms with and without l are still occasionally found alongside of each other: powder and poulder [unusual] (poldre, puldre, poudre) &c.

l has sometimes taken the place of r: marble (marbre, compare Spanish marmol, Highdutch marmelstein) marbreron even Rob. of Gloucester II. p. 476. Anglosaxon marmorstān; purple (porpre, yet even in Anglosaxon purble = purpureus, as in Anglosaxon turtle = turtur); gilliflower has been deformed out of giroflée (also geraflour) that is Caryophyllum. Hobbledehoy neither man nor boy is said to have arisen from Sir Hobbard de Hoy. Salisbury has supplanted Sarcsbury (see Halliwell s. v.) compare the spot hard by Old Sarum, Latin Sorbiodunum. At the end l stands thus in laurel (laurier), Old-English laurier, lorer in Chaucer and Gower.

Other l have even in Old-French arisen out of a primitive r and have persisted in English, while no longer appearing in Modern-French: temple (Old-French temple, Latin tempora, Modern-French tempe), fortalice, obsolete instead of fortress (Old-French fortelesce alongside of fortieresce, forteree, Medieval-Latin fortalium).

Flavour has proceeded from the Old-French flair, flairor, belonging to flairer, Latin fragrare. In Old-English and Old-Scotch it sounds fleure.

In proper names, such as Hally (Henry, Harry), Doll, Dolly (Dorothy), Molly (Mary) &c. l often appears for r.

l sometimes stands for n, as in Martlemas in Shakspeare instead of Martinmas. Dialectically we find chimley, chimibly instead of chimney. Could lunch, luncheon, nunchion, also have proceeded dialectically from nunch, noon, (nona)?

R is mostly preserved in Anglosaxon, Romance and other words: rich (ric), ram (ramm), proud (prūt), blind (blind), trap (treppe), crib (cribbe), spring (springan), stream (stream), start (steort, steart = spina), church (cyricc), star (storr); — river (rivièr), realm (realme, reame), preach (precher, prechier), brief (bref, brief), trace (tracer, tracier), grant (graanter, granter along with creaanter, craanter), pork (pore) &c.

r has taken the place of l: lavender (Medieval-Latin lavendula, Italian lavendola). In Shakspeare Argier stands instead of Algiers (Temp. 1, 2); sinoper alongside of sinople, Old-English and Old-Scotch synoper, -eir and synople, Old-French sinople, the green colour in a coat of arms, are the same words: there is said to
have been a red and a green pigment from Sinope (called sinoplaum, Old-Latin sinōpis). See Diez's Etymological Dictionary page 725. The obsolete surbeuat, surbet and the verb surbate point to the French solbatu, wounded in the sole of the foot.

r takes the place of n or m in the popular pronunciation in charfron, alongside of chanfrin and champfrein, French chanfrein; in glitter (Anglosaxon glitinjan) a new derivational termination er has rather taken the place of n, en.

2. The Lipsounds p, b, f, ph, v, w.

P must often give place to b; at the beginning of Anglosaxon words it mostly pointed to a foreign origin, but it was frequent in the middle and at the end. Where it appears in English it mostly perseveres in its pristine form, although, dialectically, for instance, in Gloucestershire, it often yields to b: pitch (pic), pepper (pipor, pēpor), pull (pulljan), plight (pliht), priest (preöst), slippery (slipur), apple (appel, āpl), wipe (vipjan, vipjan), cramp (cramp), sharp (scarp); — pity (pite, piteit), pious (pius, pios), pledge (plege, pleige), prophesy (prophecie), strain (straindre), chapter (chapitre), escape (eschaper, escaper), apt (French apte, Latin aptus). It rarely appears where it has become silent, except where it was only inserted. The former is the case in receipt, as well as formerly in deceipt (Old-French usually recet, yet also recepturn along with receter).

Here and there p has proceeded from b at the beginning of a word: purse (Old-French borse, bourse, even in Old-Highdutch pursa), on the contrary disburse, reimburse, else also dispurse; pudding (boudin?); pearch, perch, (Anglosaxon bears) is to be reduced to the French perche; in the middle of a word in apricot (French abricot, Italian albercoco); at the end of Anglosaxon words: Shropshire (Serscotre), crump (crumb); gossip (from sibb, English sib) instead of godsib, Old-English gossib. Thus in Old-English warerobe is found instead of garderobe.

p has arisen out of ph in trump, French triomphe.

In proper names p often stands along with m: Peg, Peggy instead of Meg, Margaret; Pat, Patty instead of Mat, Martha; Polly instead of Molly from Mary.

B mostly rests upon a primitive Anglosaxon or Romance b, and has been preserved even when silent: bid (biddan), bang (Old-norse banga = pulsare), black (bläc), brass (bräss), web (vebb), dub (dubban, compare the Old-French dober, duber, adober), climb (climban); — beast (beste, beeste), combat (combatre); blandish (blandir), brow (braun, braion = partie charnue du corps), bran (bren, Modern-French bran, but the Cymric brân), tomb (tombe), alb (Latin alba, French aube). The English retains in many words the b rejected in French, such as debt (dete), doubt (doter, duter, douter); moreover this b was not unknown even in Old-French.

b has sometimes arisen out of p, mostly in the middle and at the end of a word: lobster (loppstre, lopystre = locusta marina), a collateral form thereof is lopuster; dribble (belonging to dreó-
pan); limber = pliable alongside of limp = weak, pliant (belonging to the English to limp, compare the Anglosaxon lemphealt = claudus, leupe = lenitas, fragilitas, High Dutch Glimpf); slab = viscous (to the Old-norse slapp = lutum); knob, Old-English knop (Old-norse knappr = globulus; compare the Anglosaxon cnâpp = jugum, English knap). Even Skelton and Spencer have libbard, lybbard instead of leopard. Modern-English has at the commencement of a word bandore alongside of pandore; in the middle cabriole alongside of capriole.

Instead of w (Anglosaxon v) stands b in Bill, Billy from William (Vilhelm); brangle alongside of wrangle (to the Anglosaxon vringan); compare the Low Dutch bôrwolf instead of wôrwulff.

For h and r, b enters in humble-bee (BeauM. and Fletch) instead of humble-bee, compare the High Dutch Hummel, swiss. Bummel, and Bob, Bobby, like Hob for Rob, Robin, Robert.

F arises from the Anglosaxon and Romance f, which, however, are retained only at the beginning and end of a word, and that mostly with persistency, and in the middle of a word, are wont to have place in reduplication or when attached to a following consonant. At the end of a word v commonly appears for it, when it is followed by a mute e, according to the French process, yet here the language has not remained consistent. The dialectical confounding of f with v is widely diffused.

A primitive f at the beginning and end of a word: fickle (fiicol), far (feorr, feor), flesh (flæc), frame (fremman = facere, pericere), thief (peôf, pêf), hoof (hôf); — fillet (filet), fail (faîlir, falir), flame (flame, flamme, verb flamer), fruit (fruit, frui), chief (chef, chief).

Reduplicated in the middle and at the end of a word, as well as when attached to a following consonant, although here sometimes silent: stiff (stif) and verb stiffen, cliff (clif, clief), distaff (distäf), swift (svift), fifth (fifta), twelfth (tvelfta); — coffin (cofin), Caitiff (chaitiff, caitiff), plaintiff (plaintiff), enfeoff (fiever, fiefer), scaffold (escafeit, eschaufaut), falchion (falchon, fauchon).

In many Anglosaxon words the final consonant f before a mute e has remained: life (lif), wife (vif), knife (cnif); as in Romance: strife (estrif), safe (salf, sauf, compare the verb salver, saver), which in Old-English used still to be sounded lif, wif, knif, strif, saaf. In the inflection of these as well as of other words in f, v certainly appears before the vowel e, as was usual, even in Old-English. Many have still frequently a final f or fe in Old-English, to which Modern-English has given ve, as gaf, yaf (gave), drof (drove), shrof (shrove), strof (strove) and others. On the other hand Modern-English words are found with a final fj, to which in Old-English ve used to be given in Old-English, as sheriff (Anglosaxon scire-gerêfa), Old-English reeve, shereve.

In the derivatives of words in f, f is partly preserved before vowels, as in turfy, chiefage (Old-French chevage, poll tax), leafy (full of leaves), leafage, even leafed (having leaves), elfish, safely, while we also find elvish, wively, wivehood &c. alongside of them. Even ineflective forms sometimes fluctuate, as in staves,
now frequently staffs, where Old-English mostly offers only one \( f \) in the singular, while having \( v \) in the plural. In collision with a consonant in inflection \( v \) is transmuted into \( f \): bereft along with bereaved.

Particles prefixed do not alter the primitive initial sound, as in afore, afield &c.

\( f \) hardly ever arises out of \( b \): draff answers to the Anglosaxon drabbe, grains, alongside of which stands dröf = turbidus, sordidus.

\( f \) proceeds from \( g \), as the guttural \( gh \) has sometimes assumed the pronunciation of \( f \): dwarf (pveorg), in Old-English still dwerghes in Mandeville and durwe (Weber), in Western dialects durgan. The interchange of \( h \) (in English otherwise \( gh \)) with the vocal sign \( f \) is in Modern-English still to be met with here and there: draft alongside of draught (dröht from dragan), as conversely clough = raven seems to belong to the Anglosaxon clīfan, which in Old-English stands also for cliff (clif, clīof = rupes), and in Highdutch sichten corresponds to the English sift (siftan) (see \( gh \)). Shaft in the meaning of schaucht corresponds to this Highdutch word, but has xefatus alongside of schachta in Medieval-Latin for its support.

In Old-English the substitution of \( f \) for \( gh \) is frequent: doftyr = daughter (Rtson), caufte = caught; thoef = though (Haliwell s. v.); dialects of the present day offer thoft = thought, thruff = through. In Old-English \( s \) even occasionally stands along with \( f \) instead of \( gh \): straȝfte = straight (Haliwell Early Hist. of Freemasonry p. 14.).

\( f \) is also occasionally substituted for a primitive Greek \( ph \), partly according to French precedent, although sometimes both stand alongside of each other. Thus we spell fantasm and phantasm, frenzy and phrensy, frantic and phrenetic, fantom (Old-French fantosme) and phantom, but always fancy (fantaisie).

Ph, where it has not been changed into \( f \), remains faithful to the Greek-Latin spelling, as in philosophy.

It has sometimes arisen out of a final \( f \); gulf stands along with gulf (French golfe, Greek κολυμα), Guelphs along with Guelfs; also in the middle of a word: cipher, decipher (French chiffre, Medieval-Latin ciffara, from the Arabic safar and sifr = zero).

\( ph \) for \( v \) is striking, as in nephew (neveu), Old-English neevew, neew, and in nephew along with navew (navet from the Latin napus).

Old-English often confounds \( p \) with \( ph \), as in Phiton (Python). This and other displacements, as Baphomet (Mahomet) belong in general to the middle ages, compare the Medieval-Latin Bafumaria, Baphumet &c.

\( V \), which, at the beginning of a word, unites with no other consonant, and never appears at the end without \( e \), is, in its Latin and Romance sound, a letter foreign to Anglosaxon (the Anglosaxon \( v \), for which in English \( w \) is substituted, representing another sound) and corresponding to the Romance and Latin \( v \): villainy (vilanie, vilenie), very (verai, vrai), vanquish (vaincre, vencre), vaunt (vanter, venter), divers (divers).

The collateral form of vetch (French vesce, Latin vicia, com-
pare the Old-Highdutch wicce), which sounds fitch, is striking, as
to which may be observed, that the Latin v is, in Anglosaxon, oc-
casionally rendered by *f; compare the Anglosaxon serfis, Latin
servitium (see below, on Old-English). No less striking is the
appearance of the initial v for the Anglosaxon f in vat, alevat (fat,
ealofat) alongside of fat, since the initial Anglosaxon f is else preserved.
Thus, also vixen is still in use for the Anglosaxon fixen. The Old-
English certainly in its earliest forms often admits r (w), instead of
f at the beginning of a word; compare uoq = forth, vewe = few
and others in Robert of Gloucester.

Moreover the English sometimes allows words in v of Romance
stock to run parallel with others in w, partly with a variety of
meaning, as vine, French vin, and wine (Anglosaxon vin), hence
winy = abounding in vines and winy = having the taste or quality
of wine, as to which vineyard has taken the place of the Anglo-
saxon vingeard, vineard.

v stands in the middle of a word between vowels or after a
preceding consonant, and at the end of a word before a mute e,
where likewise it may be preceded by a consonant, instead of the Anglo-
saxon f: ever (efen), evening (efnung), oven (ofen), navel (na-
fola, nafela), raven (hrafen), hovel (hofel); anvil (filt, anfit), Old-
English anvelt; silver (silfor); swave (vyfan), knave (enapa, enafa),
glove (glòf); drive (drifan), hive (hyfe), delve (dèlfan), twelve
(tvelf).

In Old-English f is also often preserved between vowels, as in
drife (drive), shrife (shrive), delfe (delve), dowifes (doves) (Tow-
neley Myster.), as the Romance v also sometimes passes over into
f: reprefe (reprover or the Anglosaxon pròfjan?), soferand (so-
vereign),

Instead of a Greek-Latin ph a v used often to appear, thus in
Spencer, Shakspeare and the moderns, as Byron: vial = phial;
visnomy = physiognomy.

b is here and there transmuted into v, yet here mostly in Anglo-
saxon f is found along with b: have (habban), live (libban, but also
lifjan), heave (hebban, Gothic hafjan); the forms habben and lib-
ben are not unknown to Old-English (Roh. of Gloucester and Piers
Ploughman).

Many names in which the Romans heard b have in Celtic and
Anglosaxon become f, and are now represented by v: Severn (Cym-
ric Hafren, Anglosaxon Sáfern, Latin Sabrina), Dover (Latin Dubris
Dubrae), Reculver (Regelbium), Tovy (Tobius), Abergavenny
(Gobannium).

v in wave has proceeded from a primitive g, Anglosaxon væg,
vég and the verb vágjan, Old-French woge, Modern-French vague;
Old-English and Old-Scotch have namely the form wave, plural wawis,
wawghes in Towneley Myster. and thus according to Caxton, com-
pare the Danish vove.

The second v in “velvet” (Old-French velluau, compare Italian
velluto, belonging to the Latin villus), is to be regarded as a u har-
dened into v.

W comes under consideration here only as a Semivowel, as indeed
originally it is perhaps to be always regarded as a semivowel sound.
Its at present extinct or vocalized sound is, as a consonant, not quite to be made out; yet its interchange with the guttural, which has passed into the lipsound (y.now and y.nough, thorow and thoro-rough) in Old-English, which also might frequently be assumed for the gh extinct in pronunciation, points to its having sounded as a lipsound (like the Hiddutch w before consonants and not differing much from f, when at the end of a word).

w springs from the Anglosaxon v, and has been preserved before the consonant r in writing, where it is already completely without import for the pronunciation: winter (vinter), wed (veddjan), wash (vascan); wring (vringan), wren (vrenna); after a dental, too, it is usually preserved: twinkle (tvinkeljan), dwell (Old-English vdelja = morari, Anglosaxon vdeljan, dwellan = errare), dwindle (Old-norse dvina = detumescere, Anglosaxon dvīnan, tabescere), thwart (pverbh), Old-English thwang (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 166), Modern-English thong (pvang = corrigia), sweet (svete), Old-English sote, swift (svift), evenhere partly lost in pronunciation: two (twā). On the other hand the Anglosaxon cv has mostly passed over into qu (see q), hv has been transmuted into wh by transposition (see Metathesis).

So far as the Romance q or gu, also spelt w, corresponds to the Old-Hiddutch w, and the Gothic and Anglosaxon v, w likewise takes its place in English also: wicket (wiket, guischet from the Old-norse vik = recessus, Anglosaxon vic = recessus, portus); wait (gaiter, guéiter Old-Hiddutch wahtên), wafer (gaufre. Medieval-Latin gafrum); warrant (garant, guarant, warant and the verb guarantir, warantir, Old-Hiddutch werên), warren (garenne, Medieval-Latin warenna); wastel (gastel, gastial, Middle-Hiddutch wastel, Modern-French gateau), reward (reguerredoner, rewerdoner, Medieval-Latin widerdon-num compared with the Anglosaxon vidērleān) along with guardon; wage, wager (Substantive gage, wage and gagueure, verb gager, wager, Medieval-Latin vadium, guadium; invadiare &c. related to the Anglosaxon védâ to the Gothic vadi = a pledge), Old-English warish (garir, Modern-French guérir, related to the Anglosaxon varjan), guarrish (Spenser).

Romance forms are occasionally employed alongside of others which go back to Anglosaxon words: guise and wise (Anglosaxon vise), especially in the compound otherguise and otherwise; guimple and wimple (Old-Hiddutch wimpal), guile, beguile Old-French guile, guille, verb guiler &c.), Old-English gile, gyle, and wile (Anglosaxon vile); guard substantive and verb, guardian (Old-French guarde, warde, garde &c.) and ward (substantive veard, verb veardjan), as to which, forms like warden, wardrobe approximate more closely to the French form. Even engage and the like stand alongside of wage without the g's being retransmuted into w.

W seldom appears for a Romance or Latin v, unless this has itself passed through an Anglosaxon v: periwinkle (French pérvenche, Latin pervincia), Old-English parvenke, pervinke; similarly cordwain, cordwainer springs from the usual cordovan; where, in Celtic words, the Latin has v, a Cymric and Cornish v (guv, guw, w at the end of a word) is to be assumed: WINCHESTER (Venta
Belgarum), Caerwent (Venta Silurum), Derwent (Derventio), Wye (Vaga).

\[w\] in periwig is hardened from \(u\) (Italian perruca, French perruque since the 15\textsuperscript{th} century), now shortened into wig; perhaps also in periwinkle a sort of shellfish (Latin parunculus). Moreover \(r\) and \(w\) are provincially, as, for instance, in Kent and in London, often confounded.

3) The Toothsounds \(t, d, th, s, z, sh, j\);

\(T\) has for the most part been preserved from the Anglosaxon, Romance and Latin \(t\); yet a primitive \(t\), \(d\) and \(th\) often change places with one another.

\(t\) corresponds to the Anglosaxon \(t\) (Old-Highdutch \(z\)) and Old-French and Latin \(t\): time (tima), tease (tæsel) and the verb tease (tæsal, tæsl, Old-Highdutch zeisala = carduus niger and the verb tæsan = vellicare), tale (tælu), tool (tœl, tram (trymjan, trymman), trout (truht), trundle (tryndel = circulus, Lowdutch trãndel, also Anglosaxon Participle tryndeled), staer (stæger); eater (ëtere), sister (sveostor), turtle (turtle); — bite (bitan), gate (geat, gat), beat (be.atan), holt (holt), dust (dust), bought (boht); — tense (tens, tans), tabour (tæbor), trench (trencher, trancher), strain (straindare), latten (laïton), attach (attacher), quit (quiter), port (port = portus and porte = porta) &c., even where a Romance and Latin \(t\) passes into the sibilant: nation (nation, nascion), oration &c. Here an interchange with \(s\) occasionally takes place: antient along with an-cient (ancien, anchien).

Out of an Anglosaxon and Romance \(d\) there sometimes arises a \(t\), especially at the end, but also in the middle of a word: Reputation (Hrepandun), Bampton (Beamdu), where a confusion with \(t\)un was easy, etch = eddish (edisc); — antler (andouiller), partridge (perdrize); — at the end of a word after a vowel, more frequently after consonants: abbot (abbad, -od, -ud), want, a mole (yand), now little used, tilt (teld), girt along with gird (gyrdan); the clod interchanging with clot points to the Anglosaxon clud = rupes, cludig = saxosus; here belongs the transmutation of the verbal suffix \(d\) in the preterite and participle, in the syncope of the preceding vowel, into \(t\); which, in Anglosaxon, was confined to stems ending in \(c\) (as \(ht\)), \(p\), \(t\) and \(x\) (as \(hs\)), as in thought (pohte-poht), dipt along with dipped (dypte-dypt) &c. The Old-English carried this transmutation far; in Modern-English it again became gradually restricted. In the seventeenth century the syncope of the vowel, after the letters \(p, f\), hard \(th\), \(k\), \(c\) and the hard hissers and sibilants \(s, c, sh, ch = x\), sometimes also, after \(m, n, l, r\), and which is now often denoted by an apostrophe, was often coupled with the hardening of \(d\) into \(t\), if the vowel of the verb was short, and, occasionally with a vowel originally long. Modern-English restricts this transmutation in our words, only allowing it to appear after \(gh, p\) and \(f\), after \(s\) (\(ss\)), but also after \(m, n\) and \(l\) in prose and mostly, only in a limited measure, as in thought, brought &c. after the Anglosaxon precedent in dipt, left (lêde, lêfed), past (passed), blest (blessed, Anglosaxon blessôde, blessôd), mixt (mixed), pent (from
pen), learnt, burnt &c., dealt (dælde, dæled); as in a series of verbs ending in *nd*, the Anglosaxon inflection -nde, -nded, is still often transmuted into *nt*: sent (sende, sended), went (vende, vended) &c. and even after *ld* and *rd* the Anglosaxon inflection -idede. -ided, -rde, -rded: gild (gylde, gylded), girt (gyrde, gyrded). Poetry, and, sometimes, Prose still as formerly uses the abridged forms in *t*, no longer approved by modern grammar, and omitted to be denoted by Lexicography, especially in verbs in *y*, *s* and *x*, as whipt, stept, stopt, dropt, prest, possest, crost, curst, urst, fixt, vext &c. (See the Declension).

Old-English also in other words ending in *d* often transmutes this letter into *t*, for instance pousant, hondret, swert, hart (heard) and the like (in Rob. of Gloucester and others) and likewise the final *d* of the participle, which, together with the termination of the preterite *it*, instead of *id*, *ed* belongs in particular to the North-English and Old-Scotch dialects.

Instead of *p, ð* (= *th*), also instead of the Latin-Greek *th*, an initial and a final *t* stands, especially at the beginning of words not Anglosaxon: Tom alongside of Thomas, Tit (from θεόω), Taff (from θεωμαι); often in Old-English teme (= theme), trone (= throne) &c.; but at the beginning of a compound Anglosaxon word: nostril (naspyr = nasi foramen) and likewise in hustings (Old-norse husspingi = domestica consultatio); at the end in theft (peóþ), height (beáðo), Old-English heighthe, and hight in Milton; dart (darð, darð) drought earlier and even still in the North of England drouth (drugáð, drugáð), chit (cíd = festuca from cian = germinare).

The interchange of *k* and *t* takes place in apricot and apricot on account of the French abricot and the Italian abercocco, Arabic alberquq; also bat, flyttmer, Old-English bak, compare Danish aftenbakke, Scotch bakie, bawkie.

*D* primarily corresponds to the Anglosaxon and Romance *d*: dim (dimm), den (dene, denn = vallis), day (daga), dawn (dagjan), dock, tail, stump (Old-norse dockr), dock a plant (Anglosaxon docce), dock a quai (Swedish docka, Danish dokke, to the Medieval-Latin doga, French douve, also a canal, a moat), dry (dryge), dindle (from dīnan = tabescere); bladder (blædre), ladle (hlädle), abide (åbídan), kid (Old-norse kid), bind (bindan), child (cild), sward (sveard, Middle-Highdutch swarte); — delay (delai, verb deleai), delight (deleit, delit, verb deleiter, deliter), Old-English deliten, delitable, delit; damsel (damisele), dragon (dragon, dragon), demand (demandier).

*d* has taken the place of *t*, yet hardly ever except at the beginning of a word, as, even in Anglosaxon, the initial *d* was sharply distinguished from *t* as well as from *p*: Paddy (from Patrick), dodkin (= doitkin, Hollandish duit), proud (prüt), pride (préta), in Old-English still prout and prute (Rob. of Gloucester). In the middle of a word the Anglosaxon had transmuted the Latin *t* into *d* in: læden, lèden = latinnus, Old-English still has læden in the same signification. Here belongs also jeopardy, Old-English juperti (DAME SIRIZ) jeupertye (GOWER) jupartie, jupardie (CHAUCER) (jeu
partis, divided game), card (French carte), discard (comparescarter fourteenth century), diamond (diamant); bud seems related to the French bouter, bout, bouton; compare the Italian buttare, to bud.

d is occasionally substituted for the Anglosaxon p (d) even at the beginning of a word; in the middle the later Anglosaxon often has d instead of p; at the end the Anglosaxon ldstood also for the Gothic lp; d and ď, also served to distinguish the adjective and substantive dead (dead) and deaď (death); dwarf (peorg), the obsolete dorp and thorp (porp, Lowdutch dörp), deck related to thatch (peccan), also the Scotch deck; burden (distinguished from burden, Old-English and Modern-French bourdon) alongside of burthen (byr-đen), murder (morĎur) alongside of murther, Sudbury (SūĎberh), rudder (roĎer), Old-English rother, fiddle (féĎele), Old-English fithelere (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 179), could (cúĎe), Old-English couthe, pad alongside of path (páĎ, pad), Old-English often quod instead of quo th (cvĎĎ); maid (máĎeĎ, máĎ alongside of máĎen, maĎen English maiden = virgo); snath, sneath, sneeth and snead, especially in the western dialects (snaĎ) scychehandle; adeling alongside of Athelney (ĎeĎeling, Adelingsigge)

The frequent interchange of th with d, as déňk instead of think (WEBER), dere instead of there (LANTOFF), dis instead of this (PERCY Rel.) and others, is Old-English and dialectical.

The th of ancient languages has also been changed into d in Bedlam from Bethlehem.

The mutilation of Richard into Dick may be compared with the converse mutilation of the Spanish cedilla in cerilla.

Th likewise serves to replace the Anglosaxon p and ď, the former whereof belonged essentially to the beginning, the latter to the middle and end of a word, like the th descended from the ancient tongues. The distinctions of sound of the harder p and the softer ď are in English only partly regarded in pronunciation. The sign p is found here and there preserved in the older English at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of a word, but interchanged early with th; the form Y, instead of p gave occasion to the substitution of y for this letter in writing and print; hence the lately usual abbreviations y', y, y^, instead of the, that, thou and many more. The Cymric renders the hard sound by th, the soft by dd.

th as a substitute for p and ď: thick (piece), thill (pile, pill), thane (pēĎen, pēn), Old-English and Old-Scotch than, tharm (pearm), threshold (préĎcvald, pārscold &c.), Old-English threswold, Old-Scotch threswold, throw (prāvăn); the verb thwite and substantive thwittle are obsolete (préĎvān = abscidere) [whittle is the Anglosaxon hvitle = cultellus]; withy (viĎĎg = salix) also withe (Old-norse viĎĎia = vimen salicis and vidir = salix); with (viĎĎ, also vid), mouth (māĎ), mouth (mōĎāĎ, mōĎ), mirth (merhōĎ, mirōĎ); — of th: Thomas, thūmīm (Hebrew), catholic, cathedral (ecclesia cathedralis), mathematics &c. Goth (Latin Gothus, Anglosaxon Gota), Behemoth (Hebrew).

The Anglosaxon t becomes th, whereas Old-English often retains t: Thanet (Tenet, Latin Tanetos ins.), Thames, where the pro-
nunciation preserves t (Temese, Tämesse), Old-English Temese, fifth (fifta), eleventh (éndlyfta), twelfth (tWelfta) and other ordinal numbers, assimilated to those in óða; even in Old-English fyfté, sixthe (fifta, sixta) &c; but also syxte and even eghte (eáhtoá); swarth, swarthy = black, tawny (svwart), yet also swart; lath (latta).

In words, derived from the ancient tongues, th often stands for t: Anthony (Antonius), author (autor), prothonotary (protonotarius); we also find lanthorn alongside of lantern (lanterne, Latin laterna, latnera). The Old-English frequently apprehended t thus: rethor (rhetor), Sathanas (Satanas), Ptholomee and others. The Modern-English anthem, Old-English antem, Anglosaxon antefen, has arisen out of antiphona.

The Anglosaxon d has been changed into th partly in the middle of a word between vowels, partly at the end, which only slowly became the general usage in Old-English: hither (hider), Old-English hider; thither (pider), Old-English thider; wither (hváder, hvider), Old-English whider; together (tó gáedere), Old-English togeder, togyder; weather (veder), Old-English weder; father (fáder), Old-English fader; mother (modor), Old-English moder; hyder, togyder even in Skelton. — both, Old-English bathe, bath, Old-Scotch baith finds no support in the Anglosaxon begen, bá, bá, but perhaps in the Old-norse bådir, bådar, bæði, compare Danish baade, Swedish både, Gothic bajóps; as booth in the Old-norse búð; froth (Old-norse froda = spuma), birth, birthday (byrd, byrdag, but compare also beord = nativitas); stalworth, Old-English stalward, stalwart and stalworth, Old-Scotch stalwart = stout, valiant, comes from the Anglosaxon stealward. Substantive = adjutorium; in Chaucer we also find elth for the likewise obsolete eld (yld, eld) = senectus. Even in words not Anglosaxon the th instead of d sometimes enters: brothel goes back primarily to the Old-French bordel, Medieval-Latin bordellum (Anglosaxon bord), compare the Old-English athaman (adamas); faith (feid, feit, fois, feiz), Old-English fay, feye, striking fght in Halliwell s. v., but compare spright and the Old-English spight instead of spite even in the seventeenth century, and the like. The Cymric d, or what was so apprehended by the Roman ear, appears as th in Caermarthen (Latin Maridunum, Cymric caer wyrdin) as well as in Neath (Latin Nidum).

A French z was sometimes rendered in Old-English by th, as in aseth (assez); may faith have descended from feiz with the z of the nominative?

S apart from its division into a hard and a soft sound, mostly supposes an Anglosaxon and a Romance s: six (six), sell (sellan, syllan), say (seccan, seggan), soon (sona, suna), smoke (smocjan), snow (sná), slink (slíncan), spill (spillan), swear (sverjan), stink (stíncan), spread (spredan), strawberry (strayberje); — master (mágeste), cleanse (cláensjan), whisper (hwisprjan), arise (árisan), grass (grás, gráís); grasp, (Lowdutch graspen); wrist (vríst); — signify (signifier), sever (sever), summons (semonse), surgeon (surgien), spice (espise), spouse (espos, espois m., spouse fem.), stanch (estancher), restrain (restraindre), science (science),
cloister (cloistre), joyous (joios, -ous, -us), host (hoste, oste). Upon the combinations of s with gutturals sc, sk, sq, sch see below.

s often stands in place of a dental Romance and Latin c, with which it still often interchanges in Old-English; as, conversely, c even in Modern-English sometimes even takes the place of an Anglo-Saxon s (see below c); moreover that c commonly interchanges with s in Old-French, which has mostly solely survived in Modern-French, as sometimes with ch: searsh (cerher, cherchier), succory (Latin cichorium, French chicorée); mason (maçon, maçon, Medieval-Latin macio, mattio, machio), ransom (raançon, rainson, raenchon), lesson (leçon), caparison (caparaçon), purslain (porcelaine), nurse, Old-English nounice, noircie, even in Shakspeare nourish, license (licence), [disperse perhaps from despire, despis, not immediately from despicere], cimiss, (compare French cimicides, Latin cimex, -icis) and many more. In Old-English forms like seint, a girdle, ses (cene), cesoun (saison), servisable, sacrifise &c. frequently occur. The feminine form of substantives in ess, Modern-French ice alongside of (er) esse, has moreover already sometimes an s, for the first form still sometimes current in French: empress, Old-French empereris, empereis, but in Old-English also emperice.

In sash s seems to have proceeded from a French ch instead of the primitive guttural c (châsse, châssis from the Latin capsa); Dissimilation of the initial and the final sound will have been the cause.

s arises from the Anglo-Saxon d in the verbal ending of the third person singular of the present, where in the poetic, solemn and archaic speech the termination eth stands by its side. In the Northern dialects s early took the place of th, not only in the termination of the singular, but also of the plural, which was likewise eth. The Old-Scotch seldom has th; here commonly hes (has), standis, makis, knawis, stertis, gettis, differis &c. stand for singular and plural. In the thirteenth and the fourteenth century s is found in the southern dialects alongside of th; Chaucer (in the Reeves tale) attributes to those of Cambridge the forms has, bringes, faires, findes &c. whereas th else prevails in him. Since the sixteenth century this s has made greater progress in English; in Skelton, Spenser, Shakspeare and others s and th are interchanged, in which th is gradually reserved for solemn speech (see Mommsen Romeo and Juliet p. 107). The grammar of the seventeenth century put the usage of th foremost, and that of s in the second rank; modern usage makes s the rule, th the exception.

In the word ease and its derivatives easy &c. Old-English, Old-Scotch and dialectical eth, eath, eathly &c., even along with eis and the like, the Anglo-Saxon ead, eaðlic and the Old-French aise, substantive aise, of like descent (Gothic azets) meet and mix; in bequest from bequeath (becvedan) we must go back to the Anglo-Saxon substantive form cves, compare behest (Anglo-Saxon behas). sc, sk and sq, in which s combines with a guttural, are in the more general transition of the Anglo-Saxon sc into the sibilant sh more rarely in Germanic than in Romance words, or in words which have passed through Old-French and Latin Greek words. sc is found only before obscure vowels (with which of course there is no
question of the dental ⟨c⟩, as in ⟨scene⟩, ⟨science⟩), as well as before another consonant, rarely at the end of a word; ⟨sq⟩ only before a semivowel ⟨u⟩, unless in immediately received foreign words.

⟨sc⟩ arises from the Anglosaxon ⟨sc⟩ (Old-norse ⟨sk⟩): scale (⟨scalum⟩ = ⟨laux⟩), scab (⟨scabb⟩, ⟨scabb⟩ = ⟨scabies⟩), scald (⟨Old-norse skálldr⟩), scatter (⟨scateran⟩ = dissipare), scoff (compare the Old-norse skuffa = irrideræ), scour (Lowdutch schieren), score (⟨scor⟩ = incisura), scurf (⟨scurf⟩ = ⟨scabies⟩), screech (Old-norse skrækja and skrikja) alongside of shriek, scrape (scrapæn, sreecpan. Lowdutch schrāpen); frequently from the Old-French ⟨sc⟩, also ⟨sch⟩, also themselves of Germanic descent: scaffold (escafaunt, eschaffault), scan (escander = scandere), scarce (escars, eschars), scarlet (escarlate), scorn (escornær, compare Modern-French écornifier), scorch (escalchier, escorcer), scutcheon, escutcheon (escusson), scatches (eschace = béquille, Modern-French échasses), scourage (escourgee), scape and escape (escapec, eschaper), scandal (scandele, escandele), scampier (escamper), escritoire and others, fisc (fiscus).

Sometimes Germanic and Romance forms mix; for instance scot, escot stands alongside of shot, Old-French escot, Anglosaxon scot; scant, scantlet, scantling and the verb scantle point immediately to the Old-French eschatlelet, Modern-French échantillon, compare Medieval-Latin scantellatus = truncatus, but belong to the Anglosaxon scantan, scènan = francigre; scarf corresponds in meaning to the Old-French escharpe, escerpe, Anglosaxon escorp = vestitus, but as to its form attaches itself to the Anglosaxon escafor = fragmen.

⟨sk⟩ stands for the Anglosaxon ⟨sc⟩ (Old-norse ⟨sk⟩): skin (scinn), skill (sciljan = distinguere, Old-norse skilja = discernere, intelligere), sky (Old-norse ský = nubes), skipper (scipere = nauta), skirt (Anglosaxon scytan = abbreviare, compare the Old-norse skirta, skyrta = subligar, indium, English skirt), skull (Old-Highdutch scilla); brisket (Old-norse briosk = cartilage), tusk (tusc, tux), flask (flasc, flasca, flaxa); and for the Old-French ⟨sc⟩ (⟨sk⟩) and ⟨sq⟩: skirmish rests immediately on the Old-French eskremir, eskermir; whereas the cognate scrimmer points to the Anglosaxon scrinbre; sketch (esquisse, Italian schizzo); musket, musketoon (moschete, mouskete), Medieval-Latin muschetta), mask (masque, Medieval-Latin masc, mas cus), cask = hollow vessel rests, like casqué = helmet, on the French casque, risk (risque). In task and task ⟨sk⟩ rests on a primitive ⟨x⟩: lask (Latin laxus) diarrhoea; task (Latin taxa, Modern-French tâche, French tasque).

Moreover ⟨sc⟩ and ⟨sk⟩ are often confounded, for instance, in scate and skate, (Hollandish Schaats), sceptic and skeptic and others.

⟨sq⟩ ⟨u⟩, in words originally Germanic, occurs only through the placing of an ⟨s⟩ before ⟨cv⟩, as in squeak (Lowdutch quiken, quëken); On the other hand, in words originally Latin and Old-French, has frequently arisen from ⟨sc⟩ and ⟨sq⟩ before ⟨u⟩: squire, esquire (Old-French escuier, esquier = scutarius), Old-English squiere; squirrel (escurel, escurill from the Latin sciurus), squad (escouade, Italian squadra), squallid (Latin squalidus) and others.

⟨sch⟩ with the guttural ⟨ch⟩ is met with in words originally oriental and Greek: scheme (⟨σχήμα⟩), pasch (pascha), also in school (schola,

Although this sounded scða in Anglo-Saxon and hence in Old-English scðel; sçcolær. Upon exceptions see pronunciation page 62. Likewise the Italian words, in sçcherçando &c.

Z was little known in Anglo-Saxon, and has come into English from the ancient and the Romance tongues; in Anglo-Saxon it stands rarely instead of ð, like as the Old-French occasionally symbolized an English p, ð by z: zorné ( Anglo-Saxon porne) est espine ROM. DE ROU). It arose out of the ancient and Romance z (i): zeal (French zèle, Greek σῆλος), whence zealot, zealous (French jaloux); zest (French zeste), zone (French, the same, çorni), zocle alongside of socle (Italian zoccolo, French socle), azure (French azur), to say naught of other foreign words, such as quartz and the like.

Yet it has also taken the place of an Anglo-Saxon, instead of an Old-French s, where it still frequently interchanges with s, whereas Old-English commonly presents this alone: bæzel (hæsel), Old-norse hasil; freez (froñsan), breeze and brière = tabanus (briósa), sneeze and neese (compare fneónsan), glæze, glazen (substantive glas, adjectival gläsen); blaze (bläse), mæze and amæze (mäse = gurges), agaze = to strike with amazement (ggæsan = percellere); adž, adze along with addice (adese), ouzel along with ousel (ôsele), gloze and glöse along with gloss (substantive glöse, verb glösan = interpretari, adulari); næze along with nessel = headland (näss, nässe), daze, dazzle, dizzy (from dysg = stultus, Old-English, from dase), drizzle (from dreónsan = cadere); seize (saisir, seize), seisin and seisin (saisine, seiseine), raze and rase along with erase (rase), razor (rasor, rasoir), cizar along with scissors (ciseaux), buzzard (buzart, Old-Highdutch básar, Latin buteo); frizz, frizzle along with frissle, French friser, belongs to the Anglo-Saxon frise = crispus. Fitz is the Old-French fils, fix, fz &c.

Sh, a sibilant, which Old-English oftentimes represented by sch, ssh, perhaps also by ss (compare sssæne = shane &c. in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), is in Germanic words mostly the substitute for the Anglo-Saxon sc (Old-norse sk), although c has often continued a guttural (see above): shift (substantive scift, verb sciftan), sheet (scête, scyðte = linteum), shed (seeddan), shake (secan), shoulder (scudor), shoe (scôb), shrink (scirincan), shrive, shift (sciftan, sciftn); bishop (biscop), fish (fisc, fix), flesh (flæsc), thrash (prescan), dash (Old-norse daska = percutere), marsh (merse). Forms in sc often serve to distinguish nearly related Anglo-Saxon words, as: score, Anglo-Saxon scor, a notch &c., shore, Anglo-Saxon score, a coast; this dissimilation also gives notional distinctions, as: scatter to strew &c. and shatter, to break to pieces, Anglo-Saxon scatteran; alongside of scab (secb) stand's shabby, mostly used figuratively; disc the apparently tabular surface of a heavenly body; and dish, a flattened culinary utensil, point to the same Anglo-Saxon disc, dix = tabula, Latin discus.

As the Anglo-Saxon sc interchanges with x, this is also treated as an sc in rush (ryxa, but Latin ruscus). Of another kind is the transformation of Xeres into the English sherry.

Sh seldom answers to a single Anglo-Saxon s, as in blush (blýsjan), and a bash, Old-Engl. abase, and bash, bashful, belonging, according
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to Dieffenbach to the Middle-Netherlandish basen, Modern-Netherlandish verbazen. With this we may compare the apprehension of the s in Shepton Mallet (Latin Septonia), likewise that of the Latin s (from the Hebrew ו) in Joshua (Josu).

On the other hand the Old-French ss, which also was wont to interchange with the dental c and ch, is frequently rendered by sh, whether that ss, c, ch rests upon a primitive x or the combination of other sounds, or even upon a single dental: cuish (cuisse, quisse, Latin coxa), cash (casse, chasse, Modern-French caisse, Latin capsa, Medieval-Latin cacia, cacea), sash (châsse, the same word as the last), brush (broce, broche, brosse, Old-Highdutch brusta), anguish (anguisse, angoise, Latin angustia), Old-English anguysse; calabash (calebasse, Spanish calabaza), plash, to twine bougbs, (plaisier, plassier, from the Latin plexus), leash (laisse, lesse), push (pousser, Latin pulsare), Old-English possen; parish (paroche, paroisse = parochia), cushion (coussin, Medieval-Latin cussionis, from the Latin cullita), fashion (fachon, fazon, faceon); to which also belongs the verbal ending ish, French iss, Latin isc, as in embellish (embell-iss-, as it were the Latin embell-isc-ere), which the Old-English used to give by ise, ice, as the Old-Scotch did by is, eis, together with ische. In Modern-English the dental c has continued in rejoice, Old-English rejoisse (= rejo-iss-, from the Old-French joir, goir).

The representation of the dental ch by sh in English is natural, where in French the former alone appears, having been mostly softened from the guttural c, k, although it may also have arisen from a sibilant: dishevel (compare escheveler from chevel, Latin capillus), gamashes (gamache, Medieval-Latin gamacha, a bootleg); hash, which appears alongside of hack, rests upon hacher, as the former does immediately upon the Anglosaxon haccjan = concidere; the dialectical fash answers to the French fâcher (from the Latin fastidium); the cloth named shalloo comes from Châlons; the French chaloup after the Hollandish slope, the Englishman renders by shalloo along with sloo. Even sch in forms sometimes gives sh: shawl (Persian shâl).

Through the agreement of the French ch with the English sh, the English spelling sometimes fluctuates between both, for instance in shagreen and chagrin (French chagrin, from the Arabic zargab, Turkish sagri), fetish and fetich (Portugese fetiso, French of the eighteenth century ftétique), cabashed and cahoched (cahoché, compare cacoche, thickhead, from the Latin caput); the fish is called shad and chad (ch pronounced like sh). Is it related to the Anglosaxon sceadda, English scate, skate? In Old-English even chiver is found instead of shiver (compare the Old-Highdutch scivero, Middle-Highdutch schivere); and thus the Modern-English eddish (Anglosaxon edisc) also becomes etch.

Even ss sometimes still stands in Modern-English alongside of sh, as in Old-English (see above), in bassa and bashaw, Persian pai, schah (foot of the shach).

The word radish, answering in meaning, to the Anglosaxon râdic, in fact also radik in Old-English (see Halliwell s. v.) is
attached to the French radis or the Latin radix, as well as to the Swedish råda.

The sibilant is still sometimes represented in Modern-English by *sch* instead of by *sh*, and that according to Old-French precedent: *eschew* (eschiver, Old-Highdutch *skiuhan*), *escheat* (eshet from escheoir), *eschalot*, also *shalot* (échalotte, Italian scalogno = allium ascalonicum. LINNÉ).

**J**, as a consonant sibilant, proceeds from the Old-French *j* and dental *g*, which not rarely interchanged with *j*; the Latin *j*, although it has not always passed through the Romance, is referred hither: *jig* (gigue, gige, Middle-Highdutch *gige*) together with the dissimilated *gig* with an initial guttural *g* (compare the Old-norse *geiga* = tremerere), *jew* (juif), *jail* together with *gao1* (gaeole, jaiole, gaole, Medieval-Latin *gabola*, *gayola*, from caveola), *joy* (goie, joie), *jaunte*, *felly* (jante), *jangle* (jangler, gangler, Hollandish janken, jangelen), *jay* (gai, Modern-French *gai*), *jargon* (jargion, gargon), to which perhaps *jargle* (compare jargoner and the Old-norse substantive jarg and jargan = taediosa iteratio and sermo inconditus), *juggle* (jogler, jugler, Latin joculari), *jist*, *joust*, *justle*, *jostle* (substantive joste, jouste, juste, verb joster, jouter, juster, from the Latin *juxta*). *Jest* comes from the Old-French gestour, compare chanson de geste, Old-English gestour, jestour (for to tellen tales [CHAUCER 13775]); *jaw* refers us to the Old-French *joe*, provencal *gaut*, although formerly of the same import as *chaw* (Old-Highdutch chouwe) although *job* also seems to interchange with *chop*.

In jashawk the word eyas-hawk is transmuted, thus *y* has passed into a dental.

As in Old-French, so in Modern-English the dentals *g* and *j* sometimes stand in double forms for each other, as: *jennet*, *genet* and *ginnet* (genet, Latin *genista* = broom), *Jill* and *Gill* (Gille = Aegidia), *jingle* and *gingle* (perhaps belonging to *jangler*, *gangler?*), *jenneting*, *geniting* (from June) as it were Juneapple; *jail* and *gaol* (see above) and others.

Upon the Modern-English pronunciation of *j* see below *ch 2*.

4) The Throatsounds *k* (*ck*), *q*, *c*, *ch*, *g* (*gu*, *gh*), *h*, *y*, *x*.

**K** which, along with *c*, answers to the hard guttural sound of the Greek as well as of the Gothic *k*, stands at the beginning of a word especially before clear vowels, as well as before *n* in the middle of a word before or after another consonant or doubled (as *ck*) and at the end of English words singly, doubled or after another consonant. Upon *sk* see above.

The representation of the Anglosaxon guttural *c*, which down to the eleventh century before all vowels, as well as before consonants, denoted the same sound, and not till afterwards, especially in foreign words, was also written *k*, has in English been distributed among *k* and *c* (before obscure vowels and in the compounds *cl*, *cr*) and *qu*, mostly instead of the Anglosaxon *cv*; whereas the Anglosaxon *c* before *i*, *y*, *e*, *æ*, *ea*, *eo*, for which in Anglosaxon *ch* gradually came in, became the English dental *ch*. The pure guttural, was preserved however before clear vowels as an initial *k*, chiefly in those words, in
which the vowels appeared to be modifications of obscure vowels, or where ki, ke rest upon the Anglosaxon cēi, cēve.

k for the Anglosaxon initial c: kin, kindred (cynn, Gothic kuni, and Anglosaxon cynd), kind (cynd = congruus), king (cyning, Old-Highdutch kunung), kine (Nominative plural cŷ, Genitive cûna), kindle (Old-norse kinda = ignem alere), kill, alongside of quell (cveljan and cvellan), Old-English also kull, kiln (cyiene), kirtle (cyrtel), kite (cîta, cyta = milvus), kitchen (cycene, Old-Highdutch kuchina), kid (Old-norse kid, hoedus), kiss (cyssan, substantive cess), key (cæge), keen (cên, çène, Old-Highdutch kuon, köni), keel (ceol or ceol, Old-Highdutch kiol), keep alongside of cheapen = to bargain, Old-English chepen = to buy (cēpan, cypan = vendere; tenere), Kent (Cent-land along with Cantvare), Kennet (Cynet) in Wiltshire, kernel (cyrtel), kettle (cetil, cytel, Gothic katils); formerly also kittle along with tickle (citoljan, tiuclan, toltettan = titillare). Old-English, like the Scotch, has forms like kirk (cyrice), now church, kembrken (cemban, substantive camb, comb) now comb, kenne = to teach (cunnan, Present cann = scire, Gothic kannjan = wronicēu), kërse (cerse, crësse, Danish karse). Old-English also often puts k instead of c before obscure vowels, as kān (can), kacchen (catch), kutten (cut), and with r at the beginning of a word, as krape (to crack), kresē (crest), krevelle (cruel), with l, as klevys (cliffs) and others. In the combination kn, where k is silent, although in Old-English it still sounded as a guttural (see above page 70), it has stood since the remotest time, as in knight (cniht, cneoht), knife (cniif), knell (cnyll, Middle-Highdutch knillen, Modern-Highdutch knallen), know (knāvan) &c.

In the middle and at the end of a word k is frequent as the representative of the Anglosaxon c, after a short vowel and in the middle of a word, doubled as ck, although at the end of a word it not seldom gives place to the dental ch, especially where it originally stood before clear vowels: twinkle (tvinecljan), wrinkle (vrinidle), fickle (ficel), knuckle (cnucul); — sink (sincan), think (pencan, pencan), rank (ranc = foeecundus), fool (fōlo), hulk (hulce), ark (arc, earc = navis), dark (dearc, deorc), clerk (cleric, clerc), tusk (tusce); — like (lico), rake (race), sake (sacu, sāce), snake (snaca); — greek (grēc, græc), speak (spæcan, spēcan), hawk (hafuo), bullock (bulluca), hook (hoc); — thick (picce), neck (lnea), knock (knocjan), lock (lok), suck (sûcan, sûgan). Upon the dental initial and final ch, and its partial interchange with k, see under ch.

In words originally Romance an initial English k is found before clear vowels, with a regard to the originally obscure vowel, sometimes, where Old-French presents c and k along with ch: kerchief (couvrechief), kennel (chenil, Latin canile, compare chien, kien). At the beginning of a word it sometimes replaces, before vowels, but especially at the end of a word, a guttural c or k and qu: remarkable (remarquer, Old-French marker), turkosis and turquise (turquoise), locket (loquet, from the Anglosaxon loc = repagulum), wicket (wiken, guischet, from the Anglosaxon vic), cricket (criquet), lackey (laquais, formerly also laquet), — flanc (flanc), plank (planche, planke, Latin planca), de-, embark (pri-
marily French dé-, embarquer, yet also English bark, barge, Old-norse barki, barkr, cask (casque); — creak and creek (criquer, compare Anglosaxon cearejan = stridere), creek and crick, a bight (crique), con-, revoke (con-, revoquer), duke (duc); — relick, Old-English reliche (relique), trick (tricher, trichier), compare substantive trekerie, trequerie, (see Mätzner, Altfranzösische Lieder s. v.), attack (attaquer), truck (troquer), mock (moquer, Cymric mociaw).

It must be understood that various foreign words in k have been admitted in which it has remained even before obscure vowels and r, although else it passes over into c: kaleidoscope, kali, kangaroo, kufic, kumiss, kral, kraken &c. But in many words k interchanges with c before obscure vowels, as in calendar and kalendar, caliph and kaliph, alcali and alkali, alcahest and alkahest, and so at the end of a word: almanac and almanack &c. In Germanic words this is rare, as in caw and kaw (compare the Old-Scotch kae = jackdaw, Anglosaxon ceo?), ankle and ancle (ancleov).

k stands sometimes as the substitute for other gutturals, as for h in elk (Anglosaxon eolh), and in Cymric words, for ch in Brecknock (Cymric Brecheniauc = regio Brachani), wherewith we may compare the name of the Highdutch wine backagr (from Bacharach); g has become k in basket (Cymric bagged, baggewd, even by the Romans apprehended as bascauda); rank, answers to the Cymric rheng, rhenge, yet both tongues perhaps refer to the Old-French rence, itself answering to the Anglosaxon hring, hrince.

An interchange of g and k takes place moreover in Germanic words, thus knar, knarl stands alongside of gnar and gnarl (compare the Anglosaxon gnyrran = stridere, gnornjan = moerere), as well as the Lowdutch knarren and gnavren, gnadern; thus too knaw is cited along with gnaw (Anglosaxon nagan and guagan, Old-Saxon cnagan). Compare below c 1 and g 1.

Q (qu), which the English and Scotch borrowed from the Latin alphabet, arises out of the Anglosaxon cr, so far as k has not here come in before clear vowels (as the Anglosaxon cy developed itself out of cci and conversely, for instance, cve, cCEO, cCRI &c. answered to the Gothic qtí: quiver (compare Anglosaxon eviferlíc = anxiously) = to shiver, shudder, quick (evic), queen (evén), quæan = trumpet (cvène = meretrix, mulier), Old-English also qwyn, bequeath (beceuðan), quench (cvencan = extinguere), quæke (cvacjan). Thus also arise double forms, like quell (cvelljan, cvellian), in Old-English equal to kill; quern (cvœorn, cvyrn) and the obsolete kern = mola.

Other Germanic words in qu point to corresponding ones in High- and Lowdutch, as quack (Highdutch quaken), squeak (quicken) and many more.

The compound awkward is spelt by Skelton aqaurde (I. p. 331.), North-English awkert (Old-Highdutch abuh, Gothic ibuks). A series of Romance and, originally, chiefly Latin words has qu, corresponding to the qu appearing in Latin or only in Old-French, as to which it is to be remarked, that this also interchanged with cu in French: quit (quiter, cuïtier), quiet (Latin quietus, Old-French quot, coit, coï), vanquish (perhaps with reference to venquis,
Modern-French vainquis, compare Old-French vainquieres), quail (quaille, Medieval-Latin quaquila, Modern-French caillé); quarry = square (quarre, quarre), and quarry (Modern-French carrière), quash = to crush (quasser, casser = quassare), on the other hand = to annul (quasser, casser = cassum reddere, cassare), quarrel, Old-English querele (querele), conquest (conquest, conquiste), square (compare Modern-French équère, a mason's square), pique (pique, verb piquer) and so forth. Many have been borrowed immediately from the Latin, as quadrat, quodlibet &c.

**cu** and **co** lie originally at the root of other verbal forms received from the French, for which the Romance language, along with **cu**, **co**, often gave **qu**, especially with an **i** after it; as **cu**, **co** is also in Latin developed into **qui**; compare incola and inquinlus, stercus and sterquilinium: quiver (cuivre, cuevre, couire, compare the Anglosaxon cocar); esquire, squire, Old-English squier, squiere (escuier, esquier = scutarius), squirrel (escurel, esqerel = scirculus), quaint (cointe = Latin comptus, comtus), compare the Old-English coynteliche, coyntise, queintise; accruent (acointer = Medieval-Latin adcognitare), quire alongside of choir, Old-English queer (Maundev.) (choeur), quoiqf alongside of coif (coife, quoife, Medieval-Latin cofea, cuphia). The Old-English had quishin, qwyssyn instead of cushion (cous- in, Medieval-Latin cussinus), surquidrie, surquedrie (compare sorcuidance from cuidcr, Latin cogitare) and many more.

The Anglosaxon **cu** also became **qui** in quid, chewed tobacco, alongside of **cu**, the chewed food in the first stomach of reemnants (Anglosaxon cud from ceóvan, English chew), the former whereof is dialectically still used for **cud**.

**c** is occasionally found alongside of **qu** before an obscure vowel: liquorice and licorice (Latin liquiritia), as in the Old-English licour, Modern-English liquor; before a clear vowel sometimes **k** alongside of **qu**: fakir and faquir, with the pronunciation of **k**.

**C** is partly guttural, partly dental, the former in Anglosaxon and Romance, of course also in Latin; the latter chiefly in Romance and Latin words.

1) The **guttural c** rests upon an Anglosaxon **c** before obscure vowels, as well as in the compounds **cl** and **cr**, being in words of this descent chiefly limited to the beginning, in as much as **k**, **q** and the dental **ch** have taken its place. It also naturally answers to the Old-norse **k**: can (canne = crater), call (cealljan, Old-norse kalla), cast (Old-norse kasta = jacere), coll (colt), cup (cupp), curse (substantive curs, verb cursjan); = cliff (cliff), clip (clyppan = amplecti), cluster (clyster, cluster = racemus), clew (clive = glomus), cluck (cloccjan = glocre); — crib (cribb), cringle (Old-norse kringle = orbis), cravve (crav- jan), crop &c., (substantive cropp in the same meaning, Old- norse verb kroppa = Carpenter); scrape (scrapan, Lowdutch schrap- pen), scrap = fragment, crum (Old-norse skrap = nuga).

The Romance and Latin guttural **c** is found rendered at the beginning and in the middle of a word (here also reduplicated as **cc**, whereas the reduplication is elsewhere denoted by **ck**) and at the end of a word by **c**: cabbage (French cabus, Old-High-
dutch capuz, Medieval-Latin gabusia, from the Latin caput),
cadet (French the same, like capitettum for capitellum), cause (cause), coach (coche, Italian cocchio), coffer (cofe, cofre, Medieval-Latin cofrus, from cophinus), whence also the English coffin, coil (coillir, cueillir), count (conter, cunter = computare), to reckon; cumber, encumber (combrer, encombrer, encumbrer); — claim (clamer, claimer), cloy to nail up, to cram (cloer?), cribble (crible), crem (cremes, Medieval-Latin crema), crest (creste, Latin crista), cry (crier); in the **Middle of a word** and doubled: bacon (bacon from the Anglosaxon bać), circumstance, circuit, viscous (visqueux), section, action, circle, secle (secle, siecle), accord, succor (succurre, soucourre), bacca, accuse, succulent &c.; at the **end of a word** with other consonants and alone, especially in the termination ic (Latin icus, ica. icum); sect (secte), act, perfect; — music, republic, politic, catholic, critic, bac (bac, Hollandish bak), maniac, where formerly ck was the favourite spelling, or ique came in; similarly relic alongside of relique (French relique) and the like.

**c** frequently stands in Romance words, where Modern-French presents a dental ch. Here regard must be had not so much to the primitive Latin c as to the dialectical and older French c and ch: Caitiff (caitif, chaitif, Modern-French chétif), carnal (carnel, charnel), on the other hand charnelhouse (Old-French charnel), carrion (caroigne, carogne, charogne, Modern-French charogne), Old-English caroyne, careyne, caraine; carry (carier, charier), carpenter (carpentier, charpentier), castle (castel, chastel), cauld (caudel, chaudel, Modern-French chaudeaux), caldron (Modern-French chaudron, Italian calderone), causey deformed into causeway (cauchie, chaussee, chalkway) and others, although in most cases the English has chosen the dental ch, as in challenge (calengier, challenger, chalongier, from calumniare), champion (campion, champion) &c. (see under ch), or has passed over into sh (see sh).

Occasionally, even in English, the guttural **c** interchanges with the dental ch: calice (TAYLOR) and chalice (calice, compare the Anglosaxon calic) and some others.

For other gutturals **c** seldom appears; it answers to the Anglosaxon **g** in Wicliffe (Viglaf, Old-Saxon Wiglēf), to the Celtic **g** in claymore (glaymōr), to the Latin **g** in the Old-English vacabonde instead of vagabond (still in use in the sixteenth century), and Reculver (Latin Regulbium), as conversely gamboe (from Cambogia) is interchanged with camboge. The name of a nation, Picts, sounds in Anglosaxon Pehtas, Peothas, as the Anglosaxon **h** often answers to the Latin **c**, for instance in Viht, English Wight, Latin Vectis. Compare **k**.

2) the **dental c**, equivalent in sound to the sharp **s**, therefore frequently interchanging with it, is most frequently met with in Romance and Latin, but also in originally Anglosaxon words, representing in the former the dental **c-** and **s**-sound, in the latter
only the s-sound before clear vowels. Its phonetic transmutation into the hissing sound has been spoken of before (see p. 62).

At the beginning and in the middle, as well as at the end of a word before a mute e, it is very usual instead of the Romance and Latin c before a clear vowel: cinder (cendre, Latin ciner-em), cierge (cierge from cire), city (cite, cite), cider (cidre, deformed from the Latin sicera), cedar (cedre, Latin cedrus); — council (concile, Latin concilium), solicitude; — entice (enticer, enticher = exciter), spice (espice, espise), edifice, face, trace (tracer, trasser, tracher), distance &c.

In Cedron the Latin Cedron (Greek Κήδρον) lies at the root. The Modern-English c is frequently employed, particularly at the end of a word, in the place of the Old-French s, ss, for which the Old-French often puts c (since it frequently proceeded from ç) and alongside of which it sometimes has a final z and x, the latter of which has often remained in Modern-French. Old-English still often has c, even at the beginning of a word, which has become almost foreign to Modern-English. Compare the Old-English celines (saison, seson), Modern-English season (Maunde), ceise, cese (saisir, seaisir), Modern-English seize (Chaucer), Cecylle, Modern-English Sicily (Towneley, Myst.) and others. In Modern-English centinel is still here and there found for sentinel, cerf alongside of serf and others (see under sc); in the middle of a word: fancy (fantasie), faucet, a tap (fausset), enhance (from hausser, yet in Old-French commonly enhancier); at the end of a word, where Old-English most frequently preserves s: device (substantive devis, devise), advice (avis), offence (offense), defence (defense), trance (trans from transir), dance (danser, dancer, Old-Highdutch dansön), scarce (eschar, escars), pace (pas, pais), cowardice (coardise), furnace (fournaise), palace (palais; paleis, pales); embrace (embrasser, embracer), pinnace (pinasse from pinus); peace (pais, paiz, paix), price (preis, preix, pris), voice (vois, voiz, voix), choice (chois, cois), deuce (doi, dois, dox, Modern-French deux), ace (as); in Old-English we find the forms crevis instead of crevice (Modern-French crevasse), dis instead of dice (Modern-French dés), surpris instead of surplice, forneis instead of furnace, pees instead of peace, chois instead of choice, vois instead of voice, like enhaunsen instead of enhance, pass instead of pace and others. Dissimilation comes in in Modern-English, in some forms, by applying the s or the z, to distinguish a verb from a substantive, as in devise (deviser) alongside of device, advise (adviser) alongside of advice, apprise alongside of price.

c is also so applied for the Anglosaxon s: addice (adese and adz, adze), fleece (fleés), mice (mys), lice (lys), ice, icy (is, isig); here belong also the adverbial forms in ce, at the root of which there lies an Old-English original genitive s, as twice, thrice, once, whence, hence, thence, since, Old-English twies, thries, ones, whennes, whens, hennes, hens, thennes, thens, sithens. In Skelton we find the forms ones, whens, hens,

syns. Even bodice = stays seems to stand for the plural bodies

A dental c seems to have occasionally taken the place of the Romance sibilant ch; yet here recourse might be had to the Latin forms, for instance in decipher (French déchirrer, yet Medieval-Latin ciffara, Arabic safar), cornice (French corniche, Italian cornice, from coronis, confounded with cornix?); so too in pumice (Latin pumicem) and pumice-stone, where the Anglosaxon has the Guttural: pumicstán. c certainly interchanges, even in English, with ch in cibol, ciboul and chibbal (French ciboule, Latin cepa, Italian cipolla).

The dental sc has attached itself to the Romance and Latin sc: science (French, the same), sceptre (the like), scion (French scion); — deliquesce, effloresce and so forth. Yet it has also taken the place of a single s, as in the originally Anglosaxon scythe (side), or ss, as in bassinet (French bassinet). This very sc also interchanges with the dental c: scymitar alongside of cimeter (French cimenterre, of Turkish origin), scissors alongside of cissors (ciseaux), as in Old-French sceller alongside of seeler and others.

In Scythia, Scythian the English does not attach itself to the Anglosaxon form Scyðia, Scyðja, but to the Latin. Ch is guttural with the sound of k, and dental as a sibilant. The aspirated ch was completely foreign to Anglosaxon before the eleventh century. Upon the later ch see 2.

1) The guttural ch takes the place;

of the oriental sound, at the beginning of a word, represented in Latin writing by ch: Chaldea, although this here and there passes into the dental sibilant, as in cherub, cherubim; in the middle and at the end of a word: Michael, Old-English Mighelmesse (Piers Ploughm. p. 260), Enoch;

the Greek χ, Latin ch: chimera, chaos, chlamys, Christ (although Anglosaxon Crist); anchoret, anchorite (anachoreta, although Anglosaxon ancor, anera), mechanic, technical; — distich, epoch, eenuch, conch (νυχη, concha), anarch; — also in the compound sch: scheme (σχέμα). Some few words have in common life assumed the dental pronunciation of ch (see above p. 62.). Words, which have passed through the French, have likewise sometimes retained the French dental pronunciation: machine and the like; as others (especially in the syllable arch) have reached it through the Anglosaxon c before a clear vowel: archbishop, (arcebiscop);

of the Italian ch, as in machiavelism;

of the Celtic ch: loch (in Scotland, lough upon Irish maps) pronounced in English with k (Cymric llwch, Irish louch), pibroch, pibraich (Gaelic piobaireachd).

The Germanic ch appears, although mute, in yacht (Hollandish yacht), otherwise in the compound soh (see 2.).

The rendering of an Anglosaxon c by a guttural ch is rare, as in ache, also pelt ake (Old-English verb aken, preterite oke, Anglosaxon verb acan, substantive ec, ace, äce), which according

II. The Elements of the Word. — Origin of the Consonants. — Throat-sounds.

1. The Elements

The word "elements" was pronounced in Shakspeare's time like aitch (with a dental ch). See 2.

On the other hand a Latin and Romance guttural c is sometimes rendered by ch; ch is certainly sometimes found in some words in Latin, alongside of c, and has also passed over into Old-French: sepulchre (sepulcre, sepulchre, Latin sepulerum, -chrum), anchor (ancre, Latin ancora, anchora, Anglosaxon ancor, ancor), chamlet, camlet, camelot (camelot, Medieval-Latin camelotum, camallotum). Also stands alongside of lilach, lilac (Italian lilac, French lilas).

A guttural ch stands alongside of g in chambrell or gam-brell (the hindfoot of a horse) which belongs to the French gambe, jambe and to the root cam, crooked (Zeuss Gr. Celt. I, 75). Thus the Old-English lets in g for ch: Nabugodonosor, Modern-English Nebuchodonosor.

2) The dental ch is in Modern-English a sibilant with a t prefixed, which therefore, if combined with ch, indicates the reduplication of the t, whereas the French sound of ch appears only in words which have been naturalized from France in recent times. The former is however found both in those borrowed from the Old-French and in those in which ch has been developed out of an Anglosaxon c, on which account we might presume that the Old-French ch, as well as the c before clear vowels represented tsch, and gave rise to its intrusion into English. Yet the development upon English soil of the ch commencing with the dental t, as well as that of g (and j) commencing with the dental d, is the more natural assumption, and that warranted by other tongues, in which, however, the influence of the French sound of the ch, g and j upon the Anglosaxon pronunciation seems to be without doubt, in as much as the Old-French ch, g and j had made the transition from gutturals to dentals decidedly earlier, and at the most met the English halfway.

The dental ch (tsch) has essentially taken the place of the Anglosaxon c at the beginning and in the middle of words before clear vowels, at the end of words, where it originally stood before clear vowels, but also else where. How far it has yielded to the k, was observed above. The Anglosaxon offers, even in the eleventh century, ch instead of c, as chidan, chêce at the beginning, muchel, cuchene (cycene), bisechchan in the middle and ich (ic), switch (svyle) at the end of a word. See Ettmüller, Lex Anglos. p. XXVII. The Old-English soon received these forms and appropriated the reduplication cch after a short vowel: chideu, cheke, muchel, biséchen, ich, swich and with cch: bicche (Anglosaxon bicce = bitch), feechen (Anglosaxon feccan = fetch), lacchen (Anglosaxon laccan = to catch). Yet k (c) still stand in the beginning and at the end of a word: biseken, lakket, ic, swylke, a fluctuation, which even now partly takes place in the final ch and k.

ch for an Anglosaxon c at the beginning of a word: chide (cidan), child (cild or cild), cheek (cêce), cheese (cêse), chafer (ceafor), shaff (ceaf), choose (cêosan), chew (ceovan),
church (cyrice see above); in the middle seldom, the sound in the middle of the Anglosaxon word having mostly become the final sound in English: kitchen (cycene); at the end of a word it has often come in, where c originally stood before a clear vowel: bitch, (biece), pilch (pylce), church (cyrice): Yet k is also put before a clear vowel in the middle and at the end of Anglosaxon words: chicken (cicen), flicker (flyccejan), cheek (cêce, according to Grimm however cœc). Verbs in jan, ēan and an with or without a consonant preceding the Anglosaxon c frequently transmute c into ch: teach (tæcan), Old-English techen; reach (racan, racêan and recjan, recêan, reccan), Old-English rechen; stretch (streccan). Old-English strechen; thatch (peecan), Old-English thecehen; catch (compare the Old-norse kâka = leviter attractare), Old-English cæchen; clutch, Old-English clucchen, drench (drencêan, drencan), Old-English drenchen = drown; stench (stencan = odorare), belch (bealecjan), Old-English on the other hand belken, as still in the North of England. Alongside of these stand forms like rake (racjan, racigêan), speak (sprêcan, spêcan), sink (sîncan), stink (stînkan), drink (drîncan), think (pêncêan, pencan) and so forth, which Old-English likewise commonly gives with k. In Modern-English seek (sêcêan, sêcan) and beseech (besêcan), Old-English seeken and sechen, biseKen and besechen, stand strikingly alongside of each other; beseeK still in Spenser and Shakspeare. In other classes of words, in which the Anglosaxon made the word end in c, ch has likewise frequently taken its place: rich (ric), Norwich (Norðvic), speech (spæc), finch (fînc), bench (bênc); instead of e after a short vowel and ce stands tch: pitch (pic), crutch (cerycc); on the other hand pock (poe, poc), flock (flöce) &c. Old-English and Modern-English here too often disagree; for instance thank, Modern-English thatch (pâc), Old-English ilk, Modern-English each, but the Old-English also eche. k and ch become occasionally distinctive marks of the parts of speech, as in bleak (blâc, blaecc), and bleach (blæcean, bleccan) and some of the above quoted words; but they often run without distinction parallel to each other; as in those compounded of the Anglosaxon vic = portus vic = vicus which in Modern-English sound wie, wick and wich.

In some double forms the French influence mingles with the Anglosaxon: marches, confines, Anglosaxon mearc = limes and signum, to which belong the English mark, Old-English merk = token. Old-French marche, marce = limit; marques and mar- chioness (Old-French markis, marchis, Medieval-Latin marchio); break and breach both belong to the Anglosaxon brâc = fractio, but the latter is to be referred primarily to the French brêche.

In roach ch is put for hh (Anglosaxon reohha, Latin raja).

A dental ch (tsch) also frequently arises out of the Old-French ch, which likewise had mostly developed itself out of the guttural c, k, although where in Old-French c and ch interchanged with each other in Old-French, in English a guttural c is preserved.
At the beginning of a word, rarely before clear vowels, mostly before a primitive (Latin) a, as in the French: chimney, (chimenee, cerminée), chieve and cheve (provincial) and achieve (chevir and achever, achieveer from chef = caput), chisel (ciseeler, ciseau, Old-French also chisel), change (changier, canger), charm (charmer), challenge (chalengier, calengier), chamber (chambres, cambre), chattel (chatel, catel, whence the English cattle, Latin capitale), chase (chasser); in choice (choix) the French form mingles with the Germanic choose. In the middle and at the end before obscure and clear vowels, as in French, where ch in the middle, which in English often becomes the final sound, arose out of c, x, tc, dc, ct, pj and so forth: archer (archier, archer), truncheon (tronçon, tronchon), merchant (marchant, marchant), bachelor (bachelor, baceler), preacher, preach (precheres, precher, Anglosaxon predicere, predicjan); blancher, blanc (blancheor, blanchir, compare Anglosaxon blanca = equus albus and blæcean, blæcan = albare, English bleach), launch (lancer, lanchier), punch (pance, panche), March (Mars, March), march (marcher), porch (porche, Anglosaxon portic), broach (broche, broce, to the Latin brochus, brochus), vouch (vochier, vocher from vois, voix).

Ch interchanges in Old-French also with ss, and is also rendered by an English sh (see p. 143.); we likewise find tch after a short vowel substituted for the latter: escutcheon, scutcheon (esquisson), sketch (esquisse), caroche (carosse, Medieval-Latin carruccio, carrochium).

The words brought over with the French sound of the ch are few in number, as chaise, champagn (Old-French champaigne), chevisance (from the Old-French chevir, compare the Modern-French chevance), chappery, champertor (champart, champarteur) &c.; but it is striking that even older words preserve the French sound or might again adopt it.

By the substitution of sh for ss (s) and ch, as well as ch, in English, with which on its side an English ch often clashes, it is explicable that the two latter sometimes interchange with one another in English, as in shingle and chingle (Old-High-dutch scindala); the older forms deboish, deboish have yielded to debauch.

Sometimes forms in c and ch are met together. They come from French words, in which a dental c interchanged with ch; hence chive and cive (chive, cive, from the Latin caepa), Old-English chibolle (Modern-French ciboule, compare the Low-dutch zippoll). Words in which an English ch corresponds to the French c, suppose a collateral form in ch: pinch (pincer), punch (compare poingonner, Italian punzar, punchar, and the Anglosaxon pungan = pungere). Cherry points not so much to the French cerise, as to the Anglosaxon cirse, cyurse; also chirp (Highdutch azpen) points to the Anglosaxon c, (compare the Old-English chirk, Anglosaxon sarjjan = stridere); larch, a kind of pine, from the Latin larix, reminds us of the Italian larica, French larche? On the other hand etch quite corresponds to
the Modern-Highdutch aetzen, as eratch, scratch, Old-English cracchen, does to the Old-Highdutch krazjan. Similar is the representation of the Anglosaxon ð by tch in the unusual swath, alongside of swath (Anglosaxon svadu).

ch has also likewise sometimes developed itself out of a guttural g; orchard (Anglosaxon ortgard, Old-norse jurtagarðr) is an instance. The case is indeed more frequent in Old-English that a dental g was changed into ch: grucchen (Modern-English grudge (French gruger). So too conversely ch and g sometimes interchange in Modern-English: ostrich and estridge (autruche), spinnae, spinach and spinage (Italian spinacea), with which we may compare the obsolete bodge alongside of botch.

G is partly guttural, partly dental; upon its dental pronunciation compare c above.

1) The guttural g arises chiefly from the Anglosaxon ġ, although this in a limited measure passes over into y, in the middle of a word after vowels often becomes softened into i (compare sail, Anglosaxon sègel, sègl) or into w (compare own, Anglosaxon āgen), at the end likewise often becomes y and w (compare key, Anglosaxon cæg; bow, Anglosaxon bøegan). It is therefore most frequently preserved at the beginning of a word: gird (gýrdan), gild (gildan), get (gétan), gallow (galga), good (gód), gut, guts (gut); glide (glidan), gret (grétan); also before n although here explicit in pronunciation at the beginning of a word: gnaw (gnagan), gnat (Modern-Highdutch gnitze), gnar, gnarl (from the Anglosaxon gnyrran = stridere, Lowdutch gnarren). In the middle of a word it has seldom remained without reduplication: wagon and waggon alongside of wain (vägen, vägn, væn), dagger (Old-norse daggardr, Swedish and Danish daggert), swagger (from the Anglosaxon svégian = prævalere); frequent after n: finger (finger), angler (from the Anglosaxon ange, compare the obsolete angerness, Anglosaxon angniss), monger (mangere), hunger (hungur), bransle and wrangle (compare the Lowdutch brangen and wrangen = to seuffle).

At the end of English words it is not rare after clear and obscure vowels, as after n: pig (Highdutch dialectically bigge, betse?), big (?), whig alongside of whey (hvæg = serum lactis), wrig, now commonly wriggle (Lowdutch wricken, wriggeln, wrickeln, compare the Anglosaxon crigian = tendere, vrixljan = alternare, reciprocare), twig (tvig), leg (Old-norse leggr = crus), peg (?), beg (from the Gothic bidäga = a beggar?), shag, whence shaggy (Anglosaxon sceaga = caesaries, Old-norse skegg), stag (Old-norse steggr = mas plurium ferarum), hag (Anglosaxon hagtyss, híges, Old-norse hagr = sapiens), crag = neck (from the Highdutch kragen, Swedish krage), dog (Old-norse doggr), fog (Danish fog = a shower of snow, yet Old-English fock), frog (Anglosaxon frogga, frocca), drug (to the Anglosaxon dryge, from drugjan =arescere, belongs the French drogue); ing (inge = pratum), sing (singan), sving (svingan), bang (Old-norse banga = pulsare), fang (fangan), throng
(prang, prong); with double g: egg (āg) and to egg instead of edge. After vowels a double g (cg) has often become dental (see 2), after n in the verb singe (sengan = ustulare) and cringe (crigan, crincan). Old-English preserved a few more forms in g, as big = build (bycgan = aedificare).

The Old-French guttural g also, mostly before obscure vowels and consonants, usually remains guttural in English: garnish (garnir, guarner), gallop (galoper), so too in gittern alongside of guitar (guitare), gie alongside of guide (Old-French guier, guider), orgillous (which reminds us primarily of the Old-French orguillous, but belongs to the Anglosaxon orgel, orgel = superbia), linget (French lingot). In the middle of a word it often appears before clear vowels, in the metathesis gre: eager (aigre), tiger (tigre, Latin tigris), conger (congre, Latin conger, congrus).

Occasionally too, a dental French g has become guttural: gizzard (gésier, Latin gigeria), gibbous (gibbeux, Latin gibbosus).

The g brought over from the Latin and the Greek remains regularly guttural, where it originally stood before consonants and before obscure vowels; yet even here exceptions are found before clear vowels. See the pronunciation.

Finally, a guttural g has also arisen from a primitive guttural c (k); even in Anglosaxon such forms as frocca, frocca, frogga and frox = frosc (frog, in Old-English also frosh) stand alongside of each other. In English fig corresponds to the Anglosaxon fic (whether under the influence of the Old-French fige = figue?), sprig substantive and verb, Anglosaxon sprecc and spreccan = fructicare, but the Old-English sprek = ramentum; dig belongs to the Anglosaxon dic = agger; the Old-English has diken, dychen and dyggen (Maundev.) alongside of each other. Thus too at the beginning of a word in the sixteenth century gaggle stands for cackle (see Halliw. s. v.), compare the Highdutch gakeln and kakeln. Sometimes likewise in French words: flagon (flacon), sugar (sucre, Spanish and Portuguese azucar), shog and shock (Old-French choque, Modern-French choc); periwig corrupted from perruque. Spenser uses aeglogue for eclogue, and in common life docket or doquet is confounded with dogget.

Instead of the simple g there often stands, according to French precedent, and mostly in words taken from that language, gu, in which u serves at the same time to harden the g before clear vowels, yet it is found also before obscure vowels. In Old-French guu served to represent the Germanic w (Gothic v), especially at the beginning of a word, seldom the Latin v, and interchanged with w and g; in Modern-French g remains before obscure vowels. Here Anglosaxon and Old-French forms often meet. That this u is sometimes condensed into w, even before clear vowels, concerns the doctrine of the pronunciation (see p. 65). It stands at the beginning of a word: guide (guider), guile, beguile also wile (the former belonging to the Old-French guile, guiler, guiller, also ghiller, giler, the latter to the Anglosaxon vile),
guise and wise (the former belonging to the Old-French guise, the latter to the Anglosaxon vise), whence disguise (desguiser), Guy (Guy, Old-Highdutch Wido, Wito = Veit), guard (guarder, warder), guarish (Sprenger) (guarir, warir, garir), Guelfs, Guelphs (Guelfes, compare the Anglosaxon huelp = catulus, Old-Highdutch Huelp = Welf), guerdon (guerredon, gerredon, werdon) whence also reward. In the middle of a word gu rests in part upon the Latin gu, as in languish (languir, Latin languere), distinguish (distinguer, Latin distinguere), langage (Old-French langage alongside of langue, lange, Latin lingua), Old-English langage. At the end of a word it is identical with the French g and u, as a sign of the hardening of the g: vague (vague adjective), fatigue &c.

gu for a simple g has also penetrated Germanic words: guld (gild), guilt (gylt), guess (Swedish gissa, Danish gisse, compare the Old-norse giska = conjecturare, guest (gást, gest, gist); at the end of a word in tongue.

The same is the case in some other words, where the French gave no support to it: plague (Latin plaeg, compare French plaie), prorogue (French proroger, Latin prorogare); rogue seems of Celtic origin. May it belong to the Celtic rogair = knave?

Old-English, like Old-French, often employed g instead of gu: gile, gyle still in Skelton, gise, gilteles, gesse &c.; language, tongue, also roge.

For a guttural c (k, q) gué stands at the end in the Romance disembogue (Spanish disembocar, compare the Old-French boche, bouce, bouque); it is equal to the Cymric ch in hog (Cymric hwch).

gh has principally a place in the middle and at the end of words, and has essentially taken the place of the Anglosaxon h, only this has sometimes been totally rejected in the middle and at the end of words, as it often was in Anglosaxon. But this h is in close contact with g and c; for in Anglosaxon g and e before t passed into h, and at the end of a word g after l and r, as well as after a long vowel or diphthong, was changed into h.

We therefore find the gh in older English often represented by ʒ, as in eiʒte, Wyʒt, myʒte, foʒte, brọʒte (Rob. of Gloucester), almigti, figter (in Wycliffe), mygt, sigt, nygt, digit (in Robin Hood) and so forth. The sound of this gh was originally that of the Highdutch ch, apart from the partial, originally perhaps dialectic pronunciation as f, which has become established in some words in Modern-English. It has been before shown that a final h (g) has been transmuted into w (ow). Moreover, formerly it was also entirely cast out, as in thaut nout, sout, j-brouut, mī thōut (Dame Striz p. 12.), bye (high), poru in Rob. of Gloucester and others. The Scottish, which, in ancient times, wrote and pronounced thoch, rycht, nycht, nocht, wrocht, might speaks for the sound ch. We are not here regarding the initial gh. At present gh is almost always mute.
gh in the middle of a word is hardly ever met with but in inflective forms and derivatives. The English roots present it as the final sound, or as final with a t after it, and that only after the vowels i (et), u (au, ou): nigh, nigher (neâh, neh), to which neighbour (neâhbûr, neâbur), high (heâh, heà), thigh (peôh), though (peâh), thorough, thorough (purh, puruh), dough (dâg, dâh); here perhaps also belongs bough, Old-English bow (from the Anglosaxon beôgan?). It enters for the Anglosaxon g in the rare stigh, compare the dialectic stîgrîope (stîgan, stîgerâp), weigh (vîgan), neigh (haeegan), plough (Old-norse plôgr), Hugh (Old-Highdutch Hugo), where collateral forms like sty, weyen, plow occur in Old-English. It frequently stands before t: might (meaht, miht), night (neah, niht), light (lihtan = levary), right (riht, réht), plight (plîht, verb plîhtan); Wight (Viht), weight (viht), eight (eala), caught (Old-English also caste), taught (tæhte, teht), bought (bohte, boht) &c., freight (Old-Highdutch vraht), Leighton and Layton (Lîghtûn). After r, gh still stands in burgh (buruh, buruh, burg) alongside of borough, where gh still sounds like g; in Old-English still oftener, for example in bergh = mount (beorg, beorh) and borgh, borough in the plural borwe, borwes (borga, a pledge, borg, borh) in Pier Ploûghman.

The Old-English still often has, alongside of the rejection of the gh forms with it, which are no longer in use in Modern-English; thus dro3, drogh, drough, drowghe, Modern-English drew (drôg), slough, slowghe, Modern-English slough (slôh), lâgh Modern-English law (lah) and others.

ght has also sometimes, in analogy to the representation of the primitive Anglosaxon gt, ct, been employed for the Latin ct, as the Anglosaxon ht also entered for the Latin ct; compare dihtan, Old-Highdutch tictôn, dihtôn, Latin dictare, formerly English dight; thus the Old-English has Benedight (Benedictus), Shakspere extrautagh for extracted. On this rests delight (Old-French deleiter, deliter and delecher) alongside of defectable, Old-English delit, delitable with reference to the Latin delectare. So too gh is represented by the Latin c: Liwghor (Leuarus), Brougham (Brocavum)

The Latin h is treated as an Anglosaxon one in inveigh (in vehi), compare invective. gh in spright alongside of sprite = spirit is without foundation. In straight, Old-English streit, which also partly coincides with strait, Medieval-Latin strictum = détroit, the French estroit, estreit, Latin strictus, seems to blend with the Anglosaxon streit from streecca, Old-English streight.

Where gh in rare cases at the end of words corresponds in pronunciation to the guttural k (ck), h likewise is at the basis: hough (hô, hôh), whence the verb hough = hamstring; shough = shaggy dog, also spelt shock, belongs to the Anglosaxon sceacca. The Irish lough, Scottish loch is of another kind.

The mutilation of Livorno, Latin Liburnum into Leghorn, where gh has the sound of the guttural g is striking.
gh in the middle and at the end of a word has sometimes become the labial f, especially at the end and before t; the etymology of the words belonging here is not always clear, although their gh mostly points to h (g, c) and conversely to an f, transmuted into gh. The transition of gh into the f-sound has numerous analogies in other tongues: compare K. Schwenck's Dictionary, 4th Edition p. XIV., Schoetensack's Grammar of the Modern-Highdutch tongue p. 26. In Old-English, as well as even now in English Dialects, it goes much further than in the general speech of the educated in modern times. Old-English doftyr = daughter (Ritson), cauffe = caught (Halliwell s. v.), thofe = though (ibid.) and thus in Old-English and still in Northern-English thruff, thurf = through, thoft — thought in Devon and else where. Instances in Modern-English are: enough, Old-English ynow (genôh, genôg), tough (toh), trough (trog, troh), rough (hreôh, hreôg, hreôv alongside of breâv, English raw), slough, the cast off skin of a snake and surf (from the Anglosaxon slahan, as slough, a filthy pool, with mute gh, Anglosaxon standard?), cough (compare the Old-Highdutch kik-hosta, kink-hoost and Lowdutch kik-up. With the transition of the Guttural into the Labial also agrees the affinity of sigh (with mute gh) to the Anglosaxon seôfjan alongside of sican, whence the Old-English and dialectic sike; and furlough with the Hollandish verlof; compare the Anglosaxon lufu = amor and leaf = permission.

Of peculiar nature is gh, which at the beginning of some words before clear and obscure vowels appears instead of a primitive g with its guttural sound, occasionally interchanging with gu and g. Thus gh is sometimes met with in Medieval-Latin, as, in Italian also, before clear vowels it represents the guttural g; Old-French writes alongside of g and gu also gh in gisse, ghiller, gheron, ghenchir. From the latter the initial gh seems to have penetrated into English. We find it in the words: Ghibelline, gherkin (Highdutch gurke from the Latin cucurbita), ghastful, aghast, in Shakespear ghast as a verb, ghost (gâst, gest = halitus, and gesan = percellere, whence the English agaze), also ghyll alongside of the usual gill (Old-norse gil), in Spenser ghesse for guess. The French (gueux) are rendered by Gheux (Phillips). The Old-English gheet is of the same
meaning as goats. Dialectically ghizzern stands for gizzard, ghern for garden; in the Isle of Wight ghenge means the depth of a furrow. In the North of England even the dental $g$ is hardened into $gh$: ghibe instead of gibe.

In oriental words this $gh$ is likewise sometimes found used; Afghan, Afghanistan, ghaut, ghee (from the Indian), ghoul (from the Arabic) and many more.

2) The dental $g$, pronounced with $d$ before it, and in its reduplication represented by $dg$, occurs in Germanic and Romance words, but in words originally Anglosaxon not at the beginning of a word, for in words like giant (Anglosaxon gigant) and gem (Anglosaxon gimm) the Anglosaxon and the French forms blend (Old-French gême, gemme, jamie and jaiant, géant).

The Anglosaxon $g$ has become dental after $n$ in singe and cringe (see p. 155.); in angel not so much the Anglosaxon engel as the Old-French angele along with angle, angle at the basis; in the older targe (Anglosaxon targe = clypeus), whence target with a guttural $g$ is derived, the Old-French targe, Medieval-Latin targia seems to have effected the dental pronunciation of the $g$.

On the other hand the dental $dg$ often enters instead of the reduplicated Anglosaxon $gg$ ($cg$): midge (myecg, micg, mygge), ridge (hrycg), bridge (brycg, bricg), edge ($ecg$), edge, verb alongside of egg ($ecgan$, eggjan), wedge (Old-norse veggr = cuneus and paries, Danish vægge = cuneus), sedge ($secg$ = gladiolus carex). The Old-English has here a double $g$: brigge, egggen &c. In other words the fundamental tongue only presents a single $g$: hedge (hege and hæg, compare Haag), fidget, otherwise also fidge (Danish fige = to hurry), Old-norse fika = festinare), fadge (fagjan = ornare, Old-Highdutch fagjan, fagön = satisfacere, expedire); many words are of unclear origin, asbadge (Medieval-Latin bagia), a sign, mark (whether from beögan, compare beáh, beág = corona, annulus?), badger (compare the Swedish bagge, a ram?), badger, huckster, seller (compare Italian biadajuolo, badger and cornchandler); cadge, to bear and cadger, huckster, belonging to cadge, a pole; dodge (according to Ettmüller from the Anglosaxon dydrjan = illudere) and others.

Wage belongs not to the Highdutch wagen, but to the Old-French gager, wager, substantive gage, wage, from the Gothic vadi, with which the Anglosaxon ved, veddjan, English wed agrees.

In Romance words the dental $g$ answers to the same sound; after a short vowel it is reduplicated as $dg$: gibbet (gibet, compare Diez R.-Wb. p. 175), gipon also juppon (jupon, gippon), gibe (in Champagne: giber = jouer), gin, also geneva (genievre), genet, gennet (genêt, Latin genista), gender (gendre) gaol and jail (gaiole gaole); — ginger (gingembre), burgess (burguis, bourgeois), sage (sauge, Latin salvia), Old-English save; rage, cage and others; judge (juge, juger), lodge (loge, loger) &c.
Latin words, and words which have passed through the Latin commonly retain the dental $g$, when it stood originally before clear vowels: gingival (from gingiva), genius, geminate (geminare), gynarchy, georgics (georgica), dialogize, dialogue, absterge (abstergere); yet divulge, for instance, agrees neither with the Latin divulgare, nor the French divulguer; purge (purgare) has perhaps followed the French purger.

Words like Roger (Anglo-Saxon Hrödgar, French Roger) are of course modelled after the French; here belongs also harbinger (from the Anglo-Saxon herebirigan, Old-French herbergier), wherein $r$ has been changed into $n$, and which occurs in the Old-English form herbarjour, harbegier.

A dental $g$ has occasionally been formed out of $s$ and a dental $c$, $ch$ in an unaccented syllable: cabbage (Medieval-Latin gabusia, French cabus), sausage (French saucisse = Latin salsicia), partridge (perdrix, Latin perdix, -eis, Old-English, parryk, partrich), cartridge (cartouche as it were Latin chartoceum), in Spenser: galage (galoche from the Latin gallica). In revenge however not the Modern-French revancher, but the Old-French vanger, vangier lies at the foundation. Compare the Old-French nage, Modern-French nache. Conversely the Old-English often puts $ch$ for $g$: gruechen (grudge, French gruger), partrich (partridge), beverache (beverage), as knowlecchen for knowledge, although more correctly (Old-norse kumleiki, notitia).

As in Old-French so also in English the likesounding $g$ and $j$ interchange with each other: jelly and jelly (gelée), gingle and jingle (compare the Old-French jangler, gangler), gipon and juppon and others. Thus also Giles, Gill, Gillian are derived from the Latin Julius, Julia, Julianus.

H, apart from its union with other phonetic signs, as $th$, $sh$, $ch$, $gh$, belongs principally to the beginning of words, where it is occasionally silent, as at the end; and where it is sounded, represents the so called aspirate, for which the language is indebted to the Anglo-Saxon $h$ before vowels, and to which the weaker Old-French $h$ was perhaps not equivalent.

It arises from the Anglo-Saxon and Romance $h$; an Anglo-Saxon $h$ before the consonants $n$, $l$, $r$, was lost: hill (hill), heel (hêl), harm (hearm), hate (hatjan); — hideous (hidos, -us, -eus), herse, port cullis and hearse, a carriage for the dead &c. (herse, Medieval-Latin hercia from the Latin hiprex), habergeon (haubergon, hauberon) from halbert, haubert also habert, Old-Highdutch halsbereg, haunt (hanter, Old-norse heimta), harness (harnas, harnois, verb harnacher), host = hostile army (ost, host), hostage (ostage, hostage from obses, Medieval-Latin obsidatus, ostagius as it were obsidaticus, um), hour (hore, houre, ore) and so on. Of course $h$ has remained as the initial sound in Latin and Greek words, even though they have not passed through the Romance tongues, as in hyacinth, hyads, hymn, hyphen, hysteric &c. and in other foreign words, as hospodar &c. In Greek words $rh$ is also found: rhetoric, rheumatism &c.

A final $h$ of a word or of a syllable is found partly in inter-
jections, where it may originally have served to sharpen the vowel, and will have approximated to the Anglosaxon final *h*, as in ah! hah! bah! and many more; it is moreover found in the middle and at the end of foreign words: Messiah, hallelujah! Allah &c.

For *wh* instead of the Anglosaxon *hw* see **Metathesis**.

Words with and without an initial *h* of Romance and of Greek-Latin descent are often found alongside of each other. The Old-French took the lead in this: *hostier* and *ostler* (compare hostel, ostel), *hippocras* and *ipocras*, *homer* and *omer* (a Hebrew measure), *herpetology* and *erpetology* and many more, as in Old-English *heir* and *eir*, *eyer*, and even in Anglosaxon words: *hys* and *ys* (his), often in Rob. of Gloucester.

Y serves essentially to represent the Anglosaxon *j*, (= Gothic *j*) and the *g* which in Anglosaxon frequently took the place of *j*, particularly at the beginning of words before the clear vowels *e*, *i*, as well as before obscure ones with the prefix of *e* (*ea*, *eo*, *ëo*); the genuine English *y* appears at present only at the beginning of a word.

*y* stands for *j* and for an improper *g* in: *yea* (*jà*, *ged*), *year* (*gear*, *gër*, Gothic *jër*), *ye* (*gé*, Gothic *jus*), *yes* (*gëse*, *gise*, *gyse*), *yet* (*gétt*, *yond*, *yon* (*jând*, *geond* = *ilu*, Gothic *jains* = *yon*), *yore* (*jâra*, *geâra*), *yoke* (*joc*, *juc*, *geóc*), *young* (*jung*, *geung*), *youth* (*jögud*, *géogud*), *yule* (*jûl*, *geol*); — *yest* and *yeast* (*gist*, compare the Old-Highdutch *jesan*, later *jëren*). In you, your (*ëov*, *ëover*), the *y* (*j*) existing in the nominative *gë*, Gothic *jus*, has remained (Halfsaxon *gûw*, *gure*, Lowdutch *jûch*, *jur*); in *yew* and *eugh*, it has been developed out of *i*, Medieval-Latin *juus* (Anglosaxon *ëov*, *ëv*, Old-Highdutch *îwa*, *îgo*). It corresponds to a High- and Lowdutch *j* in *yacht* (Hollandish *jacht*), *yager* (Highdutch *jager*), *younger*, *youngker*.

In Old-English even a *j* in the middle of a word has also produced a *y*. Namely, the infinitive termination *jan* and the termination of the first person of the present *je* passed over into the Old-English verb. The *j*, especially in the Infinitive of weak verbs and in the first person of the indicative of the second weak conjugation, became *g* or *igê* or a simple *ë*; for instance in *herjan* instead of *hërjan*, *lûfigên* instead of *lûfjan* and in the present, as seal-*fige* alongside of those of the first conjugation in *je*, as *herje*. Thence originate the Old-English terminations of the infinitive and of the present *yen*, *ye* alongside of *ien*, *ie*, the latter of which went through all persons of the present, as this *y* was transferred to the preterite, where the first weak conjugation shewed *ë*. The semiconsonant nature of this *y* (*i*) comes out pretty decidedly. So the verbal conjugation: *tilyen*, *tilien*; — *tilye*, *tilie* — *tilyeth*, *tilieth*; — *tilyede*, *tilyeden* — (*tiljan*, *teoljan*), *sweryen* — *swerye* &c. (*sverjan*). The Old-French forms of the infinitive *ier* likewise, others presenting no *i*, were similarly treated; hence *maryen*, *marien* (marier), *scapyen*, *savyen* &c., whereout the vowel termination *y* was soon developed, as in *governy*, *crouny*, *amenty*, which agree with *repenty*, *servy*, *conquery*, in which the vowel may seem to have been preserved from *ër*. Even Germanic forms in

\(y\) occur, as endy (endjan), wemmy (yemman) &c. Some of these terminations still continue in Modern-English.

From \(y\), which has not demonstrably taken the place of \(j\), or which sounds like \(y\) in High- and Lowdutch, an English \(y\) likewise sometimes proceeded: yield (gildan, geldan, Gothic fra-gildan), yell (gillan, gællan, Old-Highdutch gællan), yeit (gilte, Old-norse gitla = scrofa), yesterday (gistran, geosran, Gothic gistra-dagis), yard (geard = sepes, Gothic gards, garda) and yard (geard, gerd, gird, Old-Highdutch gartja, gerta), yarn (gearn = pensa, Old-Highdutch garn), yellow (gêlu, geolu, Old-Highdutch gêlo) but yolk and yeik (geolca, goelca), yearn (geornjan, Gothic gairnjan), yawn (gânjan = aperire, Old-Highdutch ginen, but compare the Lowdutch højânen), so too Yare, a river (Latin Garyenus). The Old-English had also \(y\) instead of \(j\), as in yeman (gêman, gîman = custodire), yeme (geám = cura), whence perhaps yeman s. above p. 106. foryeten, foryat, foryetten (forgetan), yeven, yaf, yeven, (gîfan), yift (gift), yat, yate = porta (gat, gat = porta), this still in North-English and Scottish; yarken (gagejan = parare) even now in Northern dialects; ayein, ayeiins (Anglosaxon preposition gâgn), Modern-English again, against.

\(y\) in Old-English also often took the place of a French \(j\), as in yoye, yooyfulle (joie), yoly (joli), yugement (jugement) and many more. The form yewys instead of Jews likewise does not perhaps rest upon the Anglosaxon Judæas. Even now moreover words with an initial \(y\) and \(j\), interchange, as in unclear forms jerk and yerk, Old-English yirk, (compare Dieffenbach Wb. II. p. 377.) and jade alongside of the dialectic yand, a bad horse, a strumpet.

Occasionally a French \(y\) has remained in the middle of a word: bayard, bayonet, as well as in other foreign words, for instance bayadere.

\(x\) was in Anglosaxon put in the middle and at the end of words for cs, sc, gs = sg and hs, never at the beginning. In Old-English it also sometimes penetrated the beginning of a word for sh (= sc), as in the Coventry Mysteries: xal, xalt, xuld, xad (shed) stand, and even in Skelton xall, xulde &c. This is also still the usage in English dialects.

At the beginning it is to be met with in Modern-English only in foreign words, mostly of Greek origin, as in Xiphias &c., xebec, Spanish jabeque, formerly with \(x\) instead of \(j\).

In the middle and at the end of a word it stands for the Anglosaxon \(x\) and, like this, often also for those combinations of gutturals with \(s\) in which it might enter in Anglosaxon, although even where the Anglosaxon let \(x\) enter alongside of \(sc\), sh is sometimes selected; compare fish (fisc, fix), wash (vascan, vaxan) as distinguished from wax, ashes (asce, axe), sometimes sh; compare ask (âsejan, âxjan), Old-English axen.

An instance in which, conversely, the Modern-English \(x\) answers to the older \(sc\), is perhaps mix (Anglosaxon miscan, but compare the Latin mixtum). Thus flexs stands in the older English instead of flesh (flæsc).

An ancient \(x\) has been preserved in mixen (mixen, myxen =
sterquilinium), vixen (fixen), the obsolete faxed (gefeaxôt, feelaxed, from feax, Old-norse fax, juba), Exmouth (Exan múdâ), Exeter (Exan cester); compare the Latin name of a river Isaca, Isca; six (six), next (néahlst, nêxt), flax (flexx), axe, Axe (acas, äx, eax), wax (veaxxan) and wax (veax, väx), ox (oxa, oughs), fox (fox).

It often arises in English from the contraction of k (c) and s, for instance in pox, Old-English pokkes (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 431), from the Anglosaxon pocce; coxcomb alongside of cockscomb, kex, Hemlock, alongside of kecksy; hence the propername Baxter for bakester, bakstere. The Old-English word buxom—obedient, gay, which has no equivalent in Anglosaxon, belongs to the Anglosaxon beógan, bûgan: compare the dialectic form bucksome—jolly, in the South of England.

The Romance, as well as the Latin and Greek x, unless the latter have been already changed by the Romance tongue, are commonly preserved: example (Old-French example), exist (exister, Latin existere), excellent, anxiety, luxury, fix (fixer, Latin fixus), tax &c. Occasionally x is resolved into cs, as in ecstatic, ecstatic, alongside of extasy, extatic and others.

In exchequer, in Old-English also cheker and eschekere, the Old-French eschakier, eschequier, eskieker, Medieval-Latin scacarium (belonging to schach) lies at the root. The form arises through the double rendering of the sc, sk. Thus excheve arose out of the Old-French eschiver, eskiver. See HALLIWEll s. v.

Changes of the primitive word through its contraction and amplification.

Among the changes which the surviving vocabulary of the English tongue has gradually undergone, the contraction and amplification of the word in its vocal volume, without loss or change of meaning, is to be observed. The unconscious tendency of cultivated nations to make their speech a more pliant and rapid expression of thought, is constantly doing detriment to the vocal material, while, on the other hand, the striving after convenience in pronunciation, the habituation of the organs of speech through analogous forms, and the clash of irreconcilable sounds, often caused by the very contraction of a word, are causes of an amplification of the vocal material. But the striving after shortness by far outweighs that after the amplification of the word, and the broadening of the language remains especially reserved to the uneducated, wherefore it belongs partly to popular dialects, which have often preserved the primitive plenitude of vocal material.

A) Contraction of the word.

The contraction does not commonly affect the kernel of the word, which presents itself at the syllable of the stem, and commonly also as the accented syllable, although here the two chief elements of the English tongue, the Anglosaxon and the French, so far diverge from each other that the French element has here
and there preserved its accent upon the full final syllable instead of the syllable of the stem. Contraction also principally begins with the casting out of an unaccented vowel, entailing therewith that of the consonant through its clash with another irreconcilable consonant. Yet even here and there a combination of consonants, in itself perhaps reconcilable, is repugnant to the popular habit. The following cases are in particular to be distinguished.

1) The falling off of vowels:

a) at the beginning of a word. The falling off of a vowel is here rare, yet even Anglosaxon is not wholly wanting in instances, as in bisco (episcopus), pistol (epistola), Old-English pistol, Modern-English epistle, and the like. English has often again cast off the French e unorganically prefixed to sp, sc, st, or even the justified e: spy (espie) alongside of the verb espy (espier), although of Germanic origin (Old-Highdutch spêhoun), space (espace), Spain (Espagne, Anglosaxon Ispania, yet the name of the people was even then sounded Spêne = Hispani), scourge (escourgee), stanch (estancher); standard is found in Anglosaxon as well as in Middle-Highdutch stanthart (estendard); stage (estage, estate) and others; standre (esclandre, Latin scandalum), Old-English esclandre. Thus in Old-English Scariot was spelt Iscariot (CHAUER). Modern-English has double forms with these sounds, as, especial and special, escutcheon and scutcheon, estate and state, to estrange and strange, stranger, esquire and squire &c. In the Anglosaxon ster-ling (Medieval-Latin esterlingus, sterlingus), also easterling, Old-English starling the vowel of the root-syllable is similarly cast off. The remarkable quinsi arose from squinancie (esquinancie mulitated from synanche). Before single consonants e sometimes, a frequently, is cast off: gypsy (from Egyptian), ticket (diffused even in the 17th century) may come from éti-quette, but should properly sound sticket (Old-French esticquette), mend (ameunder, amander, Latin amendare, the simple mendare is wanting), purtenance (Old-French apurtenance), bay (abaier, Modern-French aboyer, ad-baubari; here the pre-position is likewise lost); van, vanguard, vantage (avant, advantage from ab-ante), vail (avaler from a val, to lower), board (instead of abord, perhaps the French aborder), limbeck alongside of alembic (alambic, alembic). Frequently treated of by etymologists, pert is perhaps naught else but the Old-French apert = ouvert, public sans feinte. In Old-English it stands exactly in the Old-French sense: pertliche for pure pride, and for no point ellis, that is, openly (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 78); How pertly afore the peple Reson began to preche (ib.); And pertly it hentes (Morte Arthure) in HALLIWell s. v. perteliche. pert certainly also stands for the Latin subtilis = delicate, fine, for instance of a fine lady: He seygh never non so pert (ILLUSTRAT. OF FAIRY MYTHOLOGY p. 11). Compare however the Cymric pert = fine, spruce, and Gaelic peirtell = impudent. The older forms noy, noyance, noyous, noyful correspond to the Old-French anoi, anoiance, anois, which the
modern tongue has brought back instead of and partly along-
side of them: annoy, annoyance &c. Italian has the simple
forms: noia, noioso &c.

In Celtic names beginning with $p$, $a$ has often fallen off; here
belong: Prichard, Pritchard, Price, Penny, Powell, Pugh (also Pye according to Lower, Engl. Surnames p. 146),
which are properly compounds for Ap (ab, uab, mab = filius)
Richard, — Rhys, — Henry, — Howell, — Hugh. Thus
in proper names generally initial vowels, even obscure ones,
often fall off: Livy (Olivia) and the like.

Of Anglosaxon words: lone instead of alone (eal̂an, English
alone, not usual in Anglosaxon) belongs here.

b) In the middle of a word an unaccented syllable, or one which
in English has become unaccented, especially between consonants,
is thrown out. The Anglosaxon even, as well as the Old-French,
leaned to this rejection; compare Anglosaxon cetil, cetl; cle-
ric, cleric; sēgel, sēgl; fāðemjan, fāðmjan; munec,
munc; mōnād, mond; miluc, mile; sadul, sadl &c. En-
lish went by degrees much further in this: church (cyrie),
adz, adze alongside of addice (adese), mint (mynet), hemp
(hane), own, Old-English owen (ægen), bald, Old-English
balled, Buckingham (Buccingaham), Walsingham (Valsinga-
ham), Swanwich and Swanwick (Svanavic), Hachness near
Withby (Haconos), hawk (hafuc, hafoc), Berkshire (Bear-
rucseir), french (frecisc), scotch alongside of scottish, and
many more.

This happens no less in Romance words: chapter, (chapitre),
Old-English chapitre; captain (capitaine), able (habile),
gentle (gentil) alongside of genteel, Old-English gentile;
subtle alongside of subtile; copse alongside of coppice,
enmity (enemistie, Modern-French inimitié), chimney (chi-
menee, ceminee), dams el (damisele, but also dancele), Old-
English damysele, damycele, fortress (forteresse, but also even
fortrece), mus rol (muserolle), frantic alongside of phre-
etic, apartment (appartement), remnant (remanant), Old-English
remenant, John, Old-English Johan, comrade (camaraide),
carbine alongside of carabine, damson, formerly damasyn
and damasee (Damas, Damascene), doctress alongside of
doctress &c. Here belongs also sprite, spright alongside
of spirit, and chirp instead of cheer up.

The rejection of a vowel before a vowel is rare, save in the
blending of two words: trump (triomphe, triumphe); blendings
of this sort are the obsolete forms: don, doff, dup, dout
(= do on, -off, -up, -out), whence douter = extinguisher.

c) The final vowel is frequently lost, wherewith the loss of the
vowel inflectional terminations is especially connected: end (ende),
earth (eorde), emmet (emete), mil (milte), yes (gése),
Thames (Tâmesé), monger (mangere), neif, neaf (Old-norse
hnef, knef, Danish næve), fall (fealle), bid (bidde), creep
(crépe), blow (blâve) &c.; pith (piða), creed (créda), ass
(åsa), soon (sona, suna), son (sunu); so constantly in the old
substantive termination *ere: eater (êter), player (plêgere) &c.; Old-English *rydere, *ledere, *flaterere, *usurerë &c.; in Romance words this loss naturally chiefly affects the mute *e: origin (origine), sign (signe), pain (paine), plant (plante), branch (branche), group (groupe) &c. In envoy, the accented *e falls off (envoyé). This falling off of vowels especially appears after a short vowel of the accented syllable, or one shortened in English, as well as after long vowels and diphthongs, which become immediately recognizable as such in writing; compare blow, soon, pain.

2) The Omission of Consonants.

a) At the beginning of a word the single final consonant is seldom omitted. This happens to the nasal *n, which is else unorganically prefixed to an initial vowel, in adder (Anglosaxon *nâdre, nâdredre, Gothic *nadrs, Old-English nedder, with which we may compare the Lowdutch, Hollandish and Flemish adder = snake. The Anglosaxon *ættarn = venenous seems to have naught common with it. Apron, for which also apperon and formerly apern stood, corresponds in form to the Old-French naperon.

On the other hand a solitary final guttural has often been cast off. In a certain sense *g is to be reckoned here, although, where instead of *gi or *ge only *y or *i now appears, the softening of the *g, which first became *i, into a vowel blended of *i or *e (*yi = *i, *ge = *ie or *i) explains the casting off of the *g (*y). Here belongs the prefix *ge, which has disappeared in Modern-English; and which was rendered by *y and *i: yblent, ybrent (burnt), yfostered, yronnen, yqueint (quenched), ylike (Anglosaxon gelîc = similis) and so on. Spenser has still many of these forms; Shakspeare, yravished, yslaked, ycleped, yclad, Milton and others, ycleped, yclad, which an antiquated style still sometimes affects. Here belongs also the form of expression I wis, arising from a misunderstanding of the ancient form, but which properly has not the Anglosaxon preterite visse, but the Old-English ywis (Anglosaxon geviss) for its foundation. Occasionally *e has remained for *ge: enough (genôb), Old-English yenoughge, ynough, Halfsaxon inow and others. Instead of the Old-English zef, gif stands if (Anglosaxon gif), instead of Gypes wych in Rob. or Gloucester now Ipswich (Anglosaxon Gypsciv); itch belongs to the Anglosaxon giceness = prurigo; the older collateral form of yearn, desiderare, is earn (Anglosaxon geornjan). Compare the Old-English ere instead of year.

A single *h is often thrown off, even in Anglosaxon words: able, ability, Old-English hable, habillitée, ermine (hermine, Medieval-Latin hermellinus, -a), usher, Old-English huisher (Old-French huissier, hussier and ussier, ussier), ombre (Spanish hombre), allelujah alongside of hallelujah, to alloo, alongside of to halloo. In Old-English also ipocrîte, ipocrîse, Ipocras, oneste and the like. In it (Anglosaxon hit) the Anglosaxon *h has been lost; Old-English hit, hyt; for welk,
we find the Anglosaxon *hvlc* = marcidus, Old-Highdutch *wilhjan*, and *ving* is the Anglosaxon *hving* and *ving*. Even Anglosaxon often cast off the foreign *h*-sound, as in *ymen*, *ymn* alongside of hymn; Ercol (Hercules).

The Hebrew guttural *ch* has been cast off in Enoch (Hebrew Chanôch).

Initial letters in combination with other consonants are sometimes thrown off. Thus *ph* before *th* is occasionally suppressed in pronunciation, as also in writing: tisic alongside of phthisic, compare apothegm alongside of apophthegm; *v* before *l* in lisip (Anglosaxon *vlisp* = balbus), Danish lespe; and after *s* in sister (sveostor, svyster), Old-English suster, Lowdutch suster, but compare p. 168. *H* before *n*, *l* and *r* at the beginning of a word has been abandoned: neck (hnecca), nap (hnâppjan), nut (hnuta, hnut), listen (hlystan from hlosnjan), leap (hleap), ladle (hlâdle), lot (hlot), ring (hring), rime, hoarfrost, to which the French frimas belongs (hrîm), raven (hrâfen). The *k*, otherwise mute before *n*, (Anglosaxon *c*) has been lost in nap alongside of *knop*, in Northern-English nab (Old-norse knappr = globulus, compare the Anglosaxon *cnãp* = jugum), Old-English knappe. *S* before *n* has vanished in Nottinghamâm (Snotingahâm). Betwixt *s* and *l*, *c* is indeed partly tolerated, as in sclerotic, sclavonian; yet *c* is mostly thrust out, since only the combination *sl* was familiar to the Anglosaxon organ, (although even the form slawen for slagen = slain is cited), hence the hybrid form slice (Old-French eslicer, Substantive esclice, from the Old-Highdutch *slizan*, Anglosaxon *slitan*), slander (esclandre), sclaunderyng (SKELTON I. 324.), slave (esclave), as slavonic. The *r* omitted after *sp* in speak was frequently wanting even in Anglosaxon (sprîcan and spêcan). In proper names usual combinations of consonants have frequently vanished, as, for instance, in Fanny (= Frances), compare the French Ferry, for Frédéric.

b) In the middle of the word (and here we reckon all save the final consonant) consonants are frequently omitted before other consonants, rarely before a vowel, whether consonants stood originally beside each other, or, as is very often the case, clashed with consonants in a derivative syllable or in the composition of words.

Nasal letters have rarely been cast out, as *n* in eleven (Anglosaxon endilf, Dative endilium, endelen), Old-English en-leven, ellene; agnail (Anglosaxon angnägl), nailworm, Thursday (Anglosaxon punnes dag, yet Old-norse þórsdragr); yaward (SHAKESPEARE) instead of vanward, vanguard. In words originally French, like covenant, covent (Coventgarden) Old-French forms without *n* lie at the root; covet and covetous come from the Old-French coveiter, coveitous, although even Old-French sometimes inserts an unorganic *n*, like the Modern-French in convoiter (from the Latin cupidus).

Among liquid letters, *l* in Anglosaxon words before a primitive guttural is frequently omitted: each (alec), Old-English ilk,

eche. Dialectic elcone = each one (Cumberland), to be distinguished from the Old-English ilk = the same, Anglosaxon yle; which (hvýlic, hvýlc), Old-English whilke; such (svelic, svyle), Old-English swilke, swiche; thus too in Old-English there stand pike, pikke instead of pilke (Anglosaxon pyle); likewise before s in (ealsvá, alsvá), Old-English als. Where in Romance words a primitive l has been omitted, the Old-French has often thrown it out: safe and save (Old-French saîf, sauf, and salver, sauvier, sayen); Old-English also had salvation, heraud, assaunt, auter and the like, where Modern-English has again taken up the l, as in savable, salvation, altar &c. The Old-English Wat (Walter, compare French Gautier) is also to be compared (see Lower p. 127.), and Gib (Gilbert = Giselbert) and others. The r is seldom lost, for instance in: cockade alongside of which also cockard is found (see Halliwell s. v.) (Old-French cocart, quoquart, vain, Modern-French cocarde, from coq); and in mutilations of names; like Bab (Barbara), Bat (Bartholomew), Mat (Martha).

Among the Lipsounds p has been cast out in corpse alongside of corpse (yet even in Old-French cors), as in deceit, Old-English deceit. The b is lost in dummy, dumbmer, dumfound (Anglosaxon dumb, and already with lack of b in dummyss, in English on the other hand dummyness), and in ames-ace (Shakespeare) alongside of ambs-ace, Old-English ambes as. Compare the Old-French amedoi alongside of ambedoi. The f is lacking in woman (Anglosaxon vifmann, where the Anglosaxon replaced it by assimilation: vimmann, vemman), in hâd, hâdst (hăfde, hăfdest, hăfdon), where the Old-English had havede, havede &c. or assimilated f: hadde, haddest, hadden; head, behead (hefädjan, behefädjan), lady (hlæfdige = hlèveordige).

We cannot regard the Anglosaxon v as cast out in so, also (sva, ealsvá) and kill alongside of quell (cveljan), since here v becomes softened into the vowel u and coalesces with the following vowel, as in such (svyle), Old-English swa, kulf. The Romance v is cast out in kervie (couvre-chief), curfew (couvre-feu). Compare the Old-Englich kevere = to recover.

Toothsounds have frequently been thrown out; thus t before st: best (betst, properly betest), compare 3, b; and betwixt two s: Essex (Anglosaxon Estseaxon), Old-English Estsex; Wessex (Anglosaxon Vestseaxon), Old-English Westsex; betwixt a primitive h and th or t (where properly a vowel has been previously cast out): eighth, eighty, eighteen (compare Anglosaxon eahtöða, eahtatig, eahtatýne). t before r, followed by another consonant, is also suppressed: Pernel (Petronella); as well as before d in dandelion (Old-French dant = dent de lion). The dental d is cast out before sp in gospel (Anglosaxon godspell); before sw: answer (Anglosaxon andsvorjan, but also ansvarjan, onsvorjan); in Old-English also before tr in shel trom, sheltroun (Anglosaxon scildtruma = testudo) = host, troop of soldiers. th before labials after r in the word
north is often thrown out, whereas th after a vowel, like other den-
tals, readily assimilates with the consonant after it: Norfolk
(Norfolk), Old-English still Norfholc, like Sopfolc, Norway,
Old-English Norpwey and Norweye, Norwich (Norvíc), but also
still in names like Nortwich, Nortwick and Northwich,
Northwick; before m in Norman, alongside of Northman
(Anglosaxon Northmann and even Normann); but before h there
ensues the casting out of the initial h: Northampton (North-
hamtun), Northumberland (Northymbre, Northymbhure).
Th is also omitted before sh: worship (Anglosaxon veordscipe).
S is often omitted after another s in composition: transept,
dispirit; likewise after x, in which Latin and Old-French pre-
ceded: exile, exert, execute, exult, alongside of exsuda-
tion and many more. It has also been cast out before t in
Exeter, Old-English Excestre and Exetre (Anglosaxon Exan-
cester).

Throat sounds also have often been cast out. A guttural c
has been lost in drown (compare Anglosaxon druncenjan),
likewise one of the threefold c (k) in neckerchief (that is
neck-kernchief). The guttural g has been partly weakened into
a vowel, as the doctrine of vowels demonstrates, and cannot
therefore, in such a vocal resolution, be regarded as merely cast
out. The case also in which the g which has arisen through
the French transposition of an i or e is lost through a fresh
transposition in English, cannot be referred here, as in Gas-
cony = Gascony (Vasconia), Burgundy = Bourgogne (Bur-
gundia). G is however, perhaps to be regarded as cast out when
either a primitive g stood before another consonant in French,
or where a g, arising through the transposition of an i or e in
French, was preserved in Old-English. In many cases Old-
French certainly took the lead in the omitting of the g. Thus
g is to be regarded as cast out in disdain (desdaigner),
Spain (Espagne), Old-English Spainge; Britain (Bretagne),
Old-English Bretaigne; mountain (montaigne, but also moun-
taine), Old-English montaigne; company (compeignie, but
also campaignie), Old-English compaignye, compagne: joinant
(joignant), Old-English joignant; Cluny (Clugny); castanet
(castagnet), purloin (purligner); Modern-English retains the
g, although it is silent, in many forms, as reign, impregn,
sign, expugn and others. Forms with and without g also
sometimes stand alongside of each other: eloïn, eloïne and
eloigne (esloignier). In the Celtic word Craven, g is cast
out before ν, Cymric craigvan = district of rocks. In Anglo-
saxon words g (at all events before i) has been cast out after
a primitive s (c) in icicle (isicicel), as well as between n
and t in lent (lengten, also lencten). To too the Anglosaxon
h before t, else rendered by gh, has been cast out in trout
(truht, Latin tructa) and wet (which likewise answers to the
Anglosaxon veah as vae); not, alongside of nought, naut, Old-English noht, as in the compound after mb in: Lambeth
instead of Lambhithe, compare Greenhithe (from the An-

glosaxon hyd (portus), and after rw in: narwale alongside of narwhale (Anglosaxon nar = nas (nasu?) and hvál = balaena).

c) At the end of a word especially nasal sounds have been thrown off; m in fro (Anglosaxon fram, from); especially frequently n, for instance after m, although a final mn seem otherwise reconcilable (compare condemn, damn, automn, column), where n is now silent: stem (Anglosaxon stān, stein, stemm) and in the verb to stem (stemmn), compare the Anglosaxon væm alongside of væpon, emn alongside of efen, hremn alongside of hrāfen, where English has abandoned the contracted forms; after s: dress (drosn = faex); after l: ell (eln, aln, whence elbow, where even in Anglosaxon elboga also occurs alongside of elboga); more frequently after vowels: eve alongside of even (æfen), game (gamen), a = an (än), no = none (nån), Old-English non; ago (from the participle gān = gangen), go (Infinitive gān), do (dön), cleave (cleófan), choose (ceósan) and so in all similar inflectional forms; above (búfan), afore (onforan, beforan), where the Old-English still along-while retained n. Here belongs also the preposition a for on in compounds, where even the Anglosaxon offered a, ò, alongside of on, an. Thus Old-English has me, instead of men (Rob. of Gloucester), tho instead of than, and others.

The lipsound b is sometimes thrown off in Old-English after m (although often added) in lam, dum and other words, in which b now regularly reappears.

Among tooth-sounds a final t is sometimes thrown off: Benedict alongside of Benedict, anvil (Anglosaxon anfilt), Old-English anvelt; in Romance words, in which t often rests upon a primitive d, this occurs, according to the Old-French precedent, in Old-English in secre (secreet, secroi), now again secret; in Modern-English decree (decret), degree (degret, degre, Modern-French degré); plea, along with the verb plead (Old-French plait, plaid); Old-English pleid, plead; with this is connected the omission of the d in the ancient see (Old-French sed, siez, se); petty, along with which petit was formerly found, is the Old-French petit. Compare the Old-English a petit thing (Piers Ploughm. p. 287.).

D also is cast off; often after n: tile (Anglosaxon tind, Old-Highdutch zinka), woodbine (Anglosaxon vudubend, -bind = hedera nigra), similarly in scan (Latin seandere); on the other hand in summon not the Old-French form with a d inserted: semondre, but semoner, also occurring, may lie at the root. Before a vowel too a final d has been lost: Davy (David). The s, silent in the corresponding French words, is often lacking in the English ones: pea (pois, peis, compare the Anglosaxon pisa, Latin pisum), relay (relais, or is the French relayer, substantive relais, descended from the English?), hero (heros), hautboy (hautbois). Thus also anana stands alongside of ananas. In the word riddle the Anglosaxon s (rédels, compare the Middle-Highdutch retsal, -el) is also lacking.

Final gutturals often disappear; especially g after i, with
which the softened guttural may seem to have coalesced: any
(ænig, ãnig), many (maneg, manig), body (bodig), ivy (ifyg),
penny (pending, pening, penig), dizzy (dysig), mighty (mihtig) &c.; so too in Chelsea (Ceólésig). Besides that, a final
g, with a vowel preceding it, has yielded directly to y and
w. See vowels. This is likewise the case with c: I (ic = ego),
Old-English ich; every (= ever each, Anglosaxon æfre ælc),
Old-English everych; particularly in adjectives compounded of
the Anglosaxon lic: daily (dæglíc), fleshly (fæsélic) &c., where
Old-English always had the forms with a final ch: manlíc,
baldelíc, wysylch, lordlíc &c. The word cony, which
is to be referred to the Latin cuniculus (Old-French conil, conin),
sounds in Old-English conyng, conig. Even the final Anglosaxon
h (else replaced by gh or otherwise) is sometimes not preserved:
fee (féh), shy (seeóh), seal ( sólh, but also with the h re-
jected: sól, siol, syl), mare = equa (mearh = equus, merihe,
but also mere, myre = equa.

The abandonment of a primitive reduplication of consonants
in the middle and the end of a word deserves particular
mention, but especially that at the end, in which we of course ab-
tract from the reduplication, of a consonant originally single,
which first arose in the English tongue. The English restricted
the reduplication in the first instance, as was natural, to syll-
bles with a short or a shortened vowel.

1) With the Lengthening of the Vowel, therefore, a consonant
originally double is, regularly, changed into a simple one, both
in Anglosaxon and in Romance words; hence: dår (Anglosaxon
dear, dear), stars (steorra), brawl (Old-English brallen); date
formerly datte), tailor (tailleur); in words like flame, grate
and others the Old-French fluctuated between flame and flamme,
grater and gratter &c. Fallen and others with ël, warrior
(guerrier) and the like, form exceptions.

2) The reduplication is especially retained in the accented syllable
which is not final. Reduplications after it are exceptionally
permitted, like the reduplications of l in Romance words, which,
like other reduplications which are not primitive, take place in
an inflective termination, as counselled, travelling, quar-
rellest (from conseller, conseiller and so forth); although this
is censured by grammarians; whereas, by universal consent,
the derivative syllables ess and niss always end with a doubled
consonant: countess (Old-French contesse, cuntesse); sick-
ness (Anglosaxon seóness). But before the accented syllable
the maintenance of the double sound is fluctuating, although
mostly retained, as in essoin (Old-French essoine), allow
(allouer), annex, accost, collect, commence &c.; on the
other hand upon (Anglosaxon uppon, uppan).

3) In the simple rootsyllable the primitive double sound is hardly
ever preserved, except where l, s, c (English as ck and toh) and
g (Anglosaxon cg, English dge) originally appeared doubled;
hence: hill (Anglosaxon hill), still (Anglosaxon stille), gall
(Anglosaxon gealla), cress (Anglosaxon crüss), mass (mässe),
truss (Old-French trosser, trusser), bless (Anglosaxon błęs-
jan), stick (Anglosaxon stițca), thick (picțe), flock (flocțe),
bitch (bicțe), thatch (peccan), bridge (brycțe, bricțe), fledge
flyege). Other reduplications are here exceptionally preserved,
as _mm_: mumm (Highdutch mummen, vermummen); _nn_: inn
(Anglosaxon inne, inn); _rr_: err (Old-French errer, oirrzer), serr
(serrer), purr also pur (Highdutch purren, purr machen); _bb:
ebb (Anglosaxon ebba); _tt_: butt (Anglosaxon bytt), smitt
(Highdutch schmitz, schmitze); _dd_: add (Latin addere).

On the other hand one of the consonants is commonly lost
here: grim (Anglosaxon grimm), ram (ramm), hen (henn),
sin (synn), lip (lippa), trap (treppe), cup (cupp), crib (cribb),
web (vebb), net (nett, also nete), bid (biddan), shed (seed-
dan), wed (vedujan). Even the _ll_ commonly preserved in short
and long syllables does not always appear in the accented syll-
able: wool (Anglosaxon vull), patrol (French patrouiller). When
the the _full_ (Anglosaxon full) with a double _l_ appears
without the accent, before or after the accented syllable, it
assumes the single _l_; the former in the Anglosaxon fashion; the
later contrary to the Anglosaxon usage: fulfil (fulfillan);
baleful (Anglosaxon beaulfull).

If the word is compound, the double consonant is frequently
not given to the accented verbal root in _ll_, as in fulfil, com-
pél, whereas the double consonant is uniformly afforded to
others, such as those in _ss_: caress (caresser), endoss (endosser).
But grammarians disagree upon the former case. In inflec-
tive forms, which are added syllabically, the double consonant is given
to the root syllable.

3) The omission of vowels and consonants.

a) At the commencement of the word the omission of a consonant
with a vowel after it, or of a vowel with a consonant after it,
is not uncommon, whereas the omission of a syllable begin-
ning or ending in a consonant is rare. The loss at the com-
 mencement is frequently naught else than the casting off of a
particle which, although originally necessary to the determination
of the notion, was afterwards, through the absence of accent,
no longer conceived in its specific import.

Consonant and vowel are cast off in: story alongside of
history (compare here however the Old-French histoire, estoire
and Anglosaxon stër, Old-Highdutch stórja, that is historia),
spaniel (from Hispaniolus, compare French épagnneul), spital,
spittle (Old-French hospital, ospital), spite (Old-French
despit, compare Hollandish spyt), spence = pantry (Old-French
despense), sdain, sdéign in Spenser (Old-French desdeignier),
sport (desport), to which also the forms fend, fender, fence
are to be reckoned (Old-French defendre, desfendre; defenderes;
defens); in reeve, Old-English reve, to which sheriff, Old-
English shereve, belongs, the Anglosaxon prefix _ge_, which seems
to have always been peculiar to the substantive, has been cast
off (Anglosaxon gerêfa, seirgerêfa, seirgerêfa). In dropsy,
dropsical even the essential element of the word has been lost (from the Greek ἀπερσέως and ἀπερσάω). In proper names abbreviations like Beck, Becky (Rebecca) &c. are less striking.

Still more frequent is the case that the syllable beginning with a vowel, even here mostly a primitive prefix, is cast off: rack alongside of arrack, prentice alongside of apprentice, Old-English prentis; sample (Old-French essample, example), soar (French essorer, Old-Provençal eisaurar), swage suage alongside of assuage (Old-French assoager, asuager, from the Latin suavis). In Old-French the reduplication of the consonant arising from assimilation was often omitted, as in the last instance; so that in some cases in English only the casting off of a vowel (see above) could be assumed. The syllable en is found thrown off in cense, censer, alongside of incense (Old-French encens, encenser, encensier = encensoir). Old-English censing, censer; gin alongside of engine (Old-French engin, yet even the adjective gignos), Old-English gyn, gin; cyclopaedia and cyclopædia alongside of encyclopedia; in common life we say peach instead of impeach (Old-French empescher = déferer en justice). Still more striking is cerv in Shakespeare for concern. Mutilations, such as Mun instead of Edmund, often occur in proper names, even with the rejection of several syllables, compare Betty, Betsy = Elizabeth, where we must observe the class of names beginning with T, in which the initial consonant is the remnant of a tate (at the) prefixed, as in Try (atte rye = shore), Tooke (atte hooke), Twell (atte well), Thill (atte hill); as in some beginning with n the consonant is a remnant of atten (at then), Anglosaxon ât pam, the Dative of se, pē, or with n to avoid the hiatus: Noakes (atten oak), which is commonly named along with Style (compare Simone atte Style [PIERS PLOUGH, p. 89.]). — Drake has also been shortened by an essential element (compare Old-English andriki, Old-Highdutch antrecho, Swedish andrake), wig is shortened from peruke, periwig; zounds arose from God's wounds!

b) In the middle of the word, with the expulsion of an unaccented vowel the consonant preceding it is also frequently cast out, because the organic combination of the now clashing consonants is not possible, or is inconvenient, in which the case may arrive that two like consonants meet and stand before or after a third: England (Anglosaxon Englaland), Old-English Engleonde; else (elles), Berkshire (Anglosaxon Bearruescir, yet BearuEscir is also cited); nurture (Old-French norriture, yet also, with neglected assimilation of the t, from nutritre, norriture), noisome (instead of noisome); or two and mostly three other consonants would clash: either (Anglosaxon æghēðer, yet also ægðer), hast (Anglosaxon hajast), lakin, laken instead of ladikin, made (Anglosaxon macode), Old-English also mase, tase (=mases, takes); mart (=market, Old-norse markadr), lark (lærerce), Old-English and Scottish laverock; last (adverb latost, from late = tarde, sero, the adjective lâtemest), Ralph (Old-High-
dutch Râulfl), lord (hlâford), Old-English lovord alongside of lavedi (DAME SIRIZ), lobester (loppestre, yet also lupestre, lopystre), whirlwind (Old-norse hvirflvindr), sennight (seofoffniht, in Thorpe seofenfht), Cambridge, Old-English Canterbury; since, Old-English sythenes, sithence (from Anglosaxon sîdpan); or and nor are contractions from âdor, nâdor, themselves standing for the fuller forms vhâvâder, nhâvâder. In Romance and other words this omission is no less usual: palsy (Greek-Latin paralysis), fancy stands for the older fancy; sexton for sacrîstan, sacrist (from the Medieval-Latin sacristanus), Middle-Highdutch sigriste); garment (Old-French garniment, garnement), cantonment (French cantonnement) and others, although with many words of this sort the derivative forms are to be regarded as already grown out of an English shortened root.

Where y is softened or, if you will, cast off after a vowel, the following vowel also disappears: nine (nigon), tile (tigul), as, before a preserved obscure vowel, it secedes with the preceding one: rule (regul, règel, Old-French reule).

No less frequent is the case that, with a vowel, the following consonant disappears: Axminster (Axamnister), Oxford (Oxenforde), Neweark, Old-English Newework (Rob. of Gloucester), Repton (Anglosaxon Hreopandûn), Bedford (Bêdanford), Windsor (Windlesore, Old-English metathetically Windelsore [Rob. of Gloucester]), Tamworth (Tamanwreöige), Dartmouth (Darentamuû), fournight instead of fourteen-night, cückold, Old-English cokewold, monday (mônan dâg), sunday (sunnandây) &c., Old-English still monenday, sonnday &c. (Rob. of Gloucester); — almry alongside of almonry (from the Old-French almosne, Anglosaxon almâse), parrot (French perroquet, Italian parrocchetto?), damson instead of damascene, sarplier (serpilliere), ginger (Old-English gingiber, gingefere, French gingembre, Latin zingiber), Old-English comsen (Old-French comencer) and others.

The expulsion of vowels before and after a consonant, as well as that of consonants at once before and after a vowel, whereby the rejection affects either two syllables partly or one entire close syllable beginning with a consonant is rare. The former is found in proctor = procurator, proxy = procuracy; the second in Rochester (Rôfescestre), Boston in Lincolnshire, Old-English Botolfsoton (DAME SIRIZ p. 4); Lincoln was in Latin Lindum colonia; in Anglosaxon Lindesige = Lindsey in Lincolnshire is found. Funnel, is by Johnson derived from Latin infundibulum, but the Cymric ûfynel, a chimney is perhaps to be referred to it, as Dieffenbach asserts.

c) The casting off of a vowel and consonant is particularly of importance at the end of words, and concerns chiefly the derivative and inflective terminations. Apart from the mutilations of words at the end, here after to be mentioned, we will only generally notice the loss of the nominal and verbal terminations in an, ën, ën, un, on, um and ad, of which we shall speak in
the Doctrine of Forms, and which have been followed by the corresponding Romance and Latin terminations ir, er, ar, oir, re, as well as ire, ère, ère, ãre, us, um and so on. Yet we will particularly mention some nominal forms and particles, as well as the infinitives of verbs.

Many nouns, namely, lose in their English form the derivational termination; thus the termination en is lost, especially in Anglosaxon words: mill (Anglosaxon mylen), Old-English mylene, miln, whence milner—miller; lent (Anglosaxon lengten, lencten), Old-English lenten, lent, whence the form lenten is now treated as an adjective; handsel (Anglosaxon handselen = traditio), kindred (compounded with raden, not the adjective råd); thus en has also been cast off in morrow (Anglosaxon morgen) and the like. Moreover, other full endings of nouns than those with n in Anglosaxon words, are not readily lost, besides that in (i)ge: toad (tådje, tådige), harbour (herberge), Old-English herberwe, Tamworth (Tamanveordige); as well as sometimes in va: gear (Anglosaxon gearva), compare Anglosaxon gearvjan and girjan, pea (påva), formerly however po and others under the influence of v. In words like hag (Anglosaxon hāgty, hāges) a shorter form lies at the root, as here, the Old-norse hagr = sapiens.

Romance nouns which had mostly cast off their primitive terminations even in French, as well as Latin ones, suffer less mutilation in their derivational than in the inflectional terminations (the nominative being computed as such; compare forms like pulpit, margin, maul, mall (Old-French maules, Latin malleus) &c. The habit of rejecting the inflection an, en) &c., which in Anglosaxon nouns has also sometimes seized the derivational syllable (see above), seems also to occasion the loss of the n-termination in other nouns; compare rosemary, Old-English rosemaryne, filigree alongside of filigrane. Abbreviations like ink rest upon the Old-French precedent (enche, enque, Modern-French encre). The rejection of the terminations te and se after t and s rests properly on the simplifying of consonants, as in bandlet (bandelette), omelet (omelette), riches (richesse), Old-English richesse, with which is also joined alms (Anglosaxon álmasse).

In Particles an has often been cast off: but (Anglosaxon būtan) alongside of out, Anglosaxon út; within, without (vidinnan, víðútan), Old-English frequently withouten, withowten; about, Old-English abouten; beneath (beneōtan, benidān, Lowdutch [be]nèden) and others; so too um in between (betveōnum), limb meal (limmælum) and others.

As regards the infinitive termination, it is particularly to be noticed, because the infinitive in the English verb is at present to be regarded as the root form (of the weak verb) and hence any elements of primitive inflection preserved in it pass into the other verbal forms (compare render — rendered, rendering). All English verbs, with the exception of the preserved Anglosaxon verbs, conform to the weak form of con-
jugation, and formerly assumed besides other inflectional forms, also assumed that of the infinitive in *en*, which has at present been cast off, and is exceptionally preserved, partly out of mere orthoepic principles, as a last remnant, in the mute *e*. Deriva-
tional terminations before the infinitive termination are of course preserved, and the infinitive termination still occurring at present *n*, *en*, *on* is such a derivational termination, belong-
ing also to imitated verbs: *rain* (*rig-n-an*), *even* (*ëf-en-jan*, *ennjan*), *reckon* (*rec-n-an*, *reenjan*). The terminations *an*, *jan*
have disappeared: *wind* (*vindan*), *melt* (*meltan*), *shrink* (*scrcan*), *whisper* (*hvisprjan*) &c. The preserved *e* is found after a long or lengthened vowel: *tease* (*tæsan*), *freeze* (*freo-
san*), *shake* (*sacan*), *write* (*vridan*); also in forms with a rejected *g*, as *lie* (*licjan*), *die* or *dye* (*deágjan*); and even after a preserved short vowel: *give* (*gifan*) and after a syllable long by position: *wrinkle* (*vrineljan*), *waddle* (*våljan*), *cleanse* (*clænsjan*).

In Old-English the terminations *en* (*n*) follow each other as of course, and often run alongside of another: *finden*, *wen-
den*, *tellen*, *riden*, *plaien*, *helpen*, as *sayn*, *han*, *don*, *gon*, and *finde*, *wende*, *telle*, *ride* &c., *playe* &c., with which is connected the complete extinction of *en* in many verbs.

Romance and Latin infinitives replace in Old-English their primitive terminations by the same terminations belonging ori-
ginally to Anglosaxon, hence forms like *quiten*, *plesen* (Old-
French *plaisir*), *escapen*, *reneyen* (*renier*, *renoier*, *reenier*),
*feynen* (*feindre*, *faindre*, in these and similar verbs with 
rejection of the inserted *d*) *suffren*, *enforcen* &c., which likewise underwent the abbreviations *quite*, *plese*, *escape*,
*reneye* &c., and still in part preserve the *e* in Modern-English.

Where here an *r* appears at the end of a word, it mostly be-
longs to the root, not to the primitive termination, as in *suffer*, *proffer*, compare the Old-English *suffren*, *profen*; *cover*, *flower*, *sever* (with an *e* inserted before the *r* of the root), compare Old-French *covrir*, *florir*, *flurir*, *sever*, but also *severer*; *appear* (Old-French *aparoir*, *aparer*) and others.

On the other hand some forms remain, in which the *r* be-
longed indeed to the infinitive termination, as *render* (Old-
French *rendre*, perhaps to distinguish it from *rend*, Anglosaxon *hrendan*, to tear), *barter*, whence the substantive *barterer*
alongside of *barrator* (Old-French *barater*, *bareter*), with which in the *Towneley Myster*. p. 165, the old Substantive *barett* = *vexation* (Old-French *barat*, *barete*) is found, so that we may comprehend the verb as a denominative from the Old-French: *barateres*; *batter* reminds us strongly of the Old-French *batre*, *batter*, Latin *batauer*, although we might impute to the *er* an intensive or frequentative signification, as *embroider* does of the French *broder* (Swedish *brodera*, Danish *broder*), although here at the same time we may think of the substantive *border*; *flatter* answers to the Old-French *flater*, although it might be taken to be a denominative from the substantive *flateres*. 

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cashier as a verb in the meaning of dismiss is also striking, (casser, quasser) and domineer (dominer). That the infinitive termination did not remain wholly disregarded other substantives seem also to indicate, as supper (souper) and the still more striking remainder (remaindre), corresponding in form with surrender, used both as a verb and as a substantive, and with which we cannot think of a transfer of the Anglosaxon derivation er, or, ur.

Mutilations of words in their final syllables, not cast off by a complete or at least a more general analogy, occur in the more glib every-day speech, and have partly penetrated into writing, particularly where they imitate the language of common life. Proper names here again take the first place; thus Privet, the name of a place, is shortened from the Anglosaxon Pryfetes flöd, Prüntesflöd; hence the monosyllabic Nat (Nathaniel), Wat (Walter), Bill (William), Meg (Margaret), Tib (Tibald), Tid (Theodor), Tim (Timothy), Tom (Thomas), Dan (Daniel), Deb (Deborah), Sam (Samuel), Sib (Sebastian), Su (Susan), Ciss (Cecily), Zach (Zachary), Gib (Gilbert), Chris, Kit (Christian) and others, which are again lengthened by y, like Timmy, Tibby, Tommy, Debby, Suky (Susan), Conny (Constance), which receives the character of a diminutive termination; cherry, for the Anglosaxon cirse, Old-High-dutch kirsia, may be thus explained, unless we go back to the French cerise. Similar are abbreviations like the pre and con (= contra), incog (= incognito), hyp and to hyp = hypochondria, and to depress with melancholy; Cantab is an abbreviation from Cantabrigian; cit is used contemptuously for citizen and forms thence the feminine form citess; sentinel is shortened into sentry. Cond is quoted as a nautical expression for to conduct, it is by HALLIWELL erroneously ascribed to CHAUCER. Consols; has been formed on the Exchange from consolidated annuities. Chum, Chamber companion and table- and -bed-fellow still in many dialects, is made to spring from comrade; as well at least might it arise from the Anglosaxon cuma = hospes, we must then rather think of chamber-fellow. Much of this kind remains of course of doubtful origin.

B) Amplification of the Word.

The adding on of vowels and consonants, insignificant for the notion of the word, is in part more extensive in Old- than in Modern-English, in part more widely spread in Modern than in Old-English. The amplification of the word in Modern-English mostly concerns the insertion of vowels, and is founded in great part upon other rejections.

1) Adding on of Vowels.

a) At the beginning of the word an insignificant vowel is hardly ever prefixed in English. Prefixed vowels are only significant prefixes, although their signification may in course of time have been partly weakened. Here belongs also the a, occurring still...
more frequently in Old-English, which is to be regarded as a preposition. The use of e before sp, st, sc and so forth, in some words, also appearing without this e, as in espouse, estate, escape, belongs to Old-French.

b) **In the middle** of the word a vowel is often inserted in an unaccented syllable. This happens especially between consonants, the last of which is a liquid or nasal letter, and which in Anglosaxon or Old-French stand beside each other without a vowel communication. Before r an e here appears: whisper (Anglosaxon hvisprjan), murder (Anglosaxon myrðrjan), temper (Anglosaxon temprjan), bolster (Old-norse bolstr, Old-Highdutch polster), holster (Old-norse hulstr = theca); since certainly even Anglosaxon in general in denominatives of this sort offered this suffix er, (Old-Highdutch ar) and not a single r; compare hinderjan, slumerjan &c. The same happens in Romance words, from the same phonetic reason, with which however we must not reckon those instances in which a succeeding, now mute e is set by methathesis before the last consonant; for instance, proper, French propre. Here belong however: enter (entrer), cover (covrir), recover (recoverty = recuperare), Old-English keveren; sever (commonly sevrer, but also severer, as in the adjective several, still sounding thus in English), deliver, deliverance (delivrer, delivrance), livery (livree, Medieval-Latin livrea, sec. XIV also liberata, clothes delivered &c., according to ZEUSs Gr. celt. I, 128 of Celtic origin; Armorican luifre, a party coloured coat, from lui, colour) and others.

After a letter, however not a liquid, which in Anglosaxon might be immediately followed by m or n, e or o has been inserted. In words of this sort the Anglosaxon had also regularly the vowels e, o or u; before m, o commonly stands (Old-Highdutch am, um): besom (bësma), bottom (bôtm), blossom (substantive bôdstma, bõsma, verb bôstmjan, bôsmjan); compare Anglosaxon bôsum and bôsm. Old-English here offered also botme, blosme, fadme (fathom) &c.

Before n, e and o, as in Anglosaxon e or o before n (Old-Highdutch an) are here also met with: hearken (hêrcnjan, hïrcn- jan), glisten (gîsjan), reckon (recnjan, recnan), Old-English rekenen; beckon and beacon, with different meaning, both Anglosaxon beácnjan, bècunjan, (belonging to the substantive beácen, bèacen), Old-English becken. The more ancient language (in SPENser) had steven, the voice (stèfn, stemn) and even stevyn, as the dialects still have stoven, stovven = stump, stub (stofn), in Leicestershire stovin. A u is inserted before m in the Romance word alarum, also larum, alongside of alarm (alarme, Walloon larmë), compare; Did he beat a larum? (HALLiwell s. v. larum).

Before vowels we find i, y inserted in the substantive suffix i-er, the i or y of which comes after au, ow, t, th, z, perhaps also after ll, and although chiefly subservient to a phonetic
lightening, may rest upon the French *ier*, which indeed frequently appears in English as *er* with a suppressed *i*; compare lawyer, sawyer (otherwise sawer), bowyer; courtier (court), clothier (cloth), hosier (hose), brazier (brass), glazier (glass), collier (coal).

The apparently inserted *i* before *a* and *o* in parliament (parlement), americiament alongside of *amercement*; savior, saviour is to be ascribed to Old-French forms like parlieres, parlier; mercier, merciable; saveor, saveur.

The striking *i* in the compounds handiwork, handicraft, also spelt with a *y*: handystroke, handyblow, comes as little from the adjective handy (Anglo-Saxon gehende = promptus, Old-English hende, hendy) as the *i* is a euphonic connecting vowel. Instead of the Anglo-Saxon forms handveorc, handcráft, handgeveorc, like handgevrít, and the like, have become the standard therefor (compare the Anglo-Saxon gecráft along with cráft = facultas, ars), which has been mistaken in modern times, when words of this sort are regarded as compounds of handy.

Insertions of *e*, as in rosemary (rosmarinus) rest on a confusion of roots.

The *o* before a mute *w* in Modern-English also deserves mention, and which may be regarded as inserted. The combination of *ow* has been cited above among the English vowels; *w* was properly in words of Anglo-Saxon origin in Old-English a consonant, taking the place of the Anglo-Saxon *v* (*uv*), *g* and *h*, themselves frequently interchanging among each other. In Anglo-Saxon they were either preceded by a vowel, to be justified etymologically (compare vealovjan, valvjan, Gothic valugjan, Old-Highdutch walagon, English wallow), and this was partly wanting. Old-English primarily, where it did not substitute *gh* for the consonants (*g*, *h*) (as in borgh = borga, fidejussor), made *w* with an *e* after it enter as the substitute of that consonant. Hence the forms falwe (adjective fealu, fealo = fealav, verb fealvjan), narwe (nearu, nearo = nearv), sparwe (spearva, speara), pilwebere (Anglo-Saxon pyle, compare the Latin pulvinus, Hollandish peuluw and Lowdutch kussen-büre), morwe, morwening (morgen, morn, Old-Highdutch morgan), sorwe (sorg, sorh), herberwe (hereberge), arwe (earh and areve). They were soon represented also by the rejection of the *e* and insertion of the *o*, which was occasioned by the *w*: fallow, narrow, sparrow, pillow, morrow, sorrow, arrow; so that now a light Anglo-Saxon vowel preceding the original consonant even seems replaced by *o*: willow (vilig, velig), sallow (salig, seah, seal, Old-Highdutch salaha) &c.

c) In general the final sound of words in respect of their vocalization is found encumbered; the *e* alone is frequently found as an inorganic addition. It has been already said (see p. 155), how the *e*, at present mute, especially after a consonant with a preceding single vowel, continues as a sign of the lengthening of the syllable, but also partly where no lengthening takes place. We deem this inorganic *e* occasioned by the habit of
making an organic vowel, for which e is substituted, sound after long as well as short syllables. There is no doubt that the now mute e was still audible in the fourteenth century, and perhaps no more suppressed in pronunciation, than the final e now is in many words in Modern-Highdutch. It often has the full measure in verse in Chaucer. Compare CHAUCER ed. Th. WRIGHT: When that April/e with his schowers swoote (ProL 1); A cooke thei hadde with them for the nones (ib. 381); Ther was non such from Hulle to Cartage (ib. 406); They seyde that it were a charterie (The KNIGHTES TALE 1435); The gayler sleep, he might/e nought awake, (ib. 1476) and so forth, and in the frequent endings of a verse with e we may perhaps see jingling or trochaic rhymes, as in:

For certeynly I drede such sentence
Though thay not pleynly speke in my audience.
(The CLERKES TALE 8512.)

I have not had no part of children twayne,
But first syknes, and after wo and payne. (ib. 8526)

For that jingling rhymes are not foreign to Chaucer is shown by passages like:

His palfray was as broun as eny berye
A Frere ther was, a wantoun and a merye. (ProL 207).

Nought oonly he, but al his contre, merye
Was for this child, and God thay thank and herie.
(The CLERKES TALE 8491.)

As we must also necessarily recognize these rhyme endings in verses like the following:

What thing is it that wommen most desiren:
Be war and keep thy nek-bon fro the iren.
(The WYF OF BATHES TALE 6487.)

Some sayden owre herie is most i-eased
When we ben y-flaterid and y-preised. (ib. 6511.)

An inorganic e is frequently found in Old-English, where they have been long abandoned, as in the verbal forms in eth: makethe, rennethe, sterethe, turnethe, holdethe, gothe, dothe &c., and in the suffix ing: sevinge, forgetinge, comynge &c.; the suffix ness: rechelessnesse, perfittnesse &c.; after long and short syllables of all parts of speech in words originally Anglosaxon and Romance, as merke = darkness (Anglosaxon myrc), nede (nead), yere (geär), derke (dearc), glasse (gläs), flesshe (flæse), bridde (bridd), sike (sióe), sike (six, seo), everyche (from ælo), selde (seld), offe (of) &c.; awtere (Old-French alter, altir), raunsone (raançon), resowne (reson), metalle (metal), generale (general), secunde (secunt, secont) &c.; whereas some, now abandoned, rest upon Old-French forms, like defaute, now default.
Numerous mute e of this sort still appear in the sixteenth century. They are essentially reduced since the middle of the sixteenth century, but many are still at present preserved, although the mute e has now become essentially an orthoepic, conventional mark, whose employment has in general no definite purpose. But the preservation of the inorganic e after an originally short, now also short syllable, is striking, as in the preterite of strong verbs, as bäde (Anglosaxon bàd), säte alongside of sat (sät), äte alongside of ät (ät); and after syllables now shortened, as one (än), none; after diphthongs, as in mouse (mûs), louse (lüs), house (hûs); and long vowels, which may pass as such by themselves, as in goose, geese (gös, gês) and the like; or after double consonants, for instance worse (virs, vyrs), compare corpse and corse (Old-French cors, corps).

2) Adding on of Consonants.

a) To the initial sound of the word, and that mostly the vowel, an insignificant consonant is often prefixed. The first place is here taken by the Nasal n, which in substantives is always falsely derived from the originally preceding article an: newt is developed out of eft (Anglosaxon efete), which in Old-English sounds eft and alongside therewith ewt (Maundey.), in North-English dialects still effet; nall, nawl stand beside awl (Anglosaxon avul, æl, ál), nias is the same word as eyas; in Old-English and dialectically neme is like eme (Anglosaxon éam, uncle); in Old-English also nedder, neddre stands alongside of edder; that is adder. The prefixing of an n in proper names beginning with a vowel is very familiar to the Englishman: Nib (Isabella, shortened Isbe, Ib), Ned (Edward), Naquilina, Acky, Nacky, queen Nacky! (Otway); Nanny, Nancy (Anna), Nab (Abigail), Nobs (Obadiah), Nump (Humphrey, Old-English Humphred). Moreover that n also has proceeded from the definite article is without doubt; thus the name Noke, Nokes (from atten oak see p. 173) in Skelton I. 344 even Jacke at Noke; hence the form nale for ale (Skelton I. 45. at nale), compare atte nale (Piets Ploughman p. 124), where we must still write atten ale, as in Morte Arthure MS. Lincoln f. 88. instead of: the yolke of a naye (that is egg) is to be written: of an aye. See Halliwell s. v. naye.

Among the lipletters, an insignificant and now silent w often precedes h: whole (Anglosaxon hâl), Old-English hole, whore (Anglosaxon hêre, Gothic hörjô), Old-English hore, hoore; whoop (Old-Higldutch wîthuopha, French huppe) and whoop alongside of hoop as a substantive and verb — shout (compare French houper, expressions of the chase). The older language had more cases of this sort, as wham, whom (home), whaschen (wash), whot (hot) &c., which are still partially preserved by the dialects; thus we even find whone alongside of won, instead of one (ân).

For rap (to steal, compare Swedish rappa, Old-norse hrapa
= ruere) is sometimes found written wrap, perhaps only through a confusion of the verbs of the same sound. Compare moreover the Anglosaxon vrynge and ringe, a spider; vreótan and reótan, plorare.

Among the toothsounds s is found prefixed to Anglosaxon roots beginning with a consonant, which is familiar to Germanic roots generally, and therefore to the Anglosaxon. In Anglosaxon we find for instance meltan and smeltan = liquefacere, as in English melt and smelt, creak, screak and shriek (Old-norse shrækia, quiritare) &c. alongside of each other. Thus English has now sneeze instead of the older neese (Anglosaxon niesan according to Somner; compare Old-English nausna, olfacere), alongside of crawl (Lowdutch krabbeln, krawweln) also scrawl in the same sense; instead of the Old-English crachen the Modern-English has scratch; alongside of quash stand squash and squeeze (Anglosaxon only cvisan or cvisan, compare the Lowdutch quëse = a bruise, Swedish quäsa, to bruise.

s in she is also to be regarded as a strengthening of the initial sound instead of the Anglosaxon heó, although even the Old-saxon offers siu. In the Anglosaxon a guttural h entered in he, heó, hit before the vowel of the pronoun (Gothic is, si, ita); the Old-English offers for the nominative of the feminine heó, ho and hoe (DAME SIRIZ), therewith also sometimes scho, sche (ROB. OF BRUNNE and RITSON'S ROMANCES), like the Scotch (DAV. LINDSAY), so that in she the combination of the Gothic s with the Anglosaxon h, ch, lies, as it were, before us.

Among the gutturals we find h and y prefixed to initial vowels. In Anglosaxon words, however, h is hardly to be met with, as in gold-hammer, yellow-hammer (Anglosaxon amora). In Old-English this was more frequent, for instance in hus (us) (TOWNELEY MYSTER.), habide (abide) (LYDGATE), habot (abbot) (md.) heddir, heddre (adder) (RELIQ. ANTIQ. II. 273) and others. In Romance words this was very common in Old-English, according to the Old-French example. In Modern-English heben (ebony) still stands in SPENSER, hebenon in SHAKESPEARE; hermit has remained along with eremite as in French; but habundant, habundance, Helise (ELYSIUM), Hester (Esther) &c. have long been abandoned.

Here also belongs the adding of h to w at the beginning of whelm (Anglosaxon velman = aestuare, forvelman = obruere), and perhaps also in whurt, whortleberry (Anglosaxon vyr = herba, but compare the Anglosaxon heorotberige). Even in Anglosaxon hvistlan, hvet, hvål stand alongside of vistlan, vet, väl. Rh stands instead of r in Rhine (Rln, but the Latin Rhenus), hryme alongside of rime (Anglosaxon rim, rima).

An initial y is sometimes developed in words which in Anglosaxon began with ea, eo, ea, eo; yean, yeanling (eænjan, eænjan = parturire) along with ean, eanling; yew (ëoy) = taxus, Old-English also ew; York (Eoforvic), Old-English
II. The Elements of the Word. — Insertion of Consonants.

Euerwik (Rob. of Gloucester); you, your (eôv, eôver, Gothic izvís, izvara, compare ye, Anglosaxon gê, Gothic jus), Half-saxon guw, gure, in Old-English also yeme (eâm, uncle), yede, yode = went, Latin ivi (eode). Also before other vowels y appears at the beginning; yarly instead of early (Ærlic) stands in Palgrave Acolastus 1540; yeld instead of elde in Skelton; down to the seventeenth century yere instead of heir (Halliwell s. v.). In Old-English stand the symbols y and ȝ in Yende (India), ȝer (ere, Anglosaxon ær), ȝese (ease), ȝynge (ending), Halliwell Hist. of Freemâs and others. Dialects often prefix the vowel y: yaits (oats), Cumberland; yan (one), yak (oak) North. and others.

b) The insertion of consonants is not rare.

Of the nasal and liquid letters n, l and r are here to be considered. N is found before an initial guttural and dental g of the following syllable: nightingale (Anglosaxon nihtegale), Leffrington (from the propername Leôfric); messenger (Old-French messagier), Old-English still messager; passenger (passagier), porringer = porridge-post (from the Latin porrum, Anglosaxon pór, Old-English porret, in which the form porrage alongside of porridge is to be placed at the foundation); murenger, wall-overseer (belongs to murage), Arminger, proper name (from the Latin armiger), popinjay, formerly popingay (Skelton I. 409.) Old-French papegâi. N stands before a dental c and s in the compound enhance, formerly also haunce (Old-French enhalec, enhauerc), as in Old-English in example (Old-French essample); or before a dental ch: enchaseon in Spenser (Old-French acheson, ochoison), chinche (chiche). Also before d it is inserted in flindermouse, alongside of flittermouse and flickermouse (Old-norse flædmûs, flagûrmûs), as in Anglosaxon in Sarmente (Latin Sar- matae). The Old-English giterne, Modern-English gittern, (guitar) rests upon the Old-French guiterre, guiterne. N, in Ordinal numbers, as seventh (sêôfôda), ninth (nigôda), tenth (teôda) and so forth, cannot be regarded as an insertion, although in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER we still read seueth, nithe, teethe &c., since in the later formation the cardinal numbers were reverted to. The insertion of an n between vowels, as in mendinaunt (compare the Modern-English mendicant), belongs to Old-English.

The l appears as an insertion after Lip-, Tooth- and Throat-sounds before a mute e, wherein we rather see an unconscious transition into a syllable of formation, than a phonetic necessity. This addition is old: manciple (Old-French mancipie, Latin mancipium) even in Chaucer; participle, principle, syllable, myrtle (French myrte), periwinkle (French pervenche, Latin pervincâ), Old-English pervinke. The unwarranted insertion of l in could (Anglosaxon cûðe) belongs to the later period of the language, which assimilated could to the forms
would, should; the moderns have in vain commenced to uproot the l.

An inserted r leans upon initial consonants as a joint initial sound; thus, in the combination tr, dr: cartridge (French cartouche), compare partridge (French perdrix, Latin perdix); chawdron, chaudron formerly also chaldron, chaundron, chawtherne = entrails (Lowdutch kaldūnen, Lübeck Chronicle: koldune, Hight Dutch Kaldauhen); Old-Engl. often: arsmetrike (arithmetic) &c.; also gr: groom (Anglosaxon guma), bride-groom (brýdguma), vagrant (Old-French vagans, vagant); of pr, br there are hardly any instances in Modern-English: culprit, unclear in its termination, seems to come from the Latin culpa; Old-English is astrelabre (astrolabe). At the end of a syllable r is seen before other consonants; before s: hoarse (Anglosaxon hās, Old-Hight Dutch heis, heisc), Old-English and Old-Scotch hais; harset alongside of haslet = a pig’s chitterlings (Old-French hastellet = échinée de pore frais). In trousers or trowsers (Old-French trosse, from torser, trosser) the r has perhaps arisen through an unconscious change of the ending of a substantive in er. r has been inserted before th in swarth alongside of swath (Anglosaxon svāðu); before p in corporal alongside of caporal (French caporal, from cap = chef); in marchpane (French massepain), on the other hand, a primitive r has been preserved, (compare the Italian marzapane = Marsc panis?)

Of the lipsounds p and b are frequently inserted; p commonly between m after a short vowel and a following n, t or s; before n in the Old-English bene[m]en, in Spenser: benempt (Anglosaxon benemman), solem[p]e (solemn), comp[en]e (summon), som[p]nour (somner, Old-French semoneur), somp[n]en[e]z (somnolence); and after the Old-French pattern: damp[n]e, dampa[n]ation; before t often even in Modern-English: empty (Anglosaxon emetig, emtig), Old-English still amny (Ron. of GLOUCENTER), Northampton (Northamptun), Bampton (Be-amdun), tempt (Old-French tenter, but also temptir, Latin tentare), sumpter (Old-French somier, sumer); as well as before s: glimpse (from the Anglosaxon gleām), Old-English gli[m]sing (CHAUCER); compare dimpse (from dim) = twilight in Somerset; sempster alongside of semster, semmster (Anglosaxon, seāmestre), Dempster, a propername, of the same meaning as demeanster = a judge; Sampson (French Samson); also stands alongside of temp[s], temse, a sieve (Old-French temis, Lowdutch tāms, Anglosaxon temes = cribrum; whether of the same meaning as Temese, Temes, Thames, Cymric tām is = tractus aquae?). P is rarely inserted before a vowel: whimper, Scotch quhimpler (Hight Dutch wimmern, Lowdutch wēmern).

Between m after a short vowel, and a following vowel b, on the other hand is often put; this even in Anglosaxon, compare the Anglosaxon scolimbos, Greek and Latin scolymos. English instances are: embers (Anglosaxon æmyrje = cinis), slum-
ber (slumerjan); thus we still find in Modern-English stamber (Armins Nest of Ninnies 1608) for stammer (from the Anglosaxon stamor = balbus), in the fifteenth century swimming (Halliwell s. v.) for swimming (Anglosaxon swimman). But the insertion of b before an l is very common: nimble (Anglosaxon némol, numol = capax, from the verb niman, compare the Old-norse nœmr = capax, docilis), shambles (scamol), famble, to stammer and fumble (Lowdutch vimmeln, vummeln, vummeln, Danish famla = to grope), mumble, Old-English mamelen (Piers Ploughman) (Lowdutch mummelen, Hollandish mommelen), crumble (from the Anglosaxon crûman, Highdutch krûmeln), tumble (Danish tumle, Lowdutch tummel, but Anglosaxon tumbljan), stumble (North-English stummer), grumble (from the Anglosaxon grimmam, Lowdutch grumen, to sound deep, thunder, in the March of Brandenburg: grummeln, French grommeler), chamblot, camblot alongside of camlet, camelot &c.

Toothsounds are inserted; especially t and d after an other consonant before n and particularly r (also en, er with the glib e) although t at present is silent before n. T is wont to come in after s: glisten (Anglosaxon glisnjan), tapistry (French tapisserie; even in Old-English tapeise in Ror. of Brunne, Old-Scotch tapesse as a verb); whereas d is inserted, especially after n and l: thunder (Anglosaxon punor, yet is already cited alongside of punderslege, punorslege); gender (Old-French genre, Latin gener-is, with which compare to gender, engender, Old-French engendrer, alongside of engenner); kindred, Old-English kunrede, kynrede, knirede (from the Anglosaxon cynn = progenies, not from cynd = natura); elder (Anglosaxon ellen, ellarn), alder (Anglosaxon alor, alr), Old-Scotch aller; alder- lifest (Shakespeare) and thence even a comparative alder- leefter (Cobler of Canterbury 1608), aldertruest (Green), as in Old-English aldermest, alderlast, alderlest (=least), alderlowest, alderbest, alderfirst, alderformest, alderwisist, alderwerst &c. that is Anglosaxon calra = omnium with the superlative, Old-English and Old-Scotch also aller. Compare also Anglosaxon baldsam alongside of bal- sam. Other insertions of t and d are: fitz (Old-French fils, fix), jaundice (French jaunisse), with which we may in some measure compare the Anglosaxon yntse, yndse, for the Latin uncia.

An s inserted before l is probably to be ascribed to a mixture with the French form in island (Anglosaxon éaland and igland, égland, compare the Old-French isle, Old-English yle) and also in Carlisle (Celtic Caerluel, Caerleol, Latin Luguballum), as the Old-French prevails also in aisle (= French aile). In Modern-French many s of this sort have been again rejected before l and other consonants, others have remained and as in English, have become silent. Old-English possessed this s also in other words, like ydolaster, idolastre, now idolater.
Throat-sounds are likewise among inserted letters, although mostly long since silent. Here belongs $g$ before $n$, perhaps mostly to be ascribed to a false analogy: feign (Old-French feindre, faindre), Old-English feynen, fainen, hence in Modern-English not brought back with a regard to feignois; feignant; eigne, law expression (ainsnes, ainsnez, Modern-French aîné); foreign, foreigner (Old-French forain), Old-English forein; sovereign (Old-French sovrain, soverain), Old-English soverayne, sovereyne, also Anglicized soferand (Towneley Myster.); coigne = corner, alongside of coin, quoin (Old-French coin, although also coignée, an axe is derived from it). More striking is the sounding of the $g$ in: impregnable (imprenable), perhaps preserved from old conjunctive forms of the verb prendre, like preigne, pregnes; also in shingle, even in Old-English shyngele, schingle, whence a verb shyngeIen, to make out of shingles or planks, which points to the Old-Highdutch scindala, scintila, Latin scandula, which has passed through the Old-French escande, escandole. An unjustified $gh$ has thrust itself in spright (Old-French esperit), perhaps in recollection of Old-French forms quieter, promectre and the like. In Old-English it was more frequent, as in spight (spite = despit), where it might return with a regard to the Latin form $c$, as still in delight (Old-French deleit, delit), Old-English delit, but also in feght, (= faith, Old-French boit) and others. More frequent in Old-English was the insertion of an $h$ before vowels, whether preceded by a vowel or consonant: proheme (proemium), mirthour, still in Spenser, abhominable, still derided in Shakspere L. L. 1. 1. as the usage of his time, and others. This aspiration has totally ceased, as well as at the beginning of a word.

c) At the end of the word scarcely any other insignificant sound than a lip or tooth letter enters, rarely the nasal $n$.

The $n$ is an addition in bittern (French butor), Old-English bitore; likewise in marten, also martern (AngloSaxon meart), French marte, martre, Scotch martrick, Lowdutch marte, mäterken); the Old-English had complin (Old-French complie), now compline.

Even AngloSaxon favoured the lipsound $b$ after $m$, where the Old-Highdutch had $p$, compare lamb; Old-Highdutch lamp; camb, Old-Highdutch champ &c. English annexed it to a final $m$, where it was lacking in AngloSaxon: limb (lim), Old-English lime; crumb and crum (crume), thumb (puma), numb and bennumb, compare num = dull, stupid (Tragedy of Hoffmann 1631; perhaps belonging to niman? compare beniman = stupefacere).

Among toothsounds $t$ readily annexes itself to a final consonant, as to $n$, partly perhaps from a confusion of the suffix with one better known: parchment (Old-French parcamin, parchemin), Old-English parchemyn (Pierrs PloUGHman p. 285), ancient (Old-French ancien, anchien), Old-English auneyen (Maundev.), cormorant (French cormoran, Cymrie mór-fran,
searaven, with corb prefixed, see Diez s.v.), pheasant (Old-French phaisan), Old-English fesaunt; pennant along with pennon (Old-French pennon, penon); marginal (margin) (Shakspeare and Longfellow); such forms were sound even in Old-French alongside of those in an, for instance peasant (Old-French paisant), tyrant, Old-English also tyrande, tyrandie (Old-French tiran, tirant), tiran (Spenser); Old-English roman, romaut (Old-French roman, romant). Compare Old-English orizont, Modern-English horizon, and others.

Thus also has anont arisen (Anglosaxon on efn, on emn = e regione), anen (MaunDeville).

As readily does t join itself to a final s, as in the substantives behest (Anglosaxon behæs), bequest (Anglosaxon cviss = sermo, geviss = conspiratio; the substantive with in Verste- gan is the Anglosaxon cvide = sermo). For interest as a verb Shakspeare has interest; as a substantive Spenser still in-
teresse; as substantive, Shakspeare interest, perhaps through the influence of the French. The joining of t on to par-
ticles, which have proceeded from the proper genitive ter-
mination es, is familiar to the later tongue: against (Anglo-
saxon tōgegnesses, tōgènes), Old-English againes, ageins, agens and others; amongst (Anglosaxon amang), Old-Engl. amonges, emongs, even in the sixteenth century; midst, amidst (Anglosaxon tō middes), Old-English yn þe middes, amiddes; amongst (to the Anglosaxon lang, long; compare the Middle-
Highbutch langes), whilst (Anglosaxon hyvī, tempus), Old-
English whiles; besides, even the forms with t are already old. We even find anenst, Modern-English anent; onste (Chester Plays II. 100), Modern-English once, dialectically even now wurst, wonst. Here also belongs the popular Nest in the abbreviated name Agnes. The forms betwixt, twixt (Anglo-
saxon betvihs), Old-English betwix, atwixen, has even in Anglosaxon the collateral form in x = hs and xt: betvux, betvuxt.

In tuft (French touffe) a derivational termination lies at the bottom of the t; compare the Picard touffette. A t is also ad-
ded in thwart, athwart, to the Anglosaxon pveorb, pveorg; compare the Highbutch zwerch; this t yields the Halfsaxon sub-
stantive form pwerrt = malum, and the Danish and Swedish adverb tveert.

An insignificant d is especially joined to a final n: hind = servant (Anglosaxon hîna), Old-English hyne; fond (from the Old-norse fâna, fatigue se gerere), Old-English fon, even in Spen-
sier, alongside of fond; lend (Anglosaxon lænan), Old-English and Scotch lenen = to lend; round, alongside of the obsolete roun, still in Skelton, Spenser and Shakspeare: to whisper (Anglosaxon rûnjan); sound (Anglosaxon substantive sôn, Old-
French son, sun, verb soner, sune); Old-English substantive soun, verb sounen; astound, alongside of astonish (Old-
French estoner, mixed with the Anglosaxon stunjan, English stun), Old-English astonen, astonnen. The forms com-
pound, expound, propound have Old-English verbs expounen and expounden for patterns, but perhaps rest upon Old-French pondre, espondre &c. The substantive riband, ribband, alongside of ribbon, belongs to quite modern times; the Old-English is riban (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 29), French ruban. The Old-English has Symond (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 240), shouden, Modern-English shun (Anglosaxon scunjan) and the like; dialectically, as in Warwickshire, *d* is readily added to words in *own*: gownd instead of gown, drownd instead of drown &c. *D* is added after *l* in mould (Old-French moler, moller, Modern-French mouler); after *r* in afford (Old-French aferurrerà to tax, from the Latin forum, Medieval-Latin aforare, to act according to the laws, judge, Modern-French afforer, although the meaning do not agree), Old-English affore; compare with greene fervence t'affore yong corages (LYDGATE Minor Poems p. 244).

An *s* or *es* is often found at the end of words, where it appears idle; it is however originally every where to be taken to be a suffix or inflectional form. It is often to be regarded as an adverbial-termination, as hereabouts, midships; sometimes it appears then turned into *ce*: once, Old-English enes, since, Old-English sithens, contracted since, and others.

But *s* often appears in the names of places, especially French ones, by a false analogy. French names of towns namely have often received *s* through the transfer of the name of a people to its place of abode, and even here a false analogy was the occasion of the joining on of an unjustified *s*. In English we find Lyons, Saint Germains, Saint Maloes and the like.

More difficult is the explanation of the *s* at the end of proper-names of persons. Here we must often oscillate between a genitive and a plural *s*. Namely, if in the names John Reynolds, James Phillips (compare LOWER p. 120) the image of a genitive is near at hand, it is striking, when in Fiddes's life of Cardinal Wolsey, the bishop of London, Edmund Bonner, is called Dr. Edmunds, and the bishop of Winchester, Stephan Gardiner, Dr. Stephens. This reminds us that no one thought any longer of *s* as a suffix. That this *s* originally frequently denoted the plural, is proved by terms like Shanks, Longshanks, Crookshanks, perhaps also Bones &c. Names like Leeves, Flowers, Grapes, Pease, Shales, Crosskeys, Irons, Briggs, Bridges, Barnes (barn), Sands, Bankes (bank), Woods, Hedges &c. also look like plurals. The names Brothers, Boys, Cousins (and even Children occurs) are perhaps likewise plurals. Common people, like Noakes and Styles, seem to have an especial predilection for the plural *s*.

The reduplication of consonants in the middle and at the end of the words, unwarranted by the fundamental form of the words, needs a special discussion. In the domain of the English tongue the proneness, partly dependent on physiological conditions, to double the consonant after the originally short or the shortened vowel, had early made itself felt; and that most
naturally in the middle of a word and after the accented syllable, where the consonant stood between vowels, less naturally at the end of the word, as well as in the middle and at the end in an unaccented syllable. The Anglosaxon offered reduplications of consonants in the middle, less at the end of a word, after a short syllable.

Orm, the author of the so-called Ormulum, who wrote this, his metrical harmony of the gospels, as it seems, towards the end of the twelfth century in Halfsaxon language, and after every short vowel doubled the consonant with principal obstinacy, even where another consonant; either final or beginning the new syllable, followed, has not been able to force this process upon his successors; but his attempt to carry out the reduplication of consonants in his manner proves that, to the pronunciation of his contemporaries, a sharpening of vowels, even in an unaccented syllable, was not unknown, which rendered possible a representation of the manner. He writes icc, patt, piss, off, iss, magg, wipp; swille, rihht; ennglish, nemmned; tæchepp, wordess and so on. Old-English, although mostly restricting the reduplication to the accented syllable, frequently fluctuates in the reduplication of consonants, partly at the end of words, partly in the unaccented syllable, and writes lytylle, tremylle, pepylle, devylle, pokett, alongside of forms with a single consonant (Maundev. and Towneley Myst.).

Reduplications are also found after a long vowel and a diphthong, as peasse (peace), greatt, greatte (great), outt, withouten, fowlle, heylle, leyff and others (Towneley Myst.). The sixteenth century often spells mortall, generall, tragically, while the fourteenth frequently offers crewel, peril, spiritual. A universal principle does not prevail even at present; but it is remarked that the absence of reduplication of the consonant in the middle of a word after a short vowel of the accented syllable is met with less in Germanic than in Romance words more rarely in disyllables than in polysyllables, more frequently in more modern than in more ancient words.

With regard to the various classes of reduplicated consonants it is to be remarked that:

1. The nasal and liquid consonants were not generally reduplicated in Anglosaxon at the end of a word, although reduplicated in the middle of a word. In Old-French their reduplication, like that of the remaining consonants, was only usual before a (mute) final e. In Modern-English the reduplication in the middle of a word, even with the consonants originally single, is very common; at the end of a word, only with l. We regard here only unjustified reduplications, and abstract from the rule by which, in syllabic inflection, and in derivation, the accented root-syllable doubles its final consonant.

In the middle of a word m and n, but especially l and r are doubled: emmet (Anglosaxon âmête), limmer (Old-French
liemier, compare English limehound, from the Latin ligamen),
mummy (French momie); manner (Old-French maniere),
dinner (disner, diner), kennel (chenil); yellow (Anglosaxon
gélu), swallow (svélagan), follow (folgjan), gallop (Old-
French galoper), jolly (jolif), pullet (poulet, perhaps not
with a reference to the Latin pullus); arrow (Anglosaxon areve,
earh), marrow (mearh, mearg), quarrel (Old-French que rele),
garret (garite), carry (charier, although belonging to carrus),
hurricane (Spanish huracan) &c. At the end of a word l
is doubled in: mill (Anglosaxon mylen), till (tiljan = colere
terram) and till alongside of until (Anglosaxon til, preposition
and conjunction ad and donec), well (véla, vel).

2. Lipletters appear on the whole seldom reduplicated in Anglo-
saxon; bb appeared most frequently in the middle and at the
end of a word, where it was commonly simplified, pp was rare,
f only in propernames and foreign words. In Old-French
their reduplication hardly existed. In Modern-English neither
vv nor vv is in use, yet f is found even in an unaccented
final syllable developed out of a single f.

In the middle of a word only an unjustified p and b are
found reduplicated, rarely f, since f before a vowel was wont
to pass over into v, but it is sometimes reduplicated before a
vowel and before l, as also b before this liquid: pepper
(Anglosaxon pipor), copper (in Anglosaxon the adjective cy-
peren is found; on the other hand Old-Highdutch kuphar,
Latin cuprum), puppy, puppet (French poupee, Latin pupa),
supper (French souper), fripper, frippery (Old-French
verb friper, substantive friperie &c.); gibbet (Old-French
gibet), ribbon (ruban), cri bble (cri ble), pebble (Anglosaxon
pabol); at the end of the stem f mostly stands reduplicated:
stiff (Anglosaxon stif), cliff (Anglosaxon clif), staff (Anglo-
saxon stafi), gaffle (Anglosaxon gafol); in an unaccented syl-
lable: sheriff (Anglosaxon geréfa), bailiff (Old-French bail-
iff), plaintiff (plaintif), caiff (caiff).

3. The toothletters t, d and ð also appear reduplicated in An-
glosaxon, but commonly become single at the end. The sibilant
s also shared this quality. In Old-French hardly any other sound
in the interior of the root (a part from the reduplication of t
appearing before a mute e) was considered except s. In Mo-
dern-English, where even the primitive ðf (compare the Old-
English siththen) has been long abandoned, reduplications of
single consonants often occur in the middle of a word,
especially of the t, d and s, as well as of the z, whereof the
last two are also reduplicated when final. A reduplication of
the sh, resting principally upon the Anglosaxon sc can hardly
be conceded in Old-English, where certainly ssh (fresshe),
ssch (waasched [MAUNDEV.], assec [IN]) occurs.

Reduplications in the middle of a word, where l again
stands as a twin consonant, are, for instance: tatter (Old-norse
tetur = lacera vestis, Anglosaxon teter, tetr), shuttle (Anglo-
saxon sceátel); mittens (French mitaine) even in CHAUCER,
Old-Scotch mittanis; matter (Old-French matière, matere), mutton (Old-French molton, mouton), glutton (Old-French gloton, gluton, perhaps not on account of the Latin gluto, glutto); addice (Anglosaxon adese), waddle (Anglosaxon våd- jan = vagari, from vadan = vadere), saddle (Anglosaxon sadul, sadl), sudden (Old-French sodain, sudain); scissors (Old- French cisoire), lesson (leçon); frizzle (Old-French friser); at the end of a word $s$ is frequently, $z$ rarely reduplicated: brass (bräss), glass (gläs), grass (gräs), frizz (Old-French friser); also in an unaccented syllable: harness (Old-French harnas, harnois), cutlas (Old-French coutelas, but coutelasse is also cited.

4. **Throat-sounds** were reduplicated in Anglosaxon, like $cc$, $cq$ for $gg$ and $hh$; in Old-French single roots hardly offer guttural reduplication. Old-English had the reduplications $cch = cc$ and $gg$ (cacchen, grucchen, dregges, buggen, abreggen, juggen). Modern-English has in Germanic words developed the reduplication of $c$ as $ck$, in others as $cc$ or even $cq$ (but only in composition, as in acquaintance $=$ acquaintance), likewise $gg$ out of single consonants; $hh$, which would be a reduplicated $gh$, does not occur, although Old-English offers forms like $ynowg3gh$ with an apparently triple $h$. But, since $c$ has partly become dental, like $g$, reduplications of these dentals are represented in Modern-English by $tch$ and $dg(e)$, which only rarely have arisen out of single consonants, and mostly in Romance words. $ck$, $tch$ and $dg(e)$ to be met equally in the middle and at the end of words; $cc$ only in the middle, $gg$ hardly ever at the end. The gutturals under these reduplications also appear regularly before $l$.

Guttural reduplications, which have arisen from single consonants in the middle and at the end, are, for instance, the following: $ck$: chicken (cycen, cicen), reckon (Anglosaxon reenjan, reenjan), fickle (ficol), knuckle (cnucle), brick (brice, French brique), suck (sucan, sågan); $cc$: succory, chiccory (French chicoreé): $gg$: waggon and wagon (Anglosaxon vägen), haggard (Old-French hagard), juggle (Old-French jugler), egg (Anglosaxon äg).

Reduplications of the guttural, which has become dental, in the middle and at the end of a word; $tch$: kitchen (Anglosaxon cy- cene), butcher (Old-French boucher), duchess, alongside of duchess, pitch (Anglosaxon pic, Gothic peik), watch (Anglo- saxon vacjan, vacigan); dispatch (Old-French depescher, compare impeach, Old-French empescher); $dg(e)$: fadge (Anglo- saxon fagjan), abridge (Old-French abrevier, abbregier), Old- English abreggen; lodge (Old-French loge, logier), Old-English logge. They are also to be met with in the unaccentuated final syllable, as in partridge, Old-English partrich &c.
Assimilation of Consonants.

The original word may undergo a change, in that one of two different consonants, mostly the final and the initial sound of two syllables, either originally standing beside each other, or else meeting together after a rejection of vowels, assimilates itself to the other, whence arises the reduplication either of the former or of the latter consonant. In general the second consonant beginning a new, even an unaccented syllable, prevails to which the preceding one is wont to join itself, although, the nasal consonant especially, rather draws the succeeding one over to itself. But English has brought over numerous assimilations from its constituent tongues.

1. The assimilation of a consonant with a nasal or liquid letter is perhaps the most frequent. Here belong:

\[ mn \text{ instead of } fn: \text{ lemmman, now sometimes leman (lefmon Dame Striz p. 11. levement p. 12.), dearest, darling. Compare lammsidc (Anglo-saxon hlàímesse and even hlàmmesse); instead of } dm: \text{ gammer (Anglo-saxon godmòdor); instead of } mb: \text{ plummer alongsive of plumber (French plombier), plummef &c.; instead of } nn: \text{ hammock (Hollandish hangmat, -mak), gram-}

\[ m: \text{ mercy! (Colley Curber) } = \text{ grand' merci.} \]

\[ nn \text{ instead of } nd: \text{ winnow (Anglo-saxon vindvjan), dialectically windewe; Bennet (Benedict), bannerol alongsive of bandlel (Old-French banderolle); } \text{ trunnel alongsive of } \text{ trindle (Anglo-saxon tryndel } = \text{ orbis); instead of } nw: \text{ gunnel alongsive of gunwale.} \]

\[ l \text{ instead } lh: \text{ fullam, false die (from the name of a place Fulham); instead } rl: \text{ ballast (Old-English barlest, Swedish barlast, Danish baglast).} \]

\[ rr \text{ instead of } rn: \text{ garrison (Old-French garnison, guarnison, but also partly confounded with garrison), Old-English garnison (Chaucer); instead of } dr: \text{ Derric, Derrick (Anglo-saxon ðeòdric, French Thierry); instead of } thr: \text{ Surrey (Anglo-saxon Sùéreà, compare Old-Highdutch sundarauwa), Old-English Soperei (Rob. of Gloucester); instead of } gr: \text{ stirrup (Anglo-saxon stigeràp, stigràp); instead of } nr: \text{ Harry alongsive of Henry.} \]

2. Among lipletters another consonant is especially assimilated to \( b \) and \( f \).

\[ hh \text{ instead of } pb: \text{ robbins, which means rope-bands; instead of } gb: \text{ Hubbard (Old-Highdutch Hugibert, compare Anglo-saxon } \text{ hyge } = \text{ mens).} \]

\[ ff: \text{ gaffer (Anglo-saxon godfàëder); Suffolk (Anglo-saxon Sùëf-} \text{ folc}, Old-English Sòfèolc (Rob. of Gloucester).} \]

3. A toothsound occasions the assimilation of another sound.

\[ tt \text{ instead of } ct: \text{ dittany (dictannus); similarly in Old-English Ateeon, Latin Actæon (Chaucer), like the pronunciation of vietuals; ditty (belonging to the Anglo-saxon dihtan, Latin dittare), Old-English dite as a substantive.} \]

\[ In \text{ Old-English } b \text{ also assimilated itself to } t \text{ in } \text{ dettour } = \text{ debtor (Chaucer).} \]
II. The Elements of the Word. — Assimilation.

dd instead of dw: in Old-English god dot = godwort (Havelok).
ss instead of ths: Sussex (Anglosaxon Sūdseaxan), Old-English Soupsax; lissom is in like manner written for lithsome, compare bliss (Anglosaxon blīs, bliss); instead of ds: gossip (Anglosaxon godsibb), Old-English godsib, compare gospel for godspell; instead of ts and st: mess, to feed &c. (Anglosaxon mettsjan = cibare), compare bless (Anglosaxon blētsjan and blēsjan); misseltoe alongside of misteltoe (Anglosaxon mistelētā), trestel alongside of trestle (Old-French trestel, Modern-French tréteau, according to Diez, Hollandish driestal).

zz instead of rs: nuzzle in the meaning of to foster (Old-English noursle = to nurse up).

4. To a guttural another consonant is hardly ever assimilated.

gg is put for rg in guggle instead of gurgle; in Warwickshire it is used for gargle.

Transposition of Sounds, or Metathesis:

The transposition of the sounds of a word, insignificant for the notion, is a general phenomenon, brought about by a physiological cause, the Elective Affinity of the sounds, and supported by the defective apprehension of the sounds as a whole. It affects various sounds, but liquid sounds are especially the cause of the transposition. This metathesis distinguishes words partly into various periods, partly into various dialects of the same tongue.

1. Two consonants immediately following each other may change places with each other. At the beginning of a word this, at least in the written tongue, is the case with the Anglosaxon hw, now appearing only as wh. In Old-English writings the instances of the position hw are scanty; more early, on the contrary, we find wh almost everywhere, unless h is thrown out, as in Rob. of Gloucester in wo (who), wer (where), wat (what) &c. But wh also stands, in a striking manner, for qu (Anglosaxon cv), as in whik (quick), whake (quake), whaynt (quaint) (Townel. Mystery.), and even now in Northern dialects, whence we might infer the originally sameness of pronunciation of hw (wh) and cv (qu); especially since also, conversely, qu often appears for wh, as in quetstone (whetstone) (in.), quete (wheat), quedur (whether) (Halliwell s. v.); whereas Scottish formerly substituted quh for wh: quhittle (whittle), quhow (how), quham (whom) &c., as qwh is likewise found: qwhicke (Warkworth’s Chronicle p. 3.). As to the present pronunciation of wh as hw no cause can be assigned for the transposition. Compare white (Anglosaxon hvit), wheat (hvete), whoop (hvōpan) &c. At the middle and end of a word the inversion of sp into ps is very common in dialects; thus in Sussex they say wapse, hapse, clapsé for wasp, hasp, clap &c., in Kent eps for asp &c., as Anglosaxon presented āpsē, vāps, häpsē, vlips, cops &c., alongside of āspe, vāsp, häspe, vlīsp, cosp &c. In Chaucer crispé and cirps are found (Anglosaxon crisp and cirps); Mo-

Mätzner, engl. Gr. i. 13
modern-English ever prefers sp; compare grasp (Lowdutch graspen, belonging to gripen, Anglosaxon gripan). Methatheses of another sort, as those of gn and ng in pēgen, pēgn, pēng, pēn, English thane, minister (also familiar to Old-French) are found more rarely in Anglosaxon; or ns and sn in clænsjan and clænsnjan, English cleanse, which are not met with in English.

2. Consonants originally commencing two syllables seldom change places. This is the case in tickle (Anglosaxon citeljan) alongside of the obsolete kittle (Sherwood), which still survives in Northern dialects. Old-English certainly used tinclan, tollcettan in a like sense. Through the interchange of the second liquid consonant of the next syllable with the initial sound of the previous one the apparently compound form gilliflower, otherwise gillofer, has arisen. In Chaucer it sounds clouegilofre (that is French girofle = caryophyllum).

3. Two consonants, originally including a vowel often come together as an initial sound, when the last is a liquid consonant, which is easily attracted by another, so called mute. Modern-English offers this attraction of the r in an accented syllable, not unknown either to Anglosaxon or Old-French, still more frequently then Old-English: bright (Anglosaxon beorht, but also bryht), obsolete bent; fright (fyrhta), wright (vyrhta), frith, Scotch firth; compare Dieffenbach's Dictionary I, p. 365. 405; fresh (Anglosaxon færse, but Old-norse frískr, Old-Highdutch frise), cress (Anglosaxon cresse and cerse, compare vylecerse), Old-English kerse, like the Danish karse; thrill (pyrhljan, pyrlljan = perforare), Old-English therlen, later thirl; nostril naspyrl, through (Anglosaxon purh, puruh), Old-English thrugh &c.; brothel (Old-French bordel), Old-English and Old-Scotch bordel; fruggin, provincial = oven-fork (French fourgon, from the Latin furca), cruddle is used for curdle, frubbish, frub for furbish (Barret), scruf for secur. The participle afraid is Old-English aferd, afreid (Anglosaxon aferan); the Old-French effreier, effroier and the Anglosaxon seriean blend here. — Hither too we may refer the unaccented syllables, particularly those in which l, less so r, come alongside of another consonant and take e after them, although here and there the joining on of e after the rejection of a vowel between the mute and liquid letters appears as natural an assumption; compare idle (Anglosaxon idel), Old-English idel; bridle (Anglosaxon bridel), Old-English bridel; apple (Anglosaxon appel, apl), maple (Anglosaxon mapeeltrie), fickle (Anglosaxon ficol), sickle (Anglosaxon sicel, sicel), Old-English sikel; kirtle (Anglosaxon cyrtel), Old-English kirtel; thistle (Anglosaxon pistel), Old-English pistill; cattle (Old-French catel, chatel), Old-English catel); castle, Old-English castel; mantle alongside of mantel, even with a diversity of meaning. This especially takes place with regard to l, whereas with r the reverse mostly takes place in Modern-English. Yet r also is attracted: acre (Anglosaxon acer), augre alongside of auger and some others. Old-English, on the other hand, has aftre, thidre, whidre, watre, Alisandre, laddre, wun-
II. The Elements of the Word. — Metathesis.

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dre &c. (Maundev.), where Modern-English reinstated the vowel into its original place.

4. Equally familiar to Modern-English is the separation of the initial liquid in such manner that the two consonants now include the vowel which originally followed them. In an accented syllable this metathesis again affects the r, as even in Anglosaxon; compare gräs and gärə, grin and gırn &c. Modern-English instances are: bird (Anglosaxon bridd, pullus), Old-English and Old-Scotch brid, bridie; third (Anglosaxon pridda), Old-English thridde; thirty (Anglosaxon prittig, prittig), Old-English thritty; dırt (Anglosaxon dırtan = cacare, Old-norse dırt = excrementum and dırt = cacare), Old-Scotch dryte = cacare; thresh (Anglosaxon perscan, but Old-Hīghdutch driscan); curl (Old-norse krulla, Middle-Hīghdutch krülle, a lock of hair); gırn still stands sometimes alongside of grin; forst still occurs alongside of frost (Halliwell), like the Anglosaxon frost and forst, frostig and frystig; Garner (Old-French gernier and also gernier, Latin granarium); garnet alongside of granate (Italian granato), furmenty alongside of frumenty (compare Old-French froment and forment), purpose (compare Old-French proposer and purposer), burnish (Old-French brunir and burnir) &c. Even in an unaccented syllable r frequently, but l hardly ever, steps out of the combination with its consonant, so that a return is made to the primitive position of the vowel, which the older tongue, especially the French, had forsaken (compare above, 3), although we might here often think of the insertion of a vowel: sugar, Old-English sugre (Piers Ploughin. p. 292. Latin saccharum, Spanish, Portuguese azucar, French sucre); letter (Old-French lettre, Latin littera), Old-English lettre; pattern (French patron), number (nombre), minister (ministre); without a primitive vowel before r: proper (propre), member (membre), vinegar (vinaigre) and others. Even Anglosaxon has plaster, as well as Modern-English, overagainst plastre, plaistre. Old-English forms, like philosophre, Modern-English philosopher, jaspre, Modern-English jasper (jaspis) and the like, are also transpositions. l rarely occurs in this case: ousel, ouzel (Anglosaxon ôsle).

5. The transposition of vowel and consonant in an unaccented syllable, with which also the cases named under 3 and 4 might partly be reckoned, have perhaps often for their cause the attempt to render the spoken sound with greater certainty in writing. Hence the formerly occurring forms fier, hier, and the like, alongside of fire, hire; as also thence, thrice, once, else are not to be taken as transpositions of the older forms then-nes, thries, ones, elles, whose e became mute.

6. French used to admit an attraction of a short ę or ĕ by a preceding vowel, when a consonant stood between them and the short vowel was followed by another, as in histoire (historia), poison (potion-em). English has in part abolished these mate-theses and approximated itself to the Latin fundamental form, perhaps conformably with Old-French collateral forms; compare
history, story (Old-French histoire, estoire, but also estore),
victory (victoire, but also victorie, victore), secretary (secret-
taire), chartulary (cartulaire, chartulaire) and many more. The words in _ier_ (arius) belonging here, have also likewise ap-
proached the Latin form: _primary_ (Old-French primier, primer), _January_ (janvier) &c. The more frequent transmutations of
the liquids _ill_ (_il_) and _gn_ (partly arising from _gn_, _ng_, partly from _ni_, _né_ before another vowel) are likewise to be considered as a _trasp_osition of the French metathesis, in which English likewise
had ancient French collateral forms as models: _pavilion_ (Old-
French pavillon, paveillon, Latin papilion-em), _bullion_ (French
billon), _minion_ (French mignon), _companion_ (Old-French
compaignon, companion), _poniard_ (poignard) and the like. _Carri_ on also belongs here (Old-French caroyne), Old-English
caroyne, careyne.

7. Solitary uncommon metatheses are _bivac_ alongside of _bivouac_;
culverine (French couleuverine), the Old-English _cokodrill_ and
_cokedrill_ (Maundev.) (crocodilus), _gurstendai_ (yesterday)
(DAME _SIRIZ_ p. 4.). Must we also take parsley to be a meta-
thesis? Compare the Old-English percile (PIERS PLOUGHMAN).

Assimilation of different words and double forms of the same
word.

The constitution of the material of speech and the manner of its
embodiment into the mixed tongue, English, the habit of rendering
various sounds by one and the same, as well as, conversely, the facility
of denoting the same sound by various English letters, explain the
possibility both of seeing words originally different represented by
one and the same English word, and also of finding the same original
word differently represented. The latter found the more support in
the constitution of such words as had already passed through another
tongue and could be received both in their fundamental form and in
their altered shape. This was especially done when occasion was
found to couple notional differences on to them. In this even the
mistaking of roots, which had been long possessed in their renewed
form, was of service.

A) Assimilation of different words.

We have already frequently had occasion to distinguish by
their roots words of the same sound. But the number of words
belonging to this class is in English very considerable, and demands
a careful discrimination in detail, which in the first instance is
incumbent upon Lexicography. We give here, out of the great
multitude, by way of examples, a list of assimilated words, whose
descent seems to result from their phonetic development.

1. Words beginning with a vowel sound.

Impair. 1) Verb: worsen, spoil, Old-French empeirer. 2) Adjective:
uneven, unadapted, French impair.
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in is sometimes the prepositional particle in, sometimes the privative prefix = un, before the same roots: informed. Adject. 1) instructed; 2) uniformed; infusible, adj ect. 1) what can be poured in, 2) unmeltable.

Old-English ilk. Pron. 1) each, Anglosaxon ælc. 2) The same, idem, Anglosaxon ãlc.

Eight. 1) Substantive: an island in a river, Anglosaxon iggað, insula? also spelt ait. 2) Numerals; Anglosaxon eahta.

ear. 1) Substantive: ear, Anglosaxon éære. 2) Substantive: of grain, Anglosaxon áhær, áhær, ear; verb: to shoot out into ears. 3) Verb: plow, Anglosaxon erjan.

earn. 1) Verb: gain, Anglosaxon earnjan. 2) Verb: collateral form from yearn, to long after &c., Anglosaxon georınjan. 3) North-English, to curdle, Anglosaxon ge-rinnan, ge-irman = coagulari.

embers. 1) Substantive: ashes, Anglosaxon ãmyrje. 2) ember days, embering days, probably from the same root.

emboss. 1) Verb: to swell, technical; Old-French bosse, compare bosser. 2) Verb: to thrust in (the spear) hide (Spenser), from the Old-French buisser = heurter, figuratively, as a term of the chase: to worry to death (Spenser and Shakspere). 3) To lie in ambush, Old-French embuissier, Italian imboscare; otherwise imbok.

elder. 1) Adjective and Subst.: older, Anglosaxon ylda. 2) Substantive: a sort of tree, Anglosaxon ellen, ellarn.

even. 1) Substantive: (eve), Anglosaxon æfen. 2) Adjective and Adverb; Anglosaxon ëfen, Adverb ëfne, verb ëfenjan.

eft. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon efete. 2) Adverb: = after, Anglosaxon eft, ëft.


egg. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon æg. 2) Verb: to incite, also edge, Anglosaxon egjan = excitare.


Arm. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon earm. 2) Plural, verb: to give weapons, French armes, armer.

agate. 1) Adverb: on the road, Old-norse gata = semita. 2) Substantive, Old-norse agat.

Ounce. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon yndse, Latin uncia. 2) Lynx, Old-French, once.

2. Words beginning with consonants.

a) With nasal and liquid consonants.

Mint. 1) Substantive: a plant, Anglosaxon minte, Latin mentha. 2) Coining place, verb; Anglosaxon mynet, mynetjan.

meu. 1) Substantive, Anglosaxon mœv. 2) Substantive: a cage, verb: to pen in, Old-French mue, muer, (mutare). 3) Verb, compare mewl, French miauler.

mean. 1) Adjective; Anglosaxon mæne = communis. 2) Middling,
Substantive: means, Old-French moien, meien. 3) Verb, Anglosaxon mænan, Old-Highdutch meinjan.
meal. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mēlu. 2) Anglosaxon mǣl = pastus. mere. 1) Adjective, Anglosaxon mære, Latin merus. 2) Substantive, = lacus, Anglosaxon mere, māre = mare, palus, lacus. 3) Bound, Anglosaxon mære = finis, lines, Old-norse mæri = terminus.
mangle. 1) Verb: from the Latin mācus, Medieval-Latin manicare. 2) Substantive, Old-French mangonel, Old-English mangle (a sling), Medieval-Latin mangonellus, from the Greek μαγνάλη, Old-Highdutch mango, whence the verb of like sound: to roll.
male. Adjective and Substantive; Old-French masle, masle, malle. 2) Adverb prefix, French mal, Latin male.
marry. 1) Verb; Old-French marier. 2) Interjection, from Mary = Maria.
march. 1) Substantive, verb; French marche, marcher. 2) Substantive: marches, Old-French marche, marce (perhaps the same word as No. 1). 3) A month, Old-French Mars, March.
mate. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon māt, whence the verb of even sound. 2) Verb: to make dead, Old-French mater. matir from mat, Medieval-Latin matius, dead.
mash. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon maca, Old-norse maki = cowsors, whence the verb of even sound. 2) French meche.
mast. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mast, Masculin. 2) Anglosaxon mast, Fern. = esca.
mace. 1) Substantive; Old-French mace, mache. 2) French and Latin macis.
make. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon macjau. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon maca = match.
mother. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mòdor. 2) Lees, Danish mudder, compare the Highdutch moder.
moss. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon meós, Latin muscus. 2) A bog, Middle-Highdutch mosz, Old-Highdutch mes, Danish mose.
mooor. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon mòr = palus, inculta terra. 2) French Maure. 3) Verb: to cast anchor, compare French amarrer, Anglosaxon meoring — obstaculum and àmerran = impedire.
moodle. 1) Substantive; French mode, Latin modus. 2) Anglosaxon môd = mens, animus.
mould, mold. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon molde = pulvis. terra. 2) French moule, Latin modulus. 3) Perhaps belongs to No. 1, compare multrig, Lowdutch mulstrig.
II. The Elements of the Word. — Assimilation of different words. 199

mow. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon müga, müva = acervus, whence the verb. 2) Subst., French moue. 3) Verb, Anglosaxon måvan.

Nick. 1) Substantive: Old-norse nikr, Anglosaxon nicor, monstrum marinum. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon nicljan = curvare. 3) Substantive: right time; verb; to meet with, whence nicker, Old-norse hnäckia, raptare, hnäckr, dobus, apprehensio violenta.

net. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon nett, nete. 2) Adjective; Old-French net, nat, Latin nitidus.

neat. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon neá, pecus. 2) Adjective; nice Old-Highdutch niotsam.

nap. 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon hnäppjan, dormitare. 2) Anglosaxon hnoppa, villus. 3) Substantive: a gnarl, perhaps the same word, but compare Anglosaxon cnäpp, jugum; Old-norse hnappr, globulus, caput.

Lime. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon lüm. 2) Anglosaxon lind, compare English lind, linden; Old-English also lyn.

light. 1) Subst., Verb; Anglosaxon leóht, lýht; leóhtan, lýhtan. 2) Adjective; Anglosaxon ëht, whence the verb; Anglosaxon alhtan, desilire. The verb lighten belongs to No. 1, the same verb to No. 2. Here belongs also lights, the lungs of a beast.

list. 1) Subst.; together with the corresponding verb; Old-French liste, Medieval-Latin lista, Old-Highdutch lista; whence the French lisière. 2) Old-French lice, liche; whether the same word? 3) verb: else also lust, Anglosaxon lystan.

lie. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon licján. 2) Anglosaxon leógan.

lent. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon lenceten. 2) Adj.; slow (B. Jons.).

French lent.

left. 1) Preterite and Participle from leave. 2) Adj.; compare Anglosaxon lét, inanis, with léfan, debilitare, lèf = debilis, compare Latin laevus.

let. 1) Verb: to hinder, Anglosaxon letjian, lettan, tardare. 2) to allow, Anglosaxon letjan, sinere, permittere.

lee. 1) Substantive; Old-French lie. 2) The windless side, dialectic lew; whether lest, Latin lovus? compare Lowdutch lèg = bad.

lean. 1) Adjective; Anglosaxon lene. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon hlinjan, hleönjan (Latin inclinare).

leave. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon leáf, permissio. 2) Verb; Old-norse leifa, relinquere (Anglosaxon lèfan, permittere). 3) to pick out, Old-French lever, liever.

league. 1) Substantive; French ligue. 2) Portugese and Spanish legua, Gallic leuca.

lease. 1) Verb; to glean, Anglosaxon lésan. 2) to let for a term (with the s hard), Old-French laisser, laisser. 3) leasing = lies, Anglosaxon leásung from the verb leásjan, mentiri.

lap. 1) Substantive; verb: to enwrap, Anglosaxon lappa, fimbria. 2) to lick, Anglosaxon lappjan, lapjan.

last. 1) Adjective and Adverb; Anglosaxon latemest, latóst. 2) Substantive; Anglosaxon hlást. 3) Verb; Anglosaxon gelæstan, continuare.

lath. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon latta. 2) A district, Anglosaxon láð (Bosw.).
doctrine of the word. — phonetics.  part i. sect. 1.

lake. 1) substantive; anglosaxon lacu. 2) a pigment, french laque, persian lak.

lay. 1) preterite from lie, anglosaxon læg. 2) verb; anglosaxon leegân. 3) substantive: a song, old-french lai, cymric llais, a sound. 4) adjective: worldly, old-french lai, laicus.

lock. 1) substantive; anglosaxon loec, cirrus. 2) substantive, verb; anglosaxon loc belonging to lucan.

loom. 1) substantive; anglosaxon lôma, suppeller. 2) a sort of bird, danish lomme. 3) adjective: flame, anglosaxon lège, lýge, old-norse log, danish lue. 3) in names of places: a hill, dam, compare bedlow (also lowe), anglosaxon hlaev, hlâv, collis, agger. 4) verb; anglosaxon hlövan.

rime. 1) substantive; anglosaxon hrîm, also rim. 2) a chink, latin rima. 3) alongside of rhyme, anglosaxon rim, numerus; old-french rime, cymric rhîmyyn.

ring. 1) substantive; anglosaxon hrîng, hrînc. 2) anglosaxon hrîngan, campanam pulsare.

repair. 1) verb, substantive; french réparer. 2) verb, substantive: refuge, old-french repairier, repaire, repere, latin repatriare.

rest. 1) substantive, verb; anglosaxon rest, rást, quies; restan, quiescere. 2) subst., verb; old-french reste, rester.

resent. 1) participle from resend. 2) verb, old-french ressentir.

rear. 1) substantive; old-french rier, riere, latin retro. 2) adjective: (also spelt rare) half raw, anglosaxon hrêre, crudus. 3) verb, to bring up, anglosaxon ræran. 4) in the substantive: rearmouse, fluttermouse, anglosaxon hrêremûs, the verb hrêran, agitare is at the root.

rank. 1) substantive, verb; old-french renc, cymric rhenge. 2) adjective; anglosaxon ranc, superbus, foecundus. 3) perhaps belonging to the latin rancidus, rancor, like the english rancid?

rally. 1) verb; french rallier. 2) french railler.

rape. 1) substantive; latin rapa. 2) compare the hollandish and lowdutch rapen, shwedish rappa, belonging to the latin rapere. 3) division of a county in sussex?

rash. 1) adjective; anglosaxon râsh, old-norse rôskr, danish rask, whence the verb of like sound; compare old-norse raska, loco morere, anglosaxon râcejan, vibrare. 2) substantive; old-french rasche, compare the provencal rascar, as it were rasicare. 3) a sort of cloth, french ras, from arras. 4) adjective; provin-
cial, dry (from corn, which easily falls out), compare the High-
dutch raesch, roesch = harsh, from hard.

race. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon ræs, impetus, Old-norse rås, cursus. 2) French race.

rack. 1) Subst., verb; belonging to the Anglosaxon ræcan. 2) Subst.: abbreviation from arrack. 3) Thin clouds, mists; compare Old-norse rak, humor; raki, mador; Anglosaxon racu, rain. 4) Anglosaxon hracca, occiput.

ray. 1) Substantive, verb; Old-French rais, rait, rai; raier, raifier. 2) Substantive: a sort of fish, French raie, Latin raja. 3) Abbreviation from the Old-French arrai, arroi, English array.

rain. 1) Substantive, verb; Anglosaxon rēgen; rēguan. 2) Raindeer, Anglosaxon hrān, hræn, capreolus, English also called rane.

rail. 1) Substantive: night-rail, Anglosaxon hrāgel, vestimentum. 2) Low-Saxon regel. 3) A sort of fowl, French râle, from the verb râler. 4) Verb: to jeer, French railler; else, English rally.

rock. 1) Substantive, Old-norse rockr, colus. 2) Old-French roce, roche, Modern-French roc. 3) Verb; compare Anglosaxon reōcan, exhalare, vacillare, Old-norse riûkandi, fumans, vacillans.

roe. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon råh, rå. 2) Old-norse hrøgn.

row. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon råv. 2) Verb, Anglosaxon røvan.

rut. 1) Substantive; Old-French ruit, Modern-French rut, whence the corresponding verb, Latin rugitus. 2) The track of wheels; compare the Old-norse rôta; or, from the Old-French rote, rute = Latin rupta? 3) To throw (whence provincially in Cheshire, Substantive: the beating of the waves), compare Old-norse rót, motio violenta.

rush. 1) Anglosaxon riscæ, rixe (Latin ruscus?). 2) Verb; compare the Anglosaxon hryscæ, hryscæ, irruptio; hriscjan, vibrare.

rue. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon rûde, French rue. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon hréván, ejulare, dolere; whence rueful, from the Anglosaxon subst. hreóv, dolor.

b) Words with initial Lipletters.

Pine. 1) Substantive; Anglosaxon pinn, pin, Latin pinus. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon pîn; pînjan, pînjan = cruciare, Old-French peine, païne, poïne; peïner &c.

pîle. 1) Substantive; French pile, Latin pîla (Virgil) (pîla), perhaps identical with No. 3. 2) Old-norse pîla, sagitta, Latin pilum. 3) Anglosaxon pil, suðes, French pile, Latin pîla. 4) Hair, mostly collective: hairy surface, Old-French poiïl, peïl, Latin pilus; in cross and pile, French croïx et pile, pile denotes the side of the coin whereupon the coat of arms stands.

pîll. 1) Verb: plunder, Old-English pile (Rob. of Brunne), Old-Scottish pîlle, peïl, French pîller (compare the Latin expilare, complïlare). 2) To shell; otherwise peel, Old-French poïler, peïler, peler, Latin pilare. 3) Substantive; from the Latin pîla, French pîllule.

pîitch. 1) Substantive, verb; Old-English pik, Anglosaxon pik, Latin pix. 2) Height, Old-French pic. 3) Verb; Anglosaxon pyccan, pungere, Old-English picchen, allied to pick.
pen. 1) Subst., verb; Old-French penne, pene, Old-norse penni; on the other hand Anglo-Saxon pinn. 2) Substantive, verb; compare pinfold, Anglo-Saxon on-pinnjan, recludere repagulo remoto; Old-English pynnen = to bolt.

perch. 1) Substantive; French perche, Latin perca, on the other hand, Anglo-Saxon bears. 2) Substantive, verb: (of birds), Old-French perche; percher, Latin pertica.

pan. 1) Subst.; Anglo-Saxon panne. 2) Verb: to join together, agree, perhaps from the Cymric pannan, to line (a dress), Anglo-Saxon pan, Latin panus?

pall. 1) Subst., verb; Anglo-Saxon pell, päll, Latin pallium, Old-French palle, silk or cotton stuff. 2) To make or turn stale, Old-French pale, palle = bléme.


partisan. 1) Subst.; French partisan. 2) A sort of weapon, French pertuisane from the Old-French pertuiser; according to Diez p. 253, perhaps derived from the last.

page. 1) Subst.; French page. 2) French page (vaidon).

pawn. 1) Subst., verb; Old-French pan; paner = prendre des gages, Old-norse pantre; compare the Low Dutch pennen. 2) In chess, also peon, French pion, Italian pedone. 3) Peacock, Old-French paon, poon.

port. 1) Subst., Old-French port, Latin portus. 2) Old-French porte, Latin porta. 3) A sort of wine, abridged from O porto. 4) Subst., verb; Old-French port, portement; porter.

pound. 1) Subst.; Anglo-Saxon pund. 2) Verb, Subst.; Anglo-Saxon pyndan, Old-English Subst.: pondfold = pinfold. 3) Verb; Anglo-Saxon punjan, conterere.

punch. 1) Verb; Italian punzar, punchar, compare French poinçon, North-English punchion, an awl; English puncheon, a thorn, also a tub (the punched; that is, tapped). 2) Verb: to strike with the fist; Subst.: a blow with the fist; possibly the same? 3) Subst.: a foreign word, according to some from palepuntsz, a beverage in Surat, according to others from the Indian panscha = five, a beverage of five ingredients. 4) Adj. and Subst.: also punchy*); Jackpudding, of unclear origin, unless the Jackpudding has his name from the drink.

plight. 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglo-Saxon plihtan, periculo exponere, spondere; pliht, periculum. 2) Verb, Subst.; compare the Old-Highdutch vlehtan, Latin plectere, Celtic plega.

plat. 1) Verb, Subst.; otherwise plait, allied to the foregoing. 2) Adj., Subst.; Old-French plat, Swedish platt.

prune. 1) Subst.; Old-French prune. 2) Verb; Old-English proinen, Old-Scottish prunze, compare the French provigner, from the Latin propaginare, whence in English also provine.

Bill. 1) Subst.; Anglo-Saxon bile, rostrum, Old-English bile. 2) An-

*) Note by the translator: I do not think there can be this doubt about the origin of "punchy". I apprehend that it is mistakenly written for "paunchy", that is, having a predominence of the abdomen.
glosaxon bill, *ensis*; compare the Highdutch bieil. 3) Compare the Highdutch unbill, billig. 4) List, reckoning, in Old-English a lettery (*CHAUCER*), French billet.

bittern. 1) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon *biter*, bitter. 2) A kind of bird, French butor.

beetle. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *bêtel*, býtel and biótul, beótel, *malleus*; whence the verb to overhang, compare beótan, *minari*. 2) Anglosaxon bôtel and bitel, *blatta* from bitan. In bêtel both substantives touch each other.

bark. 1) Subst., verb; Old-norse Subst.: *börkr* and verb barka, *cutem induere*, *cortice tingere*; birkja, decorticare. 2) Anglosaxon bore-can, *latrare*, whence borejan.

bass. 1) Subst.; Medieval-Latin bassus. 2) (In a church) perhaps nothing else than the Anglosaxon *bást*, *cortex tiliae*; in North-English the bast is thus called; in Cumberland dry rushes are called thus. 3) Verb: to kiss (*MORE*), compare the French baiser, Latin basiare, else the English buss.

bore. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon bore, *scalprum*; borjan, *terebrare*. 2) Preterite of bear, Anglosaxon bär.

borne. 1) Subst.; French borne, see Dieffenbach, Dictionary I. 300. 2) Participle from bear, Anglosaxon boren. 3) (often in the names of places), Scottish burn, Anglosaxon byrna, *torrens*.

box. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon box, Latin buxus. 2) Anglosaxon bux, box, *pyxis* (both words denote originally the same thing). 3) Verb, Subst.; Danish baxe, Swedish baxas; belonging to the Highdutch pochen, bochen, Swedish boka.

boot. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon bôt, Old-English bote, *compensatio*, *reparatio*, Gothic botan. 2) Subst., verb; Old-French botte, bouté. 3) Old-English boat, Anglosaxon bát, *linter*.

bound. 1) Verb, Subst.; Old-French bondir, bundir, bond. 2) Preterite and Participle from bind, Anglosaxon band, bundon, bunden. 3) Subst., verb; compare the English boundary, Medieval-Latin bona, bunda, *bonnarium*, Old-French bonne, bone, also bodne.

bull. 1) Subst.; compare Anglosaxon bulluca, *viticulus*; Lowdutch bulle; Old-norse boli, *taurus*. 2) (Papal), Anglosaxon bull, Latin bulla.

burden. 1) Subst.; = burthen, Anglosaxon *byrðen*, *onus*. 2) Chorus (singing), Old-English burdoun, Old-French bourgeoisie. Bass; compare boudoner. 3) Obsolete: Pilgrims staff; Old-English also burdoun, Old-French bourdon.

but. 1) Subst., verb; French bout, aboutir. 2) Particle, Anglosaxon bútan.

budge. 1) Verb; French bouger. 2) Subst.; prepared lambhide; whence budget, a bag &c, Old-French boge, bouge, Latin *bulga*.

blow. 1) Subst.; from Anglosaxon *bleóvan*, *ferire*. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *blávan*, *flare*. 3) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon *blóivan*, *florere*.


breeze. 1) French brise, Italian *brazza*. 2) Anglosaxon *brios*, *tabanus*.
broil. 1) Subst.; belongs to the French brouiller; compare the Italian broglio. 2) Verb; Cymric brwl, brwlian, compare the Swiss brigel, prägel, to cook.

Fell. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon fell. 2) Old-norse fell, mons. 3) An open field. Though to be abridged from the Anglosaxon fild, feld. 4) Adj., Subst.; Anglosaxon fell, crudelis and ira. 5) A mousetrap (see Halliwell s. v.). Anglosaxon feall, decipula. 6) Verb; Anglosaxon yllan, fellan, prosterne. 7) Preterite from fall, Anglosaxon feólf.

fair. 1) Adj.; also Adverb and Subst.; Anglosaxon fáger. 2) Subst.; Old-French foire, feire, dere.

far. 1) Adj. and Adverb; Anglosaxon feorr. 2) Subst.: a pig, Anglosaxon fearh, compare Old-English farrow.

fold. 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon fealdan, plicare; feald, plica; whence the adjective termination -fold, Anglosaxon -feald, -plex. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon falud, fald.

full. 1) Adj., Adverb and Subst.; Anglosaxon full, plenus. 2) Verb; Old-English fullen, compare Anglosaxon fullere, English fuller, Latin fullo, French fouler.

fry. 1) Subst.; Old-norse fræ. frio, Gothic fraiv, Old-French fraye. 2) Verb, Subst.; French friere, Latin frigere. 3) Subst.: sieve?

Vice. 1) Subst.; Old-French vice, visce, Latin vitium. 2) Old-French vis, viz. 3) Sometimes abridged from advice, French avis. 4) Prefix, Latin vice.

vail. 1) Verb; instead of veil, Old-French voile, veile = velum. 2) Old-French avaler, avaller = baisser. 3) Vails; Subst.; from the Old-French valoir, valeir, properly aid, relief.

vaunt. 1) Subst. = van, from the Old-French avant. 2) Verb; Old-French vauter, venter, from the Latin vanus.

Wise. 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon vis. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon vise.

weight. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon viht. 2) The Island, Anglosaxon viht = Vectis. 3) Adj.; Old-Scottish wícht, seems to belong to the Old-norse vigr, bellicosus (compare Anglosaxon vih, vig = pugna). In the Old-English we also find wight written instead of weight, white and witch.

well. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon vella, vylla, fons; and vellan, vyllan, ebullire. 2) Adverb; Anglosaxon väl, vél, bene.

weed. 1) Subst.: now commonly in the plural, Anglosaxon væd, vestimentum. 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon veód, herba; veódjan, eruncare.

wax. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon veax, vax, cera. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon veaxan.

wort. 1) Anglosaxon vyr, virt, vert, vart, herba, radix. 2) Anglosaxon virt, veort, vert, brasium, mustum.

wood. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon vudu. 2) Adj.; Anglosaxon vód, furosisus.

whittle. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon hvitle, cultellus. 2) Anglosaxon hvítel, pullium.
c) Words with initial tooth-letters.

Till. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon tiljan, studere, colere terram, procurare, computare. Whether does till, a money-drawer, belong here? 2) Preposition and conjunction; Anglosaxon til, ad, donec.

tick. 1) Verb, also substantive (of a clock), Hollandish tikken, Lowdutch ticken. 2) Subst.; Hollandish teek, Lowdutch tékebock, Middle-Highdutch zecke, French tique. 3) Old-Highdutch ziecha, Middle- and Modern-Highdutch zieche, Cymric tic, ticcy, English ticken. 4) Subst., verb; belongs to ticket?

tire. 1) Verb, to rush down (upon something) to pluck (of a bird of prey) to touse, belongs to the Anglosaxon terjan, tirjan, vexare, irritare, and ténar, lacérer, scindere, English tear, to which belong the Highdutch zerren and zehren, perhaps under the influence of the French tirer, of the same origin; from the notion of pulling that of fatiguing has been developed: to make and be tired. 2) Subst., verb; else attire, Anglosaxon tiér, apparatus, ordo, Old-Highdutch ziarí, Middle-Highdutch ziere; ziarjan. Compare Old-norse týr, fama præclara, Anglosaxon tír, týr, splendor, decus.

tense. 1) A temporal form, Old-French tens, tans. 2) Stretched, tight, Latin tensus.

tarry. 1) Verb; In this verb the Anglosaxon terjan, tirigan, vexare irritare, Old-French tarier, tarer, from the Latin tardus; in Old-English targen is found for it (ROMANCE OF OTUEL p. 79). 2) Adj., from tar, Anglosaxon têr, pix fluida.

tart. 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon teart, asper. 2) Subst.; French tarte, tourte, Medieval-Latin torta.

tap. 1) Verb, subst.; Middle-Highdutch tappe, paw, Old-French taper; tape. 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon täppa, Hollandish tap, Old-norse toppr, täppan, tappjan, Old-norse tappa.

ton. 1) Subst.: a measure or weight, also tun, Anglosaxon tunne, Old-French tone, tonne. 2) French ton.

toll. 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon toll, vectigal, privilegium telonium dictum; Old-norse tolla, tributum imponere, pendere. 2) Verb; to take away (a law term); whence Subst.: toll, Latin tollere, Mediaeval-Latin tolta, breve quo lis tollitur e curia baronis. 3) Verb, Subst.; of a bell. In Old-English tollen, tolen occurs in the meaning of draw, figuratively to incite. Perhaps it is wrong to think of the Latin tollere. Compare Old-norse tolla, haerere, cohuere; or may we think of tol-cettan, titillare?

trump. 1) Subst., verb; Old-English trumpen (PIERS PLOUGHMAN), Old-norse trumba, tympanum, Old-Highdutch trumba, Middle-Highdutch trumbe. 2) Subst.; in cards, French triomphe.

Die. 1) Verb, Old-norse deyja, mori. 2) Commonly dye, Anglosaxon daégan, tingere. 3) Subst.; Old-English also de, French dé, Italian dado.

defile. 1) Verb, Subst.; French défiler, défilé. 2) Anglosaxon fylan, inquinare.
dear. Adj. and Subst.; Anglosaxon deór, diór, dýre. 2) Noxious, Old-English verb deren = to curt, injure, Anglosaxon derjan, nocere.

dam. 1) Subst., verb; Old-norse dammr, alluvies, Anglosaxon demman, obturare, Gothic faur-danmjan. 2) Mother, especially of brutes, Old-French dame, Latin domina.

date. 1) Subst.; French date. 2) A sort of fruit, Provençal datil, French datte, dactylus.

down. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon dúñ, mons, to which belongs the particle down, compare Anglosaxon ádúne and ofdúne, deorsum. 2) Light hair, Old-norse and Lowdutch dúñ.

Thus. Adverb; Anglosaxon pus, sic. 2) Subst.; incense, Latin thus.

thrum. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon prysce, Old-Highdutch drosca, drosela. 2) Pustules, also spavin (inflammation of the feet of horses); perhaps belonging to the Anglosaxon priscan, ferire, percutere.

See. 1) Subst.; benefice of a bishop, Old-French sed, sied, siez, se. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon séon. 3) Subst.; Old-English instead of sea, Anglosaxon seo.

seam. 1) Subst.: fat, Anglosaxon seinm (Bosworth), Old-norse seinmr, ductile quid, Lowdutch sém. 2) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon séam, suturo. 3) a measure (8 bushels of corn), provincial, a horses load, Anglosaxon séam, onus, sarcina jumentaria, Old-Highdutch soum.

seal. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon sélh, phoca. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon sigel, Gothic sigljó, sigillum; Anglosaxon sigeljan, Gothic sigljan, ob-signare.

sew. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon sivjan, seovjan, suvan. 2) Verb; alongside of sue, to follow, pursue, Old-English sewen, suwen, Old-French sevre, seure, Modern-French suivre. 3) Verb; to let down (a pond &c.), whence the Subst. sewer, Old-French sewiere, sewiere; on the other hand sewer, Old-Scottish sewar, a carver, is perhaps originally nothing else than the Old-English suer, that is follower, adherent, servant (The Creed of Piers Ploughm. p. 459.), and Palsgrave wrongly explains „I sewe at meate“ by „je taste“, which certainly might belong to the obligations of the officer, called a sewer. The dish of minced flesh, which Gower calls sewe (see Lyndsay Poet. Works ed. Chalmers 3. p. 461.), might be named from the Old-French soef, soeve, Latin suavis, or might be the broth, which in Cymric was called süg, südd; Anglosaxon sogóða, succus.

sallow. 1) Subst.; a sort of tree, Anglosaxon salig. 2) Adj.; Anglosaxon salu, fuscus, niger.

sage. 1) Subst.; French sauge, Anglosaxon salvige. 2) Adject. and Subst.; Old-French sage, saige, sapiens. 3) North-English subst.; for saw, Anglosaxon sage, serra.

sack. 1) Subst, verb; Anglosaxon sacce, succus. 2) Plundering, verb:
to plunder, Old-French sac, probably belonging to No. 1. Compare Diez, Dictionary p. 300. 3) Subst.: a sort of wine, whence the Old-English sack-posset and sack-whey in Devon, French sec, Italian secco.

**some.** 1) Indeterminate pronoun; Anglosaxon sum. 2) In the formula some and all (Halliwell s. v. sum). all and some, some answers to the Old-French somme, sume, some, Modern-English sum, so that it might be formed after the French somme toute. The Old-English has som, sum, some, and uses it also adjectively, Schropschire som and half Warwickshire al so (Rob. of Gloucester I. p. 5). Compare: And of his mynde he shewed me all and some (Skelton I. p. 39.). Of all good prayers God send him sum (ib. p. 69.). The formula stands adverbially for completely.

**sole.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon sole, solea. Hence springs the name of a fish sole, French sole, Italian soglia. 2) Adj.; Old-French sol, sul, soel, solus.

**sod.** 1) Old preterite and participle from seethe, Anglosaxon sead, sudon; soden. 2) Subst.; Hollandish zode, zoed, zo6, Lowdutch sode.

**soil.** 1) Subst.; Old-French soel, sueil, sueil, Modern-French seuil. 2) Subst., verb, Old-French souil, a slough, provencal solh, dirt, whence the verb souiller; mixed with the Anglosaxon sol, volubrorn, sordes; syljan, foedare, Gothic bi-souljan, inquinare, whence the Romance forms are derived. 3) Verb: to lead a horse to graze, Old-French saoler, Modern-French souler.

**sound.** 1) Adj.; Anglosaxon sund. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon són, sonus, Old-French son, sun; soner, suner, sonner, Old-English sounen. 3) Subst.; Anglosaxon and Old-norse sund, mare, vadum. The same Anglosaxon word lies at the root of the meaning, swimmingbladder, since sund in Anglosaxon and Old-norse also means swimming; Old-norse sund-uggar, pinnae piscium; sund-fær, cauda et pinnae piscium; synda, mare, natare. The meanings of casting the sounding-line, lean not on the French sonde, soner, but the Romance words, Span., Port., Ital. sonda, French sonde — sonder, sonder themselves are descended from the Germanic sund. Anglosaxon sundgerd and sundline denote the rod and line for measuring the depth of the sea, like the English sounding line. Sound, as the name of the cuttle-fish, may have the same origin. 4) Subst.: swoon, even in the Vicar of Wakef c. XI, belongs to the Old-norse sundi, sundli, vertigo, verb sundla, vertigine turbare, alongside of the subst. swim, verb svima; compare the Anglosaxon swima, vertigo, deliquium, along with svånan, evanesceere, according to Sommer also åsvunan, deficere animo.

**sow.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon sugu, sus. 2) Verb: sów, Anglosaxon sávan.

**smelt.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon smelt, smylt, sardina piscis, salmo eperlanus. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon smeltan, smyltan, liquifacere. 3) Participle; alongside of smelled, from smell, with which is compared the Lowdutch smölen, to smoke, smel, the reek of damp stuff.

**smack.** 1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon smāc, smācc, sapor, gustus; smec-
can, *gustare*; Old-norse smacka, the same; alongside thereof the verb, subst., Lowdutch smaken, Middle-Highdutch smacken, Hollandish smakken, (on the other hand the Hollandish smaken), smak, a blow. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon *snacc*, Old-norse *snákri*, Hollandish smak, Danish smakke. 3) Subst.; Lowdutch smack.

**snow.** 1) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon *snáv, níx*. 2) Hollandish snauw, Danish snau, perhaps properly a snoutship, compare the Hollandish snauwen, to snub.

**slough.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *slóg, volutabrum*, English also sludge, slush and slosh. 2) (pronounced sluff) (of snakes, who cast the skin, formerly of beasts generally) seab, in Northern-English also pod, Middle-Highdutch slúch throat, skin of the snake.

**spill.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *spindel, splin, fusus*; Hollandish spil, compare the Middle-Highdutch spilmáć, Lowdutch spille, Modern-Highdutch spille, spindel. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon *spillan*, Old-norse *spilla, corrumpere, consumere*, Lowdutch verspillen.

**spoke.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *spáca*. 2) Preterite and Participle from speak. Anglosaxon *spíće*; spocen.

**spright.** 1) Subst.; the same as sprite = spirit. 2) Perhaps confounded with sprit, Anglosaxon *spréót, trudis, contus*; or belonging to sprig, see spray.

**spray.** 1) Subst.; also sprig. Cymric brig = top, but compare also the Anglosaxon sprec, *sarmetum*, Old-norse sprek, *ramentum*. 2) (of the sea), belongs to the Anglosaxon *sprégan, fundere*; compare the Middle-Highdutch spróuwen, sprewen, *spargere, madefacere*.

**swallow.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon *svaleve*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon *svélgan, sivilgan, devorare, imbibere*; Middle-Highdutch swalch, -ges, swalc, grudiness, swalken, *crapulari, svelege, vorago*.

**still.** 1) Adv. and Conj.; Anglosaxon *stille, quietus; stille, tacite*; Verb; Anglosaxon *stillan, compescere*, also Subst. (poetic); Old-Highdutch stilli, Middle-Highdutch stille. 2) Subst.; Old-norse stilli, *agger, vattus*. 3) Verb; Latin stillare.

**stern.** 1) Adj; Anglosaxon *sterne, severus, asper, rigidus*. 2) Subst. (of a ship), Anglosaxon *stearn, gubernaculum*, compare stiér, the same, and stéórn, *gubernaculi locus*, as well as stearnsetl, *puppis*. 3) Old-English, Subst.; *stella*, else sterre, Modern-English star, Old-norse steira, Anglosaxon steorra.

**stale.** Old-English stele. 1) Subst., (obsolete), Anglosaxon *stël, manubrium*. 2) Bait (Shakspeare). These meanings belong to the Anglosaxon *stélan, surripere, furari*, compare stalu, *furtum*; Longobardic astalin, *fraus*. Here too seem to belong the adjective stale = old, worn out; substantively, sour beer, bad woman; and as a verb, to wear out, in which the image of the deceitful, spurious, may lie at the root. 3) Verb, Subst.; Danish stalle, Swedish stalla, Italian stallare, probably borrowed from the dirtiness of the stable.

**stable.** 1) Adj.; Old-French *estable, stabilis*. 2) Subst.; (in the chase); verb, Old-French *estable*, Modern-French étable, *stabulum*.

**stud.** 1) Subst.; verb, Anglosaxon *studu, postis, clavus*. Lowdutch stüt (on the other hand stüt). 2) Subst.; formerly also studderie
a large stable; Anglosaxon stôd, *armentum equorum*, Old-Highbutch, Middle-Highdutch stoot, (here belongs steed, Anglosaxon stêda).

**scale.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon scâlu, *lanx, trutina*, Medieval-Latin scala, bilanx, Old-norse skál, bilanx and patera, hence in Somersetshire, also: a drinking bowl. 2) Subst.: of a fish, Anglosaxon scæalu, *scala, putamen*; compare the Old-French escale, escaile, Modern-French écaille, écâle, a nutshell; whence the verb. 3) Subst., verb; Old-French eschele, eschiele, Latin scala; whence the verb escheller, Italian scalare, Modern-French escalader.

**Shackle.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon scæcul, *columbar*, Hollandish schakel, limb of a chain, Modern-Highdutch schake; whence figuratively in Northern-English, the wrist. 2) Stubble; compare shack, right of pasture in winter and to the shattered corn at harvest; it belongs to the Anglosaxon scacan, *quater, excutere* and *volare*, Old-norse skaka, *quater, agitare*, and denotes properly the battered out and flown away corn. The dialectical verb *shack*, to rove about, and subst. *vagabond*, confirms this.

**shoal.** 1) Adj., Subst.; (compare shallow), belongs to the Old-Highbutch scallian, to cause to sound, Middle-Highdutch schal, hollow, Modern-Highdutch schâl. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon scôlu, *caterva, multitudo*.

**shock.** 1) Subst.; from the Anglosaxon scacga, *caesaries*, compare West-English shackled instead of shaggy, Anglosaxon sceacged, *comatus*, Old-norse skeggi, *barbatus*. 2) Subst.; whence the verb, to set corn in shocks, Danish skok, Swedish skock, Middle-Highdutch shoc (60 pieces), Lowdutch schocken. 3) Subst., verb; Here Germanic and French elements mix, Old-Highdutch soc, Middle-Highdutch schoc, Middle-Highdutch schocken, schoggen, to be in swinging movement, with the Anglosaxon scacan, related to the Old-norse skaka; along therewith the Old-French choque, a stem, choc, a thrust, choquer, to thrust against.

**Check.** 1) Subst.; Old-French eschac, eshec; to which belongs check, on a Bank, from the Old-French verb eschequer, to divide by lines, like a chessboard (eschequier), compare the Highdutch scheckig, English checkey. 2) Verb: to impede, Subst.: hindrance, are likewise taken from the game; compare the Middle-Highdutch schachen, to give check.

**chap.** 1) Obsolete verb: to deal; Subst.: a dealer, figuratively: companion; compare chapman, Anglosaxon copman, ceâpjan, *emere, negotiari*. 2) Subst.: a chink; verb: to come open, seem to belong to the Anglosaxon cippjan, *secare* and to a root cippan; compare Old-norse kippa, *elevar*; kippr, *interstitium loci*.

**chase.** 1) Subst.; Old-French chasse, casse, Modern-French châsse Latin capsâ. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French cacier, cacier; Medieval-Latin caciare, Subst. chace, cae, of unclear origin.

**Jet.** 1) Subst.; French jais, jayet, *gagates*. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French jeter, geter; get, giet, *jactus*. In the meaning: a henroost, the French jet seems taken collectively; compare Latin *jactus* retis, all fish caught, French jet d’abeilles, a swarm of bees; jet de voiles, a complete set of sails.

Mätzner, engl. Gr. I.
**Doctrine of the Word. — Phonetics.**  
Part I. Sect. I.

**jetty.** 1) Subst., French jetée. 2) Adj., from the Subst. jet.

**jar.** 1) A large jug or glass vessel with a wide opening; French jarre, Provencal, Span., Port. jarra; of Arabic origin from garrah, a water vessel. 2) Verb; to tick (of the clock) [Shakespeare], Subst. This word points to the French jars, also jar (Nicot), Walloon geër, a gander, Breton garz; according to Tarbé a verb jargauder and iargauder is used in Champagne of the gander, which treads the goose with gabble, as if g belonged to the root. In Cymric the verb jar is rendered by ysgortio, ysgordio.

d) Words with initial throat-sounds.

**Cart.** 1) Subst., verb; French carte, charte. 2) Subst., verb; French carde; carder, also chardon; chardonne, Old-French esharder, to scratch up with thistles, from the Latin cardus.

**cape.** 1) Subst.; French cap alongside of chef, Latin caput. 2) Old-French cape, chape, Old-norse kāpā, Medieval-Latin capa, cappa.

**caper.** 1) Subst.; French câpre, Latin capparis. 2) Subst., verb; from the Latin caper; compare the French cabrer and cabriole, cabrioler.

**case.** 1) Subst.; Old-French cas, quas; casus. 2) Subst., verb; Old-French casse, chasse, Latin capsa. 3) Dialectic for because.

**compt.** 1) Subst., verb; (commonly count), Old-French contier, Modern-French compter. 2) Adj. (obsolete), Latin comptus, Old-French counte.

**console.** 1) Verb, French consoler. 2) Subst.; French console, from sole, Latin solea.

**corn.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon corn, granum; whence the verb corn. 2) On the feet, Old-French corn, cornu.

**corporal.** 1) Subst.; corrupted from the French caporal. 2) Adj.; for the more usual corporeal, and Subst., Medieval-Latin corporale, palla qua sacrificium tegitur in altari.

**cope.** 1) Subst., verb; Old-English copen, Medieval-Latin capa, cappa; incappare = operire, compare Anglosaxon cappa, cappe, pileus, cucullus; see cape. 2) Subst.; (Shakespeare), Old-French cole, copel = cime, Anglosaxon copp, culmen. 3) Verb; commonly construed with with*), perhaps means originally as much as chap or chop, chaffer, to haggle with any one. In Eastern dialects cope is still used for to chop, exchange. Compare English cope-man alongside of chapman, Anglosaxon copmann, mercator; an Anglosaxon verb copjan (compilare?) of dubious meaning, also occurs. All these forms belong to the Gothic kaupon, to follow trade.

**cob.** 1) Subst.: head; little lump of hay (in Oxford), stone (East of England); applied to beasts: a small, strong pony; a seamew, perhaps also: a spider (in cobweb); in a wider meaning: an ungelded horse; further, chieftain (= leader, chief, in Cheshire), hence cob-swan, the leading (male) swan &c., seem equally to

*) Note by the translator: Whether does "cope with" flow from No. 2, the root meaning being head, as we say to "head", to make head against.
belong the obsolete cop, Anglosaxon copp, calix and culmen, Old-Highdutch kopf, Middle-Highdutch kopf, a globular vessel, Breton cab = tête, bout, Old-Highdutch chaepf, cacumen, Cymric cop = summit. Compare also Old-friesic kop, Lowdutch kop, a tree. 2) The verb cob, to strike; dialectically Subst. blow, belongs on the other hand to the Old-norse kubba, amputare, perfringere. Compare also the Swedish kuffa, ferire, trudere, English cuff.

count. 1) Subst.; Old-French cuens, conte, cunte, cumte, Latin comes, -it-is. 2) Verb, Subst.; Old-French conter, cunter; conte.
counter. 1) Subst.; Old-French conteres, conteor, in the sense of the Modern-French conteur. 2) Adv. and Prefix; Old-French contre, cunte.

cleave. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon clearfan, clûfan; Lowdutch klûwen. 2) Anglosaxon cleften and clifian, adhaerere, Lowdutch klûwen.
crowd. 1) Subst.; a string instrument, also croud, crouch in Halliwell, Cymric crwth, Medieval-Latin chrotta, Old-French rote; whence also a verb crowd, to fiddle, was in use. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon créodan, premere, premi; croya, compressio.
kennel. 1) Subst.; compare channel, Old-French chenal, Latin canalis. 2) Verb; French chenil, Latin canile.
kern. 1) Subst. (Irish) soldier. 2) Instead of quern, Anglosaxon cevorn, cvyrn, mola.

dually. 1) Subst.; verb; Anglosaxon ceól, carina, navis; Old-norse kiöll, carina, navis; kiöldr, carina, dorsum montis. 2) Verb; Anglosaxon cèlan, algere.

knoll. 1) Verb; Anglosaxon cnyllan, cnellan, signum dare campana; whence Subst.: knell, Anglosaxon cnyll, campanae signum. 2) Subst.; Anglosaxon cnyll.

Quail. 1) Subst.; a sort of bird, figuratively, a trumpet, Old-French quaille, Modern-French caille, Medieval-Latin quaquila, Hollandish kvakkel, kwartel. 2) Verb: to despond, belongs to the Anglosaxon cvëlan, pati, mori and cveljan, trucidare, compare English quell, kill; Old-norse qvöl, cruciatus; qvalrædi, angor, cruciatus; qvelja, torquere; qvilli, infrima valetudo. 3) Verb: to curdle (of milk), particularly dialectically in East-English, French cailler, Italian quagliare, cagliare, Latin coagulare.

Gore. 1) Subst.; curdled blood, Anglosaxon gor, tabum. 2) Verb: to but with the horn, from the Anglosaxon gâr, hasta. 3) Here belongs the meaning of a Subst. gøre, a wedgeshaped piece of cloth let in, a wedgeshaped piece of a field; the Middle-Highdutch gêre, means the same, which is derived from the Old-Highdutch gêr, Anglosaxon gâr, Gothic gâis, Latin gaesum, hasta.

Gum. 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon gôma, Old-norse gômr, palatum. 2) French gomme, Latin gummi, gummis.

gull. 1) Verb, Subst.; belonging to the Old-norse gyllinger, adulator, as Adj. splendidus; Old-Swedish gylla, decipere; Old-English gulle
= gay, fine (HALLIWELL). 2) Subst.: a mew; dialectically it
means the callow fowl and the gosling. Cymric gwylan.

**gust.** 1) Subst.; Old-norse gustr, góstr, aura frigida, Anglosaxon
gist, procella, ventus. 2) Taste; along with which gusto also oc-
curs, Latin gustus.

**grin.** 1) Subst.: a trap, Anglosaxon grin, gryn, laqueus. 2) Verb,
Subst.; Anglosaxon gremjan, ringi; (gryn, odium, malum;) com-
pare Old-norse grína, intentis oculis intueri.

**ground.** 1) Preterite and Participle from grind, Anglosaxon grand,
grundon; grundsen. 2) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon grund, fundus,
solum; grindan, fundare.

**Hind.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon hind, cerva. 2) Anglosaxon hína, do-
mesticus. 3) Adj.; Anglosaxon hind-veard, posterus; hindan, post,
retro; hinder Adverb and Preposition.

**hip.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon hype, hyp, hyppe; femus. 2) Also
written hep, Anglosaxon hiópe, héópe, rosae silvestris bacca, rubus.
3) Interjection, as an invocation. 4) Verb: to hip, popular ab-
 breviation of hypochondriac.

**hide.** 1) Subst.; Anglosaxon hýd, cutis. 2) Verb (derived from the
Subst. just named), Anglosaxon hýdan, abscendere; Old-norse
hýða, excoriare, flagellare and pelles superinduere; dialectically
still in English, to whip. 3) Subst.: a measure of land, Anglo-
saxon hýd, Medieval-Latin hída, hyda, terrae portio, quantum
sufficit ad arandum uni aratro per annum; compare the Old-norse
haurd, terra inculta.

**helm.** 1) Subst. (of a ship), verb; Anglosaxon healma, helma, guber-
naculum. 2) Subst.: a helmet, Anglosaxon hêlmi, galea.

**hamper.** 1) Subst.; instead of hanaper, Medieval-Latin hanaperium,
from the Anglosaxon hnápp, calix. 2) Verb: to fetter, impede,
North-English beat; Subst.: impediment; compare Old-norse
hampa, manus velvere, terere.

**harrow.** 1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon hereve, occa, Danish harve. 2)
Verb; obsolete alongside of harry, to worry, Anglosaxon herjan,
hergian, vastare, bello premere, and herevjan, hyryjan, vexare,
affigere. 3) Interjection; as a cry for help, also haro, an Old-
Norman cry of distress, Old-French haro, harou, hareu, hari,
whence the verb harier, harer = harceler, provoquer un combat.
The cry is derived from ha Rous! that is ha! and the name of
Duke Rollo. See Du Cange s. v. haro. This disputed opinion
seems to receive confirmation by the exclamation: harol alarome!
quoted by Palsgrave.

**haver.** 1) Subst.; from the verb have, Anglosaxon habban, häbben,
habere. 2) Oats; (compare haver-bread, haversack, French havres-
sac, properly Hightdutch habersack), Old-norse hafrar, Danish
hayre, Old-Saxon havaro.

**haggard.** 1) Adj. and Subst.; according to Diez from hawk with the
termination ard, French hagard. 2) Subst.; in the meaning rick-
yard or stack-yard: space for hay or cornstocks, perhaps corrupted
from hay-gard, compare Anglosaxon geard, sepes, to which be-
longs the English garden; Old-English and Old-Scotch, also garth,
hawk.  1) Subst., verb; Anglosaxon hafuc, accipiter.  2) Verb; compare Lowdutch Subst. hàk, Danish høkre, belonging to hocken.  3) Verb, Subst.; This word is an expression imitative of the noise.

holni.  1) Subst.: an island in a river, Old-norse hólmi, Danish Swedish holm, insula, Anglosaxon holm, altum mare and insula.  2) A tree, commonly taken for the evergreen oak, but wrongly, according to Halliwell, who thereby will have only the tree, else called holly, to be understood. The latter is the Hollandish hulst, Old-Highdutch holis, French houx. The form holm, with the change of the n into m, corresponds to the Anglosaxon holen, used for several trees and shrubs (sambucus, aquifolium, alnus), whence cneóholen or holm, English kneeholm, ruscus.

hop.  1) Verb, Subst.; Anglosaxon hoppan, salire, saltare.  2) Subst.; Old-Highdutch hopfo, Middle-Highdutch hopfe, Hollandish hoppe, hop, Medieval-Latin hupa, humlo, Old-norse humall, Danish humle.

host.  1) Subst., verb; (Spenser, Shakspeare), Old-French hoste, oste, Latin hospit-em.  2) Subst.: in the Catholic ritual, Latin hostia.  3) Old-French ost, host, from the Latin hostis.

hue.  1) Subst.: colour, Anglosaxon hiv.  2) a cry; a hue and cry, legal pursuit, arrest, Old-French hu, huz along with huee, verb huer from the Interjection hu!

B) Double forms of the same Word.

Among the assimilated words enumerated, as before, many of the same origin have been already cited in different forms. We content ourselves here in general with classifying the English words of this sort which annex different meanings to distinct forms, although the latter occasionally flow into one another, passing over those words in which the different forms have received no essential differences of meaning, as abysm and abyss, guard and ward, guile and wile, sludge, slush, slosh &c.

a) Such are those which several contemporary forms, perhaps following one another, in one of the root tongues of English, or different forms of the fundamental word in different tongues serve to support, among which those words are to be disregarded whose different meanings have already given rise to dissimilated forms of another tongue. The following may serve as examples: outer, opposed to the word inner, and to utter in the meaning of extreme, complete, which are based upon two Anglosaxon forms úter and ýtra, but from the same root and of like meaning (exterior).

morrow, to-morrow, and morn, poetic subst, along with morning, Anglosaxon morgen and morrn, matutinum tempus.
lance, to throw as a lance; especially, thrust, prick, open with the lancet, and lanch, launch, to hurl; particularly, to float a vessel, Old-French lancer and lanchier, that is, frapper avec une lance, darder.
wine and vine, have the allied Anglosaxon vin and Latin vinum, French vin, for fundamental forms.

wind and vent, likewise lean upon the Anglosaxon vind and Old-French vent, Latin ventus, of like meaning.

wise, mostly used now only in compounds, stands alongside of guise.
The Anglosaxon vise, modus, consuetudo and Old-French guise, Modern-French guise, maniere, facon, are the same word.

why and hou, Anglosaxon hvē, hvy, hvû (Instrumental from hva, hvät, quis, quid), cur, quomodo,
waggon or wagon, commonly wagggon, and wain, a carriage, Charles' swain, a constellation, Anglosaxon vägen, vägn, vän, plaustrum.
villan, also villein, is by modern Lexicographers distinguished from villain, a rascal; both rest upon the Medieval-Latin villanus, Old-French vilain, vilein, villain, that is,laboureur and rustre.
deploy, to exhibit (troops), and display, to lay out, Old-French desploier, with the collateral forms pleier, plier; compare the Modern-French deployer alongside of dépier.
cattle and chattel, moveable possessions, Old-French catel, chatel; biens, biens mobiliers.
convey and convoy, Old-French conveier, convoier; conduire, accompagner.

quaint and compt (obsolete), Old-French comte, Latin comptus, contus.
cross and cruise (by sea), Old-norse krossa, signo crucis notare, Old-French crois, crui, Old-Highdutch cruië, crûzi.
humor, humidity, has recently been distinguished from humour, a frame of mind. In Old-French the terminations or, our, eur, run alongside of each other: humor, -our, eur; but the Latin humor is perhaps here regarded alongside of the French form &c.

b) Other double forms are of a kind that they proceed from one and the same form of the word, and with a difference of meaning are distinguished from one another by a change of vowel or consonant. While the first-named often interchange their forms with one another in Old-English, we still find here the same fundamental form in the older language, with a diversity of meaning. The following are examples:
milk and milch, are distinguished in sense, but both seem to be related to the Anglosaxon miluc. Lowdutch has the Subst. melk and the Adj. melke alongside of each other.

mean and moan, Anglosaxon menan, indicare and queri, dolere; Old-English menen in both meanings; likewise bemenen instead of signify and bemoan.

make was formerly used for companion, consort; match expresses the notion of the equal, adequate to another, as well as the abstract notion of a consortment of a pair in marriage; both still exist in makeless and matchless, of like meaning; Old-norse maki, aequalis and conjux, Anglosaxon maca, consors, conjux. According to Bosworth there was also an Anglosaxon ge-mæcca, which would chime in with the Old-English macche = match.

metal, rarely used figuratively, and mettle, only figuratively, come from the Latin metallum, French métal.
nib and neb, Anglosaxon nebb, caput, vultus, os; compare the Low-
dutch nibbe, a beak.

person and parson, Old-French persone for personne and curé; in
Old-English the clergyman is also called persone.

beacon and beckon, both point to the Anglosaxon beácen, signum, nutus,
and beácnjan, bècnjan, indicare, annuere.

flower and flour, point primarily to the Old-French flour; yet it is
remarkable that the form flūr is in use in that double meaning:
flōres and tenuissimum triticum.

to, Preposition and too, Adv., answer to the Anglosaxon tō used as
a preposition (ad) and adverb (insuper).

ton, fashion, tone and tune, are borrowed from the same word, Greek
τόνος, French ton, Anglosaxon dyne, tonitru, sonus*), Middle-
Highdutch dôn.

discreet is distinguished from discrete; French discreet and Latin dis-
tetus, the former of which corresponds in sense with the English
discreet.

sing and singe: like swing and swinge, are allied in meaning to the
Anglosaxon singan, canere and sengan, ustulare, as well as svin-
gan, vibrare, flagellare and svengan, quassare, jactare, but dissimi-
late only the consonant g as a guttural and as a dental.

sauce and souce, Old-French sauce, Modern-French sauce, from the
Latin salus.

scatter and shatter, Anglosaxon scatteran, dissipare.
school and shoal, Anglosaxon scōlu, schola and caterva; Hollandish
school, schola and caterva, scholen, congregari; Old-Highdutch
schuole, also: meeting.

stick and stitch, are only apparently dissimilated forms from the An-
glosaxon sticjan, pungere, transfigere and haerere, the former be-
longing rather to the Anglosaxon stēcan, pungere, icere, and as
it has become unfaithful to its origin in conjugation (stung; stung,
Anglosaxon stāc; stēcen), rather assimilated to the form stitch.
It is otherwise with pick, and pitch, both coming from the An-
glosaxon pyocan, pungere; compare Old-norse picka, frequenter
pungere.
cap and cape, Anglosaxon cappa, pileus, cucullus.
cot, otherwise cote and coat, answer to the Anglosaxon cot, casa,
Old-norse kot, casa and at the same time pectorale.
cup and cop, Anglosaxon copp, calix and culmen.
kill and quell, Anglosaxon cvēllan, cveljan, necare, trucidare, Old-
English quellen = to kill.
glass and glaze, from the Anglosaxon glās, vitrum.
grass and graze, from the Anglosaxon grās, gramen; compare grasjan,
gramine vesci, and other dissimilations.

*) Note by the translator: the connection of these Germanic words with
the Greek τόνος seems more than questionable. τόνος, in the sense of the
differentiated sound produced by the different degrees of tension of the chord,
is an intellectual development produced of the Hellenic mind; whereas the dyne, din,
tonitru, and stun-grou pseems to be onomatopoetic from a sudden, explosive
sound.
c) In conclusion I must mention the peculiar double forms, arising when the verbal root, in the one case, as it presents itself in the
infinitive of Romance or Latin words; and alongside of that, the Latin
and, less frequently, the Romance participial form of the same verb
are employed to form English verbs. The most frequent participle form is that in ate (Latin ätus), which gives verbs answering to the Latin in at-are; yet others also occur. These double forms
belong chiefly to verbs compounded with prefixes, and those leaning
upon participial forms are peculiar to the modern tongue. Many
represent no notional differences, and perhaps are only distinguished
by their more or less frequent use. To those scarcely distinguishable
in meaning belong, for instance: immerge — immerse; incurve — in-
currate; inhume — inhumate; enounce — enunciate; enerve (MILTON)
— enercate; announce — annunciate; administer — administrate; oblige
— obligate (little used); prejudge — prejudicate; promulge (PEARSON)
— promulgate; transfund (BARROW) — transfuse; subduce — subduct;
complane — complanate &c.

Others diverge more decidedly, in part at least: impregn; impreg-
nate, infringe (a contract, a law), and check; infract, more rarely used.
intone, intonate, the same, collaterally to sound loud, thunder; incarn,
to cover with flesh; incarnate, to humanize; illumine (formed after the
Old-French alumer), also figuratively, is more poetic; illuminate (also
of illumination with colours), to enlighten. include, to shut in; enclose
(enclose), from the French participle enclos, which has also become
a substantive, to fence in; aspire, to strive after; aspirate (of pronun-
ciation). predestine, to determine before hand (generally); predestinate,
to determine before hand by an immutable resolve (in the dogmatic
sense); transfer, to remove (to another place), to convey (to a per-
son) &c.; translate, (also an official person) or (from one tongue into
another); comprehend, to include, also to take in (with the under-
standing); comprise, from the French participle compris.

In transmew (SPENSER) and transmute of like meaning, the same
infinitive, first in the Old-French from muer, and then in the Latin
mutare, lies at the root.

It is rare that a double participial form produces two verbs, as
in the two obsolete adjute (Latin adjutum) and adjuvate (Latin
adjuvatum, rare); and in depaint (French dépeint) and depict (Latin
depictum), which are distinguished only by the usage, not in meaning,
like the first named.
SECOND SECTION.

THE DOCTRINE OF FORMS.

Phonetics has to do with the **body of the word** according to its material nature. The Doctrine of forms considers the word according to its notional nature and its destination within speech, as conditioned or partly conditioned by the form of the word, and as a **part of speech**.

1) We distinguish different parts of speech, or classes of words, which are named according to their predominant destination in the sentence, while they are not precluded from occasionally interchanging their functions in the sentence.

The parts of speech are divided into **Nouns**, **Verbs** and **Particles**.

a) The **noun** names or denotes **objects** given in external reality (concrete objects), or imagined analogously to these (abstract objects), and the **qualities** inherent in them, which by their form or meaning indicate their attributive reference to the objects.

**Objects** are denoted by **substantives**, the qualities formally referred to them by **adjectives**.

If the object is not named, but merely denoted by a word passing for a **sign** pointing back or away to an object, either a person or a thing, this representative word is termed a **substantive pronoun**.

If the object is determined attributively, not according to a quality inherent in itself according to its nature, but extrinsically, that is, quantitatively, or demonstratively in the ampest sense of the word, this is effected by a **numeral**, an **adjective pronoun** or an **article**.

b) The **Verb**, or time-word, the essential **word** of the predicate, whereby a judgment is accomplished, serves in the sentence to express the **activity** of the subject, which falls in the sphere of **Time**, as the subject with its qualities is originally imagined in the sphere of **space**.

c) The remaining parts of speech are called **particles**, which, although commonly of small outward compass, are not of small import in speech, but essentially contribute to determine the character of the tongue. They are divided into **words of circumstance**, or, **adverbs**; **words of relation**, on **prepositions**; **connecting words**, or, **conjunctions**; and **sounds of emotion**, or, **interjections**.

The **adverb** serves essentially to determine the verb more particularly, with reference to the space, the time, the manner, and the cause and aim of the action. Its further functions in
the sentence flow from this its original destination. The pre-
position stands in an essential relation to the substantive, and
determines, in the same aspects as the adverb, the more general
character of the case more nearly and closely, as, in the ab-
sence of case-inflection, it undertakes the function of such inflec-
tion. The conjunction is the means of expressing the relation
of the sentences to one another, coming, apparently, out of
the sentence, although in fact acting as an adverb or a prepo-
sition. The interjection had the meaning of a subjective ut-
terance of emotion, or of an affection, without any notional
definiteness, and stands, in fact, outside of the sentence, although
it may appear as the unconscious abbreviation of a sentence.

This characterising of the parts of speach considers them
according to their more general syntactical relations within
speech. In the aspects of their form and of their original na-
ture, as determinable thereby, the doctrine of forms has to
develop them further, as syntax has to set forth their more
particular destinations and their partial interchange among each
other.

The more ancient tongues, as well as those generally which
have preserved their inflective forms more complete than the
English, distinguish nouns and verbs, as parts of speech capable
of inflection, from particles, as forms incapable of inflection.
This distinction is in English no longer completely applicable,
nouns being in great part to be reckoned among the parts of
speech incapable of inflection, unless we confound the substitu-
tion of case prepositions, (like of and to) for cases with the
notion of inflection. But only the change of the body of the
word by additional sounds or syllables can be called inflection,
whereby the part of speech, without change of its notional
determination, enters into distinct relations within the sentence.

2) Another aspect in which the parts of speech are to be considered
in the doctrine of forms is the change of the body of a word,
produced by derivation and composition.

Under the name of a root we comprehend the similar con-
stituents of a larger or smaller number of words, in which a change
or variation, or a dimming of the vowel, as well as a change
of consonants, conditioned or explainable physiologically is cer-
tainly not excluded. All words belonging to the same root lead
us to the conclusion of their original notional connection. The
image of a root, with a meaning permeating all its stems and
ramifications, is, however, solely of theoretic value. No root as
such appears in speech; there every word appears as a definite
part of speech, whose radical abstract meaning is separated and
individualized, even when the radical sounds alone apparently
constitute a word.

The simple word proceeding from the root may, as such, be
augmented by inflective forms. The unaltered part is then the
stem. That even derivative words may be capable of inflection,
is readily to be understood, and we call the verbal body,
amplified materially and more closely determined notionally, the
stem of the word, as distinct from the inflective termination. We commonly term both the **fundamental form**.

a) When the stem is amplified by means of sounds or syllables, so that **distinct notions** and **parts of speech** arise, these further formed stems are called **derivative words**.

b) But when to a self-standing word of any sort another, or even more than one more word is added, so that these words coalesce into one **phonetic** and **notional** whole, **compound** words arise.

The task of the **doctrine of forms** is accordingly to represent the single parts of speech in the aspect of their capacity or incapacity of inflection, as well as the doctrine of the derivation and composition of words.

**I. The Parts of Speech and their inflective forms.**

**A) The Noun.**

I. The Substantive.

The noun substantive denotes externally **real**, sensuously **perceivable**, or **concrete** objects, which are primarily apprehended as existing in space, and are therefore **Persons**, or **Things**.

It further serves to denote the notions of **qualities**, **actions** or **beings**, gained through the action of thinking, and which, as **abstract** objects, are imagined analogously to things sensuously perceivable, and are employed as subjects or objects in the sentence.

The limit between concrete and abstract substantives is hard to draw, since the perceivable, such as **sound**, **noise**, **smell**, **light** &c., may in their origin be conceived as the utterance of an activity, and, in regard to the subject apprehending, appear sensuously perceivable. Thus abstract substantives, denoting an action, are often used to signify the sensuously perceivable result, as in **drawing**, **painting**, **embroidery**; and the action is even put for the material in which it is effected. The abstract term even becomes the term for an individual to whom an abstract quality belongs: compare **Majesty**, **Highness**, instead of **Prince**, and so on. In these regards ancient and modern tongues agree; in the last-named the English goes, however, further than High Dutch. Thus youth (Anglosaxon *geóguþ*, *juventus*) denotes not only youth abstractly and collectively (see under c), but also the individual in the youthful age; witness (Anglosaxon *vitnes*, *testimonium*) testimony and the person bearing it, compare témoin = testimonium; acquaintance, personal knowledge, abstractly and collectively, and the person known, relation; the affinity and the person related, compare Anglosaxon *sibb*, consanguinitas, cognatus; fairy, formerly abstractly fayry (see Halliwell s v.), French féerie, stands now in the place of the otherwise more usual fay.

A further organic division of substantives is that into **names of sorts**, **proper names**, **collective names** and **names of materials**.
We can regard there as, on the one hand, distinct classes of substantives, while on the other hand they pass in part into one another. We may likewise regard them as sorts of concrete substantives, while abstract substantives may also partially take their place.

a) Names of sorts is the term for those substantives which denote, according to their notion, objects which are to be apprehended as individuals of a sort or kind. Concrete objects are of course mostly of this sort; yet even abstractions, such as virtue, vice, bias, sickness &c., so far as they are individualized or imagined as appearing as manifold, may become names of sorts.

b) Proper names are those substantives whereby persons or other objects are denoted, not according to their notion, but in an extrinsic, conventional manner, without their essence or quality needing be touched. They mostly arise out of concrete names of sorts, but also out of abstract names. But by several objects having the same proper name, the notion of a sort does not on the contrary arise; but, if the proper name is employed metaphorically, in remembrance of the characteristic qualities of the person or thing bearing it, the proper name becomes the name of a sort, as Nero represents the notion of a tyrant.

c) Collective names comprise a number of single objects under one total image, when the image of the individual beings recedes, as in forest, army. If these totalities are apprehended as manifold in number they appear as names of sorts: forests, armies; a thick forest, a formidable army. So far as abstract substantives can be regarded as terms for the common nature or activity of individuals, they frequently assume the character of collective names, as, Priesthood, Knighthood, Christendom, Mankind, Clergy.

d) Names of materials are substantives absolutely denoting the homogeneous matter or mass of which objects consist. They must be regarded as names of sorts, when the matter is separated by distinct qualities or localities, as, black earth, white glass; or, when they denote objects prepared from a material, as, a glass, =a drinking vessel.

The character of the substantive in these respects has an influence upon its inflective forms.

Declination of the substantive in general.

As regards, in the first place, the fundamental form of the English substantive, as opposed to its inflective terminations, we must draw a distinction between the Anglosaxon and the Romance elements in genuine English words of this class, to which we oppose words subsequently introduced and not assimilated to the great majority.

The substantives of Anglosaxon origin, attach themselves in their English form essentially to the Anglosaxon nominative of the singular of simple as well as of derivative substantives. The simple or derivative form of the substantive, common to the Anglosaxon cases, is mostly presented in them. We disregard here the rejection of the vowels of formation e, a, u, o as well as the partial substitution
of the mute e, and also the annexing of an inorganic e, which we have mentioned above. Derivative forms have seldom suffered a loss in consonants, as dross, Anglosaxon dros-n, game, Anglosaxon gam-en; mill, Anglosaxon myl-en; anvil, Anglosaxon anfil-t; seal, Anglosaxon sēol-h, but also sēol, syl; mare, Anglosaxon mer-ihé, but also mere, myre, and some others. The u in the nominative, arising form a derivative v, has sometimes been thrown off, as in meal, Anglosaxon mêl-u, -eves; ale, eal-u, -eves and others. Forms of this very sort (which in Anglosaxon have also o instead of u in the nominative singular) prove that English was wont to adhere primarily to the form of the substantive prominent in the nominative. Rarely has any other form become the standard; this is however the case in brieche, commonly, breeches, Old-English brec (MAUND.-dev.) and breech (1b.) (compare the Anglosaxon nomin. singul. broc, in the genitive, as in the nominative and accusative plural brèc), in which the ee of the plural seems transferred to the singular; as also in the plural brethren, the vowel of the dative singular appears; compare the nominative singular brôdor, dative brêder, whereas everywhere else ð is found.

In regard to the substantives borrowed from the Old-French we find the same course pursued in English as the French early began to take. Old-French had to a great extent suffered the stem of Latin words appearing in the oblique cases to become the standard for the form of substantives, where it did not appear in the nominative; (compare maison, Latin mansion-is &c., nuit, Latin noct-is &c., citet, Latin civitatis &c.); but alongside of these, particularly with masculines, the nominative (and vocative) of the singular, distinguished from the other cases by a subjoined s or x, mostly according to the analogy of the second Latin declension, but also of the other forms with s in the nominative, whereby a preceding consonant was often excluded (compare coc — cos [Modern-French coq], fils — fix [filius], clo, clou — clox [clavus]). The Old-French also preserved a long time distinct forms for the nominative of the singular and for the other cases, quens, cuens (comes), and conte (comit-is &c.); enfes (infans) and enfant (infant-is &c.); sires (senior with s) and signeur, signour &c. (senior-is &c.), bers (baro, with s) and baron (baron-is &c.) and others. But, as even Old-French puts the forms of the French oblique case in the place of the nominative, and Modern-French has almost wholly lost the forms with the letter s in the nominative singular, and, where preserved, uses them for all cases (compare fils, filius), English has adopted the oblique case of the French as the fundamental form of the substantive. Compare host, Old-French os, osz, oz — ost, host; ray, Old-French rai — rai; glutton, Old-French glou, glous, gluz — gloton, gluton; baron, Old-French bers — baron; emperor, Old-French empereres — emeperor; traitor, Old-French traistres, traistres — traitor, trahitour &c. Even where forms like virge, virgine stand alongside of each other without distinction of case, English has chosen the oblique form: virgin (virgin-is). Remnants of the letter s of formation in the nominative are rare as, in fitz (fils, fix, fiz).

The inflective forms of the substantives which have remained
to the English tongue rest essentially upon the Anglosaxon strong declension of the masculine gender. The formation of the common plural termination *s, es* of almost the entire number of substantives found decided support in the French plural *s (x)*, which was almost always given, even in Old-French, both to the nominative and to the oblique cases of the plural.

Anglosaxon distinguished a strong and a weak declension of the three genders, exhibiting different forms of declension for masculine and for feminine substantives. The case-terminations of Anglosaxon essentially employed, and among them also one for the rare instrumental, are exhibited in the first strong declension of masculine and feminine substantives, as well as in the first weak one of masculine ones; examples of which are here given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Angl. strong declension I. masc.</th>
<th>I. fem.</th>
<th>weak declension I. masc.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. Nom. fisc (fish)</td>
<td>den-u (den)</td>
<td>drop-a (drop)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fisc-es</td>
<td>den-e</td>
<td>drop-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fisc-e</td>
<td>den-e</td>
<td>drop-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fisc</td>
<td>den-e</td>
<td>drop-an</td>
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<tr>
<td>Instr. fisc-é</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plur Nom. fisc-as</td>
<td>den-a</td>
<td>drop-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fisc-a</td>
<td>den-ena</td>
<td>drop-ena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fisc-um</td>
<td>den-um</td>
<td>drop-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fisc-as</td>
<td>den-a</td>
<td>drop-an</td>
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Old-English has already ceased to distinguish the case terminations of the forms in the singular, down to the genitive, which also occasionally vanishes; but in the plural terminations the weak still continues to appear alongside of the strong plural termination, as is more particularly elucidated below.

Modern-English possesses now only one genitive termination, *s*, which arose out of the Anglosaxon *es* of the genitive of the singular, and has even invaded the plural, as well as a plural termination *s, es*, answering to the termination of the strong first declension, alongside of which also the weak termination *en* (Anglosaxon *an*) here and there appears. For the genitive termination in both numbers the case preposition of with the accusative, analogously to the French *de*, the Danish and Swedish *af*, and the Hollandish *van* is substituted. The accusative coincides in form with the nominative. The accusative likewise partly takes the functions of the dative; else the dative relation is expressed by *to* before the noun, analogously to the French *à* and the Hollandish *aan*. The Modern-English substantive is accordingly inflected in the following manner, the more particular discussion and limitation whereof is next to be stated:
The regular formation of the plural.

By far the most substantives form their plural by an *s* affixed to the fundamental form. Here belong those ending in consonants, with the exception of sibilants and hissing sounds, and of *f* in part, as well as those ending in vowels, with the exception of substantives ending in ù and ù, as well as of a number of those ending in *o*.

The words in *fe* of Anglosaxon origin which assume *s*, change *f* into *v*: life — lives; wife — wives; knife — knives. Exceptions are: strife (Old-French estrif), and *fife* (from pipare, Anglosaxon *pip* (Boswell), Old-norse *pípa*, Old-Highdutch *phifa*), safe, Old-French salf.

Those which append *es* to the fundamental form are therefore now to be considered as exceptions, whose *e* is partly preserved for the sake of the convenience of the pronunciation, and partly has remained faithful to the older orthography of the singular.

a) Accordingly those in *s*, *ss*, *x*, a dental *ch* and *sh*, among which those in *s* are mostly foreign words and retain in part their foreign termination in the plural (see below), have the plural termination *es*: genius — geniuses (eminent minds); isthmus — isthmuses; kiss — kisses; glass — glasses; witness — witnesses; fox — foxes; box — boxes; watch — watches; church — churches; fish — fishes; brush — brushes.

A single *s* is doubled: Douglas — Douglasses (W. Scott).

Among the words ending in *th*, one has preserved the old plural in *es* alongside of that in *s*: cloth — cloths, but, in the meaning of dress: clothes. Clothes is by Walker and others falsely derived from another singular. Compare the Anglosaxon *cláð* (strong neuter, in the nom. and acc. plural *cláð*), vestimentum; Old-English: Tentes made of clothes (Maundev. p. 233). Clothed in clothes of gold (18.), the others in *th* have *s* merely: smith — smiths, hearth — hearths, path — paths.

b) In words in *f*, with a long vowel, except *oo*, preceding, of Anglosaxon origin, and in *lf*, *f* is changed into *v* with the accession of *es*: leaf — leaves; sheaf — sheaves; thief — thieves; loaf — loaves; elf — elves; shelf — shelves; calf — calves; half — halves; wolf — wolves. To these is to be added the French *beef* — *beoves*.

Usage is, however, not consistent; alongside of *elves* and *shelves* we also find *elfs* and *shelfs*. Also *reef*, Old-norse *rif*, has *reefs*; *waif*, thing without a master, although referred to the Anglosaxon *váfan*, fluctuare, perhaps reposes primarily, as a law term, upon the Old-French *gaif*, Medieval-Latin *wayfium*, res vai-

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<td>Sing. Nom. Acc. book name day</td>
<td>leaf branch spy fancy hero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. book’s name’s day’s</td>
<td>leaf’s branch’s spy’s fancy’s hero’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. Nom. Acc. books names days</td>
<td>leaves branches spies francies heroes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. books’ names’ days’</td>
<td>leaves’branches’ spies’ fancies’ heroes’</td>
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vae, in the legal sense: a stray head of cattle, and has likewise waifs in the plural.

Words of Romance origin likewise retain \( f \) with a single \( s \): brief — briefs; fief — fiefs; relief — reliefs; chief — chiefs; handkerchief — handkerchiefs; mischief — mischiefs; grief — griefs; coif — coifs; gulf — gulfs.

Words ending in \( oo\); \( FF\) and \( RR\), without regard to their origin, commonly receive only \( s \) in the plural in Modern-English, and preserve the \( f \): roof — roofs; hoof — hoofs; proof — proofs; reproof — reproofs; whiff — whiffs; skiff — skiffs; cliff — cliffs; sheriff — sheriffs; bailiff — bailiffs; mastiff — mastiffs; distaff — distaffs; muff — muffs; ruff — ruffs; puff — puffs; snuff — snuffs; stuff — stuffs; cuff — cuffs; wharf — wharfs; dwarf — dwarf; scarf — scarfs; turf — turfs &c.

Deviating from this we find the plural of whom — wharfs, Anglosaxon hveorfa, hvërfa, mola. verticillus; hvearf, reversio, spatum; Middle-Highdutch warf; Old-norse hwarf, colliculus &c.; likewise turf — turves; Anglosaxon turf, plural tyrf, cespes, as in Old-English. Staff, commonly forms staves, but also staffs (compare hand-staff — handstaffs) (WEBST. a. Worcest.), Anglosaxon stäf — stafas, Old-English o staf — two staves (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 350). Even the strikingly formed mastiff (Old-French mastin, properly house dog, from maison), in North-English dialects masty, besides the plural mastiffs (DRYDEN, SWIFT) has also mastives (JOHNSON).

c) Substantives ending in \( ñ \) and \( ñ \) with a consonant immediately preceding transform their vowel into \( ñ \) in the plural, and assume es: fly — flies; spy — spies; allñ — allñes; óuterñ — óuterñes; bòðy — bòðies; city — cities; fänçois; stórý — stóries. The latter preserve the old orthography of their singular: citie, fancie (phantasie), storie.

In proper names a final \( ñ \) is commonly preserved and \( s \) only added: Henry — Henrys; Weakly — Weaklys; Petty — Pettys; Pretty — Prettys; Lovely — Lovelys; Quickly — Quicklys (LOWER Engl. Surnames p. 115); although, alongside of these, plurals of names originally generic, Freebodies, Goodbodies (in.) occur.

If another vowel immediately precedes the \( ñ \), \( s \) is added to the of unchanged fundamental form: key — keys; kidney — kidneys; journey — journeys; day — days; ray — rays; boy — boys. The derivative termination \( ey \) is, however, often treated like \( ñ \), so that we meet here and there the forms: attornies, monies, monkies, vallies, pullies, chimnies, which are rejected as incorrect by grammarians.

The rarely occurring final \( ñ \) is treated like \( ñ \): alkali — alkalies.

The e in simile is likewise occasionally transformed into ies: similies (MACKLIN), yet the plural in commonly similes.

d) Words in \( o \), mostly foreign words, commonly receive \( es \) in the plural, where \( e \) only serves to symbolize the lengthening of the \( o \).
This happens where no short i immediately precedes the o: echo — echoes; magnifico — magnificoes; manifesto — manifestoes; motto — mottoes; negro — negroe; potato — potatoes; buffalo — buffafoes; flamingo — flamingoes; vulcano — vulcanees; hero — heroes; calico — calicoes; on the contrary with a i preceding: intaglio — intaglions; nuncio — nuncioes; folio — folios; portfolio — portfolios; seraglio — seraglios.

But the usage is settled only in the more familiar forms of substantives of the former sort; we find likewise: mosquitos, porticos, virtuosos, dominos, cantos, grottos &c.

Of particles in o used substantively we sometimes find plurals which mostly assume a single s, but also es. The s is then often separated from o by an apostrophe, in order to render the particle form recognizable: The pros and cons (Webst.) from the Latin pro and contra. O, that your face were not so full of o's! Shakspeare ed. Collier, Love's L. L. 5, 2.). The aye's and no's of Parliament (Chalmers). All you fiery oes and eyes of light (Shaksp. Mids. N. Dr. 3, 2.). In russet yeas, and honest kersey noes (Shaksp. Love's L. L. 5, 2.).

The O' prefixed to Celtic proper names takes an s in the plural: Even the whigs allowed that, for once, the O's and Macs were in the right (Macaulay Hist. of Engl. 7. p. 208. Tauchin.).

The substantives in oo follow the main rule: cuckoo — cuckoos; Hindoo — Hindoos.

Note. In general, parts of speech of all kinds used substantively conform to the rules above laid down when they assume a plural form. Yet with particles and other parts of speech the separation of s from a previous vowel or consonant by the apostrophe sometimes occurs, as above remarked with regard to the s after o: The shes of Italy (Shakspe. ed. Collier Cymbel, 1, 4.), that is, women. Happy are the she's that can number amongst their ancestors counts of the Empire (Lady Montague). Your whole conversation is composed of ifs, buts, perhapses, and supposes (J. M. Cobb). Talk'st thou to me of if's, audacious traitor? (Rowe). But me no buts, unless you would pass o'er The bridge which few repass (L. Byron). Our to-days and yesterdays Are the blocks with which we build (Longfellow). Yeas and Nays (those voting yes and no) (Webst.).

Old-English, after it had made general the plural termination in s without regard to the final sound of the singular, used chiefly in the first place the full form es, for which it also substituted is, ys; these terminations often occur alongside of each other in the same writer. It also transferred them to French words, which had not the vowel; erles, wateres, wodes, lordes, Britones, felawes, faderes, foules, townes, kynges, kny3tes, Picardes, emperoures (Rob. of Gloucester), londes, berdes, weyes, townes, hilles, relikes, cubites. castelles &c. (Maundeves), werkes, wordes, weddynges, goodes, hestes, lordes, preestes, shereves (sheriffs), bargaynes, burgeises; beggeris, bideris, londeperis, flatereris &c. (Piers Ploughman). Alongside of these a single s, also z, appears more frequently in Romance words: persons, sisours, cura-
tours, bailiffs, artz, experimentz, sergauntz &c. (PiERS PLOUGHMAN); resons, conditions, surgiens, phisiciens, officers, perils, conseils, subgets, cosins, germainz, testaments, contracts &c. (CHAUCER). Words ending in a single consonant, as, particularly, r in an unaccented syllable, often reject the e, as beggers, singers, kaysers, flaterers, ladder &c.; but others, as evils, hyls, maydens, lوردings, stirrops &c.; which often stand alongside of the fuller forms, compare hillys and hyls (PERCY Rel. p. 2. II.), flatereris and flaterers (PiERS PLOUGHMAN p. 271.). Even in the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth century no fixed principle prevails, even in Romance words, in the choice of s and es. Skelton still writes: lyppes, wormes, buylidynges, frendis and frendis, yeres and yeris, knyghtes, hartes and hartis, princis and lordez, actes, barones, seruauntes &c. along with seruants, castels, waters, cofers, systers &c. Nuts, peares, plumbs. Greene beanes are found in TAYLORS WORKES 1630. I. 97. STEPHEN'S ESSAYES and CHARACTERS 2. ed. 1650. In the second half of the seventeenth century the principle is established to let es come in chiefly after sibilant and hissing sounds, and thenceforward e is gradually restricted to a few other cases.

Irregular Formation of the Plural.

Forms departing from the above mentioned formation of the plural appear at present as irregular. They are of various kinds.

a) Some plural forms rest solely upon a variety of spelling; whereby there arise some duplicate forms, which have been made use of to distinguish separate significations. Here belong:

penne, Anglosaxon pending, pening, penig, a small coin; the plural pennies denotes only the single concrete piece of money; the form pence is the term for the value. The latter proceeded from the former and was spelt pens in Old-English: Thei boughte Jesu for 30 penyes (MAUNDEV. p. 83.). There caste Judas the 30 pens before hem (ib. p. 93.). It hathe cost me pence And grotes many one (SKELTON I. p. 236.). For one shot of five pence thou shalt have five thousand welcomes (SHAKSPERE Two Gentlem. of Ver.).

die, French dé, forms the plurals dice and dies, a stamp; the Old-English has the plural deys (WEBER), dees (PiERS PLOUGHIM. and GOWER in Halliwell s. v.) and dis (CHAUCER). He won it me with false dice (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado ab. N.)

pea, Anglosaxon pisa, piosa, Old-French pois, peis. Latin pisum forms the plural peas and pease, the latter of which is regarded as collective. The Old-English has the singular pese and the plural pesen (Anglosaxon pisa, -an) (MAUNDEV. p. 199), but also peses (PiERS PLOUGHIM. p. 128.) alongside of pesen (p. 129.). Even Maundeville uses also pese as a plural; peasen was still in use in the seventeenth century (J. WALLIS p. 69).

b) A few irregular plural forms are remnants of the strong declen-
sion of the Anglosaxon. To the second strong declension of the masculine correspond:

man, plural men; Anglosaxon mann, plural menn, men. Com-
pound substantives follow the simple: woman — women, Anglo-
saxon wifmann, wimmann, vimmann, vemann, with which we may
compare mägdenmann, virgo; merman — mermen, placed by the
side of mermaid, which in Anglosaxon was meremenn, nympha,
compare the Old-Highdutch mermiinni; and so a great multitude
of others: alderman, nobleman, yeoman, penman, footman, earsman,
boatman, seaman, countryman, kinsman, huntsman, coachman,
chapman, churchman &c., to which also names of nations, as
Frenchman, Englisman, Scotchman &c. belong. Yet here Norman
— Normans, German — Germans are excepted, whose names, in
as much as they have passed through the Romance, no longer
remind us of their origin, although the Anglosaxon possessed Nor-
mann alongside of Nordmann. Those not compounded of man
are of course not regarded, as Ottoman — Ottomans, Mussulman
Mussulmans &c.

Proper names compounded of man are likewise withdrawn
from the old plural form; whence the plurals Brightmans, Flat-
mans, Wisemans, Truemans, Goodmans &c.

The old word leman, Old-English leman, also lefmon, that is
leef man, leef man (originally used of both sexes), takes s in the
plural, as even in Old-English it received s and es: He hadde 300
lemannes (Maundev. p. 72.); lemmans of knyghtes (Piers Plough-
man p. 431.); lemmannes (ib. p. 303.).

foot, plural feet, Anglosaxon fot, plural fet; Old-English foot —
fete; along with which old plural forms are also found: fotez, fot-
tis (Halliwell s. v.), and so occasionally in Modern-English
feet: By these dear fragrant feet and little toes (Otway Venice
s likewise appears in the plural: Lightfeet &c.

tooth, plural teeth; Anglosaxon tōd, plural tēd.

To the second strong declension of feminines belong:

mouse, plural mice; Anglosaxon mūs, plural mys; Old-English
mous — mys, mees; myse in Skelton I. 61. Likewise compounds,
as shrewmouse, rear-mouse &c.

louse, plural lice; Anglosaxon lūs, plural lūs; Old-English lous
— lys; also compounds, like crab-louse &c.

goose, plural geese; Anglosaxon gōs, plural gēs; Old-English gos
— gees; to which compounds, as stubble-goose &c.

cow, plural kine alongside of cows; Anglosaxon cū, plural cŷ,
(genitive cūna); Old-English ku — kyen; Percy Rel. p. 120. I
has the plural kye from the 16th century. The form kine is
chiefly to be found in poets, but it is also met with in prosewriters;
in poetry, for instance: And there he blasts the trees .. And makes
milch-kine yield blood (Shakspeare Merry Wiv. 5, 1.). The kine
of the pasture shall feel the dart that kills (Bryant). Round
about him were numberless herds of kine (Longfellow); and in
prose: His stores of oatmeal were brought out: kine were slugh-
tered (Macaulay Hist. of Engl. 5. p. 30.). The ne (en) perhaps springs from the weak declension.

c) Other plural forms rest upon the weakAnglosaxon declension, which has already penetrated into substantives originally strong, which sofar unite a double plural form.

eye; plural, sometimes even in Modern-English eyen, eyne along with the usual eyes; Anglosaxon ēge, plural ēgan; Old-English eigh, igh, also e, ee, even now Scottish ee, plural eyzen, eighen and eighes (Piers Plough.) also eyen, eyenen, ein, eene, Scottish eën. Eyen and eyne in Skelton; eyne in Spenser and Shakspeare Love's L. L. 5, 2. Mids. N. Dr. 1, 1. 2, 2. alongside of eyes. The forms ee, plural een, are used by W. Scott and Byron, and are still in use in Lancaster, Westmoreland and Cumberland.

ox, plural oxen; Anglosaxon oxa, plural oxan, has remained till now faithful to the ancient form.

hose, plural hosen, for which hose is now substituted; Anglosaxon hose, plural hosan, Old-English hose — hosen.

shoe, has a more ancient plural shoon alongside of the modern shoes; Anglosaxon scōh, scō, plural scōs, but also scōn; Old-English sho, sco — shoon, shone and shoes; Scottish sho — shoon; shoon is even now in use in Westmoreland, sheaun in Yorkshire. W. Scott uses shoon; also Lord Byron: He wore his sandal-shoon (Childe Har.).

child, plural children, Anglosaxon cild according to the strong form of declension, plural cild and, with r (er) inserted, as often in Anglosaxon, cildru. The en is added, and is often wanting in Old-English: Ye was no childer game (Percy Rel. p. 94. II.). His children three (Towneley Myst. p. 35). Thus, moreover, Old-English, instead of lambs, has the plural lambre, for which also lamben occurred, formed, after the Anglosaxon lamb, plural lambru, (Piers Plough. p. 307.; Lydgate Minor Poems ed. Halliw. p. 169.), ayren, eyren alongside of egges, eggys, after the Anglosaxon āg, plural āgru, āgeru, instead of eggs, of which eyren in Caxton's time was the usual form in Kent; calceren, according to the Anglosaxon cealf, calf, plural cealfru, instead of calves.

brother, plural brethren alongside of brothers, Anglosaxon anomalously, brōðor (dative singular brōðer), plural brōðru and brōðra; Old-English sing. broder, brother, plural broder, brethren, bredere (Towneley Myster) and brethren, brethren. The Old-English formed analogously suster, sister — sustren, sisters, Anglosaxon sveostor, svyster — sveostra; and dost, doughter — drōtren, doughtren, Anglosaxon dōhter — dōhtra. — In prose brothers is now commonly used of brothers as children of a family; brethren in a lofty style and ecclesiastical language, mostly figuratively. Compare in the proper sense: Joseph ... the which had VII brethren (Skelton I. p. 203). For who is amongst them whose brethren, parents, children, wives or sisters Have not partook oppression ...? (L. Byron); and figuratively in comparison with brothers: Call not thy brethren brethren! Call me not Mother (10.)

The number of plurals in en is pretty considerable in Rob. of Gloucester. Besides the forms above named, still to be met with
in subsequent writers, there are here found by way of example forms in part justifiable, belonging in Anglosaxon to the weak declension, as *arwen*, Anglosaxon areve, -an (I. 48.); *sten*, horses, Anglosaxon stêda, -an (I. 185.); *schiren*, Anglosaxon scire, -an (I. 60.); *sterren*, Anglosaxon steorra, -an (I. 229); *ameten*, Anglosaxon æmete, -an (I. 296.); *chyrchen*, Anglosaxon cyric, -en and -an (I. 319.); *hassen*, Anglosaxon assa, -an (II. 404.); *massen*, Anglosaxon mæsse, -an (II. 405.); *been*, Anglosaxon beó, -n and -an (II. 493.); and in part such as are not justifiable through the Anglosaxon, as belonging to a strong form of declension: *tren*, Anglosaxon treov, -es (I. 1.); *lesen*, common partures, Anglosaxon lesu, -ve, now dialectically lease (in.); *heueden*, heads, Anglosaxon heafud, -es (I. 261.); *applen*, apples, Anglosaxon appel, -es (I. 283.); *candlen*, Anglosaxon candel, -e feminine and -esneutr. (I. 290.); *soulen*, souls, Anglosaxon savel, -e (I. 319.); *honden*, hands, Anglosaxon hand, -e (I. 345.); *hyden*, of land, Anglosaxon hyd, -e (II. 374.); *benen*, beans, Anglosaxon béan, -e (II. 495.) and others. Even Romance words are referred here, as *unclen*, Old-French oncle, uncle (I. 87.): *lancen*, Old-French lance, lance (I. 185.) and others; adjectives which have become substantives, as *fon*, enemies, Anglosaxon fâ adject. &c. These plurals are proportionately numerous even at the end of the fourteenth century. Many still live only dialectically, as *ashen*, *housen*, still in use in the seventeenth century, and others.

d) Some plurals are of the same sound as their *singualrs*.

1) These are such Anglosaxon neuters of the strong form as are not distinguished in the nominative and accusative of the plural from the like cases of the singular. Here belong some names of beasts, as:

*neat*, plural *neat*, Anglosaxon neát, pecus, bestia; now little used in the singular: for ex. neat’s tongue, taken collectively in the plural.

*deer*, plural *deer*, Anglosaxon deór, bestia.

*sheep*, plural *sheep*, Anglosaxon sceáp, ovis. The form sheeps is rare; compare: Two hot *sheeps*. (SHARSP. Love’s L. L. II. 1.);

Old-English also *shep*.

*swine*, plural *swine*, Anglosaxon svin, sus; Old-English also *swyn*.

*horse*, plural *horse*, alongside of the usual *horses*, Anglosaxon hors, equus. Horse occurs in the plural only collectively of cavalry, as is wont to be regarded.

Of another kind are Anglosaxon neuters, which had already the character of collectives in the singular.

*folk*, plural *folk* and *folks*, Anglosaxon folc, populus, gens. Common usage gives the plural an *s*, if the image of the individuals comes into the foreground. The singular is commonly used for people in general: Not to thinketh the *folk* of the village (LONGFELLOW). — I’ll make him marry *more folks* than one (SHERIDAN). There are some *gentlefolks* below to wait upon Lord Foppington (I.D.). The weeping isle That sends the Boston *folks* their cod, shall smile (BRYANT). Old-English uses the plural form with *s*,
primarily in the meaning of nations: Where dwellen many dyverse Folkes, and of dyverse Maneres and Lawes (Maunde, p. 4.). Yet folk and folkes are used for people in general: Thanne longen folk to gon on pilgrimages (Chaucer C. T. 12). What thar the recch or care How merily that other folkes faré? (ii. 5911.). To the word folk the word people has been early assimilated, and used in the general meaning without s. Compare the Old-Engl.: Fyve thousand peple (Piers Plough. p. 328.). Modern-English These people, however fallen, are still men (Goldsmith). These people of the northern parts of Scotland were not one nation, but divided in two (W. Scott). I have given over fifty people in my time, who have recovered afterwards (James Cobb.). The plural peoples stands for: nations in the translation of the Bible; Chambers used it in his Information for the People, Lond. 1849: Considering the remoteness of the various peoples from one another (p. 29. II.) et ibidem (p. 31. I.).

kindred, is given by Worcester with the double plural kindred and kindreds. In the Anglosaxon I do not find cyndred; as a compound of ræden it would be of the feminine gender, yet hivrêd, familia, and hundred, centum, of the neuter gender, occur. The Old-English form is kynrede, kynrede, kunrede.

An Anglosaxon neuter of another sort is pound, Anglosaxon pund in singular and plural, which sometimes, even in the plural, sounds pound, but commonly pounds. Old-English: Folle-prytt poussend pound (Rob. of Gloucester I. 297.). Thritti thousent pound askede he (Percy Rel. p. 90. I.). For singulars of like meaning, used instead of the plural, see below.

2) An Anglosaxon feminine substantive attaches itself to these forms: score, which remains unchanged in the plural; Anglosaxon scor, plural scora, incisiura, numeros vicinarius. The likeness is explained by the loss of the final vowel, hence: They reign'd the monarchs of a score of miles (H. Walpole) and threescore, 60; fourscore, 80 &c. So too in Old-English: Many score thousand (Piers Ploughim. p. 349.). Twenty score paces (Percy Rel. p. 46.).

3) The great number of adjectives used as substantives do not to a great extent change their form in the plural. They are for the most part originally Anglosaxon, but also Romance adjectives. First of all belong here the comparatives and superlatives, as well as the participial forms in ing and ed. The vestiges of an ancient inflection have long been lost. For particulars see below; on the Adjective, where mention is made of those which have completely passed over into the inflection of substantives. For the sake of example compare: The proud are taught to taste of pain (Gray). Lamentations ill become us, When the good are ravish'd from us (H. Walpole). The rich with us have two sources of wealth, whereas the poor have but one (Goldsmith). The brave should ever love each other (id.). The vile are only vain; the great are proud (L. Byron). At the hour of council... I shall not Be found among the absent (id.). And must they fall, the young, the proud, the brave? (id.). Blessed
are the *pure* before God (LONGFELLOW). And I was healed as the *sick* are healed (ID.) — Though twenty thousand *worthier* came to crave her (SHAKESPEARE). The *vilest* here excel me (MILTON). — But how to think of what the *living* know not, And the *dead* cannot, or else may not tell (J. HUGHES). For the *blinded* and the *suffering* Alone were at his side (WHITTIER). Old-English still frequently inflected with a plural *e*, which appears to correspond to the Anglosaxon *e* of the adjective in the plural of the strong form of declension; compare Anglosaxon bald, plural *balde*; *audax*, *audaces*; blind, plural *blinde*; *coecus*, *coeci* &c. Old-English: Of alle manere of men The *meene* and the *riche* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 2.). And the *povere* fede (ib. p. 6.). Amonges *poore* and *riche* (ib. p. 278.). The *gode* shulle gon to Paradyss, and the *evele* to Helle (MAUNDEV. p. 132.). Yet the *e* also was early cast off: Though it be songe of *old* and *yonge* (PERCY REL. p. 97. II.). This *e* is also extended to participial forms: One of Goddes *chosene* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 209.); it is often wanting in those in *ed* in Piers Ploughman.

Some few original adjectives fluctuate; here belong: *heathen*, plural *heathen* and *heathens*, Anglosaxon *heæden*, Adj.  
4) The case is rare that substantives ending in hissing sounds lose their *s* in the plural, as is sometimes the case in the genitive, if the substantive ends in *s* or *ce*. Older instances are: Madame regent of the *scyence* *seyvn* (CHAUCER I. p. 363.). These two *Antipholus*, these two so like (SHAKESPEARE Com. of Errors extr.); whereas elsewhere Antipholuses stands in the same author.

5) Latin words of the fourth and fifth declension sometimes retain their forms in the same sound in the nominative of the plural as in the singular, as *apparatus*, *hiatus*, series and others, but *apparatuses*, *hiatures*, *serieses* &c. also occur.  
e) Many foreign words have irregular plurals, alongside whereof forms gradually Anglicised become gradually more current.  
1) Here we reckon Latin and originally Greek words, which follow the second and third Latin declension, like many in us: *incubus* — *incubi* and *incubuses*; *radius* — *radii* and *radiuses*; *focus* — *foci* and *focuses*; *fungus* — *fungi* and *funguses*; *chorus* — *chori* and *choruses*; *genius* — *genii*, but *geniuses* &c.; so too *triumvir* — *triumviri* and *triumvirs*; on the other hand the plural magi from *magus* is usual, as also *antiscii*, *periscii*, *antæci*, *anthropopagi* &c., which usually occur only in the plural. Words in *um*, on often have their original plural in *a*, but also in *s*: *elysium* — *elysia* and *elysiums*; *memorandum* — *memoranda* and *memorandums*; *stratum* — *strata*, rarely *stratums*, and others, but forms like *exordiums*, *millenniums*, *decorums* are not unusual; *automaton* (*um*) — *automata* and *automatums*; *criterion* (*um*) — *criteria* and *criteriums*; *phenomenon* — *phenomena*, very unusually *phenomenons*. The plurals *effluvia*, *errata*, *arcana*, *data*, and some others, from words in *um* are still very common. Words in *is*, not increasing by a syllable in
inflection in the Latin, retain es, in the English plural: axis — axes; oasis — oases; ellipsis — ellipses; parenthesis parenthenses; hypothesis — hypotheses and the like. Words in x (ix, ex), increasing by a syllable in the Latin, commonly have an English regular form alongside of their Latin one: calix — calces and calxes; calix — calces and calixes; vortex — vortices and vortexes; to the double plural forms index: indices (Exponents of numbers) and indexes (to books) different meanings are annexed; with others the English plural form is hardly found, as from apex — apices. Latin or Greek words in is, increasing in inflection, retain their Latin and Greek inflection: iris — irides; ascaris — ascarides; cantharis — cantharides. Words in en with an increasing form of inflection incline towards the English inflection: omen — omens (GOLDSMITH), stamen — stamens (this only in Botany) else stamina. Dogma forms dogmas and dogmata, exanthema — exanthemata and so others in ma; genus has genera; regale — regalia, in the Latin form.

2) Some originally Hebrew words have preserved their plural in im alongside of the regular English one: seraph — seraphim and seraphs; cherub — cherubim and cherubs. The form im has also been treated as a singular and formed a plural cherubims.

3) A few French words which have become naturalized in English are here and there found with a French plural termination, as beau — beaux and beaus; manteau — manteaux, on the other hand commonly portmanteau — portmanteaux &c.; monsieur — messieurs and the like.

Italian plurals in i from singulars in o or e are likewise used: banditto — banditti; virtuoso — virtuosi; dilettante dilettanti; cognoscente — cognoscenti; conversazione — conversazioni &c.

Plural formation of compound substantives.

The plurals of compound substantives present upon the whole no peculiarities, so far as these words, as inseparable bodies, must regularly subjoin the inflective termination to their last constituent, where they have to assume a plural form. Yet the English compounding is partly of a looser kind, so as to let the syntactical relation of their elements glimmer through, whereby some anomalies arise in the inflection. In general the following rules obtain:

1) If a substantive is compounded of substantives, standing in a direct relation to each other, that is to say, appearing joined to each other, either by way of apposition or of addition, the last alone is inflected:

peacock — peacocks; cuckoo-bird — cuckold-birds (SHAKSPEARE); oaktree — oak-trees; fellow-servant — fellow-servants; merchant-man — merchant-men; my fellow-scholars (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wives); to encrust the bones of merchant-dukes (L. BYRON Ch. Har.). The shepherd kings of patriarchal times (ID. SARDANAPAL).
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Earl-Marshall — Earl-Marshals; hence we find also, with the prefixing of the word Lord in the plural Lord Lieutenants (CRABB Hist. of Engl. Law p. 541.); on the other hand also; the power of the Lords Marchers (ib. p. 441).

2) If the substantives stand in an indirect relation, the fundamental word is inflected: gunstock — gunstocks; fruit-tree — fruit-trees; cabinet-maker — cabinet-makers. Hence, when the determining substantive is subjoined with a preposition, the preceding substantive is inflected: sister-in-law — sisters-in-law; commander-in-chief — commanders-in-chief.

3) If a substantive is compounded with an adjective preceding it, only the substantive is capable of inflection: blackbird — black-birds; wild-geese; if the adjective follows the substantive, the substantive is ordinarily provided with the plural termination, as in knight-errant — knights-errant; court-martial — courts-martial; yet no agreement is here to be found. Halliwell forms the plural knights-errants (see HALL. Dict. s. v. Graal), and with regard to words compounded with ful: mouthful, handful, spoonful, ladleful, lapful &c. opinions diverge about the annexing of the s to the first or the second word. But in general the spelling handfuls is preferred to handsful: Tond same cloud cannot choose but fall by pailfuls (SHAKSP. Temp. 2. 2.). Handsfuls or small parcels of anything (HALLIWELL s. v. culpons); mouthfuls (WEBST. and WORCEST.). Handful is also found unaltered in the plural: For of the lower end two handful it hat devoured, ’twas so manful (BUTLER); and this is the Old-English mode: pratti schipful of men (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 39.); myd pre schipful of kny3tes (ib. 111.)

4) If the composition consists of a substantive with a particle subjoined the substantive receives the sign of the plural: holderforth — holdersforth (WEBST. and WORCEST.); hanger-on — hangers-on.

5) If a preceding verbal element is compounded with a substantive, the inflection goes to the substantive: spend-thrift — spend-thrifts; it likewise goes to the last element if no substantive at all is contained in the compound: Lazy lubbers, good-for-nothings (FOUR OLD PLAYS, Cambridge 1848. Gloss. s. v. slowches) The lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels (LONGFELLOW).

 peculiariitie in the use of the Numerals.

The singular supposes the image of an individual, apart from the further determination of the object imagined, as a unit: the plural contains the image of a plurality of individuals. The nature of the object governs the possibility of imagining it in the plural; whence all classes of substantives are not alike capable of the plural formation.

The plural changes in general naught in the notion of the object; yet the image of a thing as a whole, conditioned by the plural, may give the noun a modified or a different meaning.

The plural supposes indeed a-singular; but objects which are
wont to occur in the plural in common experience, may lose their singular form, or, at least, the use of them may become very limited. Primitive plurals may excite the image of a single, though compound object, and thence take the character of singulars; as, conversely, a single object may excite a collective image, thereby taking the nature of a plural. Negligence in speech may also in familiar words cast off the inflective termination, a singular form thereby taking the place of the plural. We shall consider numerals from these four points of view.

a) The various classes of substantives have in various degrees the capacity of forming a plural.

1) **Names of sorts**, in the narrower sense, or concrete names of sorts are most capable of the plural formation, since their singulars denote concrete individuals: man — men; house — houses; flower — flowers; field — fields &c. The terms for individuals too, belonging to a people or a place, are names of sorts, and have a plural form, unless they are adjectives used substantively, and retaining, as such, the adjective form: Celts, Germans, Saxons, Londoners &c.

2) **Proper names** form a plural according to two regards:

a) when they denote a plurality of individuals of the same name: As I hate hell, all Montaques and thee (Shakspr.). The revolution which drove out the Tarquins (Tytler). One Macdonald is worth two Camerons (Macaulay). In the midland counties of Scotland, such as the three Lothians (W. Scott). If a substantive determination in this case precedes the proper name, as a title or a second name, only the last proper name is usually inflected: Three doctor Faustuses (Shakspr. Merry Wives). If he were twenty sir John Falstaffs (ib.). The two doctor Thomsons (Goldsmith). One of the miss Flamboroughs (id.). Yet in regard to names with a title preceding no complete agreement obtains; we also say, especially in superscriptions: to the Misses Howard; to Messrs Thomson &c., with an inflection of the title merely. If another name of a sort precedes the name of a sort, as a determination of it, only the first name of the sort is inflected: the brothers Thomson; the cousins Wilberforce.

b) if they become names of sorts in afigurative meaning: I demanded who were the present theatrical writers in vogue, who the Drydens and Otways of the day? (Goldsmith). Not so are Motières and Shakspeares allowed to manifest their strength (Lewes). Even here prefixed titles and proper names remain unchanged: May there not be Sir Isaac Newtons in every science? (Watts).

3) **Collective names** are of course capable of the plural formation, if totalities of individuals exist in a plural, as armies, assemblies, forests, tribes, crowds &c.

4) **Names of materials** appear in the plural, if they are distinguished in kind, as oil, oils (different sorts of oils); or if subjects consisting of materials are named simply by their material: copper, coppers, silk, silks, iron, irons, sand, sands. The Poetic view often takes names of materials in the plural as the expres-
sion of separate masses or of such as are renewed repeatedly: As in the summer-time the thirsty sands drink the swift waters of the Manzanares (LONGFELLOW). White as the snows of heaven (J. HUGHES). Cool shades and dews are round my way (BRYANT). No more the cabin smokes rose wreathed and blue (id.). Come when the rains have glazed the snow (id.). This manner of expression is also not foreign to the nobler prose.

5) Abstract substantives appear in the plural, partly if the notion is distinguished by sorts, partly if properties or activities are represented as belonging to different persons or as activities repeated: Local jealousies and local interests had brought his army together (MACAULAY). The dog is ever the friend of his friend, and enters into all his predilections and animosities (MAVOR). It is chiefly in warm or temperate latitudes that all the beauties of his form, and the energies of his character are displayed (with regard to the horse) (ib.). I'll see Castalio, tax him with his falsehoods (OTWAY). Vasco de Gama, a man of great abilities (J. BARROW). — Wherein has Caesar thus deserved your loves? (SHAKESPEARE Jul. C.). Sure, something more than fortune joined your loves (ROWE). Our lives are rivers gliding free To that unfathomed, boundless sea, The silent grave (LONGFELLOW). I better bore The deaths of the two sons Heaven took from me Than Jacopo's disgrace (L. BYRON). — Indeed! — By all our loves! (OTWAY). 'Twere ten thousand pities (SHERIDAN). The wills above be done (SHAKSP. Temp.). O let the soul her slumbers break (LONGFELLOW). If the abstract substantive is taken concretely, the plural needs no further explanation: On the legs (of the camel) are six callosities (MAVOR). Yet the substantive is often taken concretely only in the plural, as, in effect, effects; sweeping, sweepings.

b) In connection with the plurals above discussed stands the apparent transmutation of the meaning of the substantive in the plural. But a difference arises through a notion's being taken either in a metaphorical, restricted or amplified meaning in the plural, or because subjects express in the plural a single compound thing. Here substantives of all classes come under review. Many of these plurals have been taken from other tongues.

1) Taken in a metaphorical, restricted or amplified meaning, for example, are substantives like respect, respects; honour, honours; state, states; part, parts; attack, attacks; force, forces; spirit, spirits; vapour, vapours; grain, grains; ground, grounds, and many more. The number of these words is great.

2) A compound whole is likewise often expressed by denoting the single ingredients, which must likewise often be taken in a metaphorical meaning. Compare lead, leads; colour, colours; stock, stocks; chap, chaps; blind, blinds; stay, stays; bead, beads; scale, scales; drawer, drawers; spectacle, spectacles; stair, stairs; nipper, nippers; table, tables; letter, letters. Even abstract substantives present in the plural the image of a totality of activities, as draught, draughts; in a metaphorical meaning even the place to
which the repeated activity relates may be present in the total image: sounding, soundings; inning, innings.

c) Many substantives occur only or hardly ever save in the plural. English owes many plurals of this sort to its fundamental tongues, whereby the nonexistence of an English singular is explained. In a grammar it suffices to characterize this numerous class in general terms.

1) They are partly names of kinds, denoting persons or personified beings, which are commonly mentioned only in their totality, although they may also be mentioned here and there in the singular; and partly adjectives used substantively, and among them foreign words, which belong to scientific usage. Instances are: ancients; moderns (both seldom in the singular); parents (certainly usual in the singular for father or mother); ostmen, Danish settlers in Ireland; commons (used as a substantive in the singular for a common pasture); waite (Old-French gaité, waite); the Latin manes, penates &c. Hyades, Pleiades, also in the English form Hyads, Pleiads; caryatides and caryates (in the singular also caryatid); the geographical terms ascii (also ascians with the singular ascian), amphiscii, antiscii, periscii, antœci, periœci, antipodes, (rare in the singular antipode) and others, as anthropophagi, acephali (the name of a sect), literati, and many more.

With these are associated names of mountains, islands, countries and so forth, which are to be regarded as proper names of a multitude: Alps (rarely alp = mountain), Alpenines, Pyrenees &c. Azores, Maldives, Ladrones, Hebrides &c., Netherlands, Low Countries, Indies (East Indies, West Indies) as distinguished from ancient India &c.; further, geographical terms, as Dardanelles &c.

2) Concrete names of things of this class are divided into several groups.

e) Many substantives relate to a dual, or double articulation, in which the objects appear.

Here belong organic double members: meninges (Greek μηνίγγες from μηνύς, skin), the integuments of the brain; lights, lungs (Anglosaxon lungen, only plural); reins, kidneys (compare Latin renes); hypochondres (Greek ἰποχόνδρες), hence also perhaps posteriors, Latin posteriora; genitals, Latin genitalia, as mustaches (alongside of mustach) and whiskers (compare the Highdutch wisch). The clothing of two limbs: mittens (French mitaine); spatts and spatterdashes; especially the names for the clothing of the legs: breeches (Anglosaxon plural brèc from brèc, Latin bracae), in the singular commonly meaning buttock; also brogues (in Suffolk; elsewhere brogue is a wooden shoe); trowsers, French trousses; slops (Anglosaxon slop, indumentum); overalls; galligaskins (gallo-vascones, caligae Vaseonom) now facetiously; in conversational speech: inexpressibles, non-descripts &c. Tools having two legs or levers: scissors
French ciseaux) and shears (rarely in the singular, Old-High-
dutch scâri, Middle-Highdutch schaere; compare Anglosaxon 
scâr, vomer); snuffers (in the singular one who snuffs); pin-
cers, pinchers (compare the French pincette), tongs (Anglo-
saxon tange); pliers, plyers; tweeizers (compare the High-
dutch zwicke); calipers (compare caliber from the Arabic 
kalbah, French calibre); hence also perhaps nutcrackers. 
Pells mean the parchments of the treasury, pellis acceptorum 
and exituum.

\( \beta \) Others express objects existing together in an indefinite multi-
tude, or consisting of several parts.

Here belong expressions for organic parts, particularly:
entrails (French entraîlles); intestines (rarely in the singu-
lar, Latin intestina); inwards (rarely in the sing.); bowels
(Old-French boel, boiele); whereas guts (Anglosaxon guttas,
only plural) in English is in use also in the singular gut; chit-
terlings (compare Anglosaxon cvio, uterus and the Highdutch
kutteln); numerals also numbles (compare the French nomble,
Latin lumbulus); giblets (compare the French gibelotte; vitals.

Pieces of clothing: as compounded of several parts: weeds
(Anglosaxon væd, vestimentum), rare in the singular; regi-
mentals; pontificals, Latin pontificalia; canonicals; hence
also weapons, as arms, even in Latin arma, rare in the sing;
greaves, also graves (Old-French greves, Medieval-Latin gre-
vae) (perhaps because of the double piece), as also tasses
(Old-French tassetes de corcelet = corselet?), legplates (proper-
ly from the waist to the knee). Here also belongs trappings,
properly from the saddle cloth (compare the span. port. trapo,
French drap).

Compound products of human activity generally: clayes
(French claire); shambles (Anglosaxon scamol); stews (Anglo-
saxon stov).

Agglomerations or aggregates of all sorts: ashes, embers,
cinders (also cinder); raments; dregs (Old-English dregg),
lees (unusual in the sing.), faeces; molasses; melasses;
spraints; hards, hurds; lesses.

Provisions: victuals; eatables; drinkables; viands;
greens; delicates; groats (compare Anglosaxon grytt, grot,
fragmentum); oats, rarely oat, save in compounds (Anglosaxon
âta); fesels (compare Latin fasulius).

Moneys and Revenues: annats; estovers (Old-French verb
estofer), legal maintenance; esplees (Old-French espleit), com-
plete income of an estate; emblements (Old-French embler);
proceeds; thirdings, the third of the produce of the harvest,
which falls to the landlord at the death of the tenant; vails,
vales; wages (Old-French gage, wage); pentecostals (to
the clergy) &c.

Materials and subjects, which are commonly used collectively:
materials (in use also in the sing.); woollens; movables;
combustibles; abstergents (commonly, adjectives used as
substantives).
Games, in which the subjects are to be imagined as multiplied: nine-holes; ninepins; billiards; loggats; hot-cockles (French hautes coquilles?) &c.

Diseases, so far as they are determined by their symptoms, when abstract substantives also appear: measles (in the singular, a leper); jardes (French jardon); lampers, also lamps, a disease of horses; vives, fives (French avives), a horse disease; whites; shingles; hemorrhoids, emeroids, eme-rods.

Extensions in space: environs; marches (Anglo-saxon meare).

Literary productions: annals, memoirs, epics.

3) Abstract substantives occur more rarely in the plural only. Yet there belong here:

A considerable number of names of Sciences, as totalities of doctrines, of principles or of knowledge, as ethics, optics, economics, politics (formerly, in the sing. a politician), mathematics, metaphysics, mnemonics, numismatics, dialectics (also in the sing.), dioptrics, hydraulics, hydrostatics, gnomonics, and other adjectives in ic used as substantives; even in iac: genethliacs.

Feasts, solemnities and formalities occur, mostly after the precedent of other tongues, likewise in the plural: Bacchanalia and bacchanals, orgies (rare in the sing.), Lupercalia (sing. Lupercal in Shakspeare), eceenia &c., exequies (Latin exsequiae), obsequies, rarely in the sing. (French obsèques), espousals (French épousailles), nuptials (compare Latin nuptiae): with which determinations of time are associated, as calendes, ides, nones (nonae), matins (French matines), vespers (French vèpres) &c., in which the activities falling on them are in part disregarded.

We must also apprehend as a comprehension or repetition of activities plural substantives like thanks (Anglo-saxon panç); attentates, a judicial process after an injunction or appeal, and similar ones; as also the facetious sullens (from the Anglo-saxon syljan), is to be taken like the dumps, also in use in the singular.

d) The use of the plural instead of the singular, and conversely, is on the whole limited. Many forms which are reckoned here are of unknown origin.

1) Some plurals have in fact become singulars in speech. They then partly run in the plural the same as in the singular, and have partly developed a new plural out of the original plural form. Here belong: odds, sing. and plur. (perhaps belongs to the Gothic aupsp, Old-norse audr, Old-Highdutch od, Modern-Highdutch öde = desertus, vacuo; also at present edd means in dialects, lonely, alone; the Cymric od seems borrowed from the English), inequality, difference, advantage: — means, sing. and plur. (Old-French meien, moiën): — news, commonly treated as a singular, but also as a plural in the same form. Compare: Thus answer I ... But hear these ill news with the ears of Claudio
(Shakspeare Much Ado ab. Noth.); as a singular even in Skelton: I am glad to hear that newes (Merie Tales). — bellows, singular and plural (Old-norse belgr, Anglosaxon belg, bulga), wrongly contended to be a singular. Compare: Flattery is the bellows blows up sin (Shakspeare Pericl. 1, 2.). They watched the laboring bellows, And as its panting ceased . Merrily laughed (Longfellow). — gallows, with a new formed plural gallowses, even in Shakspeare Cymb. 5, 4. (Anglosaxon galga). — pox and small-pox, alongside of which the proper singular form pock occurs, are regarded as singulars (Anglosaxon pocc, poc). — Other words are here and there treated as singulars, as amends (French amende), even sessions. Compare: I'll try him only for a sessions or two longer, upon his good behaviour (John Gay); even the names of books Apocrypha and Hexapla. — Here a few compounds are also to be reckoned, which, as terms for coins according to the number of units composing them, have assumed quite the nature of singulars and form new plurals: sixpence, plur. sixpences; ninepence, plur. nyp. e. nines; twopence, plur. twopences. Compare: Of seven groats in mill-sixpences (Shakspeare Merry Wiv. 1, 2.).

We must regard as a cognate syntactical license the use of a multitude in the singular as the term for a college: The Forty hath decreed a month's arrest (L. Byron Mar. Faliero). The Forty doth salute The Prince of the Republic (ID.); on the other hand: The Forty are but men (ID.). Thus too other enumerated units are construed as totalities with the singular of the verb: Every twenty paces gives you the prospect of some villa, and every four hours that of a large town (Lady Montague). Here three parts of the business is left for me to do (Goldsmith). Other apparent combinations of a verb in the singular with plurals have to be explained in the Doctrine of the Verb and in the syntax.

But another class of these words consists of original singulars: alms passes for the sing. and the plur. (Anglosaxon álmsse, έλημοσοννη; Old-English sing. almesse, plur. almesses; in Shakspeare alms as a singular). — riches is now taken as a plural (Old-French richesce, ricece, Old-English sing. richesse, plural richeses; riches in Shakspeare sing. and plur.). — summons is rightly treated as a proper singular, from which the plural summonses has been formed (Old-French semonse, semonce). eaves is universally regarded as plural, although it is naught else but an Anglosaxon singular (yfes, ôfes, òfes and yfese, marge; Old-Highdutch opasa, tectum).

2) Singulars on the contrary are often treated as plurals.

a) Here belong words taken in a collective sense and which are also referred to a determinate number of individuals, and however they may be combined with the plural of the verb, without further determination, as infantry, cavalry and others: The force of Hannibal consisted of fifty thousand infantry and nine thousand cavalry (Gifford). And he loved his queen . . And thrice a thousand harlotry besides (L. Byron Sardanapal.). And the rope
with its cordage three (Longfellow). Compare Old-English Throughe a hondrith archery (Percy Rel. p. 4. I.). Concrete names of kinds, except in the case specified undes $p$, are more rarely construed with the plural (especially of attributive determinations). Genuine plurals, as deer, sheep, swine and even horse, in spite of its collateral form horses, cannot be referred here (see p. 229), but some other names of animals certainly occur here. To the word horse (for cavalry) the word foot has been early assimilated: There were Beaumont's foot, who had . . refused to admit Irish papists among them (Macaulay). Compare the Old-English: In this firste hoost . . what of hors, what of fote (Maundev. p. 240). Of other names of sorts there belong here fish, fowl, hair and some others; Mine are the river-fowl (Longfellow). Ay, when fowls have no feathers, and fish have no fin (Shakspeare Com. of Err.). Of course these words have also plural forms, which even necessarily appear, where the individuals, as such, become prominent: The beasts, the fishes, and the winged fowls (Shakspeare Com. of Err.). She has more hair than wit, and more faults than hairs (id. Two Gentlem. of Ver.). On the contrary, collective names are more frequently taken collectively, where they do not appear as subjects of the sentence: I have always found . . great plenty, particularly of wild boar (Lady Montague). There is no catching trout without wetting one's trowsers (Longfellow). Will ye promise me this before God and man? (id.). A hundred of the fow shall be A banquet for the mountain birds (Bryant). About the cliffs Lay . . shaggy skins of wolf and bear (id.), where the individual stands as the representative of his kind, a syntactical license common to many tongues.

$\beta$ Some names of kinds, denoting a determinate quantity, a measure or a weight, even a space of time, were used formerly more than at present in the singular instead of the plural forms after preceding numeral determinations, in literary and educated conversational language. Here belong: pair, brace, couple, yoke (a yoke of Oxen, an Anglosaxon neutral, of the same sound in the singular as in the plural), dozen, score (as a genuine plural, always), groce or gross; quire, ream (of paper); foot, fathom, mile; pound (as a primitive plural), stone, last; tun, hogshead; bushel; week, year (an Anglosaxon neutral, the same in the plural as in the singular). With these are joined names of sorts, as, shining, piece (mostly of things), head (of men and beasts, an Anglosaxon neutral, the same in the plural as in the singular), sail (of ships), cannon, shot. The language of common conversation cannot be determined by its boundaries, the literary and educated speech is constantly abandoning these forms more and more, which moreover are not without an etymological origin. The English account-books decline such words regularly, and grammarians in part reject the non-inflection as quite false. Compare Murray's Grammar &c. by Gartly. Lond. 1851. p. 111.

In lieu of many examples compare: The ball always concludes
with English country dances, to the number of thirty or fourteen couple (Lady Montaguè). Five hundred yoke of oxen (Job. 1, 3.). A constant cascade of about thirty foot (Fielding). Full fathom five the father lies (Shakespeare Temp.). I have known when he would have walked ten mile afoot to see a good armour (id. Much Ado ab. Noth.). Twelve year since Thy father was the duke of Milan (Shakespeare Temp.). Hundred head of Aristotle’s friends (Pope). That cost me two shilling and two pence a piece (Shakespeare Merry Wiv.). The fleet, consisted of 92 sail (Mrs. Markham). One hundred cannon were landed from the fleet (Burchell) Several shot being fired (id.). (See Wagner’s Grammar of the English tongue, elaborated by Herrig p. 108.). Forms of this sort are familiar to Old-English, especially where primitive plurals of strong forms in a, u, rarely in as, are at the foundation, for whose vowels e is mostly substituted: That is an hundred fadme of lengthe (Maundev. p. 23.; Anglosaxon fadem, plural -as). A rib of his side, that is 40 fote longe (id. p. 31.; Anglosaxon fét instead of fět). The folk that ben but 3 span long (id. p. 211.; Anglosaxon spann, plural spanna). And a lytyle thens, 28 pas, is a chapelle (id. p. 96.; Old-French pas). 20 myle (id. p. 7.; Anglosaxon mile, plural mila); but also myles (p. 30.). He was per sene nygt (Rob. of Gloucester I. p. 158.; Anglosaxon neah, plural neahtha). Fourty winter (Pierrs Ploughman p. 277.; Anglosaxon vinter, masculine plural vinter) along with wyntres (ib.). Guendolyn was kyg fiftene 3er po (Rob. of Gloucester I. p. 27.; Anglosaxon gear, plur. gear). By fortye shilling a yere (Percy Rel. p. 116. I.; Anglosaxon scilling, plur. scillingas). An hondred pousend marc (Rob. of Gloucester II. p. 393.; Anglosaxon marc, plural marca). Fro thens toward the est a 3 bow shote (Maundev. p. 97.; Anglosaxon scyte, plur. scytas or gescot, plural gescotu).

γ) In connection with the usage above cited stand some compounds of numerals with substantives, wherein both stand in a direct relation to each other and the substantive should therefore assume the (present) inflection of the plural. Here belong: seven-night, seven-night (Anglosaxon seforniht, properly plural feminine = hebdomas); fortnight = fourteen nights, two weeks; twelvemonth (Anglosaxon twelfmōnð according to Bosworth); compare Old-English: Al this fourtenight (Chaucer v. 931.). A fevere That taketh me al a twelve monthe (Pierrs Ploughm. p. 266.) Upon cognate phenomena see below, the doctrine of the Numerals. But the noninflection of the substantive is common, even where the composition appears loosened, if numeral and substantive become an attributive determination of a succeeding substantive, so that the whole receives the character of a single compound: You have seen the faces in the eighteen penny gallery (Fielding). I protested I could see no reason for it neither, nor why Mr. Simpkins got the thousand pound prize in the lottery (Goldsmith). Compare the Old-English: And forth he goth a twenty divel way (Chaucer v. 4255. ed. Tyrwh.). Hence the expressions: a four wheel chaise; a three foot rule; a thirty pound note; an eighty
gun ship &c. Where the genitive relation is denoted by 's, s', this immediate reference censes; where the plural stands, an appositional relation of the last substantive usually enters.

The Formation of the Genitive.

A remnant of the Anglosaxon case-formation is the so-called Anglosaxon Genitive, which enters instead of the substantive with the case preposition of, but only where it precedes the latter as the determination of a substantive, or where no substantive follows or is to be supplied. This case form is found more in names of persons (names of kinds as well as proper names) than in names of things.

The sign of the genitive s belongs originally to the singular of masculine and neuter strong substantive forms. In English it was early transferred to all substantive, even of the feminine gender, in the singular. Herein the English agrees with the Danish and Swedish, in which the Danish especially makes the declension of the masculine and the feminine substantive almost wholly coincide. Even in Hollandish in conversational language, the s of the genitive is often given, especially to feminine substantives preceding the substantive determined by them, but which does not belong to them; the Lowdutch proceeds similarly. The Modern-Highdutch of northern Germany is acquainted with genitives like mutter's, tante's haus &c., as proper names of the feminine gender in general adopt in Modern-Highdutch the s and ens of the masculine gender. The Anglosaxon knows nothing of genitives of this sort, but has nevertheless sometimes even in adverbal genitives the termination es, as in nihtes (neah, niht, -e, f.); whereas gevealdes, his gevealdes, sua sponte may certainly be referred to geveald m. alongside of gevealde f.

a) Modern-English accordingly puts this s in the singular, without regard to the original gender of the substantives, to names of kinds and proper names, more rarely to abstract nouns, with an apostrophe preceding (this with an almost entire consistency since the seventeenth century): Drinking is the soldier's pleasure (Dryden). A lawyer's is an honest employment (John Gay). Thy sire's maker, and the earth's — And heaven's (L. Byron). To know no more Is woman's happiest knowledge (Milton). You say, you do not know the Lady's mind (Shakspere Rom. and Jul.). The sports on occasion of the Queen's marriage (W. Scott). Blest be your mother's memory (Oway). They knew something of the death of Macbeth's father (id. Mach.). He trembles, he glows, Amidst Rhodope's snows (Pope). Encamped beside Life's rushing stream In Fancy's misty light (Longfellow). In my youth's summer I did sing of One (L. Byron).

Even adjectives used as substantives receive this s: Into the future's undiscovered land (Longfellow); even other parts of speech used substantively: Yesterday's sun Saw it perform'd (Oway). To-morrow's rising sun must see you all Deck'd in your honours (id.).

If a word ends in a sibilant, as s, x, more rarely in ce, se, even
a dental ge, the annexed s is sometimes wanting in Modern-English, and ' is added as a sign of elision: Read o'er the volume of young Paris' face (Shakspeare R. and J.). With joy I see it in Eumenes' hands (J. Hughes). And he, the last of old Lycurgus' sons (Thomson). Look, in this place ran Cassius' dagger through (Shakspeare Jul, C.). And hard unkindness' altered eye (Gray). I did not know the princess' favourite (Congreve). They could scarcely attend to the Prior of Torcaules' question (W. Scott). There is one tree the phoenix' throne (Shakspeare Temp.). At least for that resemblance' sake embrace me (H. Walpole). Prayer is Innocence' friend (Longf.). O'er Venice' lovely walls (L. Byron). Venice' Duke! Who now is Duke in Venice? (id.). Only for praise' sake, when they strive to be lords o'er their lords? (Shaksp. Love's L. L.). There's a partridge' wing saved, for the fool will eat no supper that night (Shaksp. Much Ado ab. Noth.). With regard to the treatment of the s the Anglosaxon led the way, which often left proper names in s unchanged in the genitive: Urias vif; Matthias gerecednys; whereas else es is appended; Remuses &c. — Yet no agreement prevails in this respect, even in one and the same author, and the annexing of an s to substantives of this sort is very common, although the collision of several sibilants offers a difficulty in pronunciation. In poetry, the subjoined s, with the apostrophe, after sibilants and hissing sounds, counts (either with or without a preceding, otherwise mute e) as a full syllable; compare prose instances: Randolph agreed to act by Douglas's counsel (W. Scott). Her mistress's bell rung (Fielding). Your Grace's name is the best protection this play can hope for (Rowe). Thus Wallace's party grow daily stronger (W. Scott); and passages from poets: Sighing for Phillis's or Cloe's pity (Rowe). Just sense and sober piety still dictate The Countess's command. With truth I say it (H. Walpole). Man, who rejoices in our sex's weakness (Rowe). According to the Church's rev'rend rite (id.). Inheriting a prince's name and riches (L. Byron). Nor was it my intention To wound your Reverence's saint-like organs (H. Walpole). Here certainly also occur instances, where no full syllable in verse arises: At every hazard; and if Venice's Doge &c. (L. Byron Mar. Faliero I, p. 25. ed. Tauch.).

The Old-English early transferred the genitive termination es (is, ys), sometimes even a simple s after consonants, to all substantives in the genitive of the singular, although at first more rarely to feminines: Allas, myn hertes queen! (Anglosaxon heorte, -an Fem., cor [Chaucer v. 2777.]). As the berstles of a sower es (Anglosaxon sugn, -e fem., sus, perhaps sug, -es, n. [ib. v. 558.]). That knew this worldes transmutaciou (Anglosaxon veorold, -e fem., mundus [in. v. 2841.]). And at the kinges modres court he light (Anglosaxon modor, gen. the same mater [ib. v. 5206.]). His sistars son was he (Anglosaxon sveostor, gen. the same soror [Percy Rel. p. 4. II.]). Seynte Anne our Ladyes modre (Anglosaxon hlefdige, -an, domina [Maundev. p. 15.]). In Hermingildes chamber whil sche slepte (Chaucer v. 5015.). And by Custaunces mediaciou (ib. v. 5104.). The images hond (Maun-
Marthaes and Maries (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 217.). But genitives without s, not merely of the feminine gender are often found also earlier and later: Ys broper dep. (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER 1. p. 121.). To David kyndom (IB. p. 9.). pe quene fader (IB. p. 26.). pe entredie in at Temse moup (IB. p. 47.). pi kynde lond (IB. p. 85.). For Marie love (IB. p. 28.) Throug Adam syn and Eve foly (TOWNLEY MYST. p. 160.). His fader wille thou must nedes wyrk (IB. 167.). My fader ordynance thus it is (IBID). The masculines and generally proper names in s frequently remain unchanged in the genitive, as in Chaucer: markis, Sathanas, Peneus, Theseus, Melibeus, Ceres, Venus, although also markeses, Peneuses, Cereses &c. occur; so too feminines in ce: Sith the pestilence time (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 6.); still in Skelton: in Magnyfycence syght (I, 268.). Even other feminines are also found sometimes late without the sign of the genitive: For my fansy sake (SKELTON I, 261.) The not denoting the genitive of words in s is termed very common even in the seventeenth century, as in Priamus daughter, Venus temple &c. The genitive termination es is familiar, along with the mere s, down to the sixteenth century: In wedlockes sacred state (JOCASTA, 1566). Wisedomes sage advise (IB.). My ladyes grace (SKELTON I. p. 36.). Goddes passion (A new Enterlude called THERSYTES). A mannes mighte (IB.).

Another sort of absence of mark of the genitive relation, not properly concerning the doctrine of forms, is the employment of the uninflected case after substantives which operate like propositions, either with or without attributive determinations: He has left you all his walks on this side Tiber (SHAKESPEARE Jul. C.). That all was over on this side the tomb (L. BYRON). Leaving Comorn on the other side the river (LADY MONTAGUE). Thus popular speech uses 'on board a ship' instead of 'on board of a ship' and the like. Of yet another kind is the transition from the genitive relation into that loose combination of substantives, wherein the preceding one operates as the determining word of a compound: Hard by, at street end (SHAKESPEARE Merry Wiv. 4, 2.). Thou com’st from Jersey meadows (BRYANT).

b) The inflection s is also transferred to the genitive of the plural, without distinction of the original declension or gender of the substantives. After the Anglosaxon plural inflection had ceased to enter into the genitive in Old-English, so far as this could be the reason for a distinction from the nominative, the genitive generally was left uninflected, but soon gave to those plurals not ending in es in the nominative the inflection of the genitive singular. Modern-English in point of fact also leaves the genitive plural in s without inflection, but adds the mark of elision, as if an s were wanting. The seventeenth century, inversely, mostly put a mark of elision before the s, which modern copies commonly transpose according to the modern fashion. Instances: And with the brands we'll fire the traitors' houses (SHAKESPEARE Jul. C.). That dawn never beam’d on your forefathers' eye (W. SCOTT). These happy masks, that kiss fair ladies' brows (SHAK-
speare R. and J.); on the other hand according to John Wallis (sec. XVII): the Lord’s House = the House of Lords; the Common’s House = the House of Commons, whereby he adds, that the fundamental forms are: the Lords’s House, the Commons’s House.

The complete absence of the mark of elision has moreover not yet quite ceased: Who was the cause of a long ten years war? (Otway). They passed this way! I hear their horses hoofs (Longfellow).

Plural forms without s adopt completely the genitive form of the singular: Young men’s love then lies Not truly in their hearts but in their eyes (Shakspeare R. and J.). The white hands of gentlemen’s daughters (W. Irving). More than a hundred children’s children rode on his knee (Longfellow).

Adjectives used as subjectives, adopting no s in the nominative of the plural, sound in the genitive of the plural, as in those of the singular: The poor’s rate obliges us to give so much charity (Fielding). We may take forms of this sort for collective singulars.

Occasionally other parts of speech used as substantives, which in themselves, we must take to be plurals, also receive this s: A mark’d man to the Forty’s inquisition (L. Byron Mar. Faliero). Let it live on . . . till the hour of nature’s summons, but the Ten’s is quicker (ib.).

Old-English still sometimes used the termination ene, corresponding to the Anglosaxon weak genitive termination ena, which was also frequently found in the strong form of declension, and that not alone in Anglosaxon substantives: Al Denene schire (Rôb. of Gloucester I, p. 5.). Thoru frerere rede (id. 2, p. 545.). Crist, kyngene kyng (Piers Plooughm. I, p. 21.). And al the Jewene joye (ib. p. 384.). But the usage was soon adopted of employing the plural form in es (s) and to let the genitive relation be inferred solely from the position of the substantive: Of whom the book of fadres lyfes spekethe (Maundev. p. 79.). Thei ben now in paynemes and Sarazines honds (ib.). On the olifantes bakkes (id. p. 191.). Cristes lore, and his apostles twelve, He taught (Chaucer v. 529.). The plurals in en were also treated so: With gode men almesdede (Dame Siriz p. 7.). Judas he japed With Jeven silver (Piers Plooughm. p. 19.); but the transfer of the singular es to such forms is old: Ye . . . Rende mennes clothes (Piers Ploough. p. 13.). And putte it in to Cristene mennes hondes (Maundev. p. 104.).

Peculiarities in the use of genitive forms.

a) So far as attributive determinations, preceding a substantive in the genitive, are wholly incapable of inflection, of course the substantive alone receives the sign of the case: By the blue lake’s silver beach (Longfellow).

If substantives to be taken attributively precede a substantive, Modern-English likewise inflects only the substantive determined by them. The most frequent case of this sort is the determination of a proper name by preceding proper names or names of
kinds: After Edward Bruce's dead (W. Scott). I am sir John Falstaff's (Shakspeare Merry Wiv.). So perish all Queen Elizabeth's enemies! (Robertson). Is this the tenant Gottlieb's farm? (Longfellow). Like god Bel's priests (Shakspeare Much Ado ab. Noth.). Of Amanda our friend Loveless's wife (Sheridan). The outside of doctor Belioso's house (J. Cobb). He bears a most religious reverence To his dead master Edward's royal memory (Rowe). In a conversation at dinner, at your cousin Campbell McKenzie's (Macklin). — This was common even in Old-English: The desertes of Prestre Johns Lordschipe (Maundev. p. 122.). By king Henries day (Rob. of Gloucester 2. p. 532.). Yet not the proper name, but the name of the kind was inflected: pe emperoures August (Rob. of Gloucester 1. p. 61.), especially where another name of a kind came between the proper name and the name of the kind: Harald, pe kynges sone Knout (1d. 1. 324.). That our kynges moder Henri was (1d. 2. p. 530.).

A name of a kind may also precede a name of a kind as an attributive determination, when the same inflection of the last takes place: To his, the tyrant husband's reign succeeds (Rowe). His brother pirate's hand he wrung (L. Byron).

b) If a genitive substantive is followed by a determination consisting of a preposition with a substantive, the substantive with its determination is taken as a whole to whose last substantive constituent the s of the genitive is added: The king of Great Britain's dominions (Murray). The Count of Lara's blood is on thy hands (Longfellow). Here are some fine villas, particularly the late prince of Lichtenstein's (Lady Montague). A field of battle's ghastly wilderness (L. Byron). Do my eyes deceive me, or have the enemy besieged my father-in-law's house? (J. Cobb.). — Old English deviated frequently herefrom, in so far as it could insert between the genitive and its further determination the substantive to which the genitive was referred. In this case the preceding substantive received the sign of the genitive: The kin ges soster of Spaine (Rob. of Gloucester 2. p. 532.). The erle's sone of Gloucestre (ib. p. 530.).

c) If a substantive apposition follows a substantive, the termination of the genitive is commonly given to the apposition, unless it is separated from its substantive by the substantive to which the genitive is referred: St. John the Evangelist's day, John the Baptist's head &c.; and so too with proper names with appositions, as: William the Conqueror &c. Weeping again the king, my father's wreck (Shakspeare Temp.) Forgiveness of the queen, my sister's wrongs (L. Byron Sardenap.). I was yesterday at Count Schönbrunn, the vice-chancellor's garden (Lady Montague). On the contrary: For the queen's sake, his sister (L. Byron Sardenap.). It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant general (Shakspeare Oth.). Compare Old-English: In Piers berne the Plowman (Piers Ploughh., p. 417.).

This rule is, however, often departed from in common life, and grammarians permit, for instance, to say: I left the parcel at Mr.
Johnson's, the bookseller, as at Mr. Johnson, the bookseller's (Crombie); others do not even acknowledge the latter to be right. Compare Guy's English Grammar: London 1833 p. 80. If the apposition following a proper name is more comprehensive, the former appears indeed preferable: The Psalms are David's the king, priest and prophet of the Jewish people (Murray). See Murray's Grammar, revised by Herrig p. 122.

The double inflection of a substantive and the apposition at the same time is rare: A small and old spaniel, which had been Don José's, his father's (L. Byron).

d) If more than one substantive stand in the genitive relation to one and the same substantive, either only one, and that the last, of the genitives assumes the inflectional mark, or all are equally inflected. The last receives it, if all genitives are apprehended as the totality of the subjects or individuals referred, whether they are connected by a copulative or a disjunctive conjunction, or are placed asyndetically beside each other. All are inflected, if either the word of reference (in the plural), is referred distributively to the genitives, or if the genitives, in their common reference to a substantive, must be thought as separate or as apposed. The intention of making the single members of a totality prominent likewise affects the repetition of the mark of inflection. It is clear that play is given here to individual apprehension.

a) Nonrepetition of inflection: Keep your loyality, And live, your king and country's best support (Rowe J. Shore). Woman, sense and nature's easy fool (ib.). In wonderworks of God and nature's hand (L. Byron). Dryden and Rowe's manner, Sir, are quite out of fashion (Goldsmith). Oliver and Boyd's printing-office (M' Culloch). And Otway, Radcliffe, Schiller, Shakspeare's art Had stamp'd her image in me (that of Venice) (L. Byron). — When the contending nobles shook the land with York and Lancaster's disputed sway (Rowe J. Shore). After a fortnight or three week's possession (Goldsmith). Whose arch or pillar meets me in the face Titus or Trojan's? (L. Byron).

b) Repetition of inflection: That hereditary feud Between Valen- tia's and Granada's kings (Congreve). Here repose Angelo's, Alfieri's bones, and his The starry Galileo (L. Byron). Mountains above, Earth's, Ocean's plain below (ib.). For honour's, pride's, religion's, virtue's sake (ib.). Beyond or love's or friendship's sacred band Beyond myself, I prize my native land (Rowe). They find themselves happy when they can enjoy a pantomime, under the sanction of Johnson's or Shakespeare's name (Goldsmith).

If articles precede the genitives, the inflection is likewise repeated: The sage's and the poet's theme (Rogers).

If other particles than and, or, come between the genitives, the repetition of the inflection is likewise of course: He has two sons, that were ordain'd to be As well his virtues' as his fortunes' heirs (Otway). They are Thomas's as well as James's books (Guy).
The gender of substantives.

Anglo-Saxon distinguished a threefold, Old-French a twofold grammatical gender of substantives; English has preserved the three genders, the masculine, the feminine and the neuter, mostly, however with the obliteration of the differences of gender formerly fixed by the verbal form or the usage of the language.

With the abandonment of the differences of gender in the form of the article, the adjective and the attributive pronoun, and with the complete assimilation of the declension of all genders, the recollection of the former grammatical gender must have been almost totally lost. The language of common life and of poetry has partly preserved the memory of them. The conception of the gender is certainly hardly perceivable save through the personal pronouns referred to a substantive (he, she, it &c.) and their possessive forms (his, her, its &c.).

With few exceptions the language of conversation of the well-educated and of common prose has returned to the natural distinctions of sex in the determination of the gender of substantives. The gender is expressed in a limited measure by substantive terminations.

Accordingly, substantives expressing male beings pass in general as masculine; those expressing female beings, as feminine, so that here only animal nature is considered. A few names of things are, in the more general usage, masculine or feminine. All other substantive are regarded as of the neuter gender; even animal beings, where the regard to their natural gender retires, are treated as neutrals. Yet the common names of the different races of animals (nomina epicona) are occasionally determined from other points of view.

Poetry and the more noble prose not rarely depart from the common mode, treating names of things as masculine or as feminine substantives.

a) As regards the masculine and the feminine gender with reference to their distinct forms, the natural distinction of sexes is expressed in various ways.

1) This is done partly by words of different roots, or by words, whose termination denoting gender has been effaced. They originate mostly with the Anglo-Saxon, but partly from the Old-French. The one form is exceptionally of Anglo-Saxon, the other of Romance origin.

a) Here belong terms for men, as father (Anglo-Saxon fader); mother (Anglo-Saxon módor); — brother (Anglo-Saxon bróðer); sister (Anglo-Saxon sveostor); — son (Anglo-Saxon sunu); daughter (Anglo-Saxon döhtar); — uncle (Old-French uncle, uncle); aunt (Old-French ante, Latin amita); — boy (Old-English boye, boy [PIERS PLUGHIM, p. 214 and 6.], compare Swedish bof, Low-dutch bòw, spitzbòw); — girl (Old-English gerl, of both genders, compare the Low-dutch gör, unadult girl, small child, gör, daughter); — bachelor (Old-French bachelet); — maid, maiden (Anglo-Saxon mågeffe, mågden n.). — king (Anglo-Saxon cyning,
cyng); queen (Anglosaxon cvên, perhaps belonging to the same root as cyning). — earl (Anglosaxon earl, ērl); countess (Old-French contesse, cuntesse). — friar or monk (Old-French freire, Anglosaxon munec, mone); nun (Anglosaxon nunne, Old-English nonne). — wizard (Old-French guiscart, guischart, from the Old-norse viskr, saág; the Anglosaxon vigelere and hveolere, divinator, is, on the contrary, abandoned) in Lancashire he-witch; witch (Anglosaxon vicce).

From the same stem with an obliterated derivation are: nephew (Old-French nief, niez, nevod, nevve, Latin nepot-īs, compare Anglosaxon nēfa); niece (French niéce, Latin neptis). Thus also sloven (compare Anglosaxon slav, piger); slat (compare Dieffenbach G. Dictionary 2. p. 266), and lad (Old-English ladde, Old-Scottish laid, Anglosaxon leód, vir); lass Scottish the same) seem to belong to the same stems.

A masculine has been formed upon an original feminine in: widower (compare Middle-Highdutch witewaere, Old-Highdutch witowo); widow (Anglosaxon viduwe, vuduwe, Latin vidua). To other simple forms compounds stand opposed, as in: man (Anglosaxon mann); woman (Anglosaxon ōfman); whence nobleman, gentleman &c.; noblwoman, gentlewoman &c.; and conversely in: husband (Anglosaxon húsbonda); wife (Anglosaxon víf, n.); bridegroom (Anglosaxon brýdguma, procus), yet also groom alone and groomsmen (Longfellow); bride (Anglosaxon brýd, uxor, sponsa, femina). — sir (Old-French sires, sire); madam (ma dame).

Compounds stand opposed to other compounds in: lord (Anglosaxon hláfveard, hláfford); lady (Anglosaxon hláfveardige, hlæfdige). — gaffer (not from the Anglosaxon gefädera, m. patruelis, but from godfäder), in Lincolnshire also gaff, godfather, old man, grandfather, often in the address, neighbour, friend; gammer (not from the Anglosaxon gemèder, f. commater, but instead of godmòdor), old woman, grandmother. Here also belong: grandfather; grandmother. — grandson; granddaughter. — grand sire; grandam, jocosely grammam, grannym, grandmother; whereas the simple sire; dam, mother are now only used poetically of men, and the latter even with contempt. Both are now used on the other hand of beasts, as, male (Old-English mayle) and female (Old-English femaylle), where they are used substantively.

3) The names of beasts, coming into consideration here are of Anglosaxon stem, and not numerous. They mostly belong to mammals: ram (Anglosaxon ramm, aries, verwex), and wether (Anglosaxon vēder, aries, vervex); ewe (Anglosaxon eovu, eov). — boar (Anglosaxon bár); sow (Anglosaxon sugu). — bull (Old-norse boli); cow (Anglosaxon cu). — bullock (Anglosaxon bulluca, m. vitulus), gelded bull, and steer (Anglosaxon steòr, juvencus), the same, likewise ox (Anglosaxon oxa, bos, taurus), also a general name for neat cattle; heifer (Anglosaxon heðføre, heafre). — buck (Anglosaxon bucca); doe (Anglosaxon dà, dama). — dog (Old-norse doggr, m.), as the name of a
kind, to denote the masculine gender in compounds; bitch (Anglosaxon bice, canicula). — stallion (Old-French estal), also horse (Anglosaxon hors, n. equus) instead of stone-horse in: to take horse = to be covered, as a mare; mare (Anglosaxon merihe, mere, equa). — stag (Old-norse steaggr, mas plurium ferarum; the cock is also called stag in North-English) and hart (Anglosaxon hearut, heart); hind (Anglosaxon hind), also called roe (Anglosaxon rāh, rā, capræ), yet this is also a general name for stag; the male animal also roebuck. — colt (Anglosaxon colt); filly (compare also fola, pullus, equuleus, English foal; Old-Scottish fillok, Cymric fillog).

Of birds there occur: drake (Old-norse andriki); duck (from the verb duck, Lowdutch dûken, Hollandish duiken; on the Baltic [Warnemuende] the wild duck is called dûker; Swedish Danish dukand). — cock (Anglosaxon cocc, coe); hen (Anglo-

saxon henn, gallina, compare hana, gallus). Of the same stem are: gander (Anglosaxon gandra, m. anser; Old-English also gant: with a gose and a gant (SKELTON I. p. 111.), Lowdutch ganter and gante, gaujtje; goose (Anglosaxon gōs). — ruff, the cock bird of the fighting snipe has its name from its great ruff (English ruff; Old-English ruff, rough: compare Old-norse rūfinn, hirsutus, Anglosaxon hreolf, callosus and hreóh, hreóv, asper; the hooded pigeon is called in English ruff); reeve, the hen bird (although without a ruff), seems formed after ruff.

Of other animals such different denominations hardly occur; but of fishes: milter (Anglosaxon milte, otherwise named after milk, Old-norse miölk, lactes piscium, compare Danish melke-

fisk; spawner (from English spawn; Old-English spæne, compare Anglosaxon spēn, fibra; spōn, Old-Highdutch spān = cre-
mium, fomes &c., Old-norse spōnn = ramentum lign). Among insects are distinguished: drone (Anglosaxon drān, dræn, Danish drone), for the male of the bee; bee (Anglosaxon beō, f.) also a general name, bee.

2) Not a small number of substantives distinguishes the female from the male sex by a derivative termination.

a) Names of persons are here principally distinguished. Distinctions like that of the Anglosaxon masculine and feminine sub-

stantives in Declension, for example: gāt, -es, caper and gāt, -e, capra, were no longer possible; varieties of the no-
mative, as of those in a, m. and e, f.: maga — magē, cognatus, -a; nēfa — nēfe, nepos, neptis, were like-

wise abolished by the treatment of the final vowels. The femi-
nine termination, by derivation by means of en (n): munec — municen, monachus, nonna; ālf, elf — elfen, incubus, la-
mia; god — gyden, deus, -a; cásiere — cásern, imperator, imperatrix, has scarcely been otherwise preserved than in the name of an animal (see β farther below). The derivative termination estre, istrate, developed into ere (English er), as in veb-
bere — vebbestre, textor, textrix; bācere — bāciestre, pistor, pistrix, is in great part abandoned, but has partly passed over directly into the nominative and has even adopted
a new feminine form (see below). To distinguish the genders therefore Romance derivative forms have therefore essentially been chosen.

Of Anglosaxon terminations accordingly ster, Old-English stere, are here seldom considered: spinner — spinster. Old-English has several feminines in stere: bakstere; brewesterere (PIERS PLOUGHMAN); knitster in use in the Devon dialect. In Skelton tappystere (Anglosaxon täppestre, caupona from m. täppere) is still a barmaid: A tappystere lyke a lady bright (1, 239). Now the most of those remaining are masculine, sometimes alongside of masculines in er, for instance rhymer and rhymster; weaver and webster; singer and songster &c. See, moreover, the doctrine of derivation.

Among Romance terminations is the feminine form ine, ina, wherein the Latin, the French and the Germanic form (ina, ine, in, compare rex — regina; Old-French roi, rei, rai — roîne, raîne, reîne; German markgraf — markgräfin) mingle: czar — czarina; hero — heroine (French heroine, Greek and Latin heroîné); margrave — margravine; landgrave — landgravine. Some of them have adopted other feminine forms along with them. (See below.) Sultan — sultana rests upon the Medieval-Latin sultanus, -a; infant — infanta upon the Spanish and Portugese infante, -ta.

The termination ess, Old-English esse, French esse has received a wide diffusion, corresponding to the Latin issa, Greek istringstream, istringstream. It is also found in Anglosaxon in foreign words, as abbad (od. ud) — abbadisse (abbas — abbatissa). From words in or and er arise the terminations oress and eress, corresponding to the French eresse (oresse), as from words in tor and ter, the termination tress, which goes back to the French trice, Latin trix, the last of which from substantives in tor still often stands along with tress. The these are joined some in dor and der with the termination dress. English here confounds Romance and Germanic words, regarding the termination ess in all forms as the homogeneous mark of the feminine.

The termination ess is added to masculines in n ending in a consonant (on, an, in, en, ain): patron — patroness; baron — barness; deacon — deaconess; champion — championess; canon (Old-French canone, Modern-French chanoine) — canoness (French chanoinessse): sultan — sultaness, alongside of sultana; compare Old-English soudan — soudannesse (CHAUCEL): guardian — guardianess; dauphin — dauphiness; citizen — citizeness (rare); chieftain — chieftainess (Miss SEDGWICK); to substantives in t (st, nt): poet — poetess (French poétesse), for which also poetress occurs; prophet — prophetess (French prophétesse); hermit — hermitess; priest (Anglosaxon prêost) — priestess (compare the French prêtresse); host — hostess (French hôtesse); count — countess (Old-French contesse,
cuntesse); viscount — viscountess; giant — giantess; saint — saintess (Fisher); regent — regentess (Cor-\linebreakgrave). — Irregular is here abbot — abbess according to the French fashion (abbesse); in tyrant — tyranness (Aken\linebreakside) the older masculine form tyran, as in anchor — an\linebreakchoress the old masculine ancre, ancor (Anglosaxon ancor and anca, solitarius, anachoreta) is the foundation.

A few other substantives ending in a consonant, but not in the derivative terminations or and er belong here, as god — goddess (compare French deesse, Anglosaxon gyden), Old-\linebreakEnglish even godesse (Chaucer); chief — chiefess (Car\linebreakver); herd — herdess (Browne), Old-English hierdesse (Chaucer); shepherd — shepherdess; czar — czarress alongside of czarina; peer — peeress (French pairesse); heir — heiress. Some, ending in a mute e, are associated with them; they take ess instead of e: advocate — advoca\linebreaktress; ogre — ogress (from the French ogre, from the Latin Orcus, whence the Anglosaxon orc=goblin); prince — princess (French princesse); duke — duchess (Old-\linebreakEnglish duchesse, Old-French duchesse, duchoise, duchieze); Old-English constable — constablesse. Some substantives, which in the masculine gender end in a vowel, annex the feminine termination ess, to it: Jew — Jewess; Hebrew — Hebrewess; hero — heroess (rarely alongside of heroine). In negro — negress (French négresse, from nègre) the o of the masculine is not regarded, as in votary — votaress the y.

With the feminine formation of names of persons in or, er those ending in tor, dor, as well as in ter, der, are to be distinguished.

Those in or, er assume ess in the feminine, like those above named, commonly without further change of form: author — authoress; mayor — mayoress; prior — prioress; warrior — warriouressse in Spenser; tailor — tailoress; archer — archeress; avenger — avengeress; peddler — peddleress; farmer — farmerr; diviner — divineress; Old-English has more of these forms, as charme\linebreakressa, jangleresse &c.

Substantives in er-or, er-er, to which even some in ur-er are joined, throw off their masculine termination or, er, before the termination ess: conqueror — conqueress; adulterer adulteress; murderer — murderess; sorcerer — sor\linebreakceress; caterer — cateress; fosterer — fostress; (B. Jonson); procurer — procuress; treasurer — treasu\linebreakress. Even governor casts off or in governness; emperor has empress (Old-English emperice, compare Old-French eme\linebreakperes, emperereor — empereris, emperereis).

Masculine names of persons in tor, dor, ter (ster) der with the assumption of the feminine termination ess usually cast out the o or e preceding the r, ending therefore in tress and dress: inventor — inventress; inheritor — inheritress; in-

structor — instructress; emulator — emulatress; editor — editress; executor — executress; exactor — exactress; actor — actress; auditor — auditress; orator — oratress; mediator — mediatress; monitor — monitress; nomenclator — nomenclatress; legislator — legislatress; rector — rectress; preceptor — preceptress; proprietor — proprietress; protector — protectress; fautor — fautress; fornicator — fornicatress; traitor — traitress; director — directress; detractor — detractress; solicitor — solicitress; suitor — suitress; spectator — spectatress; conductor — conductress; creator — creatress and others; enchantor — enchantress; arbiter — arbitress; minister — ministress; waiter — waitress (rare); chanter — chantress; comforter — comfortress; hunter (Anglosaxon hunta) — huntress, Old-English hunteresse (Chaucer). To these words are added some original feminines in ster, now treated as masculines: seampster, sempster — seamstress, sempstress (compare Anglosaxon seámere, sartor — seámestre, sartrix); songster — songstress (compare Anglosaxon sangere, cantor — sangestre, cantatrix); huckster — huckstress (compare Danish hoker, Swedish hökare — Danish hökerske, Swedish hökerska). — Master has mistress (Old-English maister — maistresse, Old-French maistre maistresse).

Ambassador, ambassador — embassadress, ambassadress; offender — offendress (Shakespeare); founder — foundress; commander — commandress. Alongside of the feminine launder (Old-English lavender, laundre in Palsgrave, French lavendiere) a new feminine laundress has been formed, which has been the occasion of the masculine launderer.

Words in tor have — in part, along with the feminine tress the Latin termination trix, as: inheritrix, executrix, oratrix, mediatrix, monitrix, rectrix, protectrix, spectatrix; in part they have only the latter, as the less popular: adjutor — adjutrix; administrator — administratrix; arbitrator — arbitratrix; testator — testatrix and some others. Some have even assumed the mere ess (therefore toress), although they are wont to have the collateral form tress: victor — victoress (Spenser), victrice (B. Jons.) and victress (Shakespeare); elector — electoress, electress; tutor — tutoress and tutress; doctor — doctress, doctress.

A final t has been the occasion for the termination tress instead of tess in: poet — poetress (see above), architect — architectress. To neatherd the feminine neatress has been formed (compare Anglosaxon geneát, bubulcus).

Marquis, marquess (Old-English markis, Old-French mar-
chis, markis) has the feminine marchioness (from the Medieval-Latin marchio, Old-English markisesse (CHAUCER).

b) **Names of beasts** are rarely distinguished by a derivative termination.

The Anglosaxon feminine termination *en* has been preserved in fox — vixen, (Anglosaxon fox — fixen, compare vulf — vylpen).

Some have the feminine termination *ess*: lion — lioness, tigre — tigress (French tigresse); imitations are hardly ventured upon for other **mammals**. Of **birds** belongs here eagle eagless.

3) The distinction of the male and the female sex by a formal difference in the substantives does not go far enough for the necessities of speech. There is a great number of them, even among those capable of a feminine formation, which must be regarded as **double-gendered**, even when having an originally masculine derivative termination. Here belong, for example: parent, child, cousin, servant, slave, neighbour, companion, friend, enemy, favourite, darling, rival, heir (she is heir of Naples [SHAKSPEARE Temp.], orphan, thief, fool, novice &c.; astronomer, painter, flatterer, weaver, teacher, dancer &c.; apologist, botanist &c., as well as the great number of names of beasts, and in general all substantives denoting animal beings and not distinguished by their meanings or by forms of gender. The gender of such words may be known partly by a feminine proper name, partly by their reference to a personal or possessive pronoun, as in: The slave loves her master (L. BYRON). *She* is a peasant (LONGFELLOW); or the contrary to such a one: *She* loves her cousin; such a love was deemed Incestuous (BRYANT). But if the object is to make the natural gender perceivable by the substantive immediately, this is done in various ways:

a) by union with a prefixed or suffixed substantive.

The sex of human beings is distinguished by man and maid or woman: man-servant, maid-servant; maid-child (LEVITIC.), compare Anglosaxon mæncild and mædecild, Old-English also knave child (CHAUCER), even man-midwife; servant-man, servant-maid; washer-woman. Words like: kinsman, kinswoman; dustman, dustwoman; milkman, milk-maid, fish-wife, fish-woman &c., with which moreover we may compare Anglosaxon compounds like: læringmann, læringmeden; discipulus, discipula, do not belong to the same category, man, woman not standing to distinguish the gender of their preceding determining word, that is, not in direct relation to it. Sometimes such a determination of sex stands without a contrary, as fisherman.

To distinguish the **sex of animals**, in **mammals** dog and bitch serve of the canine race; buck and doe of stags, rabbits and hares; boar and sow of pigs; colt and filly of foals; sometimes sexual terms are denoted by human proper names, more rarely by names of kinds of persons: dog-fox, bitch-fox;
(by dog-ape a particular sort of ape is denoted); even the
masculine bee is called dog-bee (HALLIWELL s.v.); roebuck,
buck-goat, buck-rabbit, buck-hare, buck-coney; doe-
rabbit &c.; boar-pig, sow-pig; colt-foal, filly-foal; —
Jackass; Jennyass, Jinnyass; Tomcat; Tib-cat (Tibby
—Isabella); the northern dialects still have carl-cat, like the
Anglosaxon, which used carl (mas) and cvên (uxor) of mam-
mals and birds: carlcatt, catus; carlfugol, avis mas; cvên-fugol, avis femina. Maiden cat is also quoted for a
she-cat. She else commonly bears the pet-name puss, pussy.

Bird are sexually distinguished by cock and hen; cock-
sparrow, hen-sparrow; cock-partridge, hen-par-
tridge; peacock, peahen; turkey-cock, turkey-hen
(turkey alone denotes this animal). In gor-cock, gor-hen;
moor-cock, moor-hen, the sexual determination perhaps
takes place, but not in the direct relation.

β) by the prefixed adjectives male and female, which are referred
to mankind as well as to brutes, when however used as sub-
stantives not compounded, mostly of brutes: male-child, fe-
male-child; male-servant, female-servant; male des-
cendants, female descendants; female anchoret; male
cat, female cat; male fish, female fish; used as substan-
tives: the male of the roe; the female of the horse; the male
of the turkey; the female of the turkey. So the French use
male and femelle.

γ) by the pronouns he and she, which are prefixed to names of
brutes, more rarely of men: he-bear, she-bear; he-deer,
she-deer; he-goat, she-goat; he-animal; she-ass &c.
The more noble speech hardly uses these pronouns of men;
we find: she-neighbour, she-friend, she-slave (LADY
MONTAGUE), as well as she-devils (BULWER); in poets face-
tious expressions of this sort, as: Be brief, my good she Mer-
cury (SHAKESPEARE Merry Wives). She is otherwise, when, ad-
ded to names of persons, it operates as an expression of con-
tempt: The she-king, That less than woman (L. BYRON Sar-
danap.). The pardon'd slave of she Sardanapalus (Ib.).

It is readily understood that there are also substantives, par-
ticularly names of persons, which can only be referred to the
one or the other natural sex, without particularly indicating
this by their form. Thus substantives pointing to activities
or qualities belonging only to men are of course of one gender,
as well as conversely those, relating to activities or qualities
pertaining only to the female sex. Compare: pope, pout-
tiff, parson, knight, champion, general, corporal,
Cyclops, Triton &c. with matron, virgin, courtesan,
concubine, muse, syren, Naiad, Nymph, Fury, houri
&c., the enumeration whereof has a mere lexicographical
interest.

For names of beasts which are comprehended under one
common grammatical gender, feminine or masculine, see
under β.
Names of things are rarely regarded as masculine or feminine substantives in common speech and writing. Yet the sun (Anglosaxon sunne, fem.) appears regularly, as even in Old-English sunne, some masculine, as in Gothic sunna, alongside of the feminine sunnë, in Old-Highdutch sunno alongside of sünna and sometimes Middle-Highdutch sunne, although also feminine. The Old-French soleil, solol masc., may here not have been without influence. There are however found instances, even in Old-English, in which the sun appears feminine: And lọ! how the sunne gan louke Hire light in hire sele (PiERS PLOUGH, p. 384.). The mone and the sterren with hire bereth the sunne bright (Waight Popul. Treatises on Science 1841. p. 132.). The moon, moon (Anglosaxon ména, masc.) is regularly feminine in Modern-English, as in Old-English, departing from all old-Germanic tongues, in Danish maane is masculine and feminine, in Middle-Highdutch maane rarely feminine, in Hollandish maan has become feminine; the Old-French lune may have cooperated here. The different names of ships are also, at least in technical nautical language, treated as feminine, as ship (Anglosaxon scip, neutr.), vessel (Old-French vessel, veissiaus masc.), boat (Anglosaxon bát, masc.), brigantine, brig, frigate, three-decker &c., and even merchantman, Indiaman, man-of-war &c., as ships, even when bearing a masculine proper name, are used femininely; thus even in Shakspere: Bring her to fry with main course (Temp. 1. 1.). Lay her ahold; lay her off (ib.). Where we, in all her trim, freshly beheld our royal, good, and gallant ship (ib. 5., extr.) — The stability of the ship, and the strength of her masts (ChamBERS). She was a small schooner, at anchor, with her broadside towards us (W. IrVING) The Bellerophon (ship of war) dropt her stern anchor in the starboard bow of the Orient (SOUTHEY). The Majestic (ship of war), Captain Westcott, got entangled . . . but she swung clear (ib.). In Old-English, at least in Chaucer, a ship bears a feminine name: His barge yclepud was the Magdelayne (C. T. 412.); barge is certainly originally feminine. In King Horne 123. it is seemingly neutral: that ship, yet that is not referred to neuters alone; compare on that other side (ChauCer C. T. 113.); that lusty sesoun of that May (ib. 2486.). Compare also a place, in which the ship is masculine: And if a schipp passed be tho marches, that hadde outer iren bondes . . . he scholde ben perisscht (MaUNDey, p. 163.), Outside of nautical language ship passes moreover as a neuter; as a masculine it is also found with a reference to a masculine denomination: Commodore also denotes the convoy ship . . . who carries a light in his top (Moore Mariner's Vocabulary). But the people apprehend inanimate things which they handle, and with which they are familiar as objects of their predilection, as feminine beings, for instance, the miller his mill. For the usage of the nobler language see below.

b) The neuter gender comprises in general all lifeless objects, and even animal beings, when considered without regard to their sex. The language of poets and the nobler prose, even the language of the people deviates from this; since, on the one hand, the domain of poetical and rhetorical personification has been little limited in the English tongue since its first development; on the other hand, the recollection of the original gender of Anglosaxon as well as of Romance forms has kept itself more or less obscure; but poetry, as well as prose, frequently follows the more general apprehension.

Concrete names of things stand here in the first rank: The sea has its pearls, The heaven has its stars: But my heart . . . has its
love (LONGFELLOW). Even abstract and collective terms are thus considered: Clamorous labor Knocked with its hundred hands at the golden gates of the morning (ID.). Humanity with all its fears (ID.). The freighted vessels departed, Bearing a nation, with all its household goods, into exile (ID.).

Names of beasts of all sorts are in a general sense treated as neuters: The conductor of the elephant, who is usually mounted on its neck (MAVOR). In its natural state the hedgehog is nocturnal, remaining coiled up in its retreat by day (CHAMBERS). The brown rat made its first appearance in Paris about the middle of the eighteenth century (id.). The domestic pigeon is wonderfully prolific: it lays two eggs &c. (MAVOR). That bird is called the cross-bill... In the groves of pine it singeth Songs, like legends, strange to hear (LONGFELLOW).

Even names of children, as child and, strange to say, even boy, are regarded as neuters: ‘This Fancy’s child, and Folly is its father (COTTON). A simple child... What should it know of death? (WORDSWORTH). She was always extravagantly fond of this boy, and a most sensible, sweet tempered creature it is (FIELDING). It is to be understood, that, with reference to the natural gender the corresponding pronoun is referred to it: We shall behold our child once more: She is not dead! (LONGFELLOW).

It is most remarkable, when beings conceived as feminine, as the Hydra, are taken as neuter: You must strike, and suddenly, Full to the Hydra’s heart — its heads will follow (L. BYRON).

In Old-English the neuter of the pronoun (hit, it), to distinguish which from the masculine in its possessive genitive (his) is certainly not possible, is already often transferred to names of things, abstract nouns, and names of beasts of genders originally different: Thi lufty chere makes my hert glad, And many a time so has it gart [made] (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 37.). Egeus That knew this wordes transmutacion, As he hadde seen it torne up and down (CHAUCER 2840.). Theseus hath i-sent After a beer (Anglosaxon beer fem.; feretrum), and it al overspradde With cloth of golde (ib. 2872.). The long peper (Anglosaxon piper, m.) cometh first... and it is lyche the chattes of haselle (MAUNDEV. p. 168.). But Cristes lore... He taught, and ferst he folwed it himselfe (CHAUCER 529.). If that sche sawe a mous Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or blede (ib. 144.).

The departures from the more general processes just exhibited deserve a more particular consideration, although giving little support to the establishment of a fixed rule. It is, however, not without interest to pursue in their various classes the glimmerings of the original genders of substantives now for the most part treated as sexless from the more abstract manner of expression. The hitherto deficient observation of the genders of substantives in popular dialects would render the consideration of them more instructive

1) Names of beasts must in the first place be discriminated from the rest of substantives. They often appear in poetry, and even in prose, and in common life in the masculine or feminine gender, if the general name of the beast is used to denote both natural
genders (genus epicenoem). Here it is not alone the peculiarly poetical manner of viewing, which attributes the masculine gender to the strong or the powerful, the feminine to the smaller and the lovely, but the Anglosaxon and Old-French gender is often regarded. Even works upon natural history frequently retain the masculine, less so the feminine names of beasts.

c) Mammals and reptiles are mostly assigned to the masculine gender, as genus epicenoem, as in the Germanic tongues generally. Thus even the general beast (Old-French beste, f.) as well as other original feminines, is early assimilated to the masculine: The beast is laid down in his lair (COWPER). Old-English: And when a beste is deed, he ne hath no peyne (CHAUCER 1321.). So commonly elephant (Latin elephas, Anglosaxon elp, elpend, m.); elk (Old-norse elgr, m., Middle-Highdutch elch); ape (Anglosaxon apa, m.); ass (Anglosaxon assa, m., -e, f.); otter (Anglosaxon otor, ottyr, m.); lion (French m.); lamb (Anglosaxon n.); rat (Anglosaxon rät, Old-Highdutch rato, m.); even roe (Anglosaxon rå, f.): Like the roe when he hears... the voice of the huntsman (LONGFELLOW); panther (Greek-Latin panther, m., but Latin -era, French -ère, f.): The forest's leaping panther... Shall yield his spotted hide (BRYANT); bison (French m., Old-Highdutch wisant, m.): In these plains The bison feeds no more... yet here I meet His ancient footprints (BRYANT); beaver (Anglosaxon bëfer, m.); bear (Anglosaxon bëra, m.); baboon (Medieval-Latin baboynus, m., French babouin, m.); fox (Anglosaxon m.); wolf (Anglosaxon vulf, m.); whale (Anglosaxon hväl, m.); tiger (Latin gen. comm. French m.); dog (Old-norse doggr, m.); dormouse (see mûs, f.?); sloth (compare Anglosaxon slâvî = pigritia, f.): The sloth... He lives upon the leaves... of trees (PERCIVAL); steed (Anglosaxon stêda, m.); squirrel (Old-French escurêl, m.); sheep (Anglosaxon sceâp, n.); calf (Anglosaxon cælfe, n.); catamount (wild cat, Anglosaxon catt, m.); The... catamount, that lies High in the boughs to watch his prey (BRYANT); goat (Anglosaxon gât, es, m.); hars (Anglosaxon n.); hyena (Latin French f.): I have seen the hyena's eyes of flame And heard at my side his stealthy tread (BRYANT); — asker, dialectically a lizard (from àôexe, with a masculine termination); lizard (French m.): The lesarde... sayd that he must... lay all in the dust (SKELTON 1, 365.); newt and eft (Anglosaxon efete, m.?); basilisk (bašilisk, m.); blindworm (Anglosaxon vurm, m.); although vorm itself is also sometimes feminine; frog (Anglosaxon frocca, frogga, m.): The frog has changed his yellow vest (DR. JENNER); tortoise (compare French tortue, f.); dragon (French m.); serpent (French m.); snake (Anglosaxon snaca, m.); cayman (French cai'man, m.); crocodile (kroko'dilos, m.); chameleon (Greek m.).

The feminine gender is rarely employed exclusively or chiefly. Mouse (Anglosaxon mûs, f.) remains also usually feminine as a general name; hare (Anglosaxon hara, m.) as in the language of hunters. So too mole is found (Old-norse moldvarpa, f.; Hollandish mol, m.): The mole 's a creature... she digs i'th'dirt
(A Book for Boys &c. 1686. p. 26.), as mule (Anglosaxon múl, m., French mule, f.). Deer (Anglosaxon deór, m.) is commonly masculine, but also feminine: Beneath a hill . . A deer was wont to feed. She only came when on the cliffs The evening moonlight lay (BRYANT). We have moreover to notice with the sexual term, whether in point of fact the genus epicoenum is before as, or one of the natural genders is to be defined.

3) The names of birds not only present, in comparison with the last class, as in the Germanic tongues generally, more feminines, but the usage of the genus epicoenum fluctuates much between both genders. A discrimination of the strong and great and the weak and lovely is here scarcely considered, so that usage seems to be without any sure support. Even the general names bird (Anglosaxon bridd, m.) and fowl (Anglosaxon fugol, m.) and those compounded therewith, are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine in the genus epicoenum: The bird has sought his tree (BRYANT); The mocking-bird . . Shook from his little throat such floods of delirious music &c. (LONGFELLOW); As the hunter’s horn Doth scare the timid stag, or bark of hounds The moor-fowl from his mate (id.); and on the otherhand: The wild beast from his cavern sprang, The wild bird from her grove (WHITTIER); A bird Betrays her nest, by striving to conceal it (L. BYRON); But the seafowl is gone to her nest (COWPER).

We find both among the larger fowls: eagle (French aigle, m.); owl (Anglosaxon õle, f.); raven (Anglosaxon hräfen, m.); hawk (Anglosaxon hafuc, m.); pelican (French m.); stork (Anglosaxon storc, m.); swan (Anglosaxon svan, m.); as well as among the smaller ones: dove (Anglosaxon dûfe, f.); lark (Anglosaxon läverce, f.); thrsole (Anglosaxon prostle?); thrush (Anglosaxon pryscë, m.); sparrow (Anglosaxon spearva, m.); starling, stare (Anglosaxon står, m.); cuckoo (French coucou, m.); swallow (Anglosaxon sclave, f.); even nightingale (Anglosaxon nihtegale, f.) and others, used masculinely and femininely: The royal eagle draws his vig’rous young (THOMSON). Jealous as the eagle Of her high aery (L. BYRON). Mourn not for the owl, nor his gloomy plight (BARRY CORNWALL). The moping owl does . . complain Of such as . . Molest her ancient solitary reign (GRAY). That raven . . Curse on his ill-betiding croak! (GRAY). A thing O’er which the raven flaps her funeral wing (L. BYRON). When a hawk hits her prey (HALLIWELL s. v. ruff. cf. SKELTON 1, 157.). Ask of the bleeding pelican why she Hath ripp’d her bosom? (id.). The swan . . rows her state with oary feet (MILTON). The stock-dove . . cooes oft ceasing from his plaint (THOMSON). A dove, sent forth . . to spy Green tree or ground, whereon his foot may light (MILTON). To hear the lark begin his flight (MILTON). The thrsole with his note so true (SHAKESPEARE Mids. N. Dr.). The thirstyl with her warblyng, The starlyng with her brabling (SKELTON 1, 65.). And the night-sparrow trills her song (BRYANT). The cuckoo returns from her flight (ANON.). The swallow . . to build his hanging house Intent (THOMSON) &c.
Yet a number of names of birds are certainly used chiefly **masculinely**, sometimes not according to their original gender; among them the names of larger, but also many smaller birds: *ostrich* (French autruche, f.); *bittern* (French butor, m.); *vulture* (Lat. French m.); *cormorant* (French m.); *heron* (French m.); *kite* (Anglosaxon cita, m.); *rook* (Anglosaxon rôc, m.); *jay* (French geai, m.); *parrot* (French perroquet, m.); — *oriole* (French aureole, f.): The *oriole* should build and tell *His* love-tale close beside my cell (BRYANT); *martlet*, *martinet* (French martetelet, martinet, m.); *redbreast*, *robin redbreast*, *robin*; *finch*, *bullfinch* (Anglosaxon finc, m.) and others; *grouse* (Cymric grugos, heath; grug-iar = grouse, heathcock): *The* *grouse* that wears a sable ruff around *his* mottled neck (BRYANT).

The boundary is here hard to determine. As **feminines** we find: *partridge* (French perdriz, f.); *philomel* (Latin French f.); *turtle* (Anglosaxon turtle, f.) and many others, especially small birds: The white-winged *plover* wheels her sounding flight (THOMSON). Far from her nest the *lapwing* cries away (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.). *The mauys* with her whistele (French mauvis, m.) (SKELTON 1, 64.). *The wren* that dips her bill in water (Anglosaxon vrenna, m.) (BRYANT), and many more, even the fabulous *phœnix* (Latin m.) has been feminine from the most ancient time.

7) The names of **fish**, of which in general only a few, and those mostly the larger ones, have to be considered, incline towards the **masculine** gender, as the general word *fish* (Anglosaxon *fisc*, m.) may pass for masculine, although it is also used femininely: To see the *fish* Cut with her golden oars the silver stream (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado ab. Noth). So too in other Germanic tongues the larger and better known are mostly of the masculine gender; in English they are termed by far the most frequently neutrals (it). For instance, we find *eel* (Anglosaxon æl, m.); *pike* (from the Anglosaxon *pic* = acicula, compare French brochet, a spitt, m.); *pearch*, *perch* (Latin perca, f., French perche, f., but Anglosaxon bears, m.); *trout* (French truite, f., Anglosaxon truht, f., tructa); *salmon* (French saumon, m., Latin salmo, m.); *shark* (Latin carcharus, Greek *καρχαρίας*) and some more.

8) With regard to the names of **low** kinds of beasts, which are wont to be defined as worms, insects and the like, the manner of regarding them as a genus epicoonum is still more undecided, and sexlessness frequent. Thus, for instance, *worm* (Anglosaxon *vurm*, vyrm, m.) appears sometimes as a masculine, sometimes feminine: The *glow-worm* lights his gem (THOMSON). Thou dost teach the coral-worm *To* lay his mighty reefs (BRYANT). Why ev'n the *worm* at last disdains her shattered cell (L. BYRON); like the bee, *bee* (Anglosaxon beó, f.): *The bee* .. loads *his* yellow thighs For thee (BRYANT). *The bee* with honied thigh, That at *her* flowery work doth sing (MILTON); and the *butterfly* (Anglosaxon *butterfléoge*, f.): *The idle butterfly* Should rest *him* there (BRYANT); *the emmet, ant* (emmet, Anglosaxon
æmete, f.) and others. Yet others prefer the masculine gender originally belonging to them, as beetle (Anglosaxon bêtel, m.); spider (spinner); cricket (French criquet, m.); insect (French m.); mosquito (Spanish m.); and even primitive feminines like wasp (Anglosaxon vâps, vesp, f.); fly (Anglosaxon fleóge, f.); snail (Anglosaxon snægel, f.); of crustacea shell-fish remains masculine, as lobster (Anglosaxon loppestref, f.); oyster (French huître, f.) and others are becoming.

2) Other concrete names of things, which, alongside of their neuter conception, appear in the masculine or the feminine gender, can hardly be comprised under general points of view. It is frequently arbitrary, and the occurrence of one gender alone is hard to guarantee, but the original gender is often retained.

6) The names of the world, the heavenly bodies, the earth, and the elements of its surface, are often masculine or feminine. Chaos (Greek-Latin n., French m.) is of two genders; world (Anglosaxon veorold, f.); nature (French f.); universe (French m.) are feminine. Heaven (Anglosaxon heofon, m.) is sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine, of the names of stars star (Anglosaxon steorra, m.) remained commonly masculine, although not without exception: Now the bright morning-star... leads with her The flowery May (MILTON); as also comet (Greek Latin m., French f.); feminine on the other hand planet (French f.). For son and moon see above p. 248.

The earth, earth (Anglosaxon eorðe, f.) remained feminine, as expressions for its surface remained or became, as plain (French plaine, f.); vale, valley (French f.); soil (French sol, seuil, m.); so too land and island (Anglosaxon land, n.): Never shall the land forget How gushed the life-blood of her brave (BRYANT). He arose To raise a language, and his land reclaim From the dull yoke of her barbaric foes (L. BYRON). God bless the seabat island! And grant... That charity and freedom dwell... upon her shore (WHITTIER); Old-English has treated land also as masculine (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I, 1.). Country also remains feminine (Old-French contreie, f.), as republic Latin French f.) and nation (French f.), to which state (Latin French m.) is joined: There you saved the state; then live to save her still (L. BYRON). Conformably to these the proper names of quarters of the world and countries, as, Europe, Afric, Italy, Egypt, Albion, Russia, Poland, France, Spain &c. are likewise feminine. The terms for towns are also feminine, as, city (Old-French cite, f.); capital (French f.); to which castel (French m.) is assimilated: And Belgium's capital had gather'd then Her Beauty and her Chivalry (L. BYRON) and thence also their proper names: Our late-burnt London, in apparel new, Shook off her ashes (WALLER † 1087). Delphi, when her prie-stess sung &c. (L. BYRON). I lived and toil'd a soldier and a servant Of Venice and her people (ID.). Here Ehrenbreitstein with her shatter'd wall (ID.). — Names of heights are masculine, as, mountain (French f.); hill (Anglosaxon m.); peak (French pic, m.), although proper names of mountains are often feminine
as Aetna, Jura, Ardennes: And still his honied wealth *Hymettus* yields (L. Byron). *Vesuvius* . . . whose fount of fire, Outgushing, drowned the cities on his steeps (Bryant). *Kearsage* Lifting his Titan forehead to the sun (Whittier). On the other hand: And *Jura* answers, through her misty shroud, Back to the joyous Alps, who call to her aloud (L. Byron). And *Ardennes* waves above them her green leaves (id.). The desert is masculine (French m.), and the *meadow* (Anglosaxon meadu, m.); on the other hand the *beach* (?) is usually feminine.

The *sea* (Anglosaxon *sea*, m. and f.) has remained of two *genders*, hence perhaps *ocean* (Greek Latin French m.), although frequently masculine, is also used femininely, and even *deep* (Anglosaxon *deope*, f. — mare profundum), mostly feminine, also masculinely: When at thy call, *Uprises* the great *deep* and throws *himself* Upon the Continent (Bryant). Hence *single seas* are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine: Again the *Aegean* . . . Lulls *his* chafed breast from elemental war (L. Byron), and: The spouseless *Adriatic* mourns *her* lord (id.). The *lake* (Anglosaxon *lacu*, ?, Modern-Highdutch *die lache*) is feminine, as well as the *wave* (Anglosaxon *væg*, m., compare woge, f.); the *drop* (Anglosaxon *dropa*, m.) masculine: Like a *drop* of water . . . Who . . . confounds *himself* (Shakespeare Com. of Err.), as well as, the *flood* (Anglosaxon *flöd*, n. = *flumen*). Thus too the *river* (French f.) is apprehended masculinely: The swelling *river*, into *his* green guls . . . Takes the redundant glory (Bryant), like the bay (French *baie*, f.): Where *his* willing waves *yon* bright *blue bay* Sends up (id.) and proper names of rivers likewise mostly pass as masculine: *Thames* (Anglosaxon Temese, f.), the most loved of all the Ocean’s sons By *his* old sire, to *his* embraces runs (John Denham † 1668). Nor *Ouse* on *his* bosom their image receives (Cowper). Mid the dark rocks that watch *his* bed *Glitters* the mighty Hudson spread (Bryant). Dark *Guardiana* rolls *his* power along In sullen billows (L. Byron). Where the quick *Rhone* has cleft *his* way (id.). Yet *Lethe* (Milton), the English river *Isis*, the *Brenta* (Byron) and others are also found used femininely.

Localities of another sort are the *grave* (Anglosaxon *gräf*, n.), which has become feminine, as *hell* (Anglosaxon *hell*, f.) has remained, while *Tartarus* has retained its masculine gender.

3) **Light, air, wind and appearances** in the atmosphere are personified rhetorically: *light*, twilight (Anglosaxon *leóht*, *lyht*, n.), have become feminine, *dawn* has continued so (Old-norse *dagan* f.). The *ray* (Old-French *rais*, m.) remains masculine, and the *fire* becomes so too, (Anglosaxon *fyr*, n.): Alone the *fire* . . . Gathers *his* annual harvest here (Bryant). *Air* (French m.) has become feminine; likewise the *cloud* (Anglosaxon *clöd*, m. = *rupes*) and *wealke* (Anglosaxon *volcen*, n.): By *wealke* and *her* stars (Shakespeare Merry Wives). On the other hand the terms for *winds* have remained masculine: *wind* (Anglosaxon *vind*, m.); *storm* (Anglosaxon m.): With thee on high the *storm* has made *his* airy seat (Bryant); *zephyr* (Latin French m.):
The zephyr stoops to freshen his wings (id.); tornado (Spanish m.): Till the strong tornado broke his way Through the gray giants of the sylvan wild (id.), as also gale (Old-norse gola, f.) is found masculine. The name of the quarter of heaven put in the place of the wind, north (Anglosaxon noruth, m.); east (Anglosaxon m.), often retains its gender: And the loud north again shall buffet the vexed forest in his rage (BRYANT); but not without exception: When the recreant north has forgotten her trust (WHITTIER). Thunder (Anglosaxon punor, m.) remains masculine.

7) Plants and minerals often remain true to their original gender. The names of trees, as tree (Anglosaxon treow, n.) even fluctuate. We find in the masculine oak (Anglosaxon ac, f.), elm (Anglo-saxon m.) and elm-tree, sumach, pine (Anglosaxon pinn, ?), tulip, tuliptree (French tulipier, m.); but compare: The tuliptree . . .

Opened . . . her multitude of golden chalices (BRYANT); also alley (French allée, f.) is masculine, whereas wood (Anglosaxon vudu, m.) commonly appears as feminine. Other plants, especially flowering ones, mostly remain feminine, or pass into this gender. Here belong ivy (Anglosaxon isg, m.), which however is also found in the masculine: A dainty plant is the ivy green . . . of right choice food are his meals [DICKENS], vine (Anglo-saxon vin, n.), grape (French f.), which also stands for the plant; egplantine (French f.), viburnum (Latin n.): The viburnum . . . to the sun holds up Her circket of green berries (BRYANT);

spice-bush (Medieval-Latin buscus, m.): The spice-bush lifts her leafy lances (id.); liverleaf (Anglosaxon leaf, n.); The liverleaf put forth her sister blooms (id.); mistletoe (Anglosaxon misteltâ, f.), rose, primrose (French rose, f.), lily (Anglosaxon lilje, f.), which, however, is also masculine; lotus (Greek Latin m. and f.): The lotus lifted her golden crown (LONGFELLOW); cousstip (Anglosaxon lippa, m.), gentian [flower] (Latin f.) &c. Among the metals we find silver (Anglosaxon silfur, n.) left in the feminine; among the precious stones ruby (French rubis, m.), sapphire (French saphir, m.) in the masculine. Even dust (Anglosaxon n.), is so met with.

8) Among the members of the animal body the hand (Anglosaxon f.) remains feminine, whereas the eye (Anglosaxon eage, n.): Dark night that from the eye his function takes (SHAKESPEARE); as well as the nose (Anglosaxon nasu, f.): Whenever the nose put his spectacles on (COWPER), are used as masculines. The heart (Anglosaxon heorte, f.) is, mostly in a figurative sense, of two genders. The lap (Anglosaxon lappa, m.), strictly used of the clothing, is feminine: The flowery lap of some vigorous valley spread her store (MILTON).

9) Human works and tools are seldom considered. Of edifices dome is masculine (French m.), tower fluctuates (French tour f., Anglosaxon torr, m.). The church, mostly in a transferred sense (Anglosaxon cyrice, f.) remains feminine. Hammer (Anglosaxon hamor, m.), and sword (Anglosaxon sveord, n.) are treated as
masculines in poetry; the needle (Anglo-Saxon nœdl, f.), pin (Anglo-Saxon pinn, ? = stylus) remains feminine. The bottle (French bouteille, f.) is masculine in Shakspeare Temp. 2, 2.

3) Among fabulous beings sphinx (Greek Latin f.) has remained feminine, nightmare (Anglo-Saxon maru, m.) has become so. Fantom, phantom is, like the corresponding French word, masculine.

Time and definite spaces of time for the most part persevere in their original gender. Time (Anglo-Saxon tîma, m.) is commonly, although not universally, masculine; likewise year (Anglo-Saxon gær, n.), and day (Anglo-Saxon dag, m.). Of the Seasons summer (Anglo-Saxon sumor, m.), winter (Anglo-Saxon vinter, n.), autumn (French automne, m. and f.) appear frequently, although not always, masculine; compare: Who joys the mother Autumn’s bed to crown, And bids old Winter lay her honour down? (Young). Summer sheds for me her beams (Montgomery); whereas spring (Anglo-Saxon m., = fons) is usually taken as feminine: When I . . . saw . . . the Spring Come forth her work of gladness to contrive (L. Byron). Among the months, April, October and others remain masculine; May, on the other hand, is found in the feminine: May with her cap crowned with roses (Longfellow). The times of the day mostly follow the old gender: morning, after the feminine evening (Anglo-Saxon æfnung, f., on the other hand æfen, m.), as morn (Anglo-Saxon morgen, m.): Morn . . . Lifts up her purple wing (Longfellow). The meek-ey’d Morn . . . mother of dews (Milton). night (Anglo-Saxon neaht, f.), midnight and hour (Old-French houre, f.) are feminine.

4) The wide domain of those abstract substantives, which do not represent the corporeal, if they themselves denote processes in outward nature, the expressions for states, feelings, affections, activities and essences, which fall under mental intuition, offer peculiar phenomena. At one time the feminine gender preponderates in the treatment of them as sexual beings; at another, the influence of the original gender operates with them, especially so far as it is characterised by perceptible terminations; thirdly, the Romance, hence, the Latin determination of gender is of preponderant influence in Modern-English, perhaps under the operation of classic studies, whereas more latitude prevails in Old-English. But even in Modern-English strict consistency is not to be found.

a) If, in the first place, we consider abstract terms according to their sensuous terminations, the Romance stand in the first rank as a foundation for the genders, whereas Germanic terminations operate less universally.

1) Abstract terms in y (ry, ty, sy, ory &c.), corresponding to French feminines in ie, é, oire &c., are used chiefly in the feminine, as: astronomy, melancholy, modesty, poesy, fancy, folly, philosophy, jealousy, sympathy, harmony; misery, luxury, penury, poetry, flattery, slavery, chivalry; — impiety, necessity, liberty, piety,
pity, plenty, prosperity, beauty, vanity, duty, society, cruelty, charity, chastity, humility; — memory, victory, glory, history &c., also mercy (Old-French merit, mercis f.).

Exceptionally words of this sort pass over into the masculine, as, industry, poverty, folly, tyranny, drudgery, jealousy, conspiracy, knavery, hospitality &c., mostly, certainly, when the image of the rough, untender or of masculine gravity inhere in the word: All is the gift of Industry. Pensive Winter, cheer'd by him, Sits at the social fire (Thomson). Here Folly still his votaries in thralls (L. Byron). Tyranny himself, Thy enemy (Bryant). But Jealousy has fled; his bars, his bolts. Have pass'd to darkness (L. Byron). Knavery cannot hide himself in such reverence (Shakespeare Much Ado ab. N.). Open-eyed conspiracy his time doth take (Id. Temp.). In that mansion used to be freehearted Hospitality; His great fires up the chimney roared (Longfellow). This is often the case in Old-English: Theologie When he this tale herde (Piers Ploughman p. 35.); even in Skelton: If libertre sholde lepe and renne where he lyst (I. 230.). Fansy with his fonde consayte (= conceit) (I. 247.). Thus Young calls eternity the father of time: Eternity his Sire (Night 2.).

Abstract terms in ion (tion), on remain likewise inclined to the feminine gender of their French termination (Lat. ion-em): opinion, oblivion, religion, decision, oppression, passion, compassion, imagination, inspiration, inquisition, ambition, affection, presumption, fiction, dissimulation, devotion, desolation, sedition, superstition, caution, consideration, corruption, creation; — fashion (Old-French faceon, fachon = factio), reason, treason (Old-French traison = traditio) &c.

Substantives of this class are rarely used in the masculine also, as, passion, contemplation, action and some others: In his lair Fix'd Passion holds his breath (L. Byron).

Abstract terms in ice (French ice, Latin itia) also remain feminine, as avarice, justice, injustice; although Old-English also occasionally treats thus as masculine: Coveitise (Old-French coveitise, convoitise, Latin, as if cupiditia) . . . caste how he myghte Overcome (Piers Ploughman, p. 432.). Compare also: Largesse is he that all prynces doth avaunce (Skelton I. 234.).

Words in ic (French ique, f.) are likewise used femininely, as magic, music, rhetoric &c. Yet logic commonly appears in the masculine.

Words in ance and ence (French the same, Latin antia, entia) likewise retain regularly the feminine gender: ignorance, repentance, temperance, impertinence, impudence, innocence, existence, penitence, pestilence, patience, prudence, benevolence, science &c.; to which silence (Latin silentium) is added: Silence and Darkness. solemn sisters! (Young N. 1.).
Yet romance, prudence, vengeance, providence, conscience and some others are also sometimes found used in the masculine: This sir Prudence (Shakspeare Temp.). Young Romance raised his dreamy eyes (Whittier). And then comes repentance, and with his bad legs falls (Shakspeare Much Ado ab. Noth.).

Abstract terms in or, our retain in part the masculine gender corresponding to the Latin, as error, terror, horror, honour, labour &c.; yet labour is also found feminine, and thus commonly, following their French gender, languor, splendor, and others.

Also those in ude (Latin udo) and ure (Latin ura) commonly preserve the feminine gender, as lassitude, rectitude, servitude &c. scripture (as a concrete term), sculpture &c. To the words in ure is also joined future (Latin futurum): The cheerful future . . with all her promises and smiles (Bryant); as well as pleasure (French plaisir), whereas leisure (French loisir) is found masculine: Leisure, That in trim gardens takes his pleasure (Milton).

Abstract terms in ment (French m.), few of which occur determined as to gender, chiefly follow the masculine gender: contentment, atonement, astonishment &c.; but they also pass over into the feminine: Therefore . . descended the Prince of Atonement . . and she stands now . . and battles with Sin (Longfellow).

2) Also among the more sensuous Anglosaxon derivative terminations some shew themselves effective.

Abstract substantives in ing (Anglosaxon ung, ing, f.) are used in the feminine, as: understanding, learning, feeling and some others: Why should feeling ever speak When thou (Music) canst breathe her soul so well (Th. Moore).

Still more frequently occur substantives in ness (Anglosaxon ness, niss, nyss &c., f.) as feminines, as madness, lewdness, wilderness (concrete), darkness, sickness, consciousness, gentleness, cheerfulness, happiness &c. yet they partly oscillate. Compare: Where brooding darkness spreads his jealous wings (Milton) on the other hand: Silence and Darkness, solemn sisters (Young). Old-English: Falsnesse is fayn of hire (sc. Mede), For he woot hire riche (Piers Ploughman p. 32.).

The combination of the neuter with the feminine is striking in: Not happiness itself makes good her name (Young N. Th. 1).

The few words in dom (Anglosaxon dôm, m.) and hood (Anglosaxon hâd, m.) betray their original gender: Princely wisdom, then, Dejects his watchful eye (Thomson). Where manhood, on the field of death, Strikes for his freedom (Whittier). Yet freedom (perhaps on account of its affinity of meaning with liberty) prefers the feminine gender: Thus Freedom now so seldom wakes, The only throb she gives Is . . To show that still she lives (Th. Moore). Where Freedom weeps
her children's fall (Whittier); so too in Byron and others. Also wisdom is feminine: Wisdom, . . What is she, but the means of Happiness? (Young). The termination ship (Anglo-saxon scipe, m.) so rarely of determinate gender, becomes feminine in friendship: This carries Friendship to her noon tide point (Young).

Substantives ending in the derived th (Anglo-saxon ð), many whereof point to Anglo-saxon feminines, and wherein the derivation is still sensible, have retained pretty decidedly the feminine gender, as wealth, health, truth, sloth, youth; to which is also added the Romance faith: When wanton wealth her mightiest deeds had done (L. Byron). Sloth drew her pillow o'er her head (Whittier). Ere youth had lost her face (L. Byron). Faith, she herself from on high is descended (Longfellow). With a correct feeling the usage of the tongue separates death (Anglo-saxon dead, m.) from the above words, and uses it mostly in the masculine, as Milton, Young, Byron, Longfellow &c., although it is sometimes taken as feminine; compare: The painful family of Death more hideous than their queen (Gray). It is remarkable that the older language often deviates with regard to those feminines: Truth is therinne . . he is fader of faith (Piers Plouphm. p. 15.). Sleuth . . An hard assault he made (p. 438.). Feith . . he feigh astide (p. 351.). Wethe . . wolde bere hymselfe to bolde (Skelton I. 229.). Sloth, as a concrete substantive, is masculine.

$\beta$) Abstract terms, which either have no derivative termination, or in which it is no longer felt as such by linguistic consciousness, or, finally, those whose derivative termination has no definite gender, are still frequently used in poetry as masculine or feminine. Many masculines and neuters pass over into the feminine gender, a few feminines, on the contrary, are masculine. Words of all three original genders are here and there fluctuating. We cite examples, having regard to their original gender, without respect to the distinctions of notion.

1) Anglo-saxon masculines appear masculine: hunger, thirst, sleep, dream (Anglo-saxon dreám, m., gaudium), anger (Anglo-saxon only ang-niss), fear, lust (Anglo-saxon lust, m.; lyst, f.), laughter, pride, the original neuter murder and the undefinable in gender want (Óld-norse vanta, deesse); likewise the Romance masculines: order, danger, character, power, use, vice, commerce, spirit, sport (Old-French deport, m.), despair (compare French désespoir). Examples: Sleep give thee all his rest (Shakspeare Mids. N. Dr.). And let some strange mysterious dream Wave at his wings an airy stream &c. (Milton). Next Anger rushed, his eyes on fire (Collins). First Fear, his hand, his skill to try, Amid the chords bewildered laid (Id.). Laughter, holding both his sides (Milton). Pride brandishes the favours he confers (Young). Wither'd murder, Alarum'd by his sentinel, the wolf (Shakspeare Macb.). Power at thee has launched his bolts (Bryant). Grey-bearded Use . . Leaned on his staff and wept (Whittier).
Son of Eternity, the Spirit Tugs at his chains (Longfellow). And Sport leapt up and seized his beechen spear (Collins). With woeful measures wan Despair, his grief beguiled (id.).

Yet even here transitions into the feminine gender are found, and we find, for instance: pride, fear, murder, power, vice, commerce, spirit, despair often used in the feminine: Which makes weariness forget his toil And fear her danger (L. Byron). But here, where Murder breathed her bloody steam (id.). Daughter of Jove, relentless Power (Gray). Within walls Power dwelt amidst her passions (L. Byron). Aoe that digs her own voluptuous tomb (id.). When the trembling spirit wings her flight (Rogers). Despair extends her raven wing (Thomson).

Among the original feminines, which become masculine, are the Anglosaxon heat, love (perhaps not without the influence of the personification of love) care, war, the Romance fraud. Instances: Tyrant Heat, his burning influence darts On man &c. (Thomson). Love has no gift so grateful as his wings (L. Byron). Ere War uprose in his volcanic rage (L. Byron). And War shall lay his pomp away (Bryant). Fraud from his secret chambers fled (Whittier).

Here and their we find the feminine gender, as, for instance, of war.

2) A number of Anglosaxon feminines commonly remain feminine, as, mind (Anglosaxon n. and f., Old-norse f.), law, rest, sin, sorrow, soul and especially Romance ones, as, revenge, rage, peace, pain, prayer, fame, form, fortune, misfortune, virtue, trade (?), disease (Old-French desaise), joy, concord, discord, quiet (Old-French quiete) and others. The transition into the masculine gender is here a rarer exception, although it occurs. Compare: The mighty Mind, that son of Heav’n (Young). The eternal mind Who veils his glory with the elements (Bryant); as often in the even in Anglosaxon double-gendered mind. Revenge impatient rose. He threw his blood-stained sword in thunder down (Collins) Last came Joy’s ecstatic trial: He. First to the lively pipe his hand addressed (id.).

Some Anglosaxon neuters pass over into the feminine gender, as, evil, life, wit, as well as some which might belong to the masculine or neuter grammatical genus, as, thought, wrong, and the masculine will, guilt, knowledge (Old-norse kunneiki, m.), hope, slumber and slaughter (?). Still more numerous are the Romance masculines: art, exploit, repose, pardon, praise, fate, delight, sense, strife, carnage, crime, habit &c. The adjectives used as substantives ideal, ridicule, also words like havoc, scorn and others. Instances: Then well may Life Put on her plume (Young). Hail, memory, hail! . Thought and her shadowy brood thy call obey (Rogers). The mark where wrong Aim’d with her poison’d arrows (L. Byron). The ocean has his chart, the stars their map. And knowledge spreads
them on her ample lap (id.). Hope . . Does what she can (Longfellow). Pardon, clad like a mother, gave you her hand to kiss (id.). Praise . . with her soft plume (Young). Accuse . . not thy fate — she may redeem thee still (L. Byron). God hath yoked to guilt Her pale tormentor misery (Bryant). And Havoc loathes so much the waste of time, She scarce had left an uncommitted crime (L. Byron).

The masculine gender appears to be here rare; compare: Life mocks the idle hate Of his arch-enemy Death (Bryant). Old-English: Hope cam . . Ac whan he hadde sighte of that segge (= man) (Piers Ploughm. p. 351.)

2. The Adjective.

The adjective, or word of quality, which expresses the quality inherent in an object, solely in reposing upon a substantives into the notion of which the quality is to be taken up, is for this reason both thought in unity with its substantive as regards sex, and shares its changing relations in the sentence. In the languages phonetically more complete it has therefore terminations of gender, and also marks of case, to express its unity with the substantive. Anglosaxon distinguished more or less distinctly three genders of the adjective, with which the participle, as a verbal adjective, is also to be reckoned. Old-French distinguished, at least partly, two genders by the termination. Anglosaxon distinguished a strong and a weak declension of adjectives, whose cases certainly often coincided in point of form, the comparative following however the weak declension only. Old-French still distinguished in part the nominative of the singular and of the plural from the oblique cases of the adjective. Modern-English has completely abandoned the distinction of gender, number and case by terminations, with adjectives not used substantively.

If the nature or quality which the adjective expresses is attributed absolutely to an object, the word of quality, as positive, stands in its fundamental form. If, however, that quality is attributed to one or several objects, by way of comparison, in a greater measure than to one or several objects placed over against them, this greater measure is expressed by the comparative of the word of quality, in which case two spheres only of comparison are proposed, whether the objects compared in quality belong to the same or to different classes of things. If, finally, a quality common to all objects coming under review is ascribed to one or to several of them in the greatest measure, the adjective expresses this highest measure by the superlative. The comparative and the superlative need therefore a different form from the positive. The Anglosaxon distinguished them by Suffixes, like the Latin; French, which lost the Latin suffixes down to a few traces, distinguished them by the prefixed adverbs plus, le plus. English combined both modes.
The Declension of Adjectives

In Modern-Englisch the adjective, as such, appears always in the same form: a virtuous man; a virtuous woman; virtuous men &c. They rather look like vagabond gipsies, or stout beggars, than regular troops (Lady Montague). Thus the adjective has become unknowable by its form. To this is to be ascribed the misunderstanding, by which substantives, which often appear in a loose connection before others as words of determination, are frequently cited at the same time as adjectives in dictionaries, as, gold, silver, stone &c., although it is a matter of course that substantives, in their effect as words of determination, may express the same import as the adjective combined with the substantive. In iron (Anglosaxon subst. and adjec. isern, iren) the substantive certainly coincides in form with the adjective.

Anglosaxon has bequeathed hardly a trace of its case terminations even to Old-English. Here belongs, for instance: Dame, have you gode dai! (Dame Siriz p. 7.). The Anglosaxon strong form m. göd, f. göd (u), n. göd has in the accus. sing. masc. gödne. To the weak form m. -a, f. -e, n. -e, gen &c. -an might i' th' olden time (Shakespeare Macb. 3, 4.) be referred, since there is no Anglosaxon a lýnden, but only a lînd, so that olden had developed itself out of the cases. On the contrary an e, which seems to occur more frequently with the feminine than with the masculine, has been preserved more obstinately in the adjective used in the plural, so that we can see therein a mark of distinction of the two numbers. Compare: God corn . . wateres he hap eke gode (Rob. of Gloucester I. 1.). pe strengeste me (— men) (I. 111.); lawes he made rystuoller and strongere pan er were (I. 266.). A solîl thing — the solîte craftes (Piers Ploughm. p. 294. 297.). In raggede clothes (p. 204.). Povere men to fede (p. 273.). Of avarouse chapmen (p. 300.). 4 princi-palle cyteyes (Maundev. p. 27.). Many perilouse passages (ib.). Many goude hylles and fayre (p. 127.). Into Cristene mennes handes (p. 104.). This comes out especially, when adjectives are used as substantives: Of alle manere of men, The meene and the riche (Piers Plougm. p. 2.). Amonges povere and riche (p. 274. 278.). Whan thise wîk-kede wenten out (p. 22.). Oon of Godes chosene (p. 209.). We may certainly consider this e as a remnant of the inflective termination, which in the plural of the weak declension was -an, in the strong -e, -e, -u.

Adjectives are in English, as in other tongues, also used as substantives. It is indebted for many adjectives used as substantives even to the Anglosaxon, still more to the French. Yet on the whole, among adjectives used as substantives only a small number assumes also the form of inflection of the substantive.

a) To the adjectives used as substantives which adopt these inflective forms belong mostly Romance, fewer Germanic words. Here belong:

a) those, which become personal names for a people, as Ionian, Italian, Dorian, Spartan, German, Roman, Euro-
pean &c. They are commonly already Romance or Latin substantives. Words like Scot, Greek &c., although partly occurring as adjectives, do not belong here as Anglosaxon substantives: Scottas (plur. tantum), Gréc. Even Swiss is a substantive.

Such as end in a sibilant or a hissing letter (also ese) do not assume the plural s: the Irish, the English, the French, the Dutch, the Portuguese, the Chinese, the Bengalese; on the other hand Tunguses.

Words ending in sh and ch do not occur otherwise than generalized with the article the, or universally negated by no (the Dutch; no Dutch).

Otherwise determined, or used predicatively, man in the singular, men in the plural is annexed to them: an Irishman, these Englishmen, two Frenchmen; they are Englishmen.

β) Names of persons, denoting the members of a sect or party: Christian, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Stoic, Cynic, Jacobin &c. They have also mostly been taken from the Romance or Latin, as forms already used as substantives.

γ) Names of persons of another sort are: impertinent, incurable, ignorant, ancient, modern, mortal, immortal, native, noble, saint, sage, criminal &c.; which are joined by a few Germanic ones, as, heathen, (Anglosaxon hæðen, adj.), black, white. Latin comparatives also, as inferior, superior, senior, junior, to which the Anglosaxon elder, better are added, and which we often meet with in combination with my: my inferiors, my betters &c.; but also otherwise: The juniors of their number (L. Byron). The elders of his own tribe (W. Scott). If many of these words are found chiefly in the plural, the use of the singular is not thereby excluded, which dictionaries therefore do not hesitate to cite also as a substantive. But some are of course limited to the plural, as commons, infernals and others.

d) Concrete and abstract names of things likewise occur in the form of adjectives used as substantives, the latter indeed very commonly in the plural, like the Latin neuters of adjectives: eatables, drinkables, combustibles, materials, mercurials, pentecostals, vitals, substantialis, valuables, movables, woolens, as the plural often stands with a particular meaning alongside of the singular: green, greens; white, whites; sweet, sweets = home-made wines, molasses &c. Of abstract nouns belong here the names of sciences, as mathematics &c. (see p. 230.); universals: Universals have no real substance (Longfellow); dialectically dismals = melancholy feelings and others. Lexicography has to bestow a particular notice upon words belonging here, which withdraws them from grammatical rules.

b) The great number of adjectives, especially of the Anglosaxon origin, as well as the participial forms, does not share the in-
ffective capacity of the above named. Anglosaxon declines them in its own manner; the usage of the Old-English we have above observed. English has at least refused them the plural termination.

") Adjectives of this sort used as substantives seldom appear in the singular as names of persons, as is often the case in Old-English: The poore is but feeble (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 287.). The poore is my prest To plese the riche (IB.). In Modern-English the positive sometimes, but especially the superlative, is found thus used: None but the brave deserves the fair (DRYDEN). And Work of wonders far the greatest, that thy dearest far might bleed (YOUNG N. Th.). The great First-Last (ID.).

In the plural this is common, and even where the adjective used substantively does not appear as the subject of a plural verb, we mostly have to take it as a plural: The poor of the parish, who were ranged on benches in the aisles (W. IRVING). Yet there is one, And he amongst the foremost in his power (ROWE). O ye dead! (YOUNG). There will a worse come in his place (SHAKSPEARE). Yet for the foulest of the foul He dies, Most joy'd, for the redeem'd from deepest guilt (ID.). Thy songs were made for the pure and free (TH. MOORE). Upon the combination of the adjective with one see further below.

f) Even in the sense of the Latin neuter the adjective used as a substantive is employed in the singular: This my hand will rather The multitudinous seas incarnadine Making the green one red (SHAKSPEARE). Expose the vain of life (YOUNG). The fathomless of thought divine (ID.). Nor that the worst (ID.). Ambition makes my little less, Embitt'ring the possess'd (ID.)

The adjective used substantively, incapable of the plural formation with s, may however, assume the s of the genitive, both in names of persons and in the neuter, although this does not frequently happen. See p. 255. With the otherwise uninflected comparative and superlative this could hardly be the case.

The Comparison of the Adjective.

The denoting of the comparison of the adjective, that is, the formation of the comparative and the superlative, happens in two modes, the one answering to the Anglosaxon, the other to the Romance mode. The one is effected through derivational terminations, the other by the combination of the adverbs more and most with the positive.

a) The derivational terminations of the comparative and superlative are er and est, which are joined to the positive: great, greater, greatest. They correspond to the Anglosaxon terminations ir (commonly ér) and or for the comparative, ist (ést) and òst for the superlative, whose é and ó however before the r in the terminations -ra, -re, -re almost always, often also in the

Old-English still preserves remnants of the termination ør, òst alongside of ør, òst: po pis kyng Leir eldore was (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 32.). pe stalwordore (191.). Lawes he made rystuollere and stren gore (266.): po was he & al hys gladdore (358.). pys lond nede mot pe pouerore be (II 370.). & so pe febllore were (372.). pe zongost Cordeille (I. 29.). pe eldoste (105.). pe wy sost kyng (266.). The forms in ø, alongside of which those in e were of course constantly in use, were nevertheless soon completely lost. Instead of the termination est, yst is also found: The manfullyste man (PERCY Rel. p. 3. II.).

With the English forms of comparison the vowel of the stem remains unchanged: long, longer, longest. The Anglosaxon here frequently let the modification of the vowel, known in High-dutch as the Umlaut, and in Sanscrit as the guna, enter: strang (strong): strengra, strangōsta, strangsta; lang: lengra, lengesta, lengsta; ald, eald: yldra; yldesta.

Old-English preserved traces of this for a long time: strong, stronge: strengere (MAUNDEV. p. 278.); stren gore (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 266.); strengest (ID. 15.); stren geste (111.); thus also we find lang, lenger, lengest, lengost, and others. Connected with this is the shortening of long vowels of the positive, which is not justified through the Anglosaxon, as swe te: swetter, swettest (Anglosaxon svēt, svētra, svētesta); depe: depper, deppest (Anglosaxon deóp); gre te: gret ter, grettest (Anglosaxon great); wide: widd er, widdest (Anglosaxon vid); forms which we frequently meet in Piers Ploughman, Maunde ville, Chaucer and others.

Modern-English has in the forms: old: elder, eldest, as well as in better, best (pointing to a positive with a, Anglosaxon betera, betsta), traces of the ancient vowel modification.

The changes which the English positive undergoes in the forms of comparison, are essentially of graphical nature. Words ending in a mute e lose it before er and est: polite, politer, politest. This is also the case in adjectives ending in le with a consonant preceding: able, abler, ablest. The same happens if a vowel is followed by an e: true, truer, truest. If an adjective ends in y with a consonant preceding it, y transmutes itself into i: happy, happier, happiest; not so in gay, gayer, gayest. — The simple consonant doubles itself after a short vowel of the accented syllable: big, bigger, biggest; hot, hotter, hottest. The same takes place also with l in an unaccented syllable: cruel, crueler, cruellest (however with an elided e before l only one l appears: cruel’st racks and torments [Orway]); cheerful, cheerfuller, cheerfullest.

The Anglosaxon forms of comparison were early transferred to Romance stems, and Old-English took no offence at the length
of the forms: pe noblest bacheler (Rob. of Gloucester I. 30.).
feblor (II. 372.). pouerore (370.). Are no men avarouser than
hii (PieRs PlouGHmAn p. 26.). The marveillouseste metels [Dream]
(p. 155.). Awntrousteste (plus avantoureux) (Morte Arthure in
HalliWell s. v.).

Modern-English also transfers these forms to Romance stems,
but, both in Anglosaxon and in Romance adjectives, has restricted
the use of them more and more from euphonic reasons, although,
even in prose no agreement obtains in the employment of them.

Modern-Grammarians allow the terminations of comparison to
the following classes of adjectives:

a) to monosyllabic adjectives: poor, poorer, poorest; sweet,
sweeter, sweetest; wise, wiser, wisest.

b) to disyllabic ones, whose last syllable has the accent: gen-
teel, genteeler, genteelest; severe, severer, severest.

c) to disyllabic ones, ending with the glib syllable formed by
le with an initial consonant preceding it: able, abler, ab-
est.

d) to disyllabic ones, ending in y with a consonant preceding it:
worthy, worthier, worthiest; lovely, lovelier, love-
liest. Many of these adjectives are, by reason of their notion,
not easily susceptible of comparison, especially those with the
derivational termination y (Anglosaxon iy), so far as they refer
to materials, as balmy, skinny, woody, earthy &c.

We however permit those terminations also to other adject-
ives whose forms of comparison cause no ill sound, which
certainly furnishes only an indefinite standard. But when John-
son completely excludes the participial terminations ing and ed,
the terminations ive, id, ent, ain, al, ate, ous, as well as those
in ful, less and some, which have properly arisen through composi-
tion, from this mode of comparison, he manifestly goes too far.

As regards the participial forms, the comparison of adjectives in
ing is confined to the Old-English fittingest (CHAuCER A. F. 551.);
and rarely appears with the moderns: the lastingst wine (HOWell
sec. XVII.); a cunninger animal (GOLDSMITH Vic. of W.); but is
not uncommonly in the mouth of the people. See Dickens Master
Humphrey Clock 3, 73. Fiedler's Wissenschaftliche Grammatik
der englischen Sprache I. p. 246. The comparison of those in
ed is familiar to Old-English: Bettre and blesseder (PieRs PlouGH-
man p. 217.). The contree is the curseder (p. 421.); and has
not become foreign to Modern-English: The damnedest body
(Shakspere Meas. for Meas.). The wickedst caitiff (from Anglo-
saxon viccjan = veneficiis uti) (RI.). Matter, the wickedst offspring
of thy race (John Wilmot f 1630). The wretchedst of the race
of man (from the Anglosaxon vreccan, persequi) (OTWAY); and
so with the people: tireder (HalliWell s. v.) &c.

Of others of the above cited adjective terminations may serve
as Modern-English examples: The solidest bodies (W. IRVING),
compare: The soueraynst things (Skelton I. 38). — Nothing cer-
tainer (Shakspere Much Ado &c.); those compounded with some
and ful: The best and wholesomst spirits of the night (Shakspere
Meas. for Meas.). The handsomest and gentlest footman (Fielding). The unhopefullest husband that I know (Shakspeare Much Ado &c.). The beautifullest race of people upon earth (Sheridan). I yearn’d to know which one was faithfullest Of all this camp includes (Coleridge). And be this peal its awfullest and last sound (L. Byron). The cellar’s a cheerfuller place than the cell (Longfellow). In Old-English all such forms are used without hesitancy.

Others also of the twosyllabled adjectives not named above frequently form their degrees of comparison by derivational terminations; thus adjectives in ow, el, il, er, ant, t (ct), st, even threesyllabled ones in er-y: In a narrower sphere (L. Byron). And hollerow grew The deep-worn path (Bryant). Cruel’st racks (Otway). The cruellest mortification (Goldsmith). Their people’s civiller (Butler); especially frequent in er: Bitterer remembrances (L. Byron). In its tenderer hour (1d.). The proper’st observations (Butler). The properest means (Goldsmith). The sobe’est constitutions (Fielding). With bitterest reproaches (Congreve). ’twixt bitterest foemen (L. Byron). The tend’rest eloquence (Rowe). The cleverest man (Lewes). — A pleasander tune (Campbell). The pleasant’st angling (Shakspeare Much Ado &c.). One of the pleasantest figures in German literature (Lewes). Silence is the perfectest herald of joy (Shakspeare Much Ado &c.). Full of reptiles, not less loathsome, though Their sting is honester (L. Byron). — To find there is a slipperier step or two (1d).

The elision of the e in the superlative termination est is not rare in verse.

It will be understood with this mode of comparison that it is now here absolutely necessary, but frequently yields to the second mode (see b.).

Among the anomalous forms of comparison Modern-English reckons:

a) those diverging in the vowel:

old; elder, eldest (Anglosaxon eald, ald; yldra, yldesta) on account of the otherwise extinct vowel-modification. Beside these forms stand the regular older, oldest. The Old-English has eldore, eldoste; elder, eldest; yet even early the unmodified derivation is used: The oldest lady of hem alle spak (Chaucer 914.).

With the various forms in themselves of the same meaning differences in usage are connected, which, however are not decisively fixed. Elder, eldest commonly form an opposition to younger and newer, but do not include the notion of old as of stricken in years: Nothing! thou elder brother ever to Shade (John Wilmot). I have . . . a son . . . some years elder than this (Shakspeare). In the elder days of Art (Longfellow). The faded fancies of an elder world (1d.). My eldest daughter (Goldsmith), whereas older, oldest frequently has in itself the meaning of age, of the no longer fresh, new, therefore also occasionally that of maturity: I did not know you. You look older (Longfellow). He was the oldest monk of all (1d.). One of the oldest of Prince John’s followers (W. Scott). With all the oldest and ablest critics (Longfellow). The oldest as
well as the newest wine (tw.). But that this boundary is overstepped, is proved by such passages as: Their brother ... proved that she was two years older (Buney). The eldest, some five years older (Bulwer).

late, latter, last, alongside of later, latest (Anglo-Saxon læt, lætra, sup. lætemesta; lætost is only an adverbial form) of which the latter forms may be regarded as the regular ones, whereas in the former the vowel lengthened in English appears sharpened again. Compare above the shortened Old-English forms of comparison.

Even these are distinguished by usage, although likewise not with decision; latter, last, stand analogously to the forms former, first, whereas later, latest, signify degrees in time merely, the former importing more the ordinal succession, the latter more the time opposed to the early. Both may certainly, especially in the superlative, be readily interchanged with each other: The latter end of his commonwealth forgets the beginning (Shakspeare, Temp.). I am the lost that will last keep his oath (Shakspeare, Luyn's L. L.). Rienzi! last of Romans (L. Byron). The first, last, sole reward of so much love! (tw.). The fe'lon's latest breath Absolves the innocent man who bears his crime (Bryant). As my first glance Of love and wonder was for thee, then take My latest look (L. Byron). Then turn we to her latest tribe'ne's name (tw.).

β) Forms of comparison which agree in meaning with a positive of a different stem, while themselves having no formally corresponding positive:

good, — better, best (Anglo-Saxon god — betera, betra, betesta, betsta).

The comparative form existing in Old-English bet, bette (Anglo-Saxon bett, bet) is an adverb.

evil, ill, bad, — worse, worst, Old-English worse; wersste, werreste (Anglo-Saxon yfel, Old-norse illr — yyrsa, yyrsesta, virresta; bad, which is regarded as an English positive, dialectically = sick, ill, perhaps belongs to the Anglo-Saxon biddan, humi prosterni, whence bedd, lectus, and bedling, bading, effeminatus. Compare Dieffenbach's Wörterbuch I. p. 282.).

In Old-English bad also forms degrees of comparison; to the badder ende (Chaucer 10538). Old-English has in a striking manner a comparative wre, worre and war: Of thilke were, In whiche none wet who hath the werre (Gower in Halliwell s. v.). The world is much war than it woont (Spenser). Even Old-Scottish and dialectical in North-England, Lancashire and Scotland is war. These forms correspond to that in use as a positive in Anglo-Saxon vejor, veor, but which, according to the Old-norse comparative verri, Danish værre, is itself originally a comparative. In the collateral form worser a gemination of the comparative termination is contained; compare the Old-Highdutch wirsit. It is often found in Shakspeare, Dryden and in dialects, and corresponds to the superlative yvrsesta, Old-Highdutch wirsit. The grammar of the seventeenth century cites it as regular along with worse; at present it is noted as a barbarism.

much (mickle), — more, most, Old-English mechel, mekil, michel, mochel, muchel — more, mest, most (Anglo-Saxon mi-
cel, mycel, mucel — màra, màra, màsta; in English we also regard many, Anglosaxon maneg, multus, as a positive).

The form mickle, in use in Shakspeare as still in the North of England, Old-Scotch mickil, mikel, now muckle, mickle, has early the abbreviated moche, muche, which also corresponds to the Anglosaxon adverb miecle, alongside of it. The meaning magnus in relation to extension in space is still proper to the Old-English: Inde the more (MAUNDDEV. p. 50.). He is not mecheles more than an egle (p. 48.). But the meaning multus soon preponderates.

The form mo, moo, moc, also ma, as well as Scottish, formerly also used adjectively along with more, is the Anglosaxon adverbial form mà alongside of màre. It is early found frequently in the plural or before substantives in the plural: Of him camen mo generacions than of the othere (MAUNDDEV. p. 222.); as well as later: Many mo unto the nombre of ten thousande and moo (were slayne) (CAXTON). Hence the grammarian Alexander Gil at the beginning of the seventeenth century puts the forms of comparison: much, more, most; many, mo, most together, as corresponding to each other. See Mommsen’s Romeo and Juliet p. 12. The age after Spencer and Shakspeare gradually abandons this form.

little, — less, lesser; least, Old-English litel — lasse, las, lesse; leeste, thereafter also lest, Anglosaxon lytel, litel — lissa, lästa.

In Old-English the positive lite, lyte, is also found, as still in Scottish and North-English, Anglosaxon lyt adverb and adjective; also lille, Danish lille, occurs still in Modern-English, as well as in northern dialects (HALLIWELL s. v.). The comparative lesser with a gminated comparative termination is censured by grammarians, but has become indigenous; it is chiefly limited to the meaning smaller: The more my prayer, the lesser is my grace (SHAKSPEARE MIDS. N. DR.). It is the lesser blot (in. Two G. of Ver.). ‘The lesser lights’, as opposed to the moon (DRAYTON). Things of lesser dignity (L. BYRON). That less coincides with the adverbial comparative, as least with the superlative (Anglosaxon læs, læst), is a matter of course. Lesser is striking as an adverb in Shakspeare. See adverb. The adjective occurs at present as well as formerly. Old English: Babyløyne the lesse (MAUNDDEV. p. 42.). A lasse fowel (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 243.); Modern-English: How to name the bigger light and how the less That burn by day and night (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). — Dialects, besides the form lesser have an other comparative lesserer and the superlatives lessest and lessest, for instance in Norfolk. Dialects also form regular degrees of comparison from little; littler, littlest (compare Dialect. of Craven. Lond. 1828. s. v.). Shakspeare has littlest: Where love is great, the littlest doubts are fear (HAMILT 3. 2.). In Old-English the degrees of comparison are also expressed by min — minnist (Old-norse minni = minir, minor). TOWNELEY MYST.

... further, furthest (Anglosaxon comparative furðra, major, along with the adverb furðor, ulterior), allied with the adverb forth, Anglosaxon ford, are forms to which the degrees of comparison belonging to the Anglosaxon adverb feorr, English far = procul, perhaps on account of the nearly allied meaning, are assimilated (Anglosaxon fyrre, feorrest), which in Old-English sound as fer — ferre, ferrere — ferrest and there cor-
respond to the dere (dear) — derre, derrere — derrest. For
furthermost see further below.

Compare: Let us not leave them time for further council (L. By-
ron). "This the furthest hour of Assyria's years (rd.). Farther is
even deemed a collateral form of further. These occur in
their nature also as adverbs, but are likewise adjectives: From the
farthest steep of India (Shakespeare Mids. N. Dr.).

Here belongs also the positive arising from a comparative form,
with the degrees of comparison developed out of it.

near, — nearer, nearest, beside which next still stands
as a superlative, Old-English — nere, narre; narrest, beside
which the adverb mostly sounds ner, nar; whereas the other
forms also stand adverbially (Dialect of Craven II. 3.);
Anglosaxon adject. comp. neára, nyra, superl. nýhsta, nêxta.

These forms belong to the Anglosaxon neáh — near, ñr; nér —
neâhest, next, whence the originally adverbal nigh comes, to
which a comparative nigher (Smart Dict. s. v.) and a superlative
nighest is given (compare nighest-about = nearest way in northern
dialects). The Old-English nigh — nere, nere — next corresponds
in form to the Old-English high, hie, hey — herre — hexte, An-
glosaxon beâh — heâhra, heârra — hêchsta, as nigh — niger —
nighest to the Modern-English high — higher — highest, for which
Old-English presents also heire — heist.

Finally the superlatives in most, Old-English m-est, m-yst,
are to be reckoned here, which originally correspond to the
Anglosaxon ones in (e)m-est, which point to a positive (e)ma,
which itself had a superlative character. In this superlative
even in Anglosaxon the termination màst, móst is certainly
found along with mest. Anglosaxon màdema, màdemra, mà-
demost, màdemàst = mediocris; Gothic innuma — Anglosaxon
innemest; Anglosaxon forma — formest, formest, fyrnest; An-
glosaxon hinduma, hindema — Gothic hindumists; Gothic
aftuma — Anglosaxon àftemest, àftemost.

The termination mëst has been in English gradually con-
founded with the adverb most, Anglosaxon màst. It was appen-
ded to comparative adjective forms, often of the same sound
as adverbs and prepositions, and containing a determination
of space (compare innermost), and therefore to the correspond-
ing adverbs positives were further annexed (compare high-
mest), and by reckon of Anglosaxon forms, like südmost (south-
mest), which points to a positive südema, also put to nouns
(compare topmost). In that was seen the particle, otherwise
prefixed to the positive, as the periphrasis of the superlative,
and the corresponding comparative in more was even formed
(compare the English adverb furthermore, Old-English furthermore).
Here belong the following, which occasionally offer
double forms for the same meaning.

foremost, the comparative to which former is still in use,
Old-English also the positive: forme — former (compare
formerwarde = vanguard. Weber) — formest, foremost;
Anglosaxon forma — comparative is wanting — formesta, fyresta, primus.

Old-English: Adam oure forme father (Chaucer Tale of Melib.); still in Skelton: his forme foote (forefoot) (I. 385.). Adam oure foremost fader (MÆNDEV. p. 303.); and still in Skelton: That wonte was to be formyst (I. 230.). The allied in sense first, primus, belongs to the Anglosaxon fyrra — fyrest, fyrst, Old-norse fyri — fystr, prior, primus, which corresponds in sound with the Anglosaxon fyrr — feorrest, fyrest, from feor, English far, yet related to the Anglosaxon forma, belongs to for, Old-norse fyri. — First and foremost are often put together even in Old-English (Press Plooughm. p. 403.).

hindmost and hindermost (Anglosaxon hindema, hinduma, ultimus; compare hind-veard, posterus; Gothic hindumists; hinder is in the Anglosaxon an adverb and preposition, in English an adjective).

Old-English also formed the superlative hinderest, like innerest, overest, upperest, utterest.

inmost and innermost (Gothic innuma — Anglosaxon innemesta; with it is found the Anglosaxon comparative innera and superlative innosta). In English inner is in use as an adjective.

outmost and outermost (Anglosaxon ûtemest, to which the adjective comparative ûtera, ûtra belongs in meaning. The adverb ût forms utôr — ûtemôst, ûtemest). The adjective outer still belongs to the English.

utmost and uttermost (Anglosaxon ÿtemesta, with which the positive ÿte and the comparative ÿtra agree); the adjective utter continues.

utmost is distinguished in usage from outmost in part by the former’s being more appropriated to the determination of degree, the latter to the determination of space as such.

upmost, uppermost and overmost (Anglosaxon is up, uppe only an adverb, sursum; it borrowed its forms of comparison from ufa, supra; ufor, yfemest. As an adjective the superlative ufemesta, yfemesta along with the comparative ufora, ufera was usual). In English the comparative upper is in use as an adjective, over essentially as an adverb and preposition; compare the Old-English overest alongside of upperest, see above. Upmost is rare.

endmost (Anglosaxon is endemest [endemes?], to which endemestness = extremitas as a substantive belongs, an adverb; it is hardly a compound from ende-mest).

In Old-English a comparative form ender, endir, is found: this ender dai = lately. See Halliwell s. v., to which endermest. dialectically = undermost, is still in use.

midmost and middlemost, Anglosaxon medemôsta, see above, lies at the root of the former form; compare also the adjective mid, mëd; the second leaps upon the adjective middel — middlesta.


aftermost (Anglosaxon ātemesta, ātemôsta, to which ātera as a positive, āterrâ as a comparative occur).

undermost (Anglosaxon under is a preposition; in English under preserves essentially the nature of a preposition and an adverb).

nethermost, in Scottish dialects nethmist, nedmist (Anglosaxon niðemesta, along with the comparative niðera, neoðera, whence the English adjective nether).

lowermost, as the superlative of low — lower along with lowest, without any Anglosaxon precedent, from the Old-norse læg, locus depressus, compare lægreistr; humilis, English dialectical loff, loffer.

hithermost (Anglosaxon hider, huc, adverb; a comparative hiderer is cited). In English hither is also employed adjectively. A form thithermost over against it (Anglosaxon hider, illuc) seems not to have been formed by the older language.

furthermost, is a collateral form of furthest (see above) beside which the adverb furthermore still stands as a comparative.

The adverbial comparative, resting upon a misunderstanding of most, is already old: Yit i-peynted was a litel forthermore, How Atthalance huntyd the wilde bore (CHAUCER 2071). Chaucer has Backirmore: Belle Dame sans Mercy 85. Dialectically we have betterer, betternest, uppermer, nighermer, lowermer, innomer and many more.

hightmost, Shakspeare has from high instead of highest; dialectic in Yorkshire.

southmost (Anglosaxon süðmest, like vestmest); westmost is also found in Rob. of Gloucester I. 220. On the other hand in English westermost, northernmost, also southernmost are formed out of the corresponding adjectives (Anglosaxon adj. vestern, norðern, süðern).

topmost (Anglosaxon top); weathermost = furthest to windward; sternmost = farthest astern, and more dialectically, are formed out of substantives.

b) The periphrastic formation of the degrees of comparison is that in which more and most with the positive serve to represent the comparative and the superlative: frugal, more frugal, most frugal. A sharp boundary is not to be drawn between the use of derivative forms and the periphrastic formation, although monosyllabic adjectives commonly prefer derivative terminations. Even with monosyllabic adjectives however the periphrastic comparison is frequent: Ingratitude, more strong than traitors arms (SHAKESPEARE Jul. C.). The silver swans her hapless fate bemoan In notes more sad than when they sing their own (POPE). There shall he welcome thee .. With smiles more sweet Than when at first he took thee by the hand (BRYANT). By accident most strange (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). Most poor matters (ib.). O, most dear mistress! (ib.). To their most great and growing region (L. BYRON). ‘Tis but to feel that one most dear Grows needful
to the heart (TOWNSEND). The Majesty of the Most High Shall overshadow thee (LONGFELLOW). With participles the periphrasis is naturally preferred: His heart... more bent to raise the wretched than to rise (GOLDSMITH). Most damned Angelo! (SHAKESPEARE Meas. for Meas.).

If one object is not compared with the other with regard to equality, but rather one quality with the other, more in general appears: Our authors make a doubt Whether he were more wise or stout (BUTLER); yet even here the other mode of comparison, especially before than, takes place: Your company is fairer than honest (SHAKESPEARE Meas. for Meas.).

The periphrastic comparison is very old in English and runs parallel with the other without visible distinction: Of fayrost fouroine & maners, & meste gentyl & fre (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 420.). Man is hym moost lik and: And made man likkest (PIERS PLOUGHIM p. 161.). O Griffoun hathe the body more gret and is more strong thanne 8 lyouns...; and more gret and strongere, than an 100 egles (MAUNDEV. p. 269.). Compare also: Upon a lowly asse more white then snow; Yet she much whiter (SPENSER p. 10. I.).

As with forms of comparison by derivative terminations a double comparison occurs, a reduplication of the comparison by the combination of more and most with a derived comparative and superlative form takes place. Modern grammarians reject it. It is very old and is frequently inoffensive in the written language down to the seventeenth century: That land is meche more hotte...than it is here (MAUNDEV. p. 29.). Another sege more lowere p. 217.). The most faires damyselles (p. 280.). Moost cleenest flessh of briddes (PIERS PLOUGHIM p. 276.). I was more wrother (SKELETON I. 146.). The yonge man is more folyssher (p. 200.). He is more vahappyer (p. 20.); very common in Shakspeare: To some more fitter place (Meas. for Meas.). Instruments of some more mightier member (III.). I am more better than Prospero (Temp.). His more brazier daughter (III.). More fairer than fair (Love's L. L.). The most unkindest cut of all (Jul. C.). The calmest and most stillest night (Henr. iv.). The longest night...and the most heaviest (Two Gentl. of Ver.) &c. The most straightest sect of our religion (ACTS of the Ap. 26, 5.). The aim of the reduplication was, as ever, strengthening. Ben Jonson deemed such gernations to be English Atticisms. The warning of Modern-English grammarians against expressions of this sort proves that they are still frequently in use in writing, although not in literature, as they still abound in dialects.

To the comparison effected by more, most we may oppose the reduction to a lower and lowest degree by less, least: Of feelings fierier far but less severe (L. BYRON). Some less majestic, less beloved head (IV.). The tree of deepest root is found Least willing still to quit the ground (MRS. THRALE). On loftiest and least shelter'd rocks (L. BYRON).

A strengthening of the comparative is brought about by adverbs and adverbial determinations, as much, greatly, incomparably,
yet, still, far, by far, a great deal &c.: Your hair has grown much grayer (LONGFELLOW). England is greatly larger than Scotland (W. SCOTT). A living death And buried; but O, yet more miserable (MILTON). With arm still lustier (L. BYRON). Of feelings fierier far (ID.). There are maidens in Scotland more lovely by far (W. SCOTT) &c. Even the superlative is strengthened adverbially: A self-mastery of the very highest kind (LEWES). Epaminondas was by far the most accomplished of the Thebans (MURRAY) &c.

The formerly widely diffused strengthening of the superlative by composition with alder, aller, which is still met with in Shakspeare in alderliest (see above p. 176), has been abandoned. The same sense is effected, by annexing the positive with a plural substantive, or even used as a substantive with of, to the superlative, whereby, as by alder, the whole sphere of homogeneous objects is denoted. In poets this is not rare: Loveliest of lovely things are they. On earth, that soonest pass away (BRYANT). The bravest of the brave (L. BYRON). Well doth the Spanish hind the difference know ‘Twixt him and Lusian slave the lowest of the low (ID.). Old-English: Fairest of faire, o lady myn Venus (CHAUCER 2223.). An other strengthening is the combination of the superlative with the positive: My dearest-dear Victorian (LONGFELLOW).

Many adjectives are, from their meaning, incapable of degrees of comparison. Here belong all those, whose intensity is not capable of a more or a less, especially those expressing definite relations of time, space and number, as yearly, square, second, or referring to material, possession or descent as wooden, paternal, French, as well as those, which by themselves express the highest measure of the notion or negative determinations, as infinite, eternal, immense, consummate, omnipotent, boundless &c. Yet here an abstract rule does not suffice. The superlative, especially, of many words of this sort, in spite of the censure of grammarians, is used to strengthen the meaning conveyed by the positive, and even comparatives are not wanting which seem to mock the literal conception. Compare: A purpler beverage (L. BYRON). Once bloody mortals — and now bloodier idols (ID.). . . . Lest the dead under the sod, In the land of strangers, should be lonely! Ah me! I think I am lonelier here! (LONGFELLOW). — My chiepest entertainment (SHERIDAN). The grave shall bear the chiepest prize away (L. BYRON), The perfectest herald of joy (SHAKESPEARE Much Ado &c.). Hail! divinest Melancholy! (MILTON). You divinest powers (OTWAY). I am the falsest, veriest slave (ID.). I’m the veriest fool (LONGFELLOW). When deeds are wrought Which well might shame extremest hell (WHITTIER). — I live and die unheard with a most voiceless thought (L. BYRON). No discord in the three But the most perfect harmony (LONGFELLOW); and in a descending scale of comparison: The Roman friend of Rome’s least mortal mind (ID.). Nothing is more frequent than the employment of chiepest, extremest, which the narrowmindedness of grammarians rejects,
who rather have to comprehend the mode of viewing things, repre-
represented by the living language, than to fix limits to it.

The Modern-English adjective cheap, at the comparison of which
no one is now offended, is properly a substantive (Anglosaxon ceāp,
pecus, pretium, negotium) and was originally compounded with greāt,
good, like bon marché; wherefore no comparison appeared in the
preceding adjective. Old-English: Thei ben there gretters cheep (Ma-
dev. p. 49.). Clothes, ben gretter chep there (p. 233.). He made
of hem bettre cheep (p. 83.). Compare also good cheap in Halliwell
s. v. Chief is indeed originally a substantive too, standing, however,
in a direct relation with another substantive.

3) The Numeral.

Next in order to the adjective comes the numeral, so far as it
gains, as a determination of magnitude, characterizing objects under
the point of view of their unity or multiplicity, the nature of a
qualifying word, and stands like the latter in formal relation to the
substantive.

English has adjective cardinal numerals, ordinal numerals
and numerals of multiplication. They are, almost without excep-
tion, of Anglosaxon origin.

a) The cardinal number serves to express Unity and the number
of units. In their older of succession they present themselves in
the following manner:

1. one, Anglosaxon ān, Old-English one, oone, on, o, ane, a
   &c. 2. two, Anglosaxon tvegen, tvâ, Old-English twey, twey,
tweie, tweine, two. 3. three, Anglosaxon prî, prôó, Old-English
pre. 4. four, Anglosaxon feôver, Old-English four. 5. five, An-
glosaxon fif, Old-English five. 6. six, Anglosaxon six, Old-English
sixe, syxe. 7. seven, Anglosaxon seofon, Old-English seven. 8.
eight, Anglosaxon eah, Old-English eijte, aȝt, aughte. 9. nine,
Anglosaxon nigon, Old-English nyne, nine. 10. ten, Anglosaxon
ten, tîn, tîn = têhon, Old-English tene. 11. eleven, Anglosaxon end-
lif, dative endlium, endleofon, endlefen, Old-English endleue,
elene, endleuwene. 12. twelve, Anglosaxon twelf, Old-English tuelue,
twulf, twelf. 13. thirteen, Anglosaxon prêotyne, Old-English prot-
tene, thretene. 14. fourteen, Anglosaxon feôvertyne, Old-English
fowrtene, also fourte (Weber). 15. fifteen, Anglosaxon fiftyne,
Old-English fiftenne. 16. sixteen, Anglosaxon sixtynye, Old-English
sixtene. 17. seventeen, Anglosaxon seofontyne, Old English seven-
tene. 18. eighteen, Anglosaxon eahatytne, Old-English eigtetene,
ayttene. 19. nineteen, Anglosaxon nigontyne, Old-English nyent-
tene. 20. twenty. Anglosaxon twèntig, Old-English twenty, tuenti.
21. &c. twenty-one, -two, -three &c. 30. thirty, Anglosaxon prittig,
prittig, Old-English pritty. 40. forty, Anglosaxon feôvertig, Old-
English fowertie, fôurty. 50. fifty, Anglosaxon fiftig, Old-English
fifty. 60. sixty, Anglosaxon sixtig, Old-English sixty. 70. seventy,
Anglosaxon seofontig, Old-English seventy. 80. eighty, Anglosaxon
eahatig, Old-English eijtety. 90. ninety, Anglosaxon nigontig,
Old-English ninty. 100. (a, one) hundred, Anglosaxon hundred,
hundrid = centuria, is a substantive. The cardinal number was teónitim and hund, Old-English hundred, hondrith. 1000. (a, one) thousand, Anglosaxon þusend, Old-Engl. thousand, thousand.

The higher numbers million, Old-English the same, billion, trilion &c. are borrowed from the French.

Compound numbers stand either in the additive relation, as twenty-two, or in the multiplicative relation, as ten thousand.

In the additive relation the smaller number commonly stands after the greater, whereas in the multiplicative the multiplier stands before the multiplicand: twelve thousand twelve hundred and twelve. The tens standing after thousands or hundreds with their units or even units alone are connected by and: three hundred and sixty-five; eight thousand and forty &c. The tens with the following units are commonly connected by a hyphen: sixty-five, yet this is also omitted.

In the additive relation the units may also come before the tens, in which case and is put betwixt both; here too hyphens either stand or are absent: They have each of them received one-and-twenty shillings (G. FARQUHAR). But six-and-fifty pounds (J. VANBRUGH). Four and forty men of war . . were assembled in the harbour (MACAULAY). If a greater number precedes the then, this is not permitted. That manner is also commonly limited to the numbers up to fifty inclusive. In Anglosaxon it was usual with all tens, also after a preceding greater number: tvā and hundseofontig (= 72) (LUC. 10, 1. 17.); nigon and hundnigontig (= 99). Ceorles vergild is cc and vi and lx prymsa (= 266 Threepennypiece).

The Anglosaxon numbers teónting, ēnulfontig, twelftig are like hund (centum); which was also superfluous united with the numbers from seofontig — twelftig, have been abandoned; yet the hundreds have not merely been numbered up to 900: twelve thousand twelve hundred and twelve, especially in the numbers of years. In Old-English even twenty hundred, and the like are found. Compare: Of fifteen hondrith . . Went away but fitti and thre; Of twenty hondrith . . But even five and fifti (PERCY Rel. p. 4. 1.).

In the calculation of percentage cent stands for 100: five per cent = five in the hundred.

0 is expressed by cipher, cypher, zero, also by nought.

The numeration by scores (score, Anglosaxon scor, incisura, numerus vicenarius); which was familiar to the Celts, and is still in use in a limited measure in French (compare quatre-vingts, six-vingts &c.), as well as in Danish (compare tresindstye ab-}

white background
miles (H. Walpole). Ninescore and seventeen pounds (Shakespeare Meas. for M.). Sixty of my fourscore years (L. Byron). An old man of threescore (Longfellow). Score was to the old archers the expression for twenty yards; it now signifies in western dialects twenty pounds else, generally the stairs. In Old-English we even find twenty multiplied: In the date of oure Drihten... A thousand and thre hundred Twies twenty and ten (Piers Ploughm. p. 262.).

Two definite or already known objects are comprehended by both; Anglosaxon m. begen, f. and n. bâ (bû in compounds), Old-norse m. baâr, f. bâdar, n. bædi, compare Gothic bajops; Old-English bey, beye along with bothe (Rob. of Gloucester), also bo, bo; compare, from section the 15th: Into the dyche they falleth bo, in two Mss. in Halliwell p. XXVI.; also beie and bethen (ib. s.vv.): Old-English still used the genitive (Anglosaxon bega, begèa, begra): poru her begre red (Rob. of Gloucester I. 262.); which there after adopted the form boheres: Hir boheres myghte (Piers Ploughm. p. 340.). Hir boheres right (p. 371.), along with bother (Halliwell s. v.). The Anglosaxon compound bûtvû, bûtû = both two, often appears in Old-English as bothe two: We han the deth deserved bothe tuo (Chaucer 1718). Sche saugh hem bothe tuo (4298.). With bothe myn yen tuo (10259). So too in Shakspeare: Neither of either; I remit both twain (Love's L. L. 5, 2).

In Anglosaxon the numbers 1 — 4, 10 — 12, as well as the round tens tvèntig &c. in part, and the substantives hundrid, pûsend were capable of inflection.

In English one as an indefinite pronoun is capable of the genitive inflection one's and of the plural formation ones. (See the Pronoun).

Alongside of two we still find of old forms twain (Anglosaxon tvegen nom. and acc.): We tweyne (Skelton I. 42.). Did he not send you twain (Shakespeare Love's L. L. 5, 2.). You seek it of the twain of least respect and interest in Venice (L. Byron). Let there be No farther strife nor enmity Between us twain (Longfellow); and so often in twain alongside of in two, Old-English a two = entzwei: What hinders me from cleaving you in twain? (L. Byron). It is king Herod's only son That ye have cleft in twain (Longf.); on the other hand: Bruce cleft his head in two with his sword (W. Scott). He may not hew his love a two (Chaucer Rom. of the R. p. 251.). Thus too Old-English used a tre, a seuene &c. with divisions (into two &c. parts). Compare Rob. of Gloucester I. 23. 213.

The remaining numerals, considered as proper adjectives, are capable of inflection only when used as substantives. This may happen if they are considered as names of figures, or abstractedly as the expression of quantities. Of figures are used: the two, the six, a two, three eights &c. As terms for definite quantities in an abstract manner, as, unit, five, ten &c., when the image of the figure may sometimes lie at the root, compare: I always took three threes for nine Shakespeare Love's L. L. 5, 2.)
The first place is for the units, the second for the tens, the third for hundreds (Crossley). The number, used substantively, may also be referred to objects or persons, as in to go on all fours; fives: a play with a ball, in which three fives, or fifteen, are counted to a game (Webster). A thirty dozen moons with borrowed sheen About the world have times twelve thirties been (Shakspere Hamlet); also distributively: The ascent had been long and toilsome; for even the foot had to climb by twos and threes (Macaulay).

The numerals used as substantive hundred, thousand, million, billion &c. have in the singular one or the a (=one) weakened down to an article, before them; the former, if the singular is to be made prominent and emphatic, perhaps also in an implied or express antithesis, which moreover happens in the numbers of years at present, even without this reason (not so in Old-English, see above p. 276); the latter, if this is not the case. Millions &c. however, seldom come under the former case. Compare: The statutes continued to be published in the same language, for above one hundred and twenty years (Tywhit ed. Chaucer p. XXII.). The number was not less than one hundred thousand men (W. Scott). They sent, therefore, one thousand men-at-arms (id.); on the other hand: About a hundred years after (Macaulay). I have a thousand things to do (Th. Holcroft). At about a hundred and sixty yards distance (Fielding). The singulars: hundred, thousand &c., stand without a preceding determination of this sort, if the definite article or possessive and demonstrative pronouns precede: Where is the thousand marks, I gave thee, villain? (Shakspere Com. of Err.). You saw me . . . Apparent sovereign of our hundred islands (L. Byron). Only one of all his hundred descendants (Longfellow). These hundred years (Goldsmith). Yet the article is also sometimes wanting: When thousand worlds are round (Pope).

If more than a hundred or a thousand is involved, hundred and thousand do not assume the plural termination, but have from the oldest times passed as indeclinable, where standing adjectively, with or without a succeeding number in a direct relation to determine objects, which is the case wherever the cardinal stands in the place of the ordinal number, as in the numbers of years: Three hundred years. An extent of three thousand miles. An army of sixty thousand men (Macaulay). By many thousand men (W. Scott). Yet in this life Lie hid more thousand deaths (Sharsp. Meas. for Meas.). So even in Old-English: pre hundred men (Rob. of Gloucester II. 476.). With fifteen hondrith archares bold (Percy Rel. p. 2. I.). In eizte thousand zer (Wright Popul. Treat. p. 134). Ten hundrid thousand stories tellen I can (Chaucer 10114.). They may, however, when used substantively, assume the s of the plural, in which case they are either followed by no substantive, or by one standing to it in the relation of the peripheral genitive with of: What is the amount of a thousand thousands? = Tausender (Crossley). These poor ignorant wretches, some hundreds in number (Macaulay). The poor, blind slave . .
Expired and thousands perished in the fall (LONGFELLOW). The hall not far from hence, which bears on high Hundreds of doges (L. BYRON). All the offenders, hundreds of thousands in number (MACAULAY). He had then deceived himself into the belief that the English . . were eager to rise in arms by tens of thousands to welcome him (id.). Thus even in Old-English Hundrethez fulle many (MORTE ARTHURE in HALLIWELL s. v. herbergage). Gret multitude of peple, well ordeyned . . be thousands, be hundreds and be tenthes (MAUNDEV. p. 232.). — Million, billion &c. are always substantives, which therefore had always to be followed by another substantive in the genitive relation, as in: Millions of spiritual creatures (MILTON). If, however, the millions &c. are followed by still smaller numbers, the former never operate upon a following substantive. Compare: Europe contains 2,793,000 square miles, and 227,000,000 of inhabitants (CROSSLEY). If the million &c. is followed by a fraction of it, it again comes in of: A million and a half of bricks (id.).

In the discussion of the substantive, we made mention of compound substantives, which, like twelvemonth, twelvepence, as terms for a multitude, have a plural character. This substantive formation stands in close connection with another phenomenon, which is now to be discussed. The apprehension of any arbitrary number of objects as a totality and unity is very familiar to Old-English, with which especially an, a precedes, as the expression of the unity: A 2 myle from Betheleem (MAUNDEV. p. 74.). A fyve dayes or sixe (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 314.). The desertes duren wel a 13 journeyes (MAUNDEV. p. 63.). A twenty bokes, clothed in black or red (CHAUCER 296., rightly, according to Tyrwhitt, without A according to Wright). A sixty fedme (MAUNDEV. p. 71.). Sum tyme an 200, and sum tyme mo (p. 191.). So pat per com out of an wode — An six pousend of Brutons (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 211.). This form of expression, upon which also a few alongside of few rests (see the pronoun) has been partly preserved in Modern-English: A tedious twelve years FLETCHER’S Poems p. 140.). This three months (DAVENPORT in Dodsley O. P. XI. 299.). Thay ware not so hack this seven yeere (Mariage of Wit and Wisdome 1579.). A’ has been a vile thief this seven year SHAKESPEARE Much Ado &c.) where she may take year to be the old plural. We have . . most biting laws . . Which for this fourteen years we have let sleep (Meas. for Meas.). Here also belong: Go with me To bless this twain, that they may prosperous be (Temp. 4, 1.). Though my letter may lie upon my hands this two months (LADY MONTAGUE). In these cases we must not think of the old plural form this instead of these (see below). Thus Byron uses the plural all as singular: All are gone forth, and of that all how few perhaps return.

Fractions are ordinarily expressed by a cardinal number as numerator and an ordinal number as denominator; and if the numerator is more than one, the denominator adopts the termination of the plural, 2 receives half as its denominator. We frequently find numerator and denominator united by a hyphen:
What is one half of 30? What is one sixth of 30? If 24 be four fifths, what is one fifth? \( \frac{3}{10} \) or four hundred and twenty-five thousandths (Crosley). When we speak of one fraction without an antithesis, there stands instead of one also the unaccented a or the article the: What is a fifth of the sixth of 30? What is the half of a fifteenth of 30? (id.). Half also stands without an article: Multiply a half-penny by a half-penny, that is half by half (id.). Thus in common life we say half past six in counting the hours For \( \frac{1}{4} \) a quarter also comes in, especially with the determination of time and space: a quarter of a hundred, of an hour, of a year, of a mile, of a pound. The denominator expressed by the ordinal number is, properly, always an adjective used as a substantive: the fifth — the fifth part. Half also appears as a genuine adjective (Anglosaxon healf, half s. and adj.): half a dozen &c. The Anglosaxon forms oðer, healf, priddehealf, sixtehealf &c., in which the adjective halves the highest figure of the total number, as in anderthalb &c., are usual in Old-English: Thrifty winter and thriddehalf yer (Harrowing of Hell p. 15.). Yet a half was even then added to the total number: A fote and a half long (Maundev. p. 10.), as now: A brick and a half; one and a half.

b) The ordinal numeral expresses adjectively the order or succession of the objects in space, in time, or, metaphorically, in an ethical sphere, as determined by number.

With the exception of the first two numbers, Anglosaxon formed the ordinal numbers from the cardinal numbers by annexing the terminations da, ta, but mostly oða, whereby a syncope of the final n took place. Old-English still has in part the syncopized forms, and also sometimes preserves t alongside of th; Modern-English equally suffixes th to the cardinal numbers, with the exception of the three first. In the compound ordinal numbers th is only added to the last constituent, whereas the preceding cardinal numbers remain unchanged.

1. first, primus, Anglosaxon fyrsta, also æresta, beside these forma and formesta, see above p. 270, Old-English firste, furste. 2 second, secundus, Anglosaxon oðer = other, Old-French secont (d, s, z), Old-English oper and secunde. 3. third, tertius, Anglosaxon bridda, Old-English pridde, thrydde. 4. fourth, quartus, Anglosaxon feóda, Old-English ferpe, verthe, fowrthe. 5. fifth, Anglosaxon fifta, Old-English vitfe, fyþpe. 6. sixth, sextus, Anglosaxon sixta, Old-English sixte, sîpþ, sexte. 7. seventh, septimus, Anglosaxon seofôða, Old-English seuðete and even sene (Rob. of Gloucester I. 9.), yet also seventhe. 8. eighth, octavus, Anglosaxon eahtôða, Old-English eigðete, eighte, also aughtene, aughtende, eightetene (Chaucer 4425, Wright). 9. ninth, nonus, Anglosaxon niðôða, Old-English nithê, nynythe. 10. tenth, decimus, Anglosaxon teóða, tôða, Old-English tethê, tenthe. Tithe still occurs as tenth part. 11. eleventh, undeceimus, Anglosaxon endylîfa, Old-English endleffe, endel þe, eleventhe. 12. twelfth, duodecimus, Anglosaxon tvelfta, Old-English tvelfthe. 13. thirteenth, decimus
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tertius, Anglosaxon préottereōda, Old-English thretethe, thretenethe. 14. fourteenth, decimus quartus, Anglosaxon feóverteōda, Old-
English fowrtethe. 15. fifteenth, decimus quintus, Anglosaxon fíteōda, Old-English fyftethe. 16. sixteenth, decimus sextus, Anglosaxon
sixteōda (Old-English sixtetethe). 17. seventeenth, decimus septi-
mus, Anglosaxon seofonteōda (Old-English seventethe). 18. eigh-
teenth, decimus octavus, Anglosaxon eahtateōda (Old-English eigh-
tetethe). 19. nineteenth, decimus nonus, Anglosaxon nigonteōda
(Old-English nintethe). 20. twentieth, vigesimus, Anglosaxon tтрен-
tugōda, Old-English twentipe. 21. 22 sq. twenty-first, twenty-
second, twenty-third &c.

The tens from 30—90: thirtieth, fortieth, fiftieth, sixtieth, seventyeth, eightieth, ninetieth, Anglosaxon prittigōda (prittigōda),
feóvertigōda &c., Old-English prittipe, fourtith &c. need no more particular discussion; but the hund prefixed to the ordinal
numbers from 70 upwards in Anglosaxon, has never, it seems,
been usual in English*).

Anglosaxon for 100 the ordinal number teóntigōda, tentieth,
hund, hundred, pœsend offer no numeral forms of this sort.

English offers for 100. hundredth, 1000. thousandth, 1,000,000.
millionth &c.; hence 300. three hundredth, but with another number
after it, 120. hundred and twentieth, 20,010. twenty thousand and
tenth.

In ordinal numbers, as well as in cardinal numbers, the unit
sometimes comes before the ten: We came the five-and-twentieth
to Mohatch (LADY MONTAGUE). Mr. Joseph Andrews was now in
the one-and-twentieth year of his age (FIELDING). Were I still in
my five-and-twentieth spring (L. BYRON). Old-English: In po four
& twentipe zer (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 23.) and so too in An-
glosaxon. In the reverse position, however, the ten and the unit
were inflected. See Rask Gramm. ed. Thorpe p. 65. That way
seems to be limited to the scores.

The transfer of the termination th to the scores, as in that cited
by lexicographers fourscorth, octogesimus.

The ordinal number may, in the appositive relation, assume the
s of the genitive: Henry the second’s progress (GOLDSMITH).
Alongside of the Romance second, which took the place of other,
which continues to exist as alter, alias, prime is also in use,
mosly only in an ethical sense: My prime request, which I do
last pronounce (SHAKESPEARE Temp.).

Instead of the ordinal numbers we find in Modern- as well as
in Old-English, the cardinal numbers as numbers of years: In the
year one thousand and sixty-six (W. SCOTT). In Old-English
we also find the forms confounded: the thretene artycul, the fowrtene artycul, the fyftene artycul — articulus XIIiς XIIiς
articulus quindicemius (HALLIWELL Early Hist. of Freemas. p. 21.).
In Chaucer 1424. one manuscript has: It was the eighte and twenty
day Of April. — The ten parte = tenth (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 7.).

*) I have not found the numerals in parentheses, but formed them by
anology.

Mätzner, engl. Gr. I.
c) The multiplicative numeral, called in another respect the numeral of relation, which states how many whole parts an object contains and how often the same magnitude is repeated in a whole (see Mätzner's French Grammar, p. 162.), are formed in English by annexing the syllable fold, as in Anglosaxon by -feald, -plex, Highdutch falt, faltig (belonging to the Anglosaxon fealdan, plicare) to the cardinal number: twofold, threefold, tenfold, a hundredfold, a thousandfold &c., Anglosaxon tvefeald, priffeald, tynefeald, with which manifold, Anglosaxon manegfeald, multiplex is associated. The Anglosaxon ânfeald (onefold) simple, has been abandoned, as well as felafeald, multiplex (compare the Old-English: by felefold fatter. (Piers Plooughm, p. 243.). Instead of the former single and simple come in, Lat. singulius and simplex, simpplus, blended in the French simple. Other Romance forms are in use in a small number alongside of the Germanic ones, as double, triple and treble (Modern-French triplet, Old-French treble), quadruple, quintuple, sextuple, septuple, octuple, decuple, centuple. Those going beyond sextuple are very rarely employed.

Numerals of division (distributiva) were not possessed by the Anglosaxon; Old-French employed the Latin singuli, bini, terni &c. in another sense, and made up for them in meaning by juxtapositions, as doi et doi, similarly to the Anglosaxon; fif and fif. Old-English: Thei gn 2 and 2 toogdre (Maundev, p. 234.). A compaigne of ladies twey and twey (Chaucer); and so still: two and two, yet also: by twos and threes; by tens of thousands (MaCaulay).

The Pronoun.

The pronoun, which represents a noun in the sentence, or, more correctly, has the nature of a noun, and has thence its name, is, by its value and idea, distinguished from a mere sign for a substantive or adjective, although it partly serves to avoid the repetition of the same noun.

In their form and descent the English pronouns rest upon the Anglosaxon; the Old-French, which introduced a few indefinite pronouns, was here of little influence.

In their meaning the pronouns are divided into several classes:
A. the personal, with the possessive derived from them, B. the demonstrative, C. the interrogatory, D. the relative, E. the indefinite pronoun.

A. The Personal Pronoun:

It has forms for the so-called three persons: the person speaking, the person spoken to and the person spoken of, not sharing in the conversation, and, generally, the subject spoken of. The second person, and even the first, can be used of the personified thing. The personal pronoun becomes reflective, or referring backwards, if it appears as the object in a sentence, in which the notion of activity is imagined as reacting upon the subject, the active person or thing, itself. For the pronoun used reflectively English has in part streng-
thened pronominal forms, which we shall not consider till after the discussion of the possessive pronouns proceeding immediately from the personal ones, since they partly repose upon the latter.

a) The three persons of the personal pronoun, in the narrower sense, or the fundamental forms for the possessive and the reflective pronoun, are undistinguished in gender in the first and the second person, but in the singular of the third person are of three genders, as in Anglosaxon. They form a plural of the first person, in which the speaker comprehends himself with others; the second, in which he comprehends several persons spoken to; and the third, in which he comprehends several objects spoken about. It is throughout without distinction of gender in form. The Anglosaxon dual of the first and second person has been abandoned.

The plural of the third person is in Modern-English no longer formed from the Anglosaxon he, heō, hit, which is still the standard for the singular, but from another demonstrative pronoun se (pe), seó (peó), pāt, whereas Old-English long preserved the genuine plural.

The genitive of the singular and of the plural comes, as such, no longer under review, but has coalesced with the possessive pronoun. Old-English still presents some decided genitive forms. We exhibit the genitive forms with the rest.

### First Person.

| Gen.       | mine, mei, Angl. min, Old-Engl. min, mine |
| Dat. and Acc. | me, mihi, me, Angl. Dat. mē, Acc. mēc, mē, Old-Engl. me, mee |

| Plur. Nom. | we, nos, Angl. vē, Old-Engl. we, wee |
| Gen.       | our, nostri, nostrum, Angl. üser, üre, Old-Engl. oure |
| Dat. and Acc. | us, nobis, nos, Angl. Dat. ūs, Acc. ūsic, ūs, Old-Engl. us |

### Second Person.

| Sing. Nom. | thou, tu, Angl. pu, Old-Engl. thou, thow |
| Gen.       | thine, tui, Angl. þin, Old-Engl. thin, thine |
| Dat. and Acc. | thee, tibi, te, Angl. Dat. þē, Acc. þēc, þē, Old-Engl. the, thee |

| Gen.       | your, vestri, vestrum, Angl. eōver, Old-Engl. youre |
| Dat. and Acc. | you, vos, Angl. Dat. eōv, Acc. eōvic, eōv, Old-Engl. you |

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Third Person.

Singular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>masc.</th>
<th>fem.</th>
<th>neutr.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. he, is, Angl. he, Old-Engl. he, hee</td>
<td>she, ea, Angl. heó, Old-English heo (hoe), scho, she</td>
<td>it, id, Angl. hit, Old-Engl. hit, hyt, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. his, ejus, Angl. his, Old-Engl. his</td>
<td>her, ejus, Anglos. hire (heore), Old-Engl. hire, here</td>
<td>its, ejus, Angl. his, Old-Engl. his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. and Acc. him, ei, eum, Angl. Dat. him (heom), Acc. hine</td>
<td>her, ei, eam, Angl. Dat. hire (heore), Acc. hí, hig.</td>
<td>it, ei, id, Angl. Dat. him (heom), Acc. hit, Old-English him, hit, hyt</td>
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Plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>masc. fem. neutr.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. they, ii, eae, ea, Angl. þā, Old-Engl. heo, hei, hii, hi, Angl. hie, hig, hi (f. heó)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. their, eorum, earum, eorum, Anglo. þára, (þæra) hire, hir, here, Angl. hira, (heora)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. and Acc. them, iis, eos, eas, ea, Angl. hem, Angl. Dat. him Dat. þām, (þæm), Acc. þā (heom), Acc. hie (hig, hi)</td>
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The Old-English also had the forms thai, they, thei — thare, theire — thaym, yet in the oblique case it a long time preferred hire, hem. See the demonstrative pronoun. Upon she see above p. 173. Moreover the Saxon Chronicle 1140 has sœ = ea. For the dative and accusative of pronouns the form of the dative has in general early remained the standard, although both partly coincided even in Anglosaxon.

In Modern-English the case common to the dative and the accusative with the particles of and to is employed as the substitute for the genitive and the dative: of me, to me; of thee, to thee; of him, to him; of her, to her; of it, to it; of us, to us; of you, to you; of them, to them. In the dative relation this happens where its distinction from the accusative appears needful. The denoting of the cases by of and to is also very old with the pronoun: In the spyt of me (PERCY Rel. p. 2. II.). Thanne ne seo we noȝt of hire (WRIGHT Popul. Treat. p. 133.). Som of you (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 8.). Many of hem (MAUNDEV. p. 13.). Yt worp an other Troie to be (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 15.). Then begynnys to grufe to us mery chere (TOWNLEY MYST. p. 32.). Instances of the genuine genitive form are, on the other hand, found; for example, in Piers Ploughman; hir neither (p. 67.); hir eyther (p. 212. 446.); hir noon (= none) (p. 237.); hir oon for- dooth hir oother (p. 373.).

In the first person we find ich late: Ichyll (I will) (SKELTON I. 95.). Ich am (102.). The oblique case mee with shee, thee,
wee, yee is still cited by the grammarian Wallis as a regular form; in the seventeenth century, however, the enclitic forms mostly appear with e: me, she &c. Mommsen Romeo and Juliet p. 30. The plural has been long in use instead of the singular as a plural of majesty: Duke: Our old and faithful friend, we are glad to see you (Shakespeare Meas. for Meas.). Sometimes us has been shortened into 's: I'll bring thee to the present business which now's upon's (Shakespeare Temp.). Let's not quarrel (Otway).

The second person is usual in the singular as the address among quakers, in poetry in regard to persons and personified objects, as well as in prayer as an address to God. It has also not gone out of use as an expression for familiarity and affection, even mixed with the plural: Thou say'st I preach, Lorenzo! (Young N. Th. 2, 62.). O Lord my God, Thou art very great (Ps. 104, 1.). O holy Night! from thee I learn to bear What man has borne before (Longfellow). And thou, too, whose'er thou art, That readest this brief psalm (id.). Sophia, can I then ruin thee! (Fielding T. J.). But it also becomes an expression of depreciation and contempt: Damnation seize thee, fool, blockhead! (id.). Even John Wallis says: Singulari vero numero si quis alium compellet, vel dedignantis illud esse solet, vel familariter blandientis (p. 92.). Now the plural serves in general as an address without regard to station and relationship, like the singular in Old-English. The plural, however, is also early found, as it seems, as an expression of courtesy: And ye, sir clerk, lat be your schamfastnesse (Chaucer 842.). Even in the address to Venus in Chaucer the plural stands mingled with the singular: And if ye wol nat so, my lady sweete, Than pray I the... Gif me my love, thou blisful lady dere (2256.).

The nominative (also vocative) of the plural ye has in Modern-English yielded to you. John Wallis still cites yee as the nominative, but in the polite address lets you alone pass. Alexander Gill gives, as the nominative and vocative ye and you, as the accusative, you. You was in the first case used only emphatically, as especially in Spenser. In common life, as well as in poetry ye still continues alongside of you: And you, the brightest of the stars above, Ye saints... Be witness (Rowe). Were you, ye fair, but cautious whom ye trust (id.). Descend, ye Nine! descend and sing (Pope). Ye may no more contend (Longfellow). In popular speech y has been sometimes cast out: Looke friend! (Fielding). Looke deye see = look ye! do you see? — Ye also sometimes appears with an elided e before vowels: Y'are always false or silly (Otway).

In literature even the interchange of the oblique case you with ye is widely diffused: A south-west blow on ye! (Shakespeare Temp.). Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate ye (id.). Heav'n guard ye all! (Otway). The knaves... laugh at ye (id.). Faith, I'll fit ye (Rowe). This hour I throw ye off (Congreve). I know ye all (HUGHES). Hold your tongues, both of ye, says the mole (Richardson). I fear ye not, I know ye (L. Byron).
But where of ye, oh tempests! is the gaol? (id.). I seek ye vainly (Bryant). Bethink ye, before ye make answer (Longfellow). For other confusions of cases see below.

The third person he, which sometimes appears before a consonant shortened into h: Although he had much wit, H'was very shy of using it (Butler Hudibr.). is often confounded with a (a') by the older dramatists, as well as dialectically by the uneducated: Who e'er a' was, a' show'd a mounting mind (Shakespeare Love's L. L. 4. 1.). Let him take no delight nor no penance; but a' must fast three days a week (ib. 1. 2.); and often: A troublesome old blade... but a' keeps as good wines... as any in the whole country (Goldsmith). This a even serves for all genders he, she, it, as, for instance, in Herefordshire, as well as ou in Gloucestershire; a is also used for they in Shropshire.

A shortening of they into th' is not unknown to the more easy style: And till th' were storm'd and beaten out, Ne'er left the fortified redoubt (Butler).

In Modern-English we frequently find 'em instead of them in poetry as well as in common life: He has lost his fellows, And strays about to find 'em (Shaksp. Temp.). Go you, and give 'em welcome and reception (Otway). Ere long I mean to meet 'em face to face (Rowe). "The sceptre and the golden wreath of royalty Seem hung within my reach." — Then take 'em to you And wear 'em long and worthy (id.). Summon 'em, Assemble 'em: I will come forth and shew Myself among 'em (Th. Southern). This 'em is widely diffused dialectically and answers to the old hem (not them), which still lives in the Western dialects, where it is also confounded with he and him.

In Old-English the dative form it: him, and the accusative form hit, it were usual, yet both were frequently made equal to each other in usage: It receyvethe into him 40 othere ryvers (Maundev. p. 7.). To don it (Dat.) worschipe and reverence (p. 165.). An interchange of he with it is also found: And alle be it so, that it (the tree, Anglosaxon n.) be drye, natheles git he berethe gret vertue (id. p. 69.). Dialectically even now he appears for it in all cases.

The confusion of the oblique case of pronouns and the nominative, specimens of which in the literary language have already been cited, is widely diffused in the popular dialects. Thus I is used instead of me, he instead of him, she instead of her &c. and conversely, for instance, in Yorkshire, Hampshire, Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire &c. This confusion is also to be met with in the written language. The employment of the oblique case for the nominative is analogous to the French manner of employing moi, toi, lui as nominatives, and is old: Lord, y-worshiped be the (Piers Ploughm. p. 181.). This mostly happens where the pronoun does not proclitically precede its verb, and, generally, where a particular emphasis seems to rest upon the pronoun: Nor thee nor them, thriece noble Tamburlaine, Shall want my heart to be with gladness fill'd (Marlowe I, p. 30.). Scotland and thee did each other live (Dryden). We
shall shortly see which is the fittest object of scorn you or me (GOLDSMITH). Better than him, I am before, knows me (SHAKESPEARE As You like it 1, 1.). I would not be thee, nuncle (KING L. 1, 4.). The converse case is more striking in the written language. Passages of this sort, as well as of the former, in SPENCER and Shakespeare, have been expunged by critics; but even the later confusion is not to be wholly denied, in which we of course disregard those cases in which the adjectives are used substantively. One instance is the above mentioned form ye (see p. 284.), and: That I kiss aught but he (SHAKSP. Cymb. 2, 3.). You have seen Cassio and she together (OTH. 4, 2.), where Collier has her; Earth up hath swallowed all my hopes but she (ROM. AND JUL. 1, 2.), where Mommsen regards the words 'all my hopes but she' as blended into one single uninflected substantive, to which I could not assent. She as an accusative is found, even in the fourteenth century, in Adam Davie. See Mommsen's Romeo and Juliet p. 26. Delius's Shakespear Lexicon p. XIX. Compare also the striking passage: And the we, Following the signs, woo'd but the sign of she (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 5, 2.).

b) The possessive pronoun presents itself in two different forms, one standing attributively in immediate connection with, and before the substantive, the other outside of this connection. Both (with the exception of its) are derived from the Anglosaxon genitive. They are, in Modern-English, incapable of inflection; case prepositions, as well as other prepositions, stand before the attributive pronoun and its substantive, as well as before the unconnected pronoun, which can also be used substantively. In the third person, three genders of the singular are distinguished.

Connected possessive pronouns are:

a) those proceeding from the singular:
   my (mine), Anglosaxon min, Old-English min, mine, my, mi.
   thy (thine), Anglosaxon þin, Old-English thin, thine, thy, th.
   m. his, Anglosaxon his (but also possessive sin), Old-Engl. his.
   f. her, Anglosaxon hire, Old-English hir, her, hire, here.
   n. its, Anglosaxon his, Old-English his.

b) those proceeding from the plural:
   our, Anglosaxon ðuser (ûre), our, oure.
   your, Anglosaxon ðover, Old-English your, youre.
   their, Anglosaxon þær (þæra), Old-English hir, her, hire, here,
   heore (Anglosaxon hira) and their, theire &c.

Un connected, corresponding to those:
   mine — thine — his, hers, its — ours — yours — theirs.

In the Anglosaxon his (English his), hire (English her) and hira as well as þæra (English their, Old-English hire &c.) were in use only as genitives. The adjective sin, suus, not ejus, could hardly be found in Old-English. The Anglosaxon also, from the dual of the first two persons formed the possessives uncer and incer (Greek νοιτίνος and σκοίτενος), which have not passed into English.
My, thy are abbreviations from mine, thine, forms of the pronoun mostly appearing proclitically. Old-English fluctuated at first between min, thin and mi, thi, where they stand before the substantive: 

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my
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soul and my lif (Rob. of Gloucester I, 30.). 

pi sostren and pyn sustren (ib. 31.). Yet the usage speedily establishes itself of bringing in the fuller form before vowels and h, and of casting off the n before other consonants: Thin highe pride (Maundev. p. 18.). Do of thin hosen and thi schon (p. 59.). Rys up, my wif, my love, my lady fre (Chaucer 10012.). With thin eyghen columbine (10015.). Thow hast me wounded in myn hert (10019.). Myn owne name (1558.). In Modern-English before vowels and a mute h, mine and thine are still often used, although Shakspeare, for instance, as well as moderns, have still sometimes the full forms before an aspirated h, as well as before a consonant y, like the Old-English: Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice (Shakespeare Haml.). Without the true avouch of mine own eyes (ib.). See Delius's Shaksp. Lex. p. XIX. Thy glorious day is o'er, but not thine years of shame (I. Byron). My chiepest joy Is to contribute to thine every wish (id.). Look, then, into thine heart (Longfellow). And tears came to mine eye (id.). The strength of thine own arm (id.). Grammarians reprove this usage, widely diffused, especially in poetry.

If the possessives derived from the first and second person stand attributively after their substantive, they have the fuller form, as in Old-English. Old-English: Brother myn (Chaucer 9365.). Grisilde myn (8927.). Arcita, cosyn myn (1283.); in moderns: I say that ye be seruantys myne (Skelton I. 231.). You brother mine (Shakespear Temp. 5, 1.)

Hhis was in Old-English the possessive pronoun referred to the third person of the masculine and neuter gender. Its (often also spelt it's, as her's, our's and your's was formerly frequently written) referred to the neuter, occurring at first also without an s as it, ith, and which was still unknown to Spenser, was formed in Shakspeare's age, in whom it rarely occurs. The grammarian Alexander Gil does not cite it; John Wallis, on the other hand, calls it the possessive of it. See Mommsen's Romeo and Juliet p. 22. It rarely occurs as an unconnected pronoun.

The connection of the possessive pronoun of the third person (his) with a substantive, especially a proper name, in the genitive, to which the inflection is then usually wanting, is peculiar: In characters as red as Mars his heart (Shakespeare Troil. and Cr. 5, 2.). An if my brother had my shape, And I had his, Sir Iobert his (King John 1. ed. Collier). Vincentio his son (Taming of the Shr. 1, 1. where Collier has Vincentio's). The duke his gallies (Twelfth N. 3, 3. in Collier The county's g.). For Jesus Christ his sake (English Liturgy). In: Here repose Angelo's, Alferi's bones, and his The starry Galileo (I. Byron) the position is reversed. Strange to say, in the seventeenth century, as some English grammarians do even now, the s of the genitive was derived from this, which has still its analogy in Lowdutch: Vatter.
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sin hûs; mutter er dôk; dên sin gâren (ejus hortus) &c. Although the subjoined pronoun in this case makes the inflection of the substantive superfluous, it is originally nothing else than a pleonastic repetition of the substantive notion by the pronoun, which is especially familiar to Old-English in the personal pronoun: He Tîtys; he Moyses &c. (CHAUCER). And there Sir Gauaine he her wed (PERCY Rel. p. 201. I.). The tanner he tooke his good cow-hide (ib. 111. II.). And slough him Olibernus (CHAUCER 9242.). And made him Mardoche... enhaunced for to be (9247.). That ilke weddyng merey Of his Philologie and he (him Tyrwh.) Mercurie (9608.).

The Old-English used particularly hire, here as the possessive for the third person of the plural: They holden here grete conselies (MAUNDEV. p. 16.); yet the pronoun now in use is also found: Thare provand (TOWNELEY MYST. p. 9.). With alle thare entent (p. 22.).

The joining of the s in the unconnected pronouns hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, which is wanting in mine and thine, manifestly arose from the s of the genitive, and has been transferred from the genuine genitive his not only to it, but also to the others, even Anglosaxon possessives and the genitives her, their. Mine and thine might have been protected from the joining on of the s by the attributive forms my, thy having been early, with few exceptions, separated in usage from those standing alone, mine, thine. The image of a syntactical genitive relation perceptible in an s was, moreover, with the disconnected forms, close, and was perhaps connected the recollection of the primitive genitive forms, which certainly lacked s in Anglosaxon. The s is found early even in Old-English, although not constantly: The dyversitee that is betwene oure feythe and theires (MAUNDEV. p. 20.); on the other hand: Noght aftir oure lawe, but aftir here (p. 80.).

— This gold is nought oyers (4201.). Hom to myn hous, or ellis unto youres (14200.). He was, pardy, an old felaw of youres (14087.). Whether it be likir oure professiou Or heris that swymmen in possessiou (CHAUCER 7508.); on the other hand: I wol be your in all that ever i may (16716.). Whan ye been his all hole, as he is your (ib. Troil. and Cr. II. 587.). So still later: I am all yours (Skelton I. 204.). I am your in every pointe (ib. 49.). The forms, his, her, her, our, your are dialectical.

The substantive use of the unconnected pronouns in the plural, as a term for persons, without reference to a preceding substantive (mei, tui, sui, nostri, vostrj) is in use in Old-, as well as in Modern-English: Old-English: pat where Brut and his (Rob. or GLOUCESTER I. 21.). To be & to alle pyne (p. 15.). In the spryte of thyne and of the (PERCY Rel. p. 3. I.): Modern-English In a few hours The tempest may break out which overwhelms thee And thine and mine (L. BYRON). The deadliest foe of all our race, And hateful unto me and mine (LONGFELLOW).

Anglosaxon declined the possessive pronouns and distinguished in part the genders and numbers by their terminations. Old-English offers, except for my, thy, forms with and without e at the
end, which however belong for the greatest part both to the singular and to the plural and to the different genders. Traces are nevertheless to be found that the forms in e, which seem to belong to the feminine often than to the masculine in the singular, belong especially to the plural. This is decidedly the case in Piers Ploughman with regard to the forms his and hise, the latter of which as a plural formed after another word, belongs adjectively and substantively to the plural. Compare: *Hise wordes, hise eris, hise bulles* (p. 5.). *Hise goddes* (p. 288.). To God . . . And so to *hise seintes* (p. 289.). For hym and for alle *hise* (suos) (p. 261.). Compare also passages like the following: As a mayde . . . *Hire* moder forsaketh, *Hir* fader and alle *hire* frenedes (p. 289.); whereas hir, eorum, earum = French leur, remains unchanged: *Hir* wittes (p. 297.). *Hir* robes (p. 309.). Thus also min, thin commonly stand alongside of my, thy in the singular and plural, yet mine, thine seem used particularly in the plural: *pine* for *be pon* in each half (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 114.). Al pat ssal come by *pyne* day (= Anglosaxon dagum) & by *myne* nght (p. 291.).

's sometimes appears as the abbreviation of *his* and even 'r of our: How fares the king and 's followers? (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). There's not a hair on 's head (Two Gentlem.). By 'r lakin! (Temp. 3, 3.).

c) The reflective pronoun was originally naught else but the personal one in a particular syntactical relation. Although even in Anglosaxon the pronoun strengthened by sylf, sylf, ipse, which is not merely reflective, likewise occurred in a reflective relation, this was far from being deemed necessary.

Thus in Old-English also the unstrengthened forms were commonly employed at the same time reflectively: *Heo* garkeden *hem* (they made themselves ready) (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 15.). *Hii* armed *hem* (II. 40.). *Sche* turned *hire* toward him (MAUNDEV. p. 24.). Some men hasten *hem* and *peynen hem* (p. 58.). And I Wolfe erele schappe me therfore (CHAUCER 811.). And thanne schaltou nought repente the (9360.). And spedith you faste (9801.). A cook *thei* hadde with *hem* (381.). Modern-English has not abandoned this usage in poetry, and has often preserved it even in prose, especially if the reflective pronoun depends upon a preposition: There will she hide her (SHAKSPEARE Much Ado &c.). *Signor Antonio* commends him to you (Merch. of Ven.); and so: *I* do repent *me*; prepare *thee*; haste *thee*; two such opposed foes encamp *them* &c. (id.). To their salute he bends him slightly (L. BYRON). And sportive dolphins bend *them* through the spray (id.). They sate *them* down beside the stream (SOUTHEY). Here will we rest us (LONGFELLOW). He looks about *him* with doubtful face (id.). The captive yields *him* to the dream of freedom (BRYANT). He speeds *him* toward the olive grove (id.). — The young prince promised to take upon him the obligations &c. (W. SCOTT). *My uncle* stopped here for a minute to look about *him* (DICKENS).

The strengthened forms, of the personal pronoun, which are employed reflectively, especially in prose, have arisen from forms
of personal pronouns with self appended. They of course occur unreflectively also, as is always the case in the nominative, partly, appositively, as in: 'Tis he himself! (Rowe). The townhall itself . . was in imminent peril (Macaulay); partly without a preceding pronoun or substantive: Myself will decide it (Webster). I am myself; but call me what you please (Th. Southern). May male-dictions fall and blast Thyself and lineage! (Longfellow). They form plural forms and are capable of the periphrastic case formation by of and to, as well as of the construction with other prepositions.

The strengthened personal pronouns, appearing only in one form at once, and whose origin is not quite cleared up, are the following:

Singular: 1. Person myself. 2. Person thyself.
Plural: (ourself) ourselves. (yourself) yourselves.

Singular: 3. Person m. himself. f. herself. n. itself.
Plural: themselves, Old-Engl. hemself, hemselven.

In Anglosaxon silf, sylf, self, seolf was only an adjective, which used to be associated with the personal pronoun in the same case and number to strengthen it: ic sylf, he selfa, his silfes, me silfum &c., in which strong mingle with weak forms of the self. According to Rask ed. Thorpe p. 54. in the Anglosaxon nominative the dative of the personal pronoun is sometimes found prefixed to the self: pu pe self &c., according to Grimm 4, 360. in the gen. S. f. the possessive pronoun sometimes instead of the personal pronoun: mînre selfe. Grimm in another place explains the forms myself, thyself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves as genitive forms, when also the s in ourselves, yourselves, at present passing as the sign of the plural, answering to the s in ours, yours, would be to be regarded as that of the genitive, and only it remain standing as the nominative, him, them as primitive datives, whereas in her, the genitive and dative are confounded. The confusion of cases might cause the genitive forms at first dependent to be thereafter used independent by, and the oblique cases him, them to find a further support in the Old-French lui meisme &c., as well as it to be preserved in distinction to him. However, since in Anglosaxon, as well as in Old-Highdutch, the interchange of the genitive of the personal pronoun with the possessive pronoun occurs, and in Old-English the distinction of a genitive from the possessive, allied in form, in the pronoun standing before a noun, early disappeared, so that the possessive alone was seen, the invasion of the possessive in those forms might, not wholly without reason, be asserted, to which the opinion that self was regarded as a substantive is nowise requisite. I find, however, in Old-English, hardly even in the latest times, an s in ours, yours analogous to the s in ourselves, yourselves, themselves, as Old-English always offers self, selve and selven; that s, as a real sign of the plural, seems to belong to a modern period. A peculiar analogy to self is afforded by oon in Old-English, in a like sense: Walkyng myn oon (= myself, alone) (Piers Ploughm. p. 154.). That oon doth, alle dooth,
And ech dooth bi his one; for which later stands by himselfe
(p. 341.). I mine on (CHAUCER Dr. 1019.). — For themselves
northern dialects have theirsels, in analogy to ourselves &c. Com-
pare: They had gret desyre to prove their selves (FROISSART'S
CRONYCLE). Self passes in English primarily as an adjective, ipse,
iden: In the selve place (CHAUCER 11706.). In that selve moment
(2586.). Thy selve nyegebour (4555.); and so still with the
moderns (see Hilperts Dictionary s. v.), also in composition with
same: The self-same thing (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 1, 2.). Thou
by the selfsame means I learned, may'st learn it (H. WALPOLE).

In Old-English the compounds of self, selve, selven with
pronouns are commonly so employed that the import of a sub-
stantive is manifestly not attributed to the self: At po last he
was hym self yslawe (ROE. OF GLOUCESTER I. 19.). Righte as
him self seyde (MAUNDEN. p. 97.). Why I suffre or noght suffre
Thisel last nght to doone (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 224.). He moste
himselven hyde (CHAUCER 1479.). I wot my selve best (9334).
Scho bad me dereliche drawe, and drynke to hirselfene (MORTE
ARTHUR in HALFWELL s. v. dereliche).

Yet we cannot disguise that, even early, self is also regarded
as a substantive: Myself hath ben the whippe (CHAUCER 5757).
Who so ... thurgh arghenesse his owne self forgetith (HOCCLEVE
P. p. 56.); and this is the case down to the latest time. Attri-
butive determinations frequently precede the self, when the pro-
noun always stands in the form of the possessive: Euin My verie
ovne selfe it was (JACK JUGLER). To thine own self be true
(SHAKSPEARE Hamlet.). The ministry . . . hurried thence me and thy
uying self (Temp.). Their proper selvces (ib.). The substance of
your perfect self (Two Gentlem. &c.). To our gross selvces (Meas.
for Meas.). What I show, thyself may freely on thyself bestow
(DRYDEN). My very self was yours (OTWAY). The truth . . . Which
here to this my other self I vow (ROWE). He feels of all his
former self posset (L. BYRON). The construction of self with the
genitive is not rare. It is also used as a substantive without any
more particular determination: Orpheus' self may heave his head
(MILTON). 'Tis Phoebus' self (THOMSON). Agis, who saw Even
Spartas' self to servile avarice sunk (id.). Till Glory's self is
twilight (L. BYRON). Self is an eloquent advocate (MACKLIN).
A truth, which . . . purifies from self (L. BYRON). Then, all forgetful
of self, she wandered into the village (LONGFELLOW).

The s in ourselves, yourselves &c. as a sign of the plural,
is by subsequent writers, and even in Modern-English, found to
be absent where a plural comes in question: Let vs not apply
our selve therto (SKELTON I. 205.). Countyng themselfe clerkes
(207.). Learning is but an adjunct to ourself. And where we are,
our learning likewise is (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 4, 3.). In
modern times ourself, yourselves frequently appear instead of
the plural forms, where one (especially an exalted) person speaks
in the plural of himself, or the pronoun is referred to a one
person addressed as you: We create, in absence of ourself, Our
We have saved ourselves that trouble (says the writer) (Fielding).
You, my Prince, yourself a soldier will redress him (L. Byron).
You have made yourself to me a father (Otway). Yet this is
departed from with regard to ourselves.

To the indefinite pronoun, not referring to definite persons, one’s
self is substituted, in which the substantive character attributed
to the self explains the genitive: Out of love to one’s self, one
must speak better of a friend than an enemy (Fielding).

B. The demonstrative pronoun points to the object as a sen-
suous one, present in space and time, then, in a wider sense, to the
object already named and known. So far as it points to an object
just about to be spoken of, it has been called pointing forwards
and determinative.

The demonstrative pronouns of Modern-English are this, that
and yon (yond, yonder), the two former of which have a plural form,
the latter remains unchanged in the plural. They stand both attrib-
utely and absolutely. Yon, which occurs but seldom and mostly
only in poets, hardly ever appears except attributively. None of them
having any case forms, the case prepositions of and to serve to make
up for these.

Singular: this, hic, haec, hoc, Anglosaxon m Nom. pēs, f. pēs, n.
pi. Old-English this.

Plural: these,
Anglosaxon m. f. n. nom. and accus. pēs, yet even in Anglosaxon pis stands
as the nominative of all genders of the singular and plural; Old-English
this, thise, these.

Singular: that, ille, illa, illud, Anglosaxon m. nom. se (pē), f. seō
(peō), n. thāt, Old-English that.

Plural: those, (Angl. pās) Anglosaxon m. f. n. nom. and accus.
pā, Old-English thai, thei, especially tho, but also those.

Singular: 
Plural: } yon, yond, yonder, yon, yond, yonder,
ille, illa, illud Anglosaxon only adverb geond, jānd,
illuc, Gothic adverb jānd, jāndre,
= ḫwī, prounoun āins, āina, āinata,
Old-norse hinn, hin, hitt; Old-Engl.
yonne, yond, yonder.

This and these seem forms subsequently dissimilated, both having
the Anglosaxon pis for their foundation, since in Old-English they
both have the same sound or are only distinguished by an e sub-
joined in the plural. pis is commonly the plural in Robert of
Gloucester, and it is found even in the sixteenth century: Take this
our thankes (Skelton I. 194.). Fye on this dyce (45.). This nonnes
(241.). This freers (in.). Alongside of it this e is early in use:
Alle this floodes (Townel. Myst. p. 24.) in Piers Ploughman, Chau-
cer and so on. These is the later form, formerly theis also was
found: of these 4 (Maunde. p. 136.); theose is likewise cited.
These occurs dialectically for the singular.

That is the neuter in the singular of that pronoun which in
thei, them has assumed the place of the personal pronoun of the third person in the plural. The plural those, which is referred to that, has developed itself from the Anglosaxon plural pás belonging to this, while Old-English had also the genuine plural form tho: po twei children (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 110.). In the dust and in the powder of tho hilles (MAUNDEV. p. 17.). Thou shalt be wedded unto oon of tho. That have for the so moche care and wo (CHAU- CER 2553.); still in Skelton: All tho that were on my partye (I. 202.); on the other hand even those: Of those that welle has wroght (TOW- NEL. MYST. p. 22.).

The pronoun this is, like se, seó, pát even in Anglosaxon, often weakened into an article in Old-English. See the article. In Modern-English this and that (the latter along with its relative signification) maintain their demonstrative character, and in opposition this is applied to the nearer, that to the more remote abject: What conscience dictates to be done, or warns me not to do, This teach me more than hell to shun, That more than heaven pursue (POPE); then they enter into the opposition generally without this reflection: The clangorous hammer in the tongue, This way, that way beaten and swung (LONGFELLOW). Where they stand alone, the employment of them is more confined to the conception of individuals; yet the immediately present is naturally mostly denoted by this, as the reference to the temporal present especially demands this: This day, be bread and peace my lot (POPE); when spaces of time also are considered, which comprehend also the immediate present or extend up to it: They told me . . that, without some traditional shrugs, which had been on the stage these hundred years, I could never pretend to please (GOLDSMITH).

As a pronoun pointing forwards and referred to a relative correlative that, those, alone are used, alongside of which he, she and they with their cases appear in the sense of the Highdutch derjenige. In Old-English tho and the personal hii (plural) belong also to this class. Old-English readily used the plural substantively together with a substantive determination (with of) of persons: Hii of Denemarch flowe sone (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 378.). Fram hem of Denemarche (I. 295.). It was told us of hem of the contree (MAUN- DEV. p. 298.). Whan thei of the contree herden it (p. 293.); in Shak- speare: They in France, of the best rank (HAMLET).

Dialects still frequently substitute them for those.

Yon, yond, yonder, the Highdutch jener, seems to incline in form chiefly to the Anglosaxon and Gothic pronoun; the pronoun was wanting in Anglosaxon as well as in Old-Saxon. All Modern-English forms are found in the more ancient language: My trouth is plight to yonne Skottish knyght (PERCY Rel. p. 8. I.). Zone zong knyghte (HALLIWell s. v.). Yone man (PERCEVAL 1266.). Into yond hole fayn wold I crepe (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 15.). Take yond ploghe (p. 18.). Yond man (198.). Seest thou not Yonder hall, Ellen? (PERCY Rel. p. 210. I.). The Old-Scottish has also yon, yond, they are also cited in English dictionaries in the seventeenth century (Engl. Dict. 1691.). The moderns often write yon", as if d or even der were cast off, whereas yon is certainly the genuine pronominal form, and
most frequently use you and yonder: Tho' by you Heav'n I love thee (Rowe). By you great ruling planet of the night! (Orway). View you' vale of palms (J. Hughes). You flow'ry arbours, yonder alleys green (Milton). Nigh you mountain (PoPe). Yonder angry clouds Are big with spouting fires (H. Walpole). I will alight at yonder spring (Longfellow). Used substantively it stands in the popular: What's you?

Thilke, thilc, Anglosaxon pýlic, pyle (i. e. pî-líc), talis, was used in Old-English in verse and prose for talis, is (qui), hic: Hors and Hengist . . . Come to Kent pilke tyme (Rob. of Gloucester I. 111.). And dryve aeyyn over pe se pilke þat he nolde (124.). At thilke tyme (Chaucer 3542). Al goth thilke weye (3035.). Thilke juge is wys, that soone understondeth a mater (Tale of Melib. p. 328. Wright).

The long abandoned pronoun has been preserved as thil in Glouceshires, in other dialects as thec, thick, thuck = that. — Alongside of it ilke, ĭlk, Anglosaxon ýlc (i. e. ý-líc), idem, which is to be distinguished from ilk = each, was in use, commonly with this, that before it, as in the Anglosaxon se ýlca, þät ýlca: This ilke worthi knight (Chaucer 64.). That ĭlk man which that now hath the (5600.). But tel me this ilke How I may save my soule (Piers Plooughm. p. 20.).

Their place is occupied in Modern-English by such, talis, unchanged in the plural, Anglosaxon svelic, svilc, svyle (Gothic svaleiks), Old-English swylke, swiche, also selke (Dame Siriz p. 5. 9.); slike (Halliwell s. v.), and syke: Herde ye euer syke another? (Skelton I. 260.), which answers to the Highdutch: solcher, derjenige, and the same, idem, likewise standing in the singular and plural, which is wanting in Anglosaxon in which only the adverb: same, item, pariter, saman, simul, and sam- in composition = Latin con occurs, and whence the Old-English sam, same, in same, samen, samyn = together is derived: Alle sam (Townel. Myst. p. 27.). Trus sam, pack together (ib. 28.). The pronoun corresponds to the Old-norse sami, sama, sama, in the strong form samr, söm, samt, Gothic sama, samô, òc rôs., with an article before it, as in English. It is strengthened by the self, very prefixed: the self same, the very same &c.; and, like the Old-English ilke has also the pronoun that before it: That same Biron I'ill torture ere i go (Shakespeare's Love's L. L. 5. 2.). What lady is that same? (2, 1.). Those same precious metals of the history of which he can so learnedly descant (Bulver). The older language has also this same: This same is he that slo his brother (Townel. Myst. p. 18.). The ancient pronominal form samyne is remarkable: That samyne shalle bend Unto us (Townel. Myst. p. 94.).

C. The Interrogative Pronoun.

The interrogative pronoun refers to an object or its quality, which is to be determined in another sentence, the answer. The interrogative pronoun accordingly points to an object, a person or thing, which is to be given by the answer, and is then used substan-tively, or disconnectedly; or, it has reference to the quality of an object, which is to be contained in the answer. The pronoun stands in a direct as well as in an indirect question. The pronouns
considered here are who, what, whether and which. Only who has preserved case forms, what and which make up by of and to for the lost case forms; the obsolete whether no longer forms any cases.

Plural forms are not distinguished from singular forms, so far as these pronouns are used in the plural.

**Singular and Plural: Nom. who, quis?**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>who, quis</td>
<td>whom, quis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>whose (of whom)</td>
<td>whose (of whom)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>(to) whom</td>
<td>whom, quem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>whom</td>
<td>whom</td>
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**Sing. and Plur.: Nom. what, quid? and qualis? qui?**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>of what</td>
<td>what, quid? and qualis? qui?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to what</td>
<td>qualis? qui?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>what</td>
<td>qualis? qui?</td>
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**Sing. and Plur.: Nom. which, quis, quid? properly qualis, quale?**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
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<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>which, quis, quid? properly qualis, quale?</td>
<td>which, quis, quid? properly qualis, quale?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>of which</td>
<td>qualis, quale?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>to which</td>
<td>quale?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>which</td>
<td>quale?</td>
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**Singular: Nom. and Acc. whether, uter, utra, utrum?**

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<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>whether, uter, utra, utrum?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>whether, uter, utra, utrum?</td>
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*Who* asks after persons; its old genitive corresponds only to the possessive genitive relation: *Whose* shall Monimia be? — No matter whose (Otway). *Whose* is the crime, but the false satrap’s? (L. Byron). The Anglosaxon Instrumental, which was common to hva and the neuter hva, hvä, hvā, hū, has transformed itself into the adverbial why? and how? The form of the dative has, as with other pronouns, become that of the oblique cases.

*What*, properly the neuter of who, still stands disconnected as a neuter; it then asks after the What of the thing and the nature of the thing: *What’s* the matter? — *What* is it, my dear? (Dickens). *What* are you doing? (Webster). Yet this disconnected what also asks the quality of persons: *What* are you? as in Old-English and Anglosaxon: *What* is this womman, quod I, So worthli atired? (Piers Plouhmg. p. 20.). But what they were, nothing yit he woot (Chaucer 1705.). Anglosaxon: Hvāt is pes? Quis est hic? (Matt. 4, 41.). And thus this neutral what passes from the predicative into the attributive relation and stands as an adjective with substantives, as qualis, qui? in the plural as well as in the singular: I know what book that is (Webst.). *What cause* withholds you then to mourn for him? (Shakespeare J. C.). On the tendency of the same work, *what three people* will agree? (Bulwer). Whereas hvä in Anglosaxon has only a genitive after it, Old-English even makes that transition: *What man... schuld of his wepyng stinte*? (Chaucer 2, p. 324.
Wright). The union of what with an a added, often in an emotional question, in use as in Highdutch for centuries, rests upon the same process: What a fair lady! and beside her What a handsome, graceful rider! (Longfellow). Even Old-English has which a: Either asked other . . Which a light and a leme Lay before helde (Pierson Ploughman p. 376.). The fur inserted in was fur ein in Highdutch, to be pointed out in Germany since the sixteenth century, is so also in English: What is he for a vicar? what is he for a lad? (Halliwell v. for), even in Palsgrave. For here expresses originally the determination of a purpose, which touches on the idea of equality; united with the what, which asks after the quality of the thing, it makes up the question for the notion of a sort: What is he, for a vicar? What, in his purpose as a vicar, is he? For what as an indefinite pronoun see below: somewhat.

Which even in its Anglosaxon fundamental form, unites with the meaning qualis? the meaning quis?: Heylo is min mòdor? (Marc. 3, 33) = Who is my mother? and the French quel? and lequel? It asks partly after the quality of an object, partly after the object which is to be determined among several with regard to its outward existence, and stands, both connectedly and disconnectedly, both for persons and things: Which woman was it? Which is the house? (Webst.). Which is the villain? . . Which of these is he? (Shakspeare Much Ado &c.). Butler consented to perform the salute without marking for which of the two princes it was intended (Macaulay). The spring, the summer, The childing autumn, angry winter, change Their wonted liveries; and the ’mazed world, By their increase, now knows not which is which (Shakspeare Mids. N Dr. 2, 1.). With the last passage compare the Old-English: Sche wiste nat who was who (Chaufer 4299.); and below: whether.

Whether = which of two, which is equivalent to the conjunction utrum, and. as well as in Anglosaxon, stood in Anglosaxon both connectedly and disconnectedly, and, as being of three genders, referred to persons and things. It is now obsolete; the translation of the Bible, presents it: Whether of them twain did the will of his father (Matt. 21. 31.). Whether is greater, the gift or the altar? (23, 19.). Shew whether of these two thou hast chosen (Acts 1, 24.). The popular language has: I can not tell whether is whether “I cannot distinguish the one from the other.”

D. The Relative Pronoun.

The relative pronoun points to a preceding or supposed substantive notion. It is adapted to avoid the repetition of a preceding substantive, and, at the same time, undertakes the connecting of sentences.

We discriminate adjective and substantive pronouns of this class. Both sorts of pronouns have no peculiar forms, but are originally interrogative pronouns, or a demonstrative pronoun, whose inflection has been already glanced at.

The adjective ones, pointing back to a substantive notion, are the interrogative which and the demonstrative that; to these the originally substantive interrogative who has associated itself. Who and
what are substantive ones, for which, in their reference to a presupposed person or thing, a relative pronoun might be substituted. That, as originally neuter, therefore also of a substantive nature, betrays also here and there this twofold character. Moreover, relative sentences often border hard on indirect interrogative sentences, whereby many peculiar applications of pronouns originally interrogative are to be explained.

In Anglosaxon a relative pronoun was wholly wanting. To express the relation backwards it either used the indeclinable particle pe, alone or in conjunction with the demonstrative se, seó, pât, to which it was suffixed, as it was prefixed to the pronoun he, heó, hit.

Which is by its nature adapted to be referred to names both of persons and of things, and thus it was used in reference to both in Old-English, in which moreover that primarily prevailed as a relative pronoun: She whiche salle bere a chylde (TOWNEL. Myst. p. 67.). A preest ... which was so pleasant (CHAUCER 16482. Tytwh.). It was commonly accompanied by the article the, perhaps occasioned by the Old-French liquels: That lond ... the whiche is the same lond &c. (MAUNDEV. p. 33.). The lond of Judee in the whiche is Jerusalem (p. 8.). Fro the sentence of this tretys lite After the which this litil tale I write (CHAUCER 15371.); so too in modern times: Of God the whych is permanent (SKELTON I. 199.). I could point a way, the which pursuing You shall ... give the realm much worthy cause to thank you (ROWE). This is your brothers impudent doctrine; for the which I have banished him &c. (MACKLIN). ‘Twas a foolish quest The which to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest (L. BYRON). This mode of expression is, on the whole, obsolete.

Even with a particle that after it, which was also frequently given in addition to other relatives and conjunctions in Old-English, which came in: A daughter which that called was Sophie (CHAUCER II. p. 323. Wright). Thy frend, which that thou hast lorn (p. 325.); this even late: Theis yatis ... which that ye beholde (SKELTON I. 384.). The more particular discussion of this particle, which, in the dependent sentence, often appears superfluous, belongs to syntax.

Which is at present referred almost exclusively to things and irrational beings; to persons only so far as they, like children, may also be denoted by the neuter it. In the language of the Bible, as in the Lords prayer (Our father which art in Heaven), in Shakspeare and here and there afterwards the reference to persons takes place. In adjective conjunction with a repeated substantive, we find, however, no scruple: This man, which man, which very man &c. (SMART). Such repetition of a preceding substantive is familiar to Old-English: In Ebron ben alle the sepultures ... the whiche sepultures the Sarazines kepen fulle curiously (MAUNDEV. p. 66.). Upon certain points and cas: Amonges the which points &c. (CHAUCER 2973. Tytwh.). It also takes place in Modern-English where the name of a kind takes the place of a proper name: She took the opportunity of the coach which was going to Bath; for which place she set out &c. (FIELDING); and so forth. As a neuter it is also referred to preceding sentences or limbs of sentences: The man was said to be innocent, which he was not (WEBST.). We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, which
we cannot do without Divine aid (id.). In such case a substantive, comprehending the contents of a preceding sentence or limb of a sentence as the subject of the reference, is also frequently given to the relative: Douglas was then ordained to be put into the abbey of Lindores, to which sentence he submitted calmly (W. Scott).

That from the earliest times has been, as a relative pronoun, referred to persons as well as things. Old-English: He that wil pupplische any thing (Maundev. p. 2.). Seynt Elyne, that was modre to Constantyn (p. 12.). Thise werkmen That werchen and waken (Piers Ploughm. p. 361.). For the life that thay leyd (Townel. Myst. p. 30.). Modern-English: Are ye not he, that frights the maidens of the villagery (Shakspe. Mids. N. Dr.). Wake, wake! all ye that sleep! (Longfellow). The songs and fables that are come from father to son (Addison).

Since that is originally a neuter, is might be also employed substantively for what. Old-English: po he hadde pat he wolde (Rob. of Gloucester I. 166.). I wille not tyne that I have wroght (Townel. Myst. p. 72.). Tak thou thi part, and that men wil the gyven (Chaucer 7113.). Modern-English: Stand, Sir, and throw us that you have about you (Shakspe. Two Gentlem. &c.). Do that is righteous, (Smart). This usage is obsolete.

The particle that is also found redundantly added to this pronoun. Old-English: Fro the lond of Galilee, of that that I have spoke (Maundev. p. 122.). Thus perhaps is also explained the turn of Shakspeare: That that I did, I was set on to do’t by Sir Toby (Tw. Night).

Who, although of substantive nature, is chiefly used in Modern-English as a relative pronoun in relation to substantives or substantive pronouns. It is natural that this masculine and feminine pronoun, originally referred to persons, with its cases, remains, as a relative, restricted to persons and personified objects alone. But that the genitive whose is referred both to persons and things is no less justified, the Anglosaxon hvās belonging to all three genders: Harold, who had succeeded Edward the Confessor (W. Scott). Many gallant knights, who were not his subjects (id.). He who escapes from death (Fielding). — Plenty who was his first counsellor (Addison). — Thy brown groves whose shadow the dismissed bachelor loves (Shakspe. Temp.).

Where the masculine and feminine who, whom are referred to collectives, the reference to persons, which the collective name includes in itself, forms the standard, whereas, in another regard, another relative may also come in: The multitude, who are more attracted by the external... sources of interest (Bulwer).

Who is seldom employed as a relative in Old-English: This clerk, whos rethorique swete Enlumynd al Ytail of philosophie (Chaucer 7908.). More frequent is the who used substantively: Who hath no wyf, he is no cokewold (Chaucer 3154.); where the following he does not quite degrade the who to a correlative; this emphatic, repeating he is certainly rarely wanting. The particle that is also annexed to the who: Who that janglis any more He must blaw my blak hoille bore (Townel. Myst. p. 8.). A remnant of this substan-
tive who is the, as who would say, still is use, French comme qui dirait. Compare Old-English: The name as yet of her Amonges the people, as who sayth, halowed is (CHAUCER Troil. and Cr. III. 268.), and often.

But in Old-English the adverb so is more common with the substantive who: whoso, also whose, quicunque, whereby the generalization of the notion is indicated, corresponding to the Anglosaxon sva hvât svâ, to which a neuter what so, Anglosaxon sva hvât svâ, quodcumque, stood opposed, in which Old-English cast off the preceding sva, as the correlative of the succeeding hvâ, hvât. To this was added sva hvylc svâ (whichso), quicunque: Who so dothe, put them in hold (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 67.). Who so wole my jugement withseeie (CHAUCER 807.). Let him say to me What so him list (6872.) &c. Modern-English has whosoever, whatsoever, whichever; whoever, whathencever, whichever which are employed analogously to the who, what, which. The forms with a simple so are now rarer.

What stands in the first instance as a substantive pronoun: This is what I wanted (MURRAY). Do what you will (WEBST.). All the time that he had appeared so indifferent to what was going on (DICKENS). Yet it also stands adjectively, like the interrogative what, if the substantive of the principal sentence has been attracted into the dependent sentence: The entertainer provides what fare he pleases (FIELDING).

Where it is used alone with reference to a preceding substantive, it regularly corresponds not to the which, but at the same time takes the place of a demonstrative correlative: All fevers, except what are called nervous (MURRAY), for which those which might stand. To this substitution it is adapted by its primitive substantive nature. Solitary interchanges of what with that or which certainly occur. The details belong to syntax. Old-English also often adds the particle that to the what: Every man crieth and clatereth what that him liketh (CHAUCER II. p. 332. Wright).

E. The Indefinite Pronoun.

The class of indefinite pronouns, whose notional limitation it is hard to define, comprises words which are employed partly adjectively, partly substantively, but mostly in both modes. They denote objects and qualities in the most general and indefinite manner, mostly according to quantity, which, however appears neither as a definite unity or multiplicity, nor as a totality measured by a fixed numerical magnitude. So far as they refer to number generally they are also called indeterminate numerals. They are also partly of negative nature, with the meaning of the sublation of a determination of quantity, as; none, neither, nought. By their origin they belong primarily to the Anglosaxon, a few are taken from the Old-French. They are partly simple, partly compound. Some belong originally to other classes of nouns, as one, divers, several &c., and are weakened in their meaning. As for their declination, one, other, either and neither, and even others, may assume the s of the geni-
tive: one and other are also capable of forming the plurals ones, others.

1. *one*, Anglosaxon án, properly the numeral, is used substantively; its use as an indeterminate pronoun is of great extent only in Modern-English. Anglosaxon certainly weakened án down to aliquis, quidam, but more in the sense of the present article, and used án — án substantively in the meaning of unus — alter. Old-English likewise often opposed that oon and that othur to each other. Compare **Chaucer** 1015. Unus quisque, unus ex multis was in Anglosaxon mostly denoted by man (home).

The Plural ones, as in: And voices of the loved ones gone before **(Bryant)** is wanting in Anglosaxon; but a plural is found in the Old-English: Herkneth, felaws, we thre ben al oones (**Chaucer** 14111.); but on the other hand there stands: Bothe in oon armes (**Chaucer** 1014.); where Old-French would have put unes armes.

2. *none*, *no*, Anglosaxon nân, næn = ne án, non unus, Old-English non, none, no, substantively and adjectively even in Anglosaxon as well as in English, is the same in the plural as in the singular: *None* there, said he, are welcome (**Walpole**). At present none stands substantively or adjectively without a substantive after it: *None* but the brave deserves the fair (**Dryden**). None of their productions are extant (**Blair**); also *none other*: Achieving what *none other* can (**Longfellow**). Other hope had she *none* (**Longfellow**). And save his good broad-sword, he weapon had *none* (**W. Scott**). On the other hand *no* stands attributively with a substantive after it: She had *no* bonnet on her head (**Dickens**). Old-English also put *non*, none attributively before words beginning with a vowel or an h, else commonly *no*: Sche dothe *non* harm to *no* man (**Maundev. p. 23.**). They have *non* houses (p. 63.). I am *non* other than thou seest now (p. 25.); yet also *none* so foule synfulle men (p. 62.). *None* erthly thing (**Towenl. Myst. p. 66.**). *None* excusing (p. 78.); so even in Skelton: *None* excesse; *none* other shyfte; but *no* faute (I. 272.).

   *No one* is pleonastic, in which one appears twice, unless we would take *no* for the Anglosaxon nâ, nó, nunquam. Of the compounds *nobody*, *nothing*, the latter is the elder: I herd *no thing*, lord, but gode (**Towenl. Myst. p. 69.**). What is better than a good woman? *No thing* (**Chaucer** II. p. 336. **Wright**). For body the Old-English frequently had wight and persone: Ther is *no wight* that hath sovren bounté, save God alone (**Chaucer** II. p. 333.). Bywreye nought youre conseil to *no persone* (ib. p. 338.). Wight is the Anglosaxon viht f, creature, and is also found in the neuter *nought* (nâviht). *Body*, denoting the person, occurs moreover often in another union, as my body. Compare the Old-French mon cors.

3. *aught*, *ought* and *naught*, *nought*, Anglosaxon â-viht, âht, âht and nâ-viht, nâught, nâht, Old-English aught, auht, oght, ought and naught, noght &c., which we are now advised to spell *aught* and *nought* (to distinguish them from the verbal form *ought*), have been preserved down to the most modern times, and also take a (neuter) adjective after them: But should *ought impious or
impure Take friendships name, reject and shun it (T. H. Bayly).

Naught else have we to give (Longfellow), like something, nothing: Our ancestors hand achieved nothing considerable by land against foreign enemies (Macauley).

4. some, Anglosaxon sum, aliquis, quidam, Old-English sum, som, is used adjectively and substantively, although the latter only in the plural, whereas in the singular the prose is denoted by some one &c.: Some one comes! (Longfellow). In the Anglosaxon on the other hand the singular was also used, especially in the reduplication sum — sum for alius — alius, alius — alter. Moreover it remains unchanged in the singular and plural: some bread; some people; some persons (Webst.). Some other give me thanks (Shakspeare Com. of Err. 4, 3.). Some slight advantages (Macauley). Some of these moves were hazardous (id.). Some thought that Dunkirk, some that Ypres was his object (id.). The Old-English discriminates, as especially Piers Ploughman, the plural some from the singular som. — Some is also united with cardinal numbers, in order to denote the number as inexact, like the Latin aliqui: „Have you long sojourn’d there?“ Some sixteen months (Shaksp. Two Gentlem. &c.). Is he within some ten or twenty leagues Or fifty? (Walpole). Some five hours hence .. we may meet &c. (J. Hughes). So even the Anglosaxon sume ten gear, circiter decem annos. — Familiar combinations of some are some one (see above), somebody, something, and in the latter sense also somewhat. Som thing is also familiar to the Old-English (see 2.); and som what also occurs: Ther nys no creature so good, that him ne wantith som what of the perfection of God (Chaucer II. p. 333.). The Modern-English somewhat still contains the hva, hvat, aliquis, aliiquid, appearing in Anglosaxon as an indeterminate pronoun, which in Old-English, occurs only in the neuter: But wite ye what? (Chaucer 10305.). Ne elles what = nor any thing else (id. House of Fame 3, 651.); Anglosaxon elles hvat. The what = partly, used now as well as in Old-English adverbially is the accusative of this neuter.

5. enough, enow, Anglosaxon genôh, adjec. and adverb, Old-English ynow, ynow, enow &c., dialectically frequently enow, is used adjectively and substantively as well as adverbially. The collateral form enow, contrary to the nature of the thing and the older linguistic usage, has, strange to say, passed among grammarians for the plural of enough, and authors have frequently conformed to this arbitrary distinction. Still stranger is the assumption that enow does not stand after a substantive: Have I not cares enow, and pangs enow (L. Byron). We´ re enough already (id.). Enough of danger (W. Scott). Enough, alas! in humble homes remain, To meditate against friends the secret blow (L. Byron).

6. few, Anglosaxon feâve, Plural of feá, paucus, Old-English fewe. The article often placed before the few is explained like the a standing before cardinal numbers (see p. 278.). His wants were few (L. Byron). There are but few that can do that (Goldsmith). He . . was sent thence to Huy, where he passed a few
days in luxurious repose (MACAULAY). Compare the Old-English: A fewe of youre frendes (CHAUCER II. p. 340.). Dialectically few is often treated as a singular: a few broth, a few pottage &c.; else it is hardly referred to the singular, as perhaps in: While yet our race was few (BRYANT).

The Old-English fele, Anglosaxon féla, indecl., multus, opposed to fewe (By dayes fele [CHAUCER 8793.]. Of fele colours [PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 222.]), is replaced by many: Few, few shall part where many meet (CAMPBELL).

7. any = ulus, Anglosaxon ánig, æníg, from ân, Old-English ony, any, eny, is, as in Anglosaxon, an adjective, but is sometimes used substantively: Who is here so vile . . .? If any, speak (SHAKSP. J. C.). It is a like both in the singular and the plural: Hath Page any brains! hath he any eyes? hath he any thinking? (SHAKSP. M. Wives). Such a collection . . . as you will scarcely find in any ten cabinets in Europe (LADY MONTAGUE). Old-English has preserved many traces of a plural form: Anye rentes: anye riche frendes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 305.). The person is readily denoted by any one (I did not speak any one that day (LONGFELLOW) and anybody; Old-English any wight (CHAUCER II. p. 338.); eny persone (in.); whereas the notion of a thing is expressed by any thing.

8. many, Anglosaxon maneg, moneg, multus, Old-English many, mony, used substantively of persons in the plural, as in Anglosaxon. In the singular it assumes a before substantives: many a flower, many a day &c.; referred to persons also a one: many a one (M'. CULLOCH p. 138.); compare many an oon (JACK JUGL. p. 9.). Many one in the 3, 2. Psalm is construed collectively with the plural of the verb. This many one was also referred to substantives of things: Tel us a tale, for thou canst many oon (CHAU- CER 13734.). Ensamples many oon (13850.), if it followed the substantive. The substantive a many, now commonly a great many, is the Anglosaxon substantive menigéo, menigo. The plural stands adjectively and substantively: many long cruel, and bloody wars (W. SCOTT). Few shall part where many meet (CAMPBELL). In Old-English the e of the plural (Anglosaxon manege) still often comes out: Manye bokes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 199.). So manye maistres (p. 321.). Ther seighen it manye (p. 337.); although also: manye longe yeres (p. 312.). A genitive is also formed there-from: That book in many's eyes does share the glory, That in gold clasps locks in thy golden story (SHAKSP. Rom. and Jul.). The opinion according to which many is taken to be the plural of much and more passes as the comparative of many, is devoid of etymological foundation.

9. each, every single one of a total number, Anglosaxon ãlc (= ã-líc), quisque, unusquisque, Old-English ilk, eche, ich, stands both connected and disconnected, and is by its nature singular. It always has a distributive relation to a preceding or succeeding substantive or pronoun, where it does not attributively precede its substantive: Only eight thousand copies were printed, much less
than one to each parish in the kingdom (Macaulay). And isles and whirlpools in the stream appear Each after each (Bryant). Come, good people, all and each (Longfellow). Three different nations, who where enemies to each other (W. Scott). Of persons and things we still use each one: There are two angels, that attend unseen Each one of us (Longfellow). The pages of thy book I read, And as I closed each one, My heart, responding, ever said "Servant of God! well done!" (id.). In Old-English echoon, ichon, ilkon, ilkane, ilk (= ilk a) is very common; ilkane is still in use in Yorkshire and Northumberland, elcone in Cumberland. The fuller forms stand absolutely before persons or after a substantive of a thing, the weakened ones ich a, ilk a before substantives: each a persone (Piers Ploughm. p. 298.); ilk a stede (Townel. Myst. p. 68.).

10. *every*, a compound of each, which is generalized in an indeterminate manner by *ever*, unknown to Anglosaxon (= æfre, æfer — æl), Old-English everilk, everich, is now mostly used attributively: *Every* Colonel, *every* Lieutenant Colonel, was killed or severely wounded (Macaulay). Rarely, and that mostly in the legal style, it stands disconnectedly, with of after it: all and every of them; *every* of the clauses. In Old-English, where it is referred to one of many, as also of two, which is still the case at present, it also stands absolutely of persons: That *every* schuld an hundred knightes bryng (Chaucer 2098.), *Everich* in otheres hond his trouthe laith (6986.). The person is commonly periphrased by *every one*, *every body*, the neuter notion by *every thing*; to Old-English everich on, everychone, every wight, every thing are familiar. Modern-English has also the union *every each = every other*, alternate (Halliwell s. v.).

11. *either*, *each of two*, and *one of two*, even *every*, the second of which meanings, contrary to the very usage of the language itself, is maintained in modern times as the sole correct one, Anglosaxon æghder = æghvæðer, that is, æ-ge-hvæðer, alongside of Æhvæðer, *uterque* and *alteruter, unusquisque*, Old-English either, aither, ather (Old-Scottish, North-English), stands attributively and disconnectedly. With the meaning uterque, which is very common in Old-English, it not rarely stands in Modern-English also: The king of Israel and Jehosaphat sat *either* of them on his throne (2 Chron. 18, 9.). *Either* of these distinguished officers (Catinat and Boufflers) would have been a successor worthy of Luxemburg (Macaulay). On either side of him there shot up... houses (Dickens). Old-English: Enemies and frendes Love his *eyther* oother (Piers Ploughm. p. 212.). *Either* is otheres joie (p. 343.). Of course the meanings uterque and alteruter often border on each other, the latter whereof needs no exemplification. The Old-English genitive in *s (es)* is also found in Modern-English: They are both in *either* powers (Shaksp. Temp.); compare the Old-English: Till *eitheres* (utriusque) wille wexeth keene (Piers Ploughm. p. 267.). The relation to severa1, with the meaning of *each* (of any multitude) instances of which are given in Wagner's Grammar, published by Herrig p. 293., may be justified out of the Anglosaxon.
12. *neither*, Anglosaxon nāhvædr, nādr, neuter, Old-English neither, nather &c., is, analogously to either, employed connectedly and disconnectedly: On neither side was there a wish to bring the question of right to issue (MACAULAY). They’re both of nature mild . . *Neither* has any thing he calls his own (OTWAY).

13. *other*, alias and alter, Anglosaxon ôðer, alius, alter and secundus, Old-norse annar, Gothic anpar, Old-Highdutch andar, Old-English other, alongside whereof andyr, ender, endir (HALLIWELL s. v.), stands both connectedly and disconnectedly, may have the articles a (an) and *the* before it, and, when used substantively, assumes the *s* of the genitive and of the plural: Some are happy while others are miserable (MURRAY). Old-English inflects it, but has the *e* in the plural a long time: Either is *otheres* joie (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 343.). Ac per bep to fore alle *opere* pre (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 2.). Be the Cristene or *otheres* (MAUNDEV. p. 74.). The plural subsequently stands without *s*: *When other* are glad Than is he sad (SKELTON I. 79.). Some *other* give me thanks (SHAKBP. Com. of Err. 4, 3); thus in the union some — other some (ACT. XVII. 18.). Compare DIALECT. of CRAVEN s. v. Where one of two is opposed to the *other* in reciprocal activity, we find one another, where one of two or several is denoted, each other has its place: The parson and the stranger shook one another very lovingly by the hand (FIELDING). The reader may perhaps wonder, that so fond a pair should . . never converse with one another (ID.). *Two* blackbirds answered each other from opposite sides (GOLDSMITH). *Three* different nations, who were enemies to each other (W. SCOTT). The meaning of the other as a second of the same sort still has place: We need another Hildebrand (LONGFELLOW). Here was a Caesar; When comes such another? (SHAKSP. Jul. Caes.) Old-English often swiche another; syke another (SKELTON I. 260.). Thus also the next in succession is determined as a second: Four happy days bring in *Another* moon (SHAKSP. Mids. N. Dr.). You have been deeply wrong’d, and now shall be Nobly avenged before another night (L. BYRON); and on the other hand the recently passed is denoted by other: the other day, compare the French l’autre jour. In the connection other than it corresponds to the French autre que, different from.

14. *such*, Anglosaxon sylc, talis, Old-English swich, swylk, suilk, selk, slik &c., also for idem, (see p. 294.), stands attributively, predicatively and substantively, and has, as an adjective, also a after it: *Such* was the general &c. (MACAULAY). *Such* curiosity William could not endure (ID.). Cutts was the only man who appeared to consider such an expedition as a party of pleasure (ID.). The plural is the same as the singular; Old-English has the plural in *e*: *Selke* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.). They are not *swylke* als they seme (Ms. in HALLIWELL s. v.). By alle swiche preestes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 220.). *Swiche* wise wordes (p. 19.). The connection such a one is frequent, in Modern-English often equivalent to the French un tel, tel et tel, whereby we indicate the person whose more particular description we cannot or will not
state, as such a is united with substantives in like manner: ... that on such a day the assembly shall be at their house, in honour of the feast of the count or countess such a one (Lady Montague). Compare the Old-English: Such an on as is of gode maneres (Maundev. p. 287.).

15. *all*, Anglosaxon eall, eal, el, omnis, totus, Old-English al, all, is unchangeable in Modern-English: All Europe was looking anxiously towards the Low Countries (Macaulay). All parties concurred in the illusion (Murray). All was dark and gloomy (Dickens). Miss Arabella Wilmot was allowed by all, except my two daughters, to be completely pretty (Goldsmith); and may even have the definite article as well as demonstrative pronouns after it: All the time that he had appeared so indifferent &c. (Dickens). The moon ... shed her light on all the objects around (id.). Glancing at all these things &c. (id.). This was also the case in Old-English as well as in Anglosaxon: Alle the dayes of pore men be wikke (Chaucer 4538.). Anglosaxon: Ealle på ping (Gen. 1, 31). The Old-English long declined: singular al, all, plural nom. acc. dat. alle, gen. alre, aller (alder): To fore allé opere pre (Rob. of Gloucester I. 2.). pat is aller mon worst (p. 15.). Öure aller fader (Piérs Flovghm. p. 342.). Your aller heed (head) (p. 424.). Hence also the forms alderliefest, alderlast &c. see p. 185. The e of the plural is certainly often cast off.

16. *else* is often cited in English dictionaries as a pronoun with the meaning other, one besides. It is in fact originally the genitive of the Anglosaxon el, ele, alius, which, however, mostly occurs in compounds, and whose genitive elles stands as an adverb (aliter); Old-English: elles, ells, els (even in Skelton). It is therefore to be taken adverbially: Bastards and else (Shaks. K. J. 2, 1). As I have ever shared your kindness in all things else (L. Byron). In Old-English we frequently find elles what, nought elles, as in Anglosaxon elles hvät, nāviht elles, in which the genitive still betrays itself as such. Modern-English: Naught else have we to give (Longfellow).

17. *sundry*, with the meaning of an indefinite multitude, Anglosaxon synderig, singularis, in the plural singuli, Old-English sondry, has in the plural seceral, Old-French several = séparé, also used for divers, plusieurs, Old-English several, divers, Old-French the same, Old-English diverse, and different, Old-French, Old-English the same, synonymous adjectives, in which the notion of variety has been weakened down to that of separation.* The Old-English had the corresponding ser, sere, seyré, which is still in use in the North of England for several, many: Fioures ... of seyré colours (Townel. Myst. p. 7.). Of many beestes sere present (p. 47.). Romances, many and sere (Ms. in Halliwell s. v.). It seems

*) The notion of separation as that of the physical, nearest to the sensuous, existing in space and time is the prius, and the notion of variety as the metaphysical is the posterius.
to have arisen by contraction out of the Old-French participle sevré (compare the substantive sevree = separation). — Several is also used substantively of persons: I met several on the road, to whom I cried out for assistance; but they disregarded my entreaties (GOLDSMITH). It is also joined in the singular with every, with the meaning singulius: He gives To every several man seventy five drachmas (SHAKSP. J. C.).

18. certain, in the sense of the Latin certus for quidam, by which the existence of the object alone is asserted, but its more particular determination not stated or, rather, disregarded, passed early from the Old-French into the English: I am invited, Sir, to certain merchants (SHAKSP. Com. of Err.). Compare the Old-English: Or paide som certegn (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 268.). In Old-English it was even used substantively as a neuter (aliquid): Beseeching him to lene him a certain of gold (CHAUCER 16492. Tyrwh.).

5. The Article.

The name article is given to the the, weakened from the Anglo-saxon demonstrative pronoun se (pē), seo (peó), pāt, and to the an, a, likewise weakened from the Anglo-saxon numeral ān. They primarily serve to single out for the imagination one single object or several objects from the totality of objects of the same name. The former, as the definite article, separates them from their total sphere, as sensuous, or already known and present in intuition; the second, the indefinite article, presents one object to the imagination, but which may be any one from the total sphere of those bearing the same name, without distinction. The transfer of both articles to the total sphere of objects bearing the same name has to be more particularly discussed in the Syntax. Both are to be regarded as words unaccented, or, rather proclitic in speech.

a) The definite article the proceeds from the Anglo-saxon collateral form of se, the pē. It has abandoned the forms for the different genders, numbers and cases, and takes the case-prepositions of and to before it, whereby the syntactic relation of its substantive is denoted.

Old-English still has distinct traces of the se, seo, pāt, used as an article even in Anglo-saxon: pe emperoures of Rome pat foṭe and wonne Engelond, and pat lond nome (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 3.) (Anglo-saxon pāt land, acc. n.). pen toun nome (II. 409.). (Anglo-saxon pone tūn, acc. m.). Aże pen op (p. 443.). pen castel nome (p. 451.). Asayle pen false kyang (p. 453.). Atten ende = at pen ende (409 and often) (Anglos. āt pam ende, dat. m.).

The ancient language early employed the neuter that for all genders: From pat on se to pat opér (ROB OF GLOUCESTER I. 98.) (se, Anglo-saxon see, mare, is m. and f.). On that other side of the strete (MAUNDEV. p. 90.) (Anglo-saxon side, f.). And eek that lusty sesoun of that May Made every wight to ben in such plesaunce &c. (CHAUCER 2486.).

The t before other, apparently arising from the article the,
is remarkable, which in Modern-English is often separated from it by an apostrophe: And when he put a hand but in The one, or 'other magazine (Butler). Your ladyship should except, says 'other (Goldsmith). I saw 'other day the gala for count Altheim (Lady Montague). We might regard it as equivalent to the th, which even in Old-English appears before vowels instead of the article: Thanne is 'other half dark and thother is al ligt (Wright Pop. Treatis. p. 134.). Yet in Old-English before this tother, beside which also a tone, tane (to, ta) stands, we commonly find the article itself, which we could hardly take to be put twice: The tone of us schall dye (Percy Rel. p. 7. II.). The tother syde (p. 4, I.). On the ta part or on the tothyr (Treaty of 1384. in Lindsay ed. Chalmers s. v. ta). And the tother hond he lifteth (Maundev. p. 9.). The tother 2 festes (p. 232.). The totherne ben not so grete (p. 52.). A fol the tone, and a fol the tother (Skelton I. 260.). The tone agayng the tother (I. 313.). Naught justifies us in believing this t inserted from phonetic reasons. I should rather explain it out of the t of the that used as an article, which in Old-English so frequently stood before one and other: And rende tuo nonecryes, Worwel pat one was, And Ambresbury pet oper (Rob. of Gloucester I. 291.). There is a gret weye from that on to that othere (Maundev. p. 63.). Compare also the instances cited above. Thus there would here be the same separation of the consonant of a preceding word, which we elsewhere occasionally meet with in Old-English, for instance, in atten ale for atten ale and the like. In modern times this origin has been forgotten and the t regarded as an article. Tone and tother are still popular in the North of England and South of Scotland.

The instrumental of pē, py, pē, m. and n., having become unrecognizable, has been preserved in the form the, as in Anglo-saxon, before the comparative in the meaning of eo (eo-eo instead of quo-aeo): So much the radder then, celestial light, Shine inward (Milton). The more I hate, the more he follows me (Shaks. Mids. N. Dr.). I love not Man the less, but Nature more (L. Byron). Even Old-English readily uses it in reduplication: pe lenger, pe more (Rob. of Gloucester I. 110.).

The e of the article in poetry, as well as in rapid speech generally, often suffers syncope, not only before vowels, but even before consonants, as in Old-English: My Lord, th'expected guests are just arriv'd? (Otway). When, or how, shall I prevent or stop th'approaching danger (Congreave). Th'industrious bees neglect their golden store (Pope). In th'olden time Some sacrifices ask'd a single victim (L. Byron). — Oh! that kind dagger . . drench'd in my blood to th'hilt (Otway). I'th 'very minute when her virtue nods (Id.). Who merit, ought indeed to rise i'th' world (Id.).

Old-English poetry often uses the more emphatic this, where the article would be quite sufficient; compare, for instance Chaucer: Duk Theseus . . This duk (1696. 1706.). This worthy duk (1744.). This Theseus, this duk, this worthy knight . . He festeth
The indefinite article *an, a*, Anglo-Saxon *än, unus*, Old-English *an, on, a, o &c.* existing only in the singular, according to the precepts of grammarians, stands, in its abbreviated form *a*, before all words beginning with a *consonant* sound. Among these are of course also reckoned those beginning with the semiconsonants *w* and *y*, as well as accented syllables beginning with an *h* which is not mute, and words beginning with *u, eu, ew*, an aspirate sounding before these words, as well as *one* and *once*, since to these a labial (*w*) is prefixed: a man, a tree, a heathen, a unit, such a one, a oneness &c. The fuller form *an* stands before all vowels (which are not heard with an initial consonant), before words beginning with a mute *h*, as well as before words beginning with an aspirated *h*, when the syllable beginning with *h* is followed by the accented syllable: an inn, an umpire, an hour, an heir, an harangue, an historical subject &c.

Usage is however not quite in harmony with this precept, since we often find *an* used even before aspirated vowels and before an aspirate *h* in the accented syllable: *An* useless waste of life (Macaulay). *An* eunuch (Congreve). *An* unanimous resolution (Goldsmith). I'd rather be *an* unit of *an* united and imperial "Ten" (L. Byron); *an* héro &c.

Old-English early adopted the custom of retaining, *an, on* before vowels and *h*, and of setting, on the other hand, *a, o* before other consonants, and that even where not the unaccented article, but the numeral came in. Robert of Gloucester often has *an* before consonants: So pat per com of *an* wode . . *an* six pouse of Brutous (I. 211.); and thus too subsequent writers, yet compare: There scholde be but o masse sayd at on awtier, upon o day (Maundev. p. 19.). Hyre lord and sche be of *a* blode. — Thre persones in *a* Godhede (Ms. in Halliwell s. v.).

From this assimilation of the proper numeral to the article, with regard to form, is to be explained the still frequent use of the article, where the numeral *one*, especially with the meaning *one and the same*, seems to be required: For *a* day or two I've lodg'd her privately (Otway). Hallowed, said my uncle, falling back *a* step or two (Dickens); and this is common in similar combinations. Compare: With *a* charm or twayne (Skelton 1, 57.). We are both of *an* age (Fielding). Then the poor woman would sometimes tell the 'Squire, that she thought him and Olivia extremely of *a* size (Goldsmith).

In union with other *an* is now treated as the ingredient of a compound: In less than another year we had another daughter (Goldsmith).

The indefinite article is capable of no change of form; of and to, serving as substitutes for the case-inflection, come before it: They made *a* bet of *a* new hat (Dickens). These attentions . . were directed to *a* young lady (I'd.).
B) The Verb.

The verb, or time-word, is that part of speech which predicates of a subject an activity falling in the sphere of time. But every phenomenal mode of the subject, which is predicated of it, is to be regarded as an activity of the subject, whether spoken of as its action, its passion or its condition, since it belongs to the successive moments of time, therefore can only be apprehended as a movement and a becoming. The division and separation of the sphere of time into spaces of time from the most general points of view produces the tenses, or time forms, of the verb.

Sorts of the Verb, and their interchange.

With reference to their grammatical relation inside of speech, verbs are divided into various sorts, a decision which is partly governed by the relation to an object, partly by that to the subject of the sentence.

a) With regard to the relation to objective determinations of the sentences, verbs are divided into transitive verbs, denoting an activity directed outwards, and intransitive verbs, expressing an activity concluded within itself.

1) Transitive verbs are accordingly those verbs which denote an activity directed to an object as its goal, whether the object is produced by the activity itself or is determined thereby as a being existing independently.

Transitive verbs are distinguished into those which are such in the narrower and those which are such in the wider sense. The former are those whose object undergoes the effect of the activity immediately, and therefore stands in the accusative with the active of the verb: Hamilton murdered the old man in cold blood (MACaulay). The latter are those whose activity requires an object participating mediatly, which therefore stands to the verb in the relation of another case (the genitive or dative): If solitude succeed to grief, Release from pain is slight relief (BYRON).

English frequently effaces the distinction of both sorts, especially since the dative and the accusative, as in Lowdutch, are frequently not distinguished from each other in form, and the original reference of the verb to its object vanishes from the consciousness of the language.

The transitive verb becomes reflective, if it has its subject for its object; it then receives a personal pronoun for its object: He hid himself (WEBST.). Here will we rest us (LONGFELLOW). They defended themselces against the Saxons (W. SCOTT). Reflective verbs, in the narrower sense, which can have only a personal pronoun for their object, are now hardly known to Modern-English. Old-English had a multitude of impersonal reflective verbal forms, whereof methinks, meseems are obsolete remains, along with which it irks me, it lists him, and the like remain in use. Old-
English: Et this whan the hungr eth (Piers Ploughm. p. 276.). Methur-steth yit (p. 391.). That I makede man It me forthynket, = poenitet me (p. 167.). Lene hem whan h em nedeth (p. 185.). More rare even in Old-English are personal verbs of feeling or of affection in the reflexive construction: I drede me (Piers Ploughm. p. 164.). I repent me (Skelton I. 304.); the latter whereof is still in use in Modern-English: She will repent her of all past offences (Fielding).

The notion of the activity appears as reciprocal, when mutuality of an activity, as the action of a subject upon an object and reaction of this object upon that subject, is denoted. This happens in English by the junction of one another and each other to the transitive verb: If we love one another, Nothing, in truth, can harm us (Longfellow). They . . broke their spears without doing each other further injury (W. Scott). The kings obliging themselves to assist each other against all the rest of the world &c. (id.).

Transitive verbs, with the exception of the reflexive ones, appear in a twofold shape: that of the active and that of the passive.

The active is the verbal form whereby the grammatical subject is represented as exercising the activity: The assassins pulled off her clothes (Macaulay). The active form also belongs to intransitive verbs. The passive lets the grammatical subject appear as undergoing the activity: They were roused from sleep by faithful servants (Macaulay). The two kingdoms were divided from each other (W. Scott). As you were told before (id.). He was succeeded by his son (id.).

The freedom in forming the passive is far greater in English than in other tongues. Passives are formed not only from transitive verbs in the narrower and wider sense, but also from verbs in themselves intransitive, which are construed in the corresponding active form by prepositions with adverbial (objective) determinations: Star ked was soon disposed of (W. Scott). The Highlands and Islands were particularly attended to (id.). Had he not been called on to fill the station of a monarch . . he might . . have been regarded as an honest and humane prince (id.). An old manor-house, and an old family of this kind, are rarely to be met with at the present day (W. Irving).

2) Intransitive verbs are all those which denote an activity not directed to an object, and which therefore appears as concluded in itself: That evening the great minister died (Macaulay). The punishment of some of the guilty began very early (id.). By slow degrees the whole truth came out (id.). They are also called neuters. Verbs may be termed, according to their import, frequentative or iterative, diminutive, inchoative and desiderative. They belong to the class of transitives or of intransitives, notwithstanding such further notional determinations.

The specified sorts of the verb are however not distinguished from each other in such a manner as not to be capable of passing into or changing places with one another. The question whether a verb is originally transitive or intransitive in English,
is frequently not to be answered. Only by a recourse to the
tongues out of which English grew can this be in many cases
decided, while in others the more or less frequent or the older
use of a verb as transitive or intransitive may turn the scale where
forms and derivative terminations afford but little clew. No other
tongue avails itself, to the same extent as the English, of the
liberty of interchanging notions of activities.

An interchange of this sort is certainly known to most tongues,
although not to the like extent. It rests on the one hand on the
possibility that the activity which needs a completing object may
also in fact be conceived by itself or abstractedly, which is ever the
case when no definite object is added; but, on the other hand,
the activity concluded in itself, so far as it has any result at all, or
so far as it is imagined in contact with objects, may be regarded as
the activity producing that result or acting immediately upon those
objects. A wider limit will of course be conceded to poetry and the
naive speech of common life than to the strictly measured prose.
Yet even prose has possessed itself in a wider compass of these inter-
changes, when warranted by the living speech, and thereby has often
rendered the original nature of the verb imperceptible.

Some of the demonstrable interchanges of the sorts of verbs
may here be mentioned by way of example.

1. a) The transitive active becomes intransitive, when no appro-
priate object is given to it, although this cannot, of course,
be absent from the activity: About, seek, fire, kill! (Shaks.
J. C.). Instances of this sort are to be met with everywhere.

β) The transitive active becomes intransitive, where the activ-
ity could have no other object than the subject itself;
wherefore this is also regarded as a transition into the reflect-
ive meaning. In Highdutch verbs like nahen, flüchten, stür-
zen, fürchten, münden, and the like, which run parallel to
sich nahen, and the like, form an analogy to this usage. In
English reflective formations likewise sometimes run parallel
to these intransitives, although they have been more restricted
in later times: Yeomen... were induced to enlist (Macaulay).
When the troops had retired, the Macdonals crept out of the
caverns of Glencoe (Id.). She could not refrain from crying
out &c. (Fielding). I will prove in the end more faithful than
any of them (W. Scott). Russell meanwhile was preparing
for an attack (Macaulay). Two large brooks which unite
to form the river Tile (W. Scott). He stole away to England
(Macaulay). The warlike inhabitants... gathered fast to
Surrey's standard (W. Scott). Mark you he keeps aloof from
all the revels (L. Byron). Instances of this sort are also very
frequent. If they can be interchanged with the reflective
construction, we must not attribute to them quite the same
mode of apprehension. The identity of the objective value
does not decide grammatically the identity of the apprehension.
These verbs are to be conceived as such whose reference to
outward independent objects is hindered by the context, and
therefore must be deemed to be concluded within the subject.

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Single verbs, which may be referred here, as in: I shame
To wear a heart so white (Shaksp. Macb.) have remained
true to their origin, the Anglosaxon seamjan, erubescere, being
intransitive, and not having received the common transitive
meaning till later.

γ) Different from the usage just mentioned is the employment
of the transitive active as intransitive, when an activity seems
imputed to the subject, whose object it rather is. A trans-
mutation of the active into the passive being here sometimes,
though by no means universally, possible, this has been con-
ceived as a transition into the passive meaning: What a deli-
cious fragrance springs From the deep flagon, while it fills
(Longfellow). I published some tracts... which, as they
never sold, I have the consolation of thinking were read only
by the happy Few (Goldsmith). If the cakes at tea ate short and crisp, they were made by Olivia (id.). A godly,
thorough Reformation, Which always must be carried on, And
still be doing never done (Butler). While any favourite air
is singing (Sheridan). While this ballad was reading, So-
phia seemed to mix an air of tenderness with her approbation
(Goldsmith). While a treaty of union... was negotiating (Ro-
bertson). A great experiment was making (Macaulay). For
you I've a draught that long has been brewing (Longfellow).
The periphrastic verbal forms with the participle in ing have
especially been thus employed from olden times. The use of
these verbs is to be explained by the subject's being considered
the mediate author of the activity of which itself is the ob-
ject. Thus the transitive-active borders partly on the reflec-
tive, partly on the passive and on the factitive meaning.
Compare above: it fills = it fills itself, il filled, makes
itself filled.

2. a) The intransitive verb receives the character of the transitive
active, if the result of the activity is made its object. Thus
the verb is often put to a substantive of the same stem, de-
noting the activity in the abstract form: Ye all live loathsome,
sneaking, servile lives (OTWAY). He had rather die a thousand
deaths (Fielding). To let them die the death (L. Byron).
How many old men... sank down and slept their last sleep
(Macaulay); as happened early with intransitive and transitive verbs. Old-English: He aschede po pat same
asking (Rob. of Gloucester I. 30.); po kyng sende ys sonde
(156.). Suiche domes to deme (II. 562.). Yet objects of an-
other sort than products of the activity may also be considered:
In every tear that I do weep (Shaksp. Love's L. L. 4, 3.)
Groves whose rich trees wept odorous gums (Milton). What
he lived was more beautiful than what he wrote (Lewes).
The realm itself... yawens dungeons at each step for thee and
me (L. Byron). "Thou didst not say so." — But thou lookedst
it (id.). Does the prophet doubt, To whom the very stars
shine victory? (id.)
\(\beta\) or the activity is referred to an object independent of it, which it touches or upon which it mediately acts, and which is only considered as that immediately aimed at or hit by the activity: To sit a horse (Webst.). Thou day! That slowly walk'st the waters! March — March on (L. Byron). Thou shalt make mighty engines swim the sea (Bryant). There's not a ship that sails the ocean (Longfellow). We...fought the powers Sent by your emperor to raise our siege (Otway). Fight the ship as long as she can swim (Macaulay). While thou foughtst and foughtst the christian cause (J. Hughes); when, as in the last instances, the sort of reference to the object may be different.

\(\gamma\) or the notion of the activity is taken as factitive in its reference to an object, that is, as effecting the activity originally contained in the verb: I have travelled my uncle Toby...in a chariot and four (Sterne). During twenty six hours he rained shells and redhot bullets on the city (Macaulay). Even at the base of Pompey's statua, Which all the while ran blood, great Cesar fell (Shaksp. J.C.). Men, who...have danced their babes Upon their knees (L. Byron). Many verbs, originally intransitive, are thus treated, as, to issue, to lean (Anglosaxon hlinjan), to prosper &c. Here belongs also the case in which an intransitive verb is at the same time conceived as effecting a predicative determination of the object: I have walked my clothes dry (Bulwer).

\(\delta\) Allied to the usage last mentioned is the transition of the intransitive active into the reflective form by the addition of a personal pronoun: Good Margaret, run thee to the parlour (Shaksp. Much Ado &c.). Hie thee home (Smart), Anglosaxon hycgan, studere. Fare thee well, and think of death (J. Hughes). Sit thee down (Shaksp.). Go flee thee away into the land of Judah (Bible). They sate them down beside the stream (Southey). These and similar turns, still employed, chiefly in the imperative, are censured by modern grammarians. They are familiar to Old-English: This knave goth him up ful sturdily (Chaucer 3434.). Expressions like: Here will we rest us (Longfellow); Old-English: Where oure Lady rested hire (Maundev. p.71.), are originally regular; Anglosaxon He hine reste (Exod. 31, 17.), as well as the Old-English: He went him home. The Old-English: haste thee has been formed after the Old-French se haster.

b) With regard to the subject of the sentence we distinguish personal and impersonal verbs.

1) Personal verbs are those referred to a determinate person or thing as their subject: The revolution had been accomplished (Macaulay). What is your illness? — "It has no name" (Longfellow).

2) We call impersonal those having no determinate subject. Their subject, not decidedly present in imagination, is indicated by the neuter it, and they stand only in the third person singular.
a) Those verbs are impersonal in the narrowest sense, which can occur only in sentences without a subject definitely imagined. Here belong some of those which denote effects in the domain of nature, to which we ascribe no clearly conceived subject, as in: it rains, it lightens, it thunders, it hails, it snows, it freezes, it thaws &c. Old-English: Now it schyneth, now it reyneth faste (CHAUCER 1537.). They are however at the same time partly personal. Hence all verbs are in a wider sense impersonal which, although in themselves used personally, are referred to activities whose subject is unclear to the imagination, or, although demonstrable, is yet for the moment unclear or indifferent to the speaker. Here also are found verbs with a predicative completion: It is very cold (SHAKSP. Haml.). How dark it grows (LONGFELLOW). It is growing dark (id.). The limit of the linguistic usage is hard to specify. There manifestly belong here sentences like: How fares it with the holy monks of Hirschau? (LONGFELLOW.) Is it come to this? (SMART.) Thus it was now in England (MACAULAY). Reflective verbs used impersonally, with which even the subject it may be wanting, and which are not at the same time referred to a logical subject in the sentence or clause, as in the Old-English me hungreth, me thursteth, are unknown to Modern-English; since expressions like methinks, meseems relate to such a subject. In sentences like woe is me! compare the Old-English: Wo worth! — Ever worth the thaym wo! (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 270.), woe (Anglosaxon vâva, vâ, miseria) is, properly, the subject.

β) We must distinguish from impersonal sentences of the sort specified sentences, similar in form, in which the grammatical subject it points to a logical subject contained in the sentence or clause. The logical subject is in this case frequently an infinitive or a dependent sentence: It is hard to go, but harder to stay (LONGFELLOW). It was an aged man who spoke (id.). It was observed that two important classes took little or no part in the festivities (MACAULAY). It belongs to syntax to discuss this more particularly.

The Forms of the English Verb in general.

The various relations which the verb receives inside the sentence, are expressed by its various forms, the conjugations. English is poor in simple forms of this sort, frequently availing itself of so called auxiliary verbs, to express periphrastically the syntactical relations expressed, in tongues richer in forms, by the verbal stem and its termination. Many of these forms are at the same time susceptible of various relations, and therefore in themselves unclear, so that they only become completely intelligible in the entire context of the sentence.

The English conjugations rest upon the Anglosaxon; the influence of the Old-French upon the passive formation could hardly be pointed out, although the auxiliary verb veordan, has been abandoned.
a) As to the sorts of the verb, even the Anglosaxon had no longer a passive form, properly so called, as little as a form for the medium (or reflective). It possessed only the expressed active form. The Anglosaxon passive was formed by the assistance of the verbs vēsan and veordan with the participle of the preterite; English used the auxiliary verb to be, of several stems, and mixed with forms of the verb vēsan and its participles: I am loved; I was loved. Old-English also employed for a long time the verb worthen, worthe: His lif and his soule worth ishend (DAME SHIZ p. 7.). Chastité withouten charité Worth cheyned in helle (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 26.). No creature .. Withouten cristendom worth saved (p. 244.). Ysaved worstow (p. 420.); as this verb also remained in use: What shalle worthe on me! (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 226. 263.) even in Chaucer and others.

The employment of all stems of the auxiliary verb, now be in the infinitive, mixed with the verb vēsan, was natural: Sey, that these stones be made loves, ut lapides isti fiant panes (MAUNDEV. p. 98.). Thei brennen his body .. to that entent, that he sufre no peyne in erthe, to ben eten of wormes (p. 170.). That hathe ben preceed (p. 100.).

b) The tenses of the verb specify the sphere of time into which the activity falls. All activity belongs in fact either to the present or to the past; but it can also be imagined as happening in the future. But both the present and the past have their before and after, therefore ever a past in the rear and a future before them.

There arise therefore two series of the tenses of speech, one whereof makes the standing point of the speaker the centre, as the present, the other takes a fact of the past as the centre.

The first series we may call the tenses of the present; the others, those of the past.

English has, according to the precedent of Anglosaxon, only two simple tenses, a present and a preterite: love, loved; swim, swam. These form the centres of the other compound presents and preteterites. Compound present tenses have present forms; compound preteterites, on the other hand, preteterites of auxiliary verbs alongside of the participle or infinitive, with which they together express periphrastically the absent simple tenses.

The auxiliary verbs which come under review are: to have, shall, will and, in intransitive verbs rarely: to be.

The tenses of the present are: the present: love; the perfect: have loved; the first future: shall (will) love; the second future: shall (will) have loved.

The tenses of the past are: the preterite: loved; the plusquamperfectum: had loved; the imperfect of the future, also the first conditional: should (would) love; the plusquamperfectum of the future, also second conditional: should (would) have loved. Both conditionals are commonly apprehended as conjunctives. The nature of these forms has to be more particularly discussed in the Syntax.

As to the formation of the periphrastic forms, the verb habban, habban (to have) was employed with the participle periphrastically, even in Anglosaxon, like as habere in Latin in habeo perspec-
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tum &c. Old-English early used to have with transitive and intransitive verbs: I have dwelled, habitavi (Maundev. p. 110.). Where has thou thus long be? (Townel. Myst. p. 25.). He hath . . . and alle wye hathe had (Maundev. p. 296.). If here fadre had not ben dronken, he hadde not ylege with hem (p. 102.).

The anomalous scal, sceal (shall) with the infinitive was also used to form the future periphrastically, though not without the recollection of its original meaning, namely of an ethical necessity (debo), which has not quite vanished, even in English. The Anglosaxon villan (will) is not yet found used periphrastically, but in English early took the place of scal, of course not without reference to the notion of an inclination, tendency, and then of aptness and appropriateness. In Old-English shal is early universal as a periphrasis: That ne shal nevere be That I shal don selk falsete (Dame Shiriz p. 3.). That I have thought I shalle fulfille (Townel. Myst. p. 1.). What art thou that thus tellys afore that shalle be? (p. 24.). And when he felte wel, that he scholde dye (Maundev. p. 228.). But will is also found early: As me (men) dep set, and ever more wole (Rob. of Gloucester I. 24.). Jiff the erthe were made moyst and weet . . . it wolde never bere fruyt (Maundev. p. 100.). The distinction of the periphrasis in shall or will, when shall is mostly restricted to the first person, is unknown to Old-English, in which the use of shall generally preponderates. Even in Shakespeare's age this distinction is less universal. See Mommsen's Rom. and Juliet p. 1109. The details belong to Syntax. We shall speak of further periphrastic forms below.

With regard to the employment of the verb to have, we must observe that the active of all transitive and reflective verbs is conjugated with to have. With intransitives, on the contrary, to be is also frequently found employed: The third day 's come and gone (L. Byron). When the sun is set (Milton). She can not be fled far (L. Byron). This is founded upon an Anglosaxon precedent. Some grammarians wholly reject this formation, others declare both forms to be indifferent. Linguistic usage annexes syntactic differences to each, which belong to Syntax.

c) The modes, which serve to express the subjective relation of the speaker to the predicate in thought and will, are: the indicative, which lays down the predicate objectively; the conjunctive, which expresses it reflectively, and the imperative, which represents it as an expression of will. Modern-English, besides the indicative, has also a form of the imperative, coinciding certainly with others. The forms of the conjunctive, except in the present of verbs, have become almost totally unrecognizable, or those of the indicative have taken their place, so that even the existence of a conjunctive is denied. Old-English frequently drew a distinction betwixt indicative and conjunctive forms, as Modern-English still sometimes does.

d) The distinction of the three personal forms of the singular and plural in the verb, which was frequently effaced in Anglosaxon, is still more so in Modern-English, where the plural has completely cast off its inflective forms. The accession of the personal pronouns to distinguish the speaker or speakers, the person or persons
spoken to and the person or persons spoken of is frequently governed thereby.

e) The middle forms of the verb are those forms which border on the one hand on the substantive; (the infinitive and the gerund) on the other, on the adjective (participles).

The infinitive names the activity abstractly, without predicing it immediately of any determinate subject, while it distinguishes it according to the reference to present or past time: to love, to have loved. It has almost entirely lost its characteristic terminations.

The gerund, likewise expressing the distinction of time, leans upon the participial form of the present, but has preserved the substantive meaning, originally belonging to this form, more than the French gerund in ant (-ndum), which likewise coincided with the participle of the present ant (-ntem): loving — having loved.

The participles, or adjective verbal forms, are that of the present: loving, and that of the perfect: loved.

How far these forms diverge from the Anglosaxon will be pointed out below.

The weak and the strong conjugation.

Like all Germanic tongues, Anglosaxon distinguished a weak and a strong conjugation, the latter whereof, the old, or the primitive, was in English more and more supplanted by the weak one, which is now usually opposed to the strong one as the regular to the irregular.

Both Anglosaxon conjugations are essentially distinguished by the weak one’s forming its preterite by appending the suffix de (Conjunct. de) to the verbal stem, which receives ed (d), in the participle of the perfect; and the strong one’s, on the other hand, forming its preterite by a change in the fundamental vowel, or a variation of the vowel, while the participle of the perfect, which assumes the termination en, mostly receives the stem vowel of the present or that of the plural of the preterite.

The Anglosaxon weak conjugation has two different forms, according as the vowel i (as ē and j), or the vowel o (this however only in the preterite and participle of the perfect as o) comes between the stem and the suffix. The connecting vowel i commonly falls out, if the syllable of the stem is long. Modern-English has preserved the connecting vowel ē in the termination of the preterite ed, the j still appears in the infinitive termination y. Old-English has the latter in other forms and also still shews the connecting vowel o of the second conjugation in the preterite.

The inflective terminations of the weak and of the strong Anglosaxon verb are, apart from the connecting vowels, alike in the indicative, conjunctive, imperative and participle of the present, as well as in the infinitive.

The following table places the Anglosaxon simple conjugations beside the Old- and the Modern-English, by which the progressive blunting and partial abandonment of suffixes will appear. The other forms of the weak and of the strong conjugation in Anglosaxon and English are discussed in detail further on.
**Weak Conjugation.**

<table>
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<th>1b.</th>
<th>II.</th>
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<td>Present Indicative.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. 1. ner-j-e</td>
<td>hæl-e</td>
<td>luf-ig-e</td>
<td>hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ner-öst</td>
<td>hæl-öst</td>
<td>luf-ast</td>
<td>hel-est (es)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ner-ǭf</td>
<td>hæl-ǭf</td>
<td>luf-ǭf</td>
<td>hel-eth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. 1. ner-j-an</td>
<td>hæl-an (en)</td>
<td>luf-j-an (en)</td>
<td>hel-en or hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ner-j-an (en)</td>
<td>hæl-an (en)</td>
<td>luf-j-an (en)</td>
<td>hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ner-j-an (en)</td>
<td>hæl-an (en)</td>
<td>luf-j-an (en)</td>
<td>hel-e</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conjunctive.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>S. 1. ner-ǭ-de</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-de</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-de</td>
<td>hel-e-de (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ner-ǭ-dest</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dest</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dest</td>
<td>hel-e-dest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ner-ǭ-de</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-de</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-de</td>
<td>hel-e-de (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. 1. ner-ǭ-don</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-don (don)</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-don (don)</td>
<td>hel-e-don or hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ner-ǭ-don</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-don</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-don (don)</td>
<td>hel-e-de,</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. ner-ǭ-don</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-don</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-don (don)</td>
<td>hel-e-d</td>
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<tr>
<td>Preterite Indicative.</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. 1. ner-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hel-e-de (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. nēr-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hel-e-dest, or hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. nēr-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dë</td>
<td>hel-e-de (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. 1. nēr-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
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<td>hel-e-don</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. nēr-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>hel-e-de</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. nēr-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>hæl-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>luf-ǭ-dën (don)</td>
<td>hel-e-d</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conjunctive.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>S. 1. ner-ǭ (ner)</td>
<td>hæl</td>
<td>luf-a</td>
<td>hel-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. ner-j-an</td>
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<td>Imperative.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participle.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pres. ner-j-ende</td>
<td>hæl-ende</td>
<td>luf-ig-ende</td>
<td>hel-en-de, -inde, -ande, -end and -and, hel-ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pret. ner-ǭd</td>
<td>hæl-ǭd</td>
<td>luf-ǭd</td>
<td>hel-ǭ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infinitive.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ner-j-an</td>
<td>hæl-an</td>
<td>luf-j-an</td>
<td>hel-en, hel-e</td>
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<tr>
<td>salvare</td>
<td>sanare</td>
<td>amare</td>
<td>sanare</td>
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</table>
# Strong Conjugation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modern-English</th>
<th>Anglosaxon</th>
<th>Old-English</th>
<th>Modern-English</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Present Indicative.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-est</td>
<td>bind-ēst (is)</td>
<td>bind-est</td>
<td>bind-est</td>
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<tr>
<td>heal-s</td>
<td>bind-ēþ (id) contracted bint</td>
<td>bind-eth, also bint</td>
<td>bind-s</td>
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<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bind-að</td>
<td>bind-eth or bind-ē bind</td>
<td>en and bind-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind</td>
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<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind-e</td>
<td>bind</td>
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<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bind-ān (en)</td>
<td>bind-ēn or bind-e bind</td>
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<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bind-ān (en)</td>
<td>bind-ēn or bind-e bind</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Preterite Indicative.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>band</td>
<td>band (bond)</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-dst</td>
<td>bund-ē</td>
<td>bond-e</td>
<td>boun-dst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>band</td>
<td>band (bond)</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-un (on)</td>
<td>bond-en or bond</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-un (on)</td>
<td>bond-en or bond</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-un (on)</td>
<td>bond-en or bond</td>
<td>bound</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conjunctive.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-ē</td>
<td>bond-e</td>
<td>as in the indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-ē</td>
<td>bond-e</td>
<td>as in the indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-ēn (on)</td>
<td>bond-en (e)</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-ēn (on)</td>
<td>bond-en (e)</td>
<td>bound</td>
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<td>heal-e-d</td>
<td>bund-ēn (on)</td>
<td>bond-en (e)</td>
<td>bound</td>
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<td>heal</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Participles.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>heal-ing</td>
<td>bind-ende</td>
<td>bind-ende, inde, bind-ing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heal-ed</td>
<td>bund-en</td>
<td>bond-en, bond-e, bound</td>
<td>bond (bound)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Infinitive.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>heal</td>
<td>bindan</td>
<td>bind-en, e</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>ligare</td>
<td>—</td>
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From the foregoing table it appears that the **weak** English conjugation attaches itself to the first Anglosaxon one, especially in its second form.

1 Of the **connecting vowels** \(i (\mathit{e}, j, ig)\) has in general been lost in English, with the exception of \(e\) in the preterite, which sometimes, even in the preterite, took the place of the \(a\), which also interchanged with \(o\). We might certainly take the English \(e\) in *ed* to have been subsequently inserted; but the older full forms do not seem to allow this. The connecting vowel \(i (\mathit{e}, j, ig)\), even in Anglosaxon, was partly thrown out in verbs with a short syllable of the stem, upon which anomalous forms of the weak English conjugation, which will be discussed below, are founded. This connecting vowel nevertheless was not only long preserved in Old-English, but has also, as \(y\) and \(i\), penetrated into Anglosaxon verbs and tenses to which it did not belong. Thus we find \(y (i)\) preserved for \(j\) and \(ig\) in the indicative and conjunctive of the **present**; in the indicative in: *Ich hoppe, Anglosaxon hopjan, ðode* (Rob. of Gloucester I. 195.). *We lowieth; ge ne lowieth, Anglosaxon lufjan* (II. 503.). *Hii askyeth, Anglosaxon åscjan, ðode* (I. 200.); Therinne wonyeth a wight, Anglos. vanjan, ðode (Piers Ploghm. p. 18.). The world that wonyeth, Anglosaxon vanjan, ðode (p. 153.); in the conjunctive in: That thou hatie, Anglosaxon hatjan, ðode (Piers Ploghm. p. 120.). So leautë thee lowyë (p. 8.). Though no plough erye, Anglosaxon erjan, ðede (p. 275.). It is very common in the infinitive, which presents itself as *yen* (yen), ye and *yloven* (Dame Siriz p. 9.). *wonye* (Rob. of Gloucester I. 41.) *polye, Anglosaxon poljan* (ib. 205.). *ansuyrë* (194.). *makye, Anglosaxon macjan* (II. 404.). *sparye, Anglosaxon sparjan* (ib. 428.) &c. *honye, Anglosaxon huntjan* (I. 16.). *bapi, Anglosaxon badjan* (ib. 146.). *endy, Anglosaxon endjan* (187.). Where this *y, i* is transferred to the preterite and participle perfect, the connecting vowel properly appears twice, as *y (i)* and *e* at the same time: *Tulieden* (Piers Ploghm. p. 277.). My wit wanyed, Anglosaxon vanjan, ðode (p. 294.). *Ytilied, Part. Perf.* (p. 301.). In analogy to such verbs the Old-French verbs in *ier* were treated and other Anglosaxon and French ones assimilated to them. Comp. p. 161.

The connecting vowel *o* in the preterite has been here and there preserved in Old-English: *He ascode* (Rob. of Gloucester I. p. 127.); and also transferred to other verbs: *robbode* (ib. 149.); *destruioode* (3); *buryode, Anglosaxon byrigan, byrigde* (50.); *dyodon* (died) (Tundale p. 52.). Yet *o* is early lost

2. **The suffixes** of the Anglosaxon have been subjected to various changes and interchanges in English.

In the **present** the first person singular of the indicative, as well as the three persons singular of the conjunctive, often offer *e*, not as a sign of lengthening, but as a remnant of the *e* of inflection; compare axe, putte. walke, telle, sinke, kisse, gesse &c., although forms without *e* are already becoming familiar. An *e* is certainly frequently joined to the forms of the preterite of strong verbs, where it was absent in Anglosaxon,
as in halpe, stanke, dranke, felle &c., which may be derived from the e of the second person sing. indic. and the conjunctive forms of the sing. preter., since it must be granted that confusion early prevailed in this respect. The habituation to a final e, which for a long time was not silent, has caused it to be appended to other Old-English verbal suffixes, particularly to terminations in eth especially of the third person singular, yet also of the plural and of the old imperative in eth; compare above p. 325, and for the plural: Aftre arryve the men (MAUNDEV. p. 54.). Men gothe (p. 31.), for the imperative: And witethe wel (IB. p. 95.). Maketh pees (p. 234.). To the oldest English language this is foreign; yet up to the sixteenth century we find forms of this sort: My simithe (seems) (JACK JUGLER p. 11.). In them that dothe not me in leta (p. 17.). Dogges dothe barke (Skelton I. 241.). Even to the second person in st e is often appended: Thou byst (PERCY Rel. p. 6. II.); frequently with the rejection of the t: Thou saysse (TOWNEL. Myst. p. 4.).

The second person of the singular in the indicative still commonly appears in Old- and Modern-English in the form est: grant, grant-est; love, lov-est. With verbs having a mute e in the first person, this e, if we impute it to the stem, is thrown off; the e in est being rather to be regarded as the characteristic vowel of the suffix. The e of inflection is rarely thrown off after a vowel, as in dost alongside of doest, mayst alongside of mayest (properly a preterito-present) and in the contracted form hast (Anglosaxon hafast), as well as in the preterito-present canst (Anglosaxon canst). In Old-English we also find forms like seist (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 394.), saist, saiest, sayest beside each other. Modern-English gives to verbs in ey, ay the full termination: Which here thou viewest, beholdest, surveyst or seest (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 1, 1.). Even as thou sayest! And how my heart beats when thou stayest! (LONGFELLOW). The casting out of the e especially in poetry, both after a short and a long syllable of the stem and ending in a vowel, is however, not uncommon, where its rejection is signified by the mark of elision: bring'-st, stand'-st, lov'-st, giv'-st, com'-st, join'-st, point'-st, bear'-st, wear'-st, sail'-st, keep'-st, strik'-st, deny'-st. We also find may'-st and even can'-st. J. Wallis said: In terminationibus est, eth, ed vocalis e, fere ad placitum, per syncopen tollitur.

Old-English frequently offers the termination es, and alongside thereof is, ys, instead of est; it was peculiar to the Northern dialects. Is this a remnant of the rare Anglosaxon termination is in the strong conjugation, or a mere rejection of the t? Wife, come in, Why standes thou here? (CHEST. PLAYS). Thou drown-nes myne herte (MORTE ARTHUR in Halliwell v. drownne). Thou likes thi play (TRUE THOMAS in Halliwell v. lefe-long). Thou gettes (TOWNEL. Myst. p. 14.). Lufes thou me? (p. 37.). Heris thou (p. 9.). Knoweys thou? (p. 273.); and with the e thrown out: Thou says (TOWNEL. Myst. p. 271.). Thou gets hurr not swa (PERCY Rel. p. 94. I.). Thou speks (IB. II.). Scotch has also the form of the second person is: Gif that be trew that
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thow reportis (D. Lindsay 3, 4.). We often find thou united enclitically with the second person, so that it remains uncertain, whether, in the st which has arisen by assimilation, the t belongs to the inflection or to the thou: Herestow not? (Chaucer 3366.). Sestow (Piers Ploughm. p. 307.); as also in the preterite: herestow (Weber), haddestow (Piers Ploughm. p. 226.). The termination es, ys extends even beyond the seventeenth century: Thou sees (Skelton I. 144.). Thou spekys; Thynkys thou (263.). Thou has disarmed my soul (Congreve 1669=1729.). — As in the third person s took the place of th, so th often takes the place of this, s, especially thou doth, thou hath and the like, in Skelton I. 260. 262. — The not denoting the second person of the indicative by a suffix is very common in Old-English in preterito-presents (see below): thou will, wille, wil; thou shall, shalle, shal; thou can; thou mote &c., and extends into the sixteenth century. It has also been extended to other verbs: I trowe, thou knowe not me (Skelton I. 43.).

The third person of the singular in the indicative appears in the oldest time regular, with the suffix eth, in which also the vowel y, i appears: he grauneth, precheth, asketh, useth, assoileth, helpeth; benymyp, delyueryp (Rob. of Gloucester), techyth (Halliwell Hist. of Fr. M. p. 23.), clevyth (Halliwell v. seven), apprchoytheth (Skelton I. 5.), cexedyth, (307.), nedith, dwellith (Jack Jugler) &c., when eth and yth often stand alongside of each other, and the vowel is cast off after vowels, as in doth, goth, and in hath, hep, Anglosaxon häft. It has been preserved down to the latest times as eth, but has remained only in ecclesiastical language, poetry and solemn speech. Es, ys early took its place, particularly in Northern and Eastern dialects. In the Towneley Mysteries, which belong to the more Northern dialects, ys, is run parallel to es, as the Scottish, which always let the vowel i penetrate instead of e, used is. Chaucer, in the Reeves Tale, puts the forms fares, makes, findes, bringes, says, has into the mouths of the people of Cambridge. The suffix is is found late, as in Skelton, alongside of others.

In Modern-English the suffix es is added to the stem when it ends in a sibilant or a hissing sound: ss, z (zz), x, sh, ch; also after y, preceded by a consonant, es stands (with the transformation of the y into i). Further, es appears, if the verb in the first person ends in a mute e, where it then remains doubtful whether the e in es is to be ascribed to the old suffix, which however has been elsewhere preserved only for phonetic reasons: he bless-es, wish-es, mix-es, tri-es, rag-e-s, lov-e-s &c. Else after consonants and vowels only s now in general enters as a letter of inflection. After a single o es stands: goes, does; after oo s: She woos (Shakspeare Two G. of V.) and so often in L. Byron; but also es: The stock-dove . . cooes (Thomson). The verb ba in Shakspeare, now commonly baa, has baaes (Much Ado &k. 3, 3.).

The preterito-presents can, shal, may, will have assumed no es, s, which did not originally belong to them (see below). The
verb to will, cupere, with its regular inflection, is not the preterito-present verb, but answers to the Anglosaxon villan, -őde, -őđ. The preterito-present dare fluctuates (Anglosaxon 3. pers. dearr). The collateral form to dare, is inflected regularly and always has dāres; but the justified dare has also been preserved from the older form along with dāres: Old-English: No man dar entreṇn in to it (MAUNDEV p. 273. bis). She dare not . . shryn̄n be (THE PARDONER AND THE FREERE 1533. p. 47.). Here is none that dare well other truste (Skelton I. 38.); and so in Shakspeare: The duke dare No more stretch this finger of mine, than he Dare rack his own (MEAS. FOR MEAS.). I know, thou dar'ʃt But this thing dare not (TEMP.). Who dare tell her so? (MUCH ADO) &c.

More striking is the rejection of the suffix in need alongside of need, the former of which usually occurs intransitively, the latter transitively, although needs stands intransitively, like the Old-English needeth (CHAUCER 3599. 4159.). The rejection belongs, it seems, to a later period of Old-English. Compare: What neede all this be spoken? (Skelton I. 111.). What neede all this waste? (249.) often in Shakspeare and subsequent writers: What need a man care for a stock? (TWO GENTLEM. OF V.). Why, she has not writ to me. — What need she, when she has made you write to yourself? (IR.) What need the bridge much broader than the flood? (MUCH ADO &c.). One need only read (POPE). He need not go (W. Bst.). To fly from, need not be to hate mankind (L. Byron). With impersonal verbs the rejection is not rare in Old-English, thus especially in: me thynk, me thynke (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 271. 275. 277. Skelton I. 39. 255. &c.). It also occurs with other verbs, for instance: God take (MAUNDEV. p. 295.). He dred hym (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 270.); where, however, dred might be the contracted form for drat.

In Old-English in the third person, the vowel of the suffix often suffers syncope, if the verbal stem ends in t or d or even s, and then offers t instead of the: sit or sitt (sitteth), smitt (smitteth), list, lust (listeth, lusteth), rest (resteth), bint (bindeth, compare above the Anglosaxon bint), fint (findeth), stant, stont (standeth), bit (biddeth), rit (rideth), bitt (bitideth), holt (holdeth), rist (riseth). Of these forms list has passed over into the modern language: Go to bed when she list, rise when she list (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wives).

The three persons of the plural in the indicat. present appear in the oldest language as eth, rarely oth or uth: Ase and we vorleteth our yelderes (PATER NOST. in the Kentish dialect, according to Ellis). We bep yborne (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 111. [even in PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 44.]). We honoureyingNUS (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 112.). Alle that beoth of huerte trewe . . herkneð (PERCY Rel. p. 91. I. sec. XIV.). Ye . . that precebeth (CHAUCER Rom. of the R. p. 248. TYRWH.), pe yle of Man pat me (men) cleup (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 2.). pe stones stondeþ . . and oper liggeþ (ir. 7.). pre wondres per bep in Engolond (IR.). Lettred men it knoweth (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 23.). These
forms extend into and beyond the sixteenth century, particularly in the third person: Your clokes smellet musty (Skelton I. 250.). Her eyen . . . Causeth myne hert to lepe (ib. 82.). Such tungen . . . hath made great division (134.). Eth, instead of eth is here seldom met with. But afterwards we find es and is, ys along with eth, particularly in the North, where these forms quite coincide with the third person singular: We er richer men than he, and mor gode haves (Percy Rel. p. 93. II.). Ye . . . beggys (Skelton I. 20.). O happy be ye, beasts wild, That here your pasture takes (Percy Rel. p. 106. II. sec. XVI.). Now alle wymen that has your wytte (Ms. in Halliwell v. myculle); Scottish: Ye . . . cryis (S. Dav. Lindsay 3. p. 16.). Sum takis thair gait to Gabriell (ib. p. 7.). Prelatis, quhiliks hes of thame the cure (1ib.). The employment especially of the third person of the plural extends deep into the seventeenth century, particularly with Northern writers: Now rebels more preeails with words Than drawgoons does with guns and swords; and: Yea, those that were the greatest rogues, Follows them over hills and bogues (Cleland’s Poems 1697. p. 30.). These considerations may serve to explain many apparent singulars in Shakspeare, which editors have in part tacitly transformed into plurals, partly tried to explain artificially: All his successors, gone before him, hath done t (Merry Wiv. 1, 1.). Words to the heat of deeds to cold breath gices (Oth. 2, 1.) and others. S. Mommsen Romeo and Juliet p. 26. Delius Shakespear Lexicon p. XVII.

The plural suffix en, which belonged to the conjunctive, appears early in the indicative as well as the conjunctive. The confusion of en and eth is shewn, for instance, in: If ye love leelly, And lene the povere, Swich good . . . Goodliche parteth (Piers Ploughm. p. 25.); where the genuine conjunctive, the rejection of inflection, and at the same time the indicative form instead of the conjunctive stand; and thus we find en (from which e is cast out after vowels) countless times alongside of eth also in the indicative in all three persons: We seen it wel (Piers Ploughm. p. 18.). Ye men that ben murye (p. 13.). Whan ye wenden hennes (p. 25.). In glotonye . . . Go thei to bedde And risen with ribaudie (p. 3.). Alle that helpen the innocent And holde with the rightfulle, Withouten mede doth hem good, And the truthe helpeth &c. (p. 57.). On the other hand the rejection of the inflective termination gains great extension even in the fourteenth century. The termination en disappears earlier from the conjunctive and indicative than the termination eth from the latter. In Lancashire the termination en is preserved, although it is commonly mute, as it is still in use in Gloucestershire and other counties.

The preterite of the weak conjugation appeared in the forms of the indicative and conjunctive, which ended in e-de, e-dë (o-de), with the full termination edë (ode): folwede, fondede, juggede &c.; ascode, robbode (Rob. of Gloucester); but the final e was soon very frequently absent, even along with forms having it. e was kept longer in the forms which suffered syncope,
whose connecting vowel was thrown out, and of which we shall speak hereafter: saide, paide, laide, herde, made, hadde &c., along with which however said, paid, laid &c. also here and, there appear. In the fifteenth century the final e gradually disappears. In Modern-English it has been abandoned. Along with ed, id, yd also frequently shew themselves. The manteynid me in my pride (Townel. Myst. p. 7.). I storyd my cofers (Skelton I. 3.). I amended Douer (ib.). Ye armyd you (8.). I folowid him (Jack Jugl. p. 15.); particularly in Northern dialects, where et and it (the latter also in Scotch, as in the perfect participle) also occurs: Robin that dinet with me (Ms. in Halliwell s. v.); Scotch: Quhen he beleuit than yay brynt (S. Dav. Lindsay 3, p. 10.). In a few cases e before d (and t) in Modern-English, as in Old-English, suffered syncope. See below. In poetry, however, this e is frequently thrown out, but its place is then supplied, both after consonants and vowels, by the mark of elision: ask’d, wing’d, reach’d, seem’d, guess’d, cross’d. trimm’d, fann’d, flow’d, delay’d &c.

In the second person singular of the indicative of the weak conjugation Old-English joins edest to the verbal stem: folwedest, fondedest, ravishedest, assentedest &c., when those forms in which e before d suffers syncope preserve est: herdest, haddest, cridest, dweltest, broughest. The syncope of e before st is rare, as in hast and others. In Modern-English it has become the law, although the rejected e is still often supplied by a mark of elision, as was taught by grammarians in the seventeenth century. Hence would’st, should’st, told’st, did’st are often found alongside of wouldst &c. The transfer of this suffix of the weak conjugation to the strong one belongs to the later Old-English. The oldest language here regularly gives an e to the second person singular in the preterite, as well as to the three persons of the singular of the conjunctive: pou slowe, drowe; bede (Rob. of Gloucester I. 133.). Thow gete . . . and breke . . . and sete . . . and eggedest (Peers Ploughim. p. 386.). Thou crewe (Skelton I. 44.). Thou sauve (299.). Where gotte thou that mangey curre? (263.). E is rarely cast off: Thou saw me not (Percy Rel. p. 8. L. [compare ib. p. 94. I.]). In Modern-English poets still sometimes use the strong form without (e)st: Thou, who didst call the Furies from the abyss, And round Orestes bade them howl and hiss (L. Byron). In the fourteenth century we here and there meet the transfer of the suffix est to strong verbs: Ful wrongfully bygonest thow (Chaucer 12370.); which subsequently became universal. The e is sometimes preserved after vowels in Modern-English, as in knest, but commonly suffers syncope and has its place supplied by the mark of elision: began’st, saw’st. The suffix has thus penetrated into the conjunctive both of strong and weak verbs. We find it even in the Romaunt of the Rose: For certes, though thou haddest it sworne &c. (p. 257. ed. Tyrwh.). Yet even in Modern-English the conjunctive form without est has been preserved, against which modern grammarians however, express themselves. See Murray p. 201.
Conversely, even in Old-English we find an influence of the second person of the strong form upon the weak conjugation, which likewise often cast off the suffix est: Thou maide bothe nyght and day (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 20.). This did thou (ii.). Thou had (p. 270.). I thank the, Lord, . . . that wold vowch sayf &c. (p. 24.). Thou wisted nat right now (CHAUCER 1158. Tyrwh., where Wright, contrary to the metre, gives wost): Why nad (= ne had) thou put the capil in the lathe? (4086. Wright). Thou answered (ROM. OF THE ROSE p. 225. II.). The olde name . . that thou had had (SKELTON I. p. 242.). What thou sayd yester nyght (p. 42.). Thus the preterito-presents especially are often put without the suffix. This usage is also sometimes found in Modern-English: Detested as thou art and ought to be (POPE). There thou . . once formed thy Paradise (L. BYRON).

Verbs which appear to have suffered syncope in the preterite, like cast, burst, assume edst in the preterite, that is to say, they pass into the regular form. They are, however, often found used in the second person without this suffix, for which the avoiding of the missound is quoted as the reason.

The plural forms of the indicative and conjunctive of the preterite, which in Anglosaxon end in édon, ódun (on) and ëdén (also édon) and in the strong conjugation in an (on), mostly offer in Old-English the forms eden, rarely odon (in the contracted forms den, ten) and en, alongside whereof also edon and on, rarely suffixes with yn occur: woneden, filleden, weyeden, hateden, refuseden, consenteden, carrieden &c.; hadden, maden, criden, lайдen, lepten (from leap) &c.; — clomben, ronnen, gonnen, eten &c.; destruiodon, robboden, dyodon (= died, see HALLIWELL s. v.), clepton, clombon, eton &c.; dalyn (= dealt, see HALLIWELL s. v.). Yet we very early find the rejection of the n alongside of the fuller forms, as in ROB. OF GLOUCESTER: buryode, destruioide, worrede, were, nome, wonne, overcome &c. Forms with en quite cast off, in particular in the suffix eden, often stand promiscuously with fuller ones, as in Piers Ploughman and Chaucer &c. The complete casting off of the inflective termination en was soon the result. The transfer of it to the singular, often met with in Maundeville, is peculiar: As longe as the cros myghten laste (p. 10.). Whan on overcomen, he scholde he crowned (p. 11.). Compare p. 35. 63. 77. &c.

The Imperative is in Modern-English confined to one form, that of the singular in Old-English. The plural form in eth was long preserved: Armepe you faste (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 18.). And witethel wel (MAUNDEV. p. 42.). And undre stondethel &c. (p. 51.). Now herkneth (CHAUCER 3183.). Ayveseth you (3185.). Sitteth alle stille, and herkneth to me (PERCY Rel. p. 90. I.). The plural is also used in courteously addressing one person: Cometh ner . . my lady . . And ye, sir clerk, let (contracted from letteth) be your shamfastnesse, Ne studeith nat (CHAUCER 841.). Northern dialects have also s for th: Drawes on (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 8.). Herkyns alle (p. 49.). The form commonly referred to the singular is however, sometimes found for the plural before
the end of the fourteenth century: *Taketh* a lyittle bawme... and *touche* it to the fyur (Maundev. p. 51.). For the first person plural the conjunctive with we often stands, as now: *Make we* here 3 dwelling places (=faciamus) (Maundev. p. 114.). *Cometh* with me... And *holde* we us there And *crye we* (Piers Ploughm. p. 429.). *Make we* to him an help (Chaucer II. p. 335. Wright). Modern-English: Then *go* we near her (Shaks. Much. Ado &c.). *Reap we* not the ripened wheat, Till yonder hosts are flying (Bryant). *Watch we* in calumness, as they rise, The changes of that rapid dream (id.). The sole imperative form now in use not only takes the place of the plural, but is also employed as a a singular: *Be thou* familiar, but by no means vulgar (Shaks. Jul. C.). Yet *fear not* thou (Love's L. L.). Mischief... *Take thou* what course thou wilt (Jul. C.). The periphrasis with the verb *let* is also old: *Let us gang* (Towel. Myst. p. 9.), *Let us se* which of hem hath spoke most resonably (Chaucer II. p. 348.). Modern-English: *Let's stay* and hear the will (Shaks. Jul. C.). *Come, let me clutch thee* (Macb.).

Among the participial forms the gerund participle, at present with the suffix *ing*, which in Anglosaxon is a substantive and also sometimes an adjective, has proceeded from a remarkable interchange of the suffix *ende* with the former. The interchange is old; the Halsaxond of Orm and Layamon has *wal-dend* instead of *ende*, as in the Northern *ande*; as, for instance, in the Old-Kentish Credo: *lyf eerelestinde* and in the Pat. Nost. *cominde* thi riche; in Rob. of Gloucester *sykynde* (I. 323.). *Ofte wepynd* (328.); *berinnde* tapers (II. 534.); — *carvande, rydande* (Ms. in Halliwell v. *carvande*); *prickand, speakand* (Ellis Met. Rom. II. 18.); *styrande* (Percy Rel. p. 93. II.); *ryland* (p. 93. II.); *brenand, thrustand* (p. 94. I.); *stycand* (Piers Ploughm. Creed p. 489.); *lepande* (Rom. of the Rose p. 225. I.); *sittand* (p. 227. II.); *doand* (p. 230. II.); *criand* (p. 233. II.) &c., as in Scotch: *askand, speikand, hopeand, growand, seand, sittand, provokand, tryumphand &c.*, in D. Lindsay; alongside of which run *comende, fynende, contrariende &c.*, in Gower, *losende &c.* even in Skelton I. 407. As in Scotch the forms in *ing* likewise ran alongside (compare *chusing, twyching =* touching, pertaining, remaining, using &c. in Lindsay), so too in English. Could the frequent dialectical silence of *g* in *ing* have supported the interchange of *ind* and *ing*, and, on the other hand the Old-French form *ant* the use of *and*? Thus in Lindsay *triumphant* stands along with *triumphand &c*. Yet here the Old-norse participle in *andi* may have cooperated. In the fourteenth century *ing* was already widely diffused, in Modern-English hardly a trace of the old terminations has been preserved.

The suffix of the participle-perfect of the weak conjugation was and continued *ed* (except in forms suffering syncope, whereof below); alongside whereof we find earlier, and down to the six-
teenth century *id* (compare shewyd, clokyd, vexyd, annexyd in Skelton; refreshid, disposid &c. in Jack Jugler), as well as in the preterite, and likewise *it*, as in Skelton: Thy sword, *enharpit* of mortale drede (I. 11), as in Scotch. Even *ud* is found; *pat* Stonhengel is *ycepyd* (Rob. of Gloucester I. 7.). Of the participle of the strong conjugation in *en* we shall speak further on. Before both participles moreover, *y*, *t* (Anglosaxon *ge*), is frequently placed in Old-English; sometimes *ye*: ye bent, (Percy Rel. p. 3. I.). Instances are very frequent in Old-English; in Modern-English the particle shews itself in some archaic forms as *y*. Compare: Spring *yclad* in grassy die (L. Byron). And he that unawares had there *gyazed* (I.D.); see p. 158. In Anglosaxon it frequently served to compound with verbs in all their inflective forms; placed before some tenses it changed the preterite into a plusquamperfect, the present into a futurum exactum, and the like. Its fundamental meaning was that of completion and duration. In Old-English *y* also stands before other verbal forms.

The infinitive suffix *en*, Anglosaxon *an*, at first blunted down to *e*, has finally vanished in many verbs. In the fourteenth century forms with and without *n* commonly stand immediately beside each other: To *bakbite* and to *bosten* (Piers Ploughm. p. 33.). And all day to *drinken* At diverse tavernes, And there to *jangle* and *jape* (I.D.). Besides see p. 175.

3. The changes produced in the stem, in weak as well as in strong verbs, solely by the inflective terminations, are the following:

If a verb ends in an accented or unaccented *y* with a consonant immediately preceding, the vowel *y* is changed into *i* in Modern-English before suffixes originally syllabic, with the exception of *ing*: try, trying — *triest*, tries, tried; carry, carrying — *carriest*, carries, carried. If *e* is elided and the elision denoted by ', *y* remains: deny'st, deny'd.

If a simple or compound verb, whose last syllable is accented, ends in a single consonant preceded by a single short vowel, the final consonant is doubled before syllabic suffixes. Here the double consonant contained in the infinitive in the fundamental forms frequently reappears: whet — *whettest*, *whetted*, whetting; remit — *remittest*, remitted, remitting; — swim — *swimmest*, swimming; bid — biddest, bidding, bidden. — To these words other polysyllabic verbs with an unaccented final syllable ending in simple consonants have been assimilated, as: gossip, worship, kidnap, péril, counsel, trável, rival, équal, cárol and the like, also bias and verbs in *ic*, as traffic, frolic, with which *c* is doubled as *ck*: trafficest, trafficked, trafficking, in which phonetic reasons partly prevail. English grammarians are not agreed upon the extent of this usage, and the doubling of the consonant in polysyllabic verbs in *ip*, *op*, *it*, *et* is disapproved of.

The not doubling the consonant in the accented final syllable with the elision of the *e*, as in *stun'd*, began'st &c., appears a fault, so far as it may give occasion to confusion, since, for
instance, stil’d for still’d might also be taken for stiled (styled), and so in many other cases.

Anomalous Verbs of the weak Conjugation.

Among the weak verbs is a multitude of anomalous ones, which do not simply join the suffixes to the stem, but undergo partly syncope in the suffix and the stem, partly changes of the suffixed consonants, as well as of the consonants and vowels of the stem. They rest essentially upon contraction and assimilation, and lean for the most part on Anglosaxon forms.

In the citation of Old-English forms the fuller and therefore older are chiefly stated, when the shortening of the suffixes going on even in Old-English is not regarded. The verbal forms above cited are the infinitive, the same as the present, the preterite and the perfect participle. What is true of simple words is commonly true of the compounds also.

1) Some verbs regularly assume d instead of ed in the preterite and participle.

a) Here belong verbs in ay, whose y is then changed into i; they owe their origin to Anglosaxon verbs in eg, to which some Romance words are assimilated.

lay; laid; laid. Anglosaxon leggan; legde, lêde; leged, lêd. Old-English legen, leyen; leyde, leide; led. For ei, ai often appears in Old-English; even Anglosaxon sometimes has lêde.

The compound belay is cited with the forms belaid and belayed; Anglosaxon belecgan, circumdare.

say; said; said. Anglosaxon seggan, seggan; sægde, sæde; sägd, sæd. Old-English seggen, seyen, siggen, sayen, sayn; seide, saide; seid, said.

In Old-English the participle often passes into the strong form: Elde hath me biseye, with rejection of n in Piers Ploughm. p. 437.; as with other verbs in ay: Your quene hath me betrayne (Sir Tryamour 165.). The participle sain stands even in Shakspeare Love’s L. I. 3, 1.

pay; paid; paid. Old-French paier. Old-English paen, payen; paide; paid.

stay; staid; staid. The Old-French estayer and esteir, steir here mingle.

We also find the full form stayed: One scarce could say it moved or stayed (Longfellow). In Old-English the e suffers syncope also in other corresponding verbs, as pleyen, pleide &c., preyen, preide &c., as it generally throws out e after vowels: cryde, dreyde &c in Robert of Gloucester. Modern-English only exceptionally admits the syncope of the e, when it does not employ the mark of elision.

b) Similar is the syncope of e after the vowels e and o in the following two verbs, when the vowel is shortened.

flee; fled; fled. Anglosaxon fleohan, fleon; see fleáh, pl. flugon; flogen, fugere. Old-English even mixes the strong and the weak inflection: The Bretons fleede (Morte Arthrure in Halliwell s. v.).
In Piers Ploughman beside the infinitive fleed stands the preterite plur. fledden, p. 42. See the strong verb fly.

shoe; shod; shod. Anglosaxon scōjan, sceōjan; scōde; scōd. Old-English shoen; shode; shod (shode, shoed).

Old-English still has the long vowel, as the participle shows: Hosyd and schode he was (Ms. in Halliwell s. v.). Weet shoed they gone (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 283).

c) The casting out of the connecting vowel before d after a consonant concluding a syllable originally long, a standing usage in Anglosaxon with regard to the preterite, is now found only in one verb, ending in r, whose vowel is shortened in the derivative forms in Modern-English.

hear; heard; heard. Anglosaxon hēran, hyran; hérde, hyrde; hēre, hyrde. Old-English heren; herde; herd; even the y-form sometimes presents itself as u: hurde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

The Old-English acknowledges extensively, according to the Anglosaxon usage, this rejection, which may still occur with the substitution of a mark of elision for the e; compare reren; rerde, reod, Anglosaxon ræran; rærde; ræred; wenen; wend, Anglosaxon vēnan; vēnde; vēned, which was then transferred to other verbs, as: answerde, (Anglosaxon ansvārōde), gaderde, conquerde &c.

d) Of the Anglosaxon verbs which received ea instead of e before the suffix in d two have been preserved; the ea(l) changes itself into a long o(l).

tell; told; told. Anglosaxon tellan (= teljan); teald and teledede; teled. Old-English tellen; tolde; told, along with the regular forms telde, teld in R. Brunne, Wicliffe, Spenser; still, dialectically, telled.

sell; sold; sold. Anglosaxon sellan, syllan; sealde; seald. Old-English sellen, also sullen (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); solde; sold, dialectically also, sold.

e) The three verbs make, clothe and have have, besides the connecting vowel (in the first two: o) lost or assimilated consonants unlike the d: k (c), th, v (f).

make; made; made. Anglosaxon macjan; macōde; macōd. Old-English maken; makede, maide (TOWNEL. MYST.), maade (WICLIFFE), made; maked, maid, made, maad. The full forms makede, ymakede stand in Piers Ploughman, Chaucer and even later. The participle seems to have been the longest preserved.

clote; clōd; clad, along with which the regular forms cloathed, clothed are used. Anglosaxon clōdjan; clōđe; clōđōd. Old-English clothen, in Gower cloden (HALLIWELL s. v. clad); cladde; clad, frequently clad, especially in Northern dialects, compare Scotch claiith = cloth and cleed = to clothe, Old-norse klæda. Along therewith the fuller form has ever been in use: worthilicheyclotathed (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 28.).

I cannot shew an Old-English infinitive clathen, which may be presumed. The assimilation of th to d is otherwise not unfamiliar; compare Old-English: kithe; kidde; kid; Anglosaxon cyðan; cyðde; cyðed, cyd, declarare, narrare; for which in Old-English forms with u

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also occur, as kudde &c. Thus even now told for toothed in popular usage. The shortening of the a is easily to be explained.

*have; had; had.* Anglosaxon habban, hábban; hæde; hæfed. Old-English habben, haven, han; hevede, havede, hadde; haved, had.

This verb has undergone various contractions, a part whereof belongs to the Anglosaxon. It also passed in part from the first into the second weak conjugation.

Anglosaxon present ind. sing. 1. hæbbe. 2. hafast, háfst. 3. hafađ, hafðd. Plur. 1. 2. 3. habbad. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. hæbbe. Plur. 1. 2. 3 hábban (en).

Pret. ind. sing. 1. háfde 2. háfdest. 3. háféde. Plur. 1. 2. 3 háfdon. Conj. sing. 1 2. 3 háféða. Plur. 1. 2. 3 hafðen (on) Imp sing. hafa. Plur. habbad. Part. 1. hábbenede. 2. háfed, háfd. Inf. habban, hábben

Modern-English pres. ind. sing. 1. have 2. hast. 3. has Plur. 1. 2. 3. have. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. have. Plur. 1. 2. 3. have

Pret. ind. sing. 1. had 2. hadst 3. had. Plur. 1. 2. 3. had. Conj. sing. 1. 2. 3. had. Plur. 1. 2. 2 had.

Imperat. have. Partic. 1. having. 2. had. Inf. have.

*Old-English* offers in the present the indicative form habbe, habbest, habbeþ, plur. habbeþ, hæþ &c., also han in all persons, and alongside thereof have, havest, haveth. Plur haveth; in the conj. sing habbe, have. Plur. habben, han. In the imperfect hevede, hevedest &c, heveden are old alongside of havede &c. and hadde, haddest &c., hadden. To these forms the others correspond. *H* is also sometimes cast off in Old-English: avened (HAVELOK 164). Anglosaxon also possessed a conjugation contracted with the negation ne: nabbe, nafast &c., still found in Old-English: nevede (DAME SIRIZ p. 2.). In Modern-English the stem of have is sometimes partially or wholly thrown out in rapid speech after vowels. as well as in poetry, as in I've, she'd, thou'st, thou'dst and the like. But nothing is more familiar than the provincial usage of *a* for have. Compare: She might a been a grandam ere she died (SHAKESPEARE Love's L. L. 5, 2.). The conjunctive forms without *est* in the second person are already disapproved by modern grammarians; even in the older language the conjunctive is often not distinguished from the indicative: If thou haddest (SKELETON I. 145).

In Modern-English the compound beháere is regular, wherein a is lengthened, preterite and participle heháed, Anglosaxon behabban, tenere, cingere.

2. A number of verbs, whose stem ends in a single *d*, wholly cast off the suffix in the preterite and perfect participle. The *d* is always preceded either by a long vowel: ée, éa, é, or by a short one: é, éa, é. They are mostly such as cast out a connecting vowel in the preterite in Anglosaxon after a syllable originally long or lengthened by position (with the change of *dj* into *dd*). In English the long vowel become short in the preterite and participle.

With a *long* vowel:

*bléd, blèd, blèd.* Anglosaxon blédan; blédde; bléded. Old-English bleden; bledde; bled.

*břéd, brěd, brèd.* Anglosaxon břédan; břédde; břéded. Old-English bředen; bředde; břed.
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feed; fed; féd. Anglosaxon fèdan; fèdde; fèded. Old-English feden; fèdde; fèd.
speed; spèd; spèd. Anglosaxon spèdan; spèdde: spèded. Old-English speden; spedde; sped.
lead; led; lèd. Anglosaxon lædan; lædde; læded. Old-English leden; leddde, ladde; led, lad.
read; réad; rèad. Anglosaxon rèdan; rèdde; rèded, legere, even in Anglosaxon confounded with the strong verb rædan, suadere, dare consilium. Old-English reden; redde, radde; red, rad; Robert of Gloucester has the forms radde, rad in the meaning of consilium dare.
hide; hid; hid. Anglosaxon hýdan; hýdde; hýded. Old-English hiden, huden; hidde, hudde; hid, hud, also hedde, see Halliwell s. v.

This verb has also preserved a strong participle hidden, by false analogy to ride, chide &c., so that it might be reckoned strong.

be-tide; be-tid; be-tid. Anglosaxon tidjan; tìdede (†); tìded, contingere. Old-English tiden; tidde; tid; tid, contingere. The compound was likewise in use in Old-English. The Modern-English regular verb tide &c. (even in Shakespear) is derived from the English substantive tide (Anglosaxon tìd, tempus), therefore in fact the same word, since tìdjan comes from tìd. The form be-tided is also cited as the preterite of betide.

0'd-English preserved more words of this sort with a (Modern-English) long vowel, as aweden, Anglosaxon avèdan; avèdde; avèded, insanire, compare avedde (Rob. of Gloucester). awede (Halliwell s. v.); greden, Anglosaxon grædan; grædde; græded (†), whence gredde, gradde; gred, grad and even the strong form grædden (Anglosaxon græden?) was in use. Also heden, Anglosaxon hèdan; hèdde; hèded, custodire, now heeded, seems to have been often confounded by moderns with hide; the participle hed is still provincial. The participle en-shield is in Shakespear enshiled, with a long vowel, instead of enshielded, Anglosaxon scildan, scilde; scilded

With a short vowel:

shed; shed; shed. Anglosaxon only as a strong verb sceædan; scöd, sceöd; sceaden, effundere. In Old-English shedde is found as the preterite in Robert of Gloucester, schedez = pours in Sir Gawayne. It mingles in English with the Anglosaxon scádan; secádan; sceöd; sceaden, separare, dividere, whence still in the North of England shed, separare, dividere. Old-English sheden; shad; shad.

shred; shred; shred. Anglosaxon sceæðjan; sceæðode; sceædöd, praesecare. I find the Old-English participle shred in the Morte Arthure in Halliwell s. v. All participles of this class often have an inorganic e at the end.

spread; spread; spread. Anglosaxon spærdan; spædde; spæded; Old-English spreden; spredde, sprade; spred, spraud; spredd, sprradd, — ysp rode (Skelton I. 146. in Rhyme).

stead, be-stead (obsolete); bestead; bestead. Anglosaxon has only the paronymous substantive stede, locus, statio; the Oldnorse a verb stedja, statuere, firmare. In Old-English we find
sted, stad and often bested, bestad, bestadde = situated, circumstance, by later writers also = distressed, as a participle. Compare the High Dutch bestelt. The infinitive sted = to stop stands in the Towneley Mysteries p. 6.

rid; rid; rid. Anglosaxon hreddan; hredde; hreded, eripere, rapere. Compare Swedish rädda. The older language has read = separate, clear, as in Old-Scotch; English = rid down to the sixteenth century: It did not red my life (Gaulfrido and Barnardo 1570), and so still dialectically, for instance, in Lancashire.

Modern-English also offers wed for wedded: In Syracusa was I born; and wed Unto a woman (Shaks. Com. of Err 1, 1.) In Skelton stands the participle wedd l. 150 alongside of wedded l. 261. — Another remnant appears to be adread, which could not be a compound of the substantive dread. The Anglosaxon strong verb andreadan, on-draedan; -dræd; -dæden is in the Old-English: dreden; dredde, dradde; dred, dread; the participle adred, adrad frequently occurs in Old-Scotch and English. The verb has already passed into the weak form from dreden; dradde; dread in Robert of Gloucester.

The Anglosaxon, after the final hard consonants p, t, x (hs), sometimes also s, in the verbal stem, changed the suffix de into te, in some also ed into t. Of two like consonants in the verbal stem, as before the suffix de one, was thrown out; but instead of ct, ht arose, before which also a change of vowel appeared. English early extended further the change of d into t, so that now also after f (ve) of the stem, after s generally (in Old-English also after sh), as well as after m, n, l, r, the t instead of d appeared. Many of the verbs belonging here have also the regular inflection, which is stated in the notes. A number of them has passed from the strong into the weak form, of which some have been cited under the last class. We have here to distinguish the final sound in English.

a) Verbs with final labial letters, liquids and s with a long vowel in English, commonly also in the Anglosaxon stem. The vowel is shortened in the preterite and participle.

keep; kept; kept. Anglosaxon cépan, cýpan; cêpte; cêped. Old-English kepen; kepte; kept.

weep; wept; wept. Anglosaxon vêpan; vóp; vópen, strong form. Old-English wepen; wepte. Yet strong forms are also found: sing. wep, plur. wepe (Rob. of Gloucester), particularly in the participle biwope, biwopiu, biwopen; see Halliwell s. v. wep in the preterite is still dialectical.

sleep; slept; slept. Anglosaxon slepán, sľápan; slép; slepen, slâpen, strong form. Old-English slepen; sing. slep, plur. slepe, aslopen still in Middleton I. 257. But also alongside thereof the weak form slepte, with slept even in Rob. of Gloucester, as well as with sleep in Piers Ploughman.

creepl; crept; crept. Anglosaxon creópan; sing. creáp, plur. crupon; cropen strong form. Old-English crepen; sing. crope, plur. cropen; cropen, alongside of which the weak form crepte is in use.
sweep; swept; swept, leans upon the Anglosaxon strong verb svāpane; sveop; svapen, verryere, beside which another: svipan; sing. svāp, plur. svipon; svipen, circumagi, and a weak one: svipjan; svipode; svipōde, flagellare, stand.

The form sweep seems unknown to Old-English; it has the verb swappen; swapte, also swapped; alongside of swyppen = to move rapidly. Modern-English still possesses the verbs swap, sloop with a different shade of meaning.

leap; leapt; leapt. Anglosaxon hleāpan; hleop; hleapen a strong verb. Old-English fepen; leap, lope; lopen, along with the weak form lepte; leapt.

Instead of leapt we also write leápt; Smart claims leaped, as in Shakspere, but with a short vowel. The infinitive lope, loup and the participle loppen also occur dialectically alongside of the strong preterite.

leave; left; left. Anglosaxon lēfan, lŷfan; lēfde; lēfed, permittere. Old-English leven; lefte, lafte; left, laft; also in the same sense as a compound beleven, blyeleven; belefte, belafte; belafat, also beleved.

The compound believe, from the same stem, Anglosaxon gelēfan, credere, follows the general rule in English and has believed; the Old-English uses the simple leven; leved with the meaning credere.

reave, be-reave; refst; refst. Anglosaxon reafjan, be-reafjan; reāfōde; reāfōd. Old-English reven; refte, raftte; refst, raft, also be-reved.

Webster writes bereaved and bereft. The simple form reave is still in use, especially in the form refst: The only living thing he could not hate Was refst at once (L. Brynos). Since Time has refst whate'er my soul enjoy'd (m.) and often. In this verb a interchange of f with h (gh) took place: His bemis bryyte Weren me biraustī throw the cloudy mone (LYDGATE in Halliwell s. v.); as still in Shakspere: This staff of honour raught (2 Henry VI 2, 3).

cleave; cleft; cleft. Anglosaxon cleōfan; sin. cleaf, plur. clu-fon; cloven. Old-English cloven; sing. cleef, clef, clafe, plur. cloven; cloven. The verb still has the strong forms clove; cloven. The form clave is obsolete.

The verb belongs to the sixth class of strong verbs; Shakspere has the strong and the weak forms beside each other. The form cloven is still frequently found, not only as an adjective, as Webster asserts: How many a time have I cloven. . The wave all roughen'd (L. Brynos). Webster also cites the participial form cleaved; another form clofyd stands in Halliwell.

lose; lost; lost. Anglosaxon leōsan; sing. leás, plur. luron; loren. Old-English lesen; sing. (lees?) 2. pers. lore, plur. loren (Rob. of Gloucester); loren, lorn, lore and lost.

In Modern-English the participle lorn in lasslorn, forsaken by one's beloved, and in forlorn, from the Anglosaxon forlōsan, has been preserved. The infinitive lese is still found in Jack Jugler p. 9. and a preterite sing. leste, plur. lestn, in the fifteenth century in a manuscript in Halliwell s. v. lestn.

drēam; drēamt; drēamt. Danish drömme, Lowdutch drömen,
compare Anglosaxon drêman; drênde; drêmed, jubilare. Old-English dremen; dremte; ydremed (PIERS PLOUGHM.); dremels.

Alongside of drêamt the regular form drêamed is in use, but is, according to Smart, less common. The spelling dremt is still in use in the seventeenth century.

mêan; mêant; mêant. Anglosaxon mænan; mænde; mæned. Old-English still in the double meaning of to mean and to complain: menen; mente and mened (PIERS PLOUGHM.).

lêan; lêant; lêant. Anglosaxon hlinjan; hlinôde; hlinôd? or perhaps hlænan; hlænde; hlæned, for which the meaning to lâre is presumed. Old-English lenen, of which I have found no further form in Old-English, which would nevertheless mix with others. May the Old-English lenden = to tarry be the same word?

The regular form leant for preterite and participle is old; the shortened form seems to be getting gradually out of use. According to Webster it belongs more to conversation than to writing. Smart cites leant as frequently used in the preterite.

feel: felt; felt. Anglosaxon felan; fêde; fêled. Old-English felen; felde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER, WEBER), plur. feliden (WICLiffe), also felte; yuelde (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

kneel; knelt; knelt. Compare Anglosaxon cneóvjan, genuflectere, Danish knæle; the Old-French gonoiller, genoler might also connect the two forms. Old-English knelen; kneeled and knelte (PERCY Rel. p. 45. I. and II.).

kneel has also the regular form kneled, which, according to Webster is the better, according to Smart is obsolescent. Shakspeare uses kneeled.

deal; deált; déalt. Anglosaxon delan; dælde; dæled. Old-English delen; delde, delede, delt, dalte; deled (the forms with d especially in Rob. of Gloucester).

deal has also the regular form dealed particularly appropriated to the participle. Smart does not cite it at all.

The oldér language had other verbs of this sort with a vowel originally long, as reap; reapt (compare: Who has not all his corn reapt BLOGNT’s Glossographie ed. 1681. p. 393.), from the Anglosaxon ripan, sing. rip, plur. ripon, ripen; whereof the dialects preserve strong forms: rip (Kent); rep (Essex), rop (several dialects); heap; heapt, Anglosaxon heapjan; heåpôde! heåpôd; steep; steept, compare the Old-norse steypa, fundere, obruer, which seem to be distinguished only graphically, without shortening of the vowel, from reaped &c., as we even find look, lookt, Anglosaxon lóçjan, written. On the other hand the Old-English demen; dempte; dempt belonged here. Scottish deme; demit, dempt, Anglosaxon dëman; dëme; dëmed, judicare.

b) Verbs with a short vowel of the stem and a final p, s, x, n, l, mostly with an original and commonly a preserved double consonant in the stem, formerly frequently changed d into t; in modern times few have remained in general use or at least are acknowledged by lexicographers. Some grammarians reject all forms of this sort, which they only permit in every day speaking and writing. All such verbs also have the regular
form in _ed_. Verbs in _ss_, _ll_ lose one of the two consonants before _t_.

Among the verbs in _p_ we hardly find another cited than _dip, dipt_, Anglosaxon _dyppan_; dypte; dypt. Poets and prosewriters exhibit in abundance verbal forms like _dropt, stept, stopt, whipt, tript_ &c.

Of those in _ss_ are _blesse, blest_, Anglosaxan _blessian_; _blassode, blessod_; _pass, past_, Old-French _passer_; _toss, tost_ (whether related to the Anglosaxon _tæsan_, _vellere_?); yet _prest, crost, exprest, deprest, possest_ &c. are frequent enough. Verbs ending in _ras_ also have similar forms: _curst, nurst_ in Goldsmith, Byron and others.

Of verbs in _x mix, mixt_, Anglosaxon _miscan_, _miscte, misced_ are stated to be still current. We also find _fixt, vext_ and others.

Among those in _n_ we still find _pen, pent_, compare the Anglosaxon _ouppinnjan_, _-ode, -od_; _learn, learnt_, Anglosaxon _loernjan, -ode, -od_, _Old-England_ _lernen_, and _burn, burnt_, Anglosaxon _brennan, bernan; -de; ed_, alongside of _beornan_, _byrnan_; sing. _bearn_ (bran), plur. _burnon_ (brunnon); _borneb_ (bronen), _Old-English_ _bernen, brennen_; _barnde, brande, brende; barnd, brenned, breet, burned._

Some verbs in _ll_ are likewise still thus in use: _dwell, dwelt_, Anglosaxon _dveljan, dwellan_; _dwelede, dvealde_; _dveled, dveal_; _errare_, but the _Old-norse_ _dvelja_, _moræri_. _smell, smelt_, compare _Lowdutch_ _smolen, smellen_. _spill, spilt_, Anglosaxon _spillan; spilde; spilled; spell, spelt_, Anglosaxon _spelljan, -ode, -ød_.

Verbs with a final _p_ and _s_ are accordingly found most frequently in _Modern-English_; they attach themselves primarily to Anglosaxon forms. Of the use of _t_ after _s_ the Anglosaxon _cyssan_; _cyse; cyssed_, _Old-English_ _kissen_; _kessen_; _kiste, kuste_; _kist &c._ is an instance. The appending of _t_ to _n_ and particularly _l_ is also familiar "to _Old-English_. Yet _de, ed_ and _te, t_ often interchange with one another; compare: _dualled and duelte_ (MAUNDEV. p. 44.), _clept and clept_ (MAUNDEV. p. 73.), _tilde and tilte_ (PIERS PLOUGH); as also with a final _labial_; _worschiped and worschipite_ (p 66.) — Derivative forms like _ravisht, etablisht, hust_, for instance in _Chaucer_, have not been preserved in _Modern-English_. After _r_ the old language has likewise sometimes _l_, for instance in the verb _garen, garren_; _garte, facere, Anglo-saxon_ _girjan, parar_, _Old-norse_ _göra_, _facere._

c) Among the verbs whose stem in Anglosaxon ended in _c_ (also _g_), which become _h_ before _t_, a multitude has been preserved in _English_, now ending in _k, g_, a dental _ch_ and a guttural softened into _y_. Since in Anglosaxon they changed their stem vowel in the preterite and participle into _ea_ or _o_, they have produced the transmutation of it into _ou, au_ in _English_, which appear before the _gh_ which has arisen from _h_, _Old-English_ also _ʒ_ (_broȝte, wroȝte, roȝte_), _caȝte_. In _Old-English_ _c_ in the infinitive has been mostly changed into _ch_.

_think; thought; thought_. Anglosaxon _pencæn_, _pecan_; _peabte, pohte_; _peat, poht_ with _n_ cast out at the same time. Old-Enlish _penchen, bipenchon_ (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), _thynken; thoghte,
thoughte; thought, thought. Its forms have partly coincided with those of the following verb.

methinks; methought. Anglosaxon þyncēan, þyncan; me þyncēd (þyncēd); me þūhte (þūhte); þūht (þūht). Old-English me thin-keth; me thoughte.

bring; brought; brought. Anglosaxon bringan; brohte; broht here also n has been thrown out. Old-English bringen, broghte, broughte; broght, brought.

work; wrought; wrought. Anglosaxon vyrcan, vyrcēan; vorhte; gevorht, but also metathetically vrohte; gevroht. Old-English werken, werchen; wroghte, wroghte; wroght, wroght.

This verb has also in Modern-English the regular English form of preterite and participle worked.

seek; sought; sought. Anglosaxon sēcean, sēcan, sœcan; söhte; söht. Old-English seken, sechen; soughte; sought,

beseech, is a compound of seek; besought; besought. Anglosaxon bisēcan, adire, but has assumed in the infinitive and present the second of the Old-English forms cited; Old-English biseken, bisechen; besechen; bisoughte; bisought.

For beseech the form besek in Shakespere 2 Henry VI. 2, 4. It is still in use in the North of England We also find the regular Modern-English preterite beseeched (Shaks. Ham. 3, 1). Even the Anglosaxon knows the participle geonđseced alongside of -sōht.

reach; raught; raught. Anglosaxon ræcan; ræhte; ræht, exent- dere, porrigere and recjan, reccan; reahte, rehte; reaht, reht, extendere, numerare, interchanged with one another even in Anglosaxon. Old-English rechen; raughte; raught and yreight.

This verb has also passed into the regular form of the preterite and participle reached; in Shakespere raught and reached stand alongside of each other, the former whereof is now obsolete We must moreover distinguish the verb from the Old-English reccen;

roghte, roughte; rought, Anglosaxon récan; rōhte; röht, curare, which lives on as reck in Modern-English.

teach; taught; taught. Anglosaxon tæcan; tæhte; tæht. Old-English techen; taughte, taghte (PREIS PLOUGHIM.); taught.
catch; caught; caught. From the Old-norse kākā = attractare? Old-English cacchen; caughte; caught; also with ou: becought (BEVES OF HAMTOUN p. 37.).

The preterite and participle also have the form caught, which is in use even in the sixteenth century: Fansy hath cachyd in a flye net This noble man (SKELETON I. 238.). None are so surely caught, when they are catchd (SHAKSP. Love’s L. L. 4, 2). The verb must be of Germanic origin; in Rob. of Gloucester stands the form cayte.

buy; bought; bought. Anglosaxon bycyan; bohte; boht. Old-English biggen, buggen, byen; boughte; bought.

A compound of buy is aby, abie, occurring in Spenser and Shakespere, properly, to pay, which is erroneously made to spring from abide. It is familiar to Old-English: abiggen, abuggen, abien; aboughte; abought, Anglosaxon abycgan, redimere.

Old-English has a number of similarly conjugated verbs, single forms whereof have, been preserved in Modern-English. Here belong:
streccen; straughe; straught, also stright, to stretch; Old-Scotch streche, streik; straucht; straucht, Anglo-Saxon streccan; strehte; streht, perhaps also strealhe; streath. Therewith is found outstraught = stretched out. The verb is mixed with the Latin form; hence perhaps forstraught and bestraught = mad, distracted, whence in the same meaning bestraught in Shakespear, as well as distraught, which is still met with among moderns. Compare also: I am straught = distracted; je suis enragé (Palsgrave 1530). The Modern-English stretch follows the general rule.

smecchen; smaughte (Piers Ploughman p. 98.). Modern-English smack; Anglo-Saxon smacjan, -őde, -őd, or smeccan, smecte, smecc, is falsely assimilated to similar forms

aweccen; awahte (Halliwell s. v.), aweighte (Kyn Alisaunder 5858), to wake. Anglo-Saxon āveccan; āveahete, āvehte; āveahtē, āvehtē. The Modern-English weak awaked belongs to an other Anglo-Saxon weak form: āvejan, -őde, -őd.

fecer, only in Western dialects faught, else Old-English fette; fet, to fetch, Anglo-Saxon fecan; fehte; feht? feahete; feah? Shakespeare still has the participle fett. The casting out of the c(h) occurring here is in use in other cases also in Old-English. A primitive c and g namely are frequently cast out after n before t; hence blench, blente; blent, Modern-English blench; Middle-Highdutch blenen, to move hither and thither; drenchen, drente, dreynte; drent, dreynt, Modern-English drench, Anglo-Saxon drencan; drencte; drenced; quenchen; quente, queinte; queinte, Modern-English quench, Anglo-Saxon cvencan; cvente; cvenced, cveningere. — mengen; mente, meinte; ment, meint, compare Modern-English mingle, Anglo-Saxon mengan; mengde; menged, still in use in the North of England; sprengen, besprengen; sprente, spreinte (also sprengde); spreint, spreinte, compare Modern-English sprinkle, Anglo-Saxon sprengan, sprencan; sprengde, spreunte; sprenged, sprencend. This verb also occurs with the meaning leap, mixed with the strong verb springan. Compare Halliwell v. sprent.

lacchen, lakken; laughte, laught, to catch, seize, Modern-English lack, which is often mistaken. Anglo-Saxon leccan, lāccan; lehte, lähte; leht, lāhite, also laecan; lähte; lāht, arripere, lādere, related to lack = to want.

smauch, snacken (compare Halliwell v. snack); smaughte; snaught compare Halliwell v. snaught), Modern-English snatch, used in the fifteenth century, and still as snatch in the North of England, related to the Highdutch schnappen, and to the Anglo-Saxon neb with the passage of the labial into the guttur. Compare Old-norse snæk = snap, parcior pastio, belonging to snapa, capture escam; and the Lowdutch snacken and snabbel, to prate.

pichchen, piken; pizte, pighte; yppist (Rob. of Gloucester), to throw, Modern-English pitch, compare Anglo-Saxon pyccan; pycte; pyced, pungere. Pight still belongs to Modern-English, but is obsolete; Shakspeare has pight along with piched.

siken, sighte, Modern-English sigh and sike still dialectically, for example, in Derbyshire. Anglo-Saxon sincan; sing, sæc, plur. sicon; sican a strong verb; sicettan occurs as a weak verb in Anglo-Saxon.

shricchen, shriken; shrighte Modern-English shriek, Old-norse shri stiff, minuirie of birds, compare Anglo-Saxon scric, turdus. The preterite shright was still in use in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (Turberville's Ovid 1567, f. 60). The verb shrike is quoted by Palsgrave.
d) Verbal stems ending in d, preceded by an n, l, rarely r, have in English often cast off the d of the stem, and have assumed t as an inflective letter in the preterite and participle; even in Anglosaxon verbs in nd, ld, rd lost the d of the stem in the preterite before the suffix de. The change of de into te and the transfer of t to the participle instead of ed is very old in English, yet the forms in de, ed (d) frequently interchange with those in te, t; in the latter case e is often thrown off in the preterite, as it is added in the participle. Rob. of Gloucester frequently has forms like senden; sende; send &c. We chiefly give the Old-English with t. Modern-English, along with the preserved t, has frequently the regular inflective forms in ed.

lend; lent; lent. Anglosaxon lendan; lænde; læned. Old-English lenen; lente (lened); lent.

In this verb, which does not belong to those originally ending in nd, d has, from a false analogy, been transferred to the stem. According to Halliwell len = to lend is still in use.

rend: rent; rent. Anglosaxon hrendan; hrende; hrended, also rendan &c. Old-English renden; rente; rent.
bend; bent; bent. Anglosaxon bendan; bende; bended. Old-English benden; bente (bende); bent.

The preterite and participle also have the form bended, not cited by Smart, Shakspeare has bent alongside of bended; Maundeville uses bended for bound p 276. (from the Anglosaxon bindan); in Old-Scotch bend stands for the Old-French bondir

wend, properly to turn; went; — Anglosaxon vendar; vende; vended. Old-English wenden; wende, wente, wended, went.

The preterite went is used in Modern-English for the defective preterite from to go Old-English also yede; see Irregular verbs. The verb, now obsolete, but still occurring in poetry, as wended.

send; sent; sent. Anglosaxon sendan; sende; sended. Old-English spenden; vente; sent.
spend; spent; spent. Anglosaxon spendan; spende; spended.
Old-English spenden; spente; spent.
shend; shent; shent. Anglosaxon scendan; scende; scended.
Old-English shenden; shente; shent.

Of other verbs in nd inflective forms of this sort hardly occur any more. The verb blend, Anglosaxon blenden; blende; blended, Old-English blende; blente; blent, often has the participle blent, as in Shakspeare. The verb bend with the preterite and participle bent, to take, seize, in Spenser, Shakspeare and Fairfax, seems to be a false formation. The Anglosaxon fundamental form is henton; hente; hented, Old-English heten; hente; hent, although an Old-norse form henda certainly stands alongside of it.

The following verbs in ld and rd also have all the common inflection ed.

build; built; built, compare the Old-Highdutch biladen, Old-English beelden, belden, bilden; bilt &c.; bilt also to protect.

Further beld, bield in modern dialects still means, to shelter, as it were, to take under cover.

builted is rarely met with.
gild; gilt; gilt. Anglosaxon gyldan; gylded, gylded, deaurare.
Old-English gelden; gitel; gilt.

According to Smart gylded is the more usual form. Palsgrave cites
gylded for gilt; gilted stands also in Baruch VI. 7. forgulten (Har-
rowing of Hell p. 25.) is the strong participle from the Anglosaxon
gyldan retribuere (Anglosaxon golden).

geld; gelt; gelt. Old-norse gilda. Danish gilde, castrare. Old-
English gelden; gelte; gelt.
gird; girt; girt. Anglosaxon ghrydan; gyrd; gyrded. Old-
English girden; girte; girt, ygurd (Rob. of Gloucester).

The meaning to strike (ghryd of in the Towneley Myst.), in Shak-
speare to good, which belongs to this word (in Spenser metatheti-
cally gride, gryde) especially in Old-English, seems to point to an-
other stem; compare the Anglosaxon gyrd-vite, virgae poena.

e) A considerable number of verbs with a final t in the stem have
in Modern-English thrown off all inflection in the preterite and
participle, so that now the infinitive, present, preterite and per-
fect participle are alike. They rest upon the Anglosaxon
forms, in which the suffix of the preterit de after a t of the stem
was likewise changed into te, when two t stood beside each
other, the one of which, however, often was cast out with a
preceding third consonant; compare the Anglosaxon grētān,
gretē; cnyytan, cnytē; hentan, hente; blæstan, blæste. The
participial form took ed, but was early assimilated, even in Old-
English, to the preterite, with regard to t instead of d, to which
the Anglosaxon gave support by contractions, as sett instead of
seted &c. The verbs belonging here mostly have a short
vowel in the stem; the few with a long vowel usually shorten
it in the preterite and participle. Old-English distinguishes
the inflective forms of the preterite and of the participle by te
and t. In Modern-English many have the suffixes ed, ed along-
side of the verbal form, which has suffered apocope; others have
wholly abandoned the latter. But some strong and Romance
verbs have come over to these.

slit; Anglosaxon strong verb slitan; sing. slât, plur. sliton;
sliten, findere; beside it is found a weak verbal form: slætan;
slette; sletter, scindere, Old-English slytte, infinitive in Chau-
cer 11572.; we often meet the strong participle slitten.

The inflective form slitted occurs, but is little used.

spit; Anglosaxon spittan; spitte; spitted. Old-English spitten;
spitte; spit, speat.

This verb was apparently early treated as a strong verb: preterite
spat, participle spitten. Both are still in use, but seldom; Wycliffe
has bespat. Perhaps a mixture with spātan; spāte; späted lies at
the bottom.

split; Dānisch splitte, Hollandish slyten. In Old-English
splitten has not crossed me; splatt stands as an infinitive (Sir
Eglamour of Artois 490.).

Splitted rarely occurs; Smart does not cite the form at all.

knit; Anglosaxon cnyttan; cnytte; cnyted (or cnytan, com-
pare Old-norse knýta, Danish knytte). Old-English knitted; knit; knit, knit — knyt (SKELTON I. 144.).

knitted is likewise in use in the preterite and participle.

quit; Old-French quieter, cuitier. Old-English quiten, quyten; quitte; quit.

The form quitted is now the more common. Formerly acquit was used without a suffix (SHAKSPEARE Merry Wiv. I, 3. Rich III. 5, 4). In Shakspeare there is also requit: Which hath requit it (Temp. 3, 3), which without reason is assigned, not to the verb require, but to requit, both in point of fact going back to the same Old-English form.

hit. Old-norse hitta. Danish hitte. Old-English hitten; hitte; hit.

let. Anglosaxon a strong verb: lætan; læót, læt; læten. Old-norse lata. In Old-English it still follows the strong conjugation: laten, leten; sing. leet, plur. leten (PIERS PLOUGHM.); leten, letten. Yet the weak form of the preterite is also found lette.

In the weak Old-English form this verb partly coincides with the quite different let, Anglosaxon letjan, lettan, tardare, which however is commonly letten; letted, letted in Old-English, but also occurs with the preterite lette, Anglosaxon lettede and lette.

wet. Anglosaxon vætan; vætte; væted. Old-English weten; wette; wet.

The preterite and participle are also still wetted.

whet. Anglosaxon hvettan; hvette; hvetted. Old-English whetlen; whette; whet.

Preterite and participle whetted are now preferred; Smart no longer cites whet for these.

set. Anglosaxon settan; sette; setted and sett. Old-English setten; sette; sett, set.

The participle setten, seten is erroneously given to the Old-English verb, since that belongs to the strong verb sitten.

sweat; the preterite and participle is also spelt swet. Anglosaxon sweatan; sveette; svæted. Old-English sweten; swette, swatte, swotte; swet (swete).

Preterite and participle also have the form sweated. The forms with an obscure vowel are still found in Modern-English, swate in Thomson, swat in the popular dialects of England and Scotland. They seem to have been the occasion of the formation of a strong participle, which is represented as sweaten in Shakspeare Macb. 4, 1.

put. Danish putte, to stand still, compare Cymric pwtian = to poke. Old-English putten, puten; putte; put.

Old-Scotch also has a strong participle putten (PERCY Rel. p. 30. II.). Compare Dial. of Craven II. p. 62.

shut. Anglosaxon scyttan; scyyte; scytted, obserare. Old-English shetten; shette; shet (shet).
In Old-English forms in *ed* are sometimes found; Preterite *kottede* Lydgate in *Halliwell*, who quotes *cutted* as a form, as it seems, still familiar. In Northern dialects there is the strong participle *cutten.*

*Hent,* to take, see p. 348. The verb is obsolete.

*wont,* belongs to the Anglosaxon *vunjan,* -ðe, -ð, manere, habitare, whence the Old-English *wonen,* *wonen; woned; woned,* *wont;* still in Milton: *He won.*

*Wont* as an infinitive, has proceeded from the substantive participle *wont,* which now is *wonted,* in the sixteenth century we find the preterite *wonted* (*Jocasta* 1566, p. 143. in *Four Old Plays Cambr.* 1848.). The participle *wonted,* stands also, amongst others, in Shakspeare for accustomed, as also *wont* and *wonen* (*Maundev.* p. 105. *Piers Ploeghm.* p. 306.), *ywonen* (*Ron of Gloucester II.* 377.). The old verb is still in use in the north of England in the form *wun,* *wunne.*

*hurt.* Old-French hurter. Cymric *hyrddio,* *hyrdu,* *hyrthu* = to push. Old-English *hurten; hurte; hurt.* Compare also *hurtelen.* Modern-English *hurtle.*

*lift,* in Highdutch *liften* instead of *lichten,* with interchange of the guttural and labial; Old-norse *lypta,* Swedish *lyta,* Danish *løfte,* on the other hand Anglosaxon *lihtan; lihte; lihted,* *levere,* whence the English light, to step down. But compare also the Anglosaxon *lyt,* *aer; lyften,* *excelsus,* Old-norse *lopt.*

In Old-English, as in many dialects *lift* is used in the sense of to aid, assist. The modern language has *lifted* in the preterite and participle. In Shakspeare there stands the preterite *lift,* alongside of *lihted.*

*cast,* Old-norse *kasta,* Danish *kaste.* Old-English *casten; caste; cast.*

The participle *casted* stands alongside of *cast* in Shakspeare; the northern dialects have a strong participle, as in Scotch: By the divills means, can never the divill be *casten* out (*King James Daemonologie;* popular *cassen,* *costen* in *Langtoft* p. 106.

*cost,* Old-French *coster* (constare). Old-English *costen; costed; costed.*

The participle *costned* (costened) in *Piers Ploughman* p. 13. points to a verb *costenen,* resting perhaps upon interchange. The verb *coste* = to tempt and the substantive *costning* = temptation in Verstegan points on the other hand to the Anglosaxon *costjan,* *costnjan,* *ten- tare; costmung,* *tentatio.*

*thrust.* Anglosaxon *pristjan,* -ðe, -ðd, audere. Old-norse *prista,* *cogere,* *urgere,* *trudere.* Old-English *threnst; thraste;* northern dialects have the strong participle *throssen.*

*burst.* Anglosaxon strong verb *börstan,* sing. *bærst,* plur. *burston; borsten.* Old-English *bersten,* frequently *bresten.* Scottish *brist; sing. berst,* *barst,* *brast* (brost); plur. *brosten,* *bosten; brosten,* *boren* (*Chest. Plays II.* 123.); in Northern dialects still *brosten,* *brussen,* *bursen.*

The verb has completely passed from the strong into the weak conjugation Modern-English still knows the participle *bursten,* but which is now almost wholly obsolete. Moderns have even formed
the preterite and participle bursted. See Wagner's Gr. from Herrig p. 162.

There are but few verbs to be cited which have preserved a long vowel in the fundamental form, but to these some strong verbs which have passed over are to be reckoned.

*meet; met; met.* Anglosaxon mé†tan; mètte; mèted. Old-English meten; mette; mett, met.

fleet, has an obsolete participle *flet.* Anglosaxon fleótan; sing. fleát, plur. fluton; floten, compare flét, flos lactis; Old-English, as a strong verb fleten; flete; flett, Old-norse fleita, supran- tantem liquorem demere. Old-Scottish fleit = to float, to flow, to abound.

*shoot; shot; shot.* Anglosaxon strong verb sceótan; sing. sceát, plur. sceton; scoten, beside which a weak verb scotjan, -ode, -ôd, jaculari occurs, which partly explains the weak forms. Old-English scheten; sing. schet (but also schette), plur. shete; scho- ten (ysstone) (Rob. of Gloucester), the preterite plur. also shotten (Piers Plough.). Beside sheten there occurs in Old-English shoten.

The strong participle *shotten* is in modern times, obsolete, except used as an adjective, and is not found of the compounds overshoot, outshoot.

*light* (compare alight); *lit; lit* for which light is also found, is now inflected regularly. Anglosaxon lihtan; lihte; lihted, levare, alhihtan, desilire (ab equo); Old-English lighten; lighte; light, beside which liten, lyten; lit; lit (also liht in Halliwell s. v.) = to light on, to fall on occurs. The infinitive *lite* is still in use dialectically. The participle *lit* in Shakspeare: You are *lit* into my hands (Pericl. 4. 3.).

*light,* likewise formerly offered the forms *lit; lit* Anglosaxon lyhtan; lýgte; lýhted. They are obsolete.

There occur a few more verbs in *ight,* which must be assigned to this class, but retain the long vowel in the preterite and participle.

*hight,* intransitive, *hight; hight* obsolete, but still in use in poets; Anglosaxon strong verb há†tan; héht, hét; háten, vocare (the English present and participle have arisen from the old prete- rite). Danish hedde, Swedish heta. In Old-English transitive and intransitive: haten, hoten, heten; highte, hatte (Rob. of Gloucester), hate, also heet, het; hoten, hot, in Scotland pre- terite and participle also hecht. Of the compound with *be,* cited as obsolete in the forms *behight; behot; behight,* there oc- cur in Old-English behighte, behote, behett; behighten, behoten. Anglosaxon behâ†tan, vovere.

Examples of *hight* are: This grisly beast, which lion *hight* by name (Shakespeare Midas. N. Dy. 5, 1.). Father he *hight* and he was in the parish (Longfellow). Childe Harold was he *hight* (L. Byron).

*right* and *bedight; — right; — dight;* still occurs in Modern-English, particularly in the participle. Anglosaxon dihtan; dihte; dihted, disponere. Old-English dighten; dighte, di3te; dight.
Examples in Modern-English: The clouds in thousand liversies dight (Milton). Storied windows richly dight (Sp.). Three modest maidens have me bedight (Longfellow). The Old-English plighten; plighte; plight, Modern-English plight = to pledge, Anglosaxon plihtan; plahte; pliheted, pliht — is now conjugated regularly: plighted.

English dictionaries give to the verb freight, the preterite freighted and the participles freighted and fraught, Danish fragte; compare the Old-Highdutch freht. In fact two forms run parallel to each other here; that in au, which seems the older, and that in ei, which seems to be the younger. Both meet each other in the contracted participle fret (from fraughted), Old-English fraughten (fraughten); fraughte; fraught, fret.

Examples: These marchants have don fraught here schippe (Chaucer 4591). Ne jewell fret full of rich stones (Chaucer Legend of Good women 1115). Freighted with pleasure (Skelton I. 32). All with favour fret (p. 81). Another verb has been erroneously sought in fret in this connection (see the strong verb eat); compare also the form in ai: Oedipus, fraught ful of chilling seare (Jocasta p. 137). The verbal form in au in Shakspeare (who has also the participle fraught). The good ship... and The fraughting souls within her (Temp. I. 2.) is wrongly assailed.

In the adjective tight, dialectical taught, tought, which seems to have naught to do with the Highdutch dicht, although the Swedish tät, tätt agrees with it in meaning, is primarily a participle, to be sought in the Anglosaxon tyhtan; tyhte; tyhted, tyht, trahere (compare onttyhtan, excitare, impellere), which may mix with the allied: ýgan; ýgde; ýged, vincire; English tie.

Old-English had a considerable number of justifiable forms in ò, which have been lost in Modern-English, as grette; gret (greeted), Anglosaxon grétan; hette; het (heated, whence in Shakspeare and Ben Jonson the participle heat), Anglosaxon heitan; listë, leste, luste, Anglosaxon lystan; laste (lasted), Anglos. (ge)lestan; truste (trusted), Anglosaxon treósvjan, or rather Old-norse traust, fiducia; reste; rest (rested), Anglosaxon restan; stente; stent and stenten (stinted), Anglosaxon stintan; sing. stant, plur. stanton; stanten; beside it the weak verb astentan, retundere; grunte (grunted), compare the Anglosaxon gruntan; sterte, starte, sturte; stert (started), Danish stytte, Swedish stöta: Up she stert (preter.) still in Skelton I. 111.; swelle; swell (= swooned), Anglosaxon sveltan, strong verb, sing. svealt, plur. svulten; svolten, mori, and many more.

The Strong Conjugation.

The verbs of the English strong conjugation rest upon Anglosaxon verbs of this conjugation, some whereof are indeed no longer to be pointed out in Anglosaxon, but may be inferred from cognate tongues. Hardly a weak verb is inflected weakly in the written language, and it is probable that strong forms lie originally at the foundation of all verbs universally strong, although the transformation of weak into strong forms is not uncommon in popular dialects, and a few, as is clear from some instances cited above, have also penetrated into the written tongue.

Mätzner. engl. Gr. I.
Romance verbs have hardly ever been universally inflected strongly, although such inflection is not wholly wanting. For instance proven is thus inflected in Robert of Gloucester: pe child wex & wel prof (I. 11.); added to which Scottish authors offer the participle proven. Anglosaxon certainly had in legal language proffan, -ōde, -ōd. In Modern-English strīce seems to belong here. See below.

The number of Anglosaxon strong verbs has been already lessened in Old-English by the passing over into the weak form; in Modern-English it has been further reduced partly by complete abandonment, partly by the adoption of the weak form. But where the simple verb has preserved the strong form, it also mostly follows it in composition. An exception is formed in Modern-English by fret, which belongs to the Anglosaxon ētan (to eat). See eat.

A few strong verbs have in Modern-English formed weak forms beside the strong ones, which supplant the latter wholly or in part. The perfect participle has been preserved the most firmly, which also the oftenest invades weak forms. The transmutation of the vowels of the infinitive in the second and third person present of the singular, as in ēte, ēst, ēt; hāte, hāest, hāted &c., seems to have been early wholly lost in English.

As regards the vocalization of the strong verbs the infinitive and the forms of the present preserve regularly the original vowel in the form belonging to them in their transfer into English.

In Modern-English however, those verbal forms have here and there made the vowel of the preterite the standard, as run, Anglosaxon rinnan; a similar obscuration through the subsequent preterite has also been suffered by choose, Anglosaxon ceósan, and loose, which has become weak, Anglosaxon lōsan, and burst, Anglosaxon būrstan; and others. Old-English preserved for a long time the vowels corresponding to the Anglosaxon.

Old-English still preserved in the preterite the primary distinction of the vocalization of the singular and of the plural, so far as it was expressed in the Anglosaxon fundamental forms. But the passing over of ₃, especially before nasals, and of ʒ, into o soon explains the interchange of the vowels of the singular and of the plural in many preterites whose numbers are now particularly distinguished by the termination. The termination en, subsequently e, long renders the plural perceptible, till this sound also is cast off, which, on the other side, where it stands in the plural, also passes into the singular. Even in Old-English commences the general confusion of all vowels of the singular and plural, the beginning of which however is not always to be pointed out with certainty, later copyists having often forced the subsequent verbal forms upon older authors. In Modern-English sometimes the original vowel of the plural, sometimes that of the singular falls to the lot of the preterite. Both often are in use, but not with equal justification, alongside of each other, in most modern authors, where it often befalls the genuine singular form to be banished from literary usage and to be still sheltered only by the bolder poetry.

The participle of the perfect, even in Old-English, like the infinitive and other verbal forms with the suffix en, lost its ₃, whereby
it was assimilated to other forms of the verb in the plural, especially to the preterite. But the agreement with the preterite was often complete where the e was abandoned in the participle as well as in the plural and in the second person singular of the preterite. The participle was then perceivable, particularly in the prefixed y, i (=ge).

When this also was thrown off, a complete similarity of form in the preterite and the participle appeared. A transfer of participial forms to the preterite was thereby sometimes rendered possible, which seems to occur in the Old-English underfong (Anglosaxon feng; fangen); on the other hand the employment of the preterite as a participial form was supported (compare trod; trod, Anglosaxon träd; träden and many more); an interchange which has made advances even in Modern-English, but is at present often censured by grammarians. See Murray p. 185. A few cases are touched on below.

It is also to be observed that even another e is frequently added to the suffix of the participle, so that we often meet forms like spo-
nene (sponen = spun), drefene (= driven), sprongene (= sprung) not in the plural alone. They are particularly frequent where the e of the suffix is elided before n, for instance, in borne, stolne, shorne, sworne, seene (= seen), drayne (= drawn). The forms without n which have suffered apocope are indeed as frequent.

Some strong verbs have passed from one into another strong form, as will be discussed in the proper place.

Anglosaxon has distinguished essentially eight forms of conjuga-
tion of strong verbs (inclusive of the so-called reduplicative conjuga-
tions). All these forms are still represented in English, yet the first preponderates in number, whereas the only Modern-English verb of the last class (hang) has preserved its vowel in the present only.

In the representation of Modern-English strong verbs by their classes, we have regard not so much to the Modern-English vocalization as to the Anglosaxon and Old-English. The Old-English forms are displayed in their oldest shape, when of course the forms curtailed in their suffixes are not denied to the Old-English and the interchange of vowels in older times is not denied. That they early ran parallel with the former has been stated already. The forms now universally taken to be obsolete are marked with *

First Class: The first Anglosaxon class of strong verbs offers in the present (and infinitive) the vowel i (eo, e); in the preterite sing. a (ea), plur. u; in the perfect participle u (o). To these answer in Old-English: pres. i (e); pret. sing. a (o), plur. o (ou), part. perf. o (ou); in Modern-English: pres. i, e, pret. sing. and plur. a, u, ou, rarely o, part. perf. u, ou.

The verbal stems of this class end originally in a one redu-
plicated or two consonants.

1. swim, to swim; swam, swum; swum. Anglosaxon swimman; sing. swam, plur. swommen; swummen. Old-English swimmen; sing. swam, plur. swommen; swommen.

The preterite swim, from the Old-English swommen, is quite obsolete. It is to be observed that in the seventeenth century the forms in u were equally in use in the preterite and participle, as swim, spun, begun, run, rung, wrung, flung, sung, stung, drunk, stunk, sunk,
shrunk &c., all of which no longer pass for both; yet the forms ran, 
began, rang, sang, sprang &c. were even then not unknown as pre-
terites.

2. win; won; won. Anglosaxon vinnan; sing. vann, plur. vunnon; 
vunnen. Old-English winnen; sing. wan, plur. wonnen; wonnen, 
ywonne even in Rob. of Gloucester.

3. spin; *span, spun; spun. Anglosaxon spinnen; sing. span, plur. 
spunnoun; spunnen. Old-English spinnen; sing. span, plur. spon-
nen; sponnen, sponne (Halliwell s. v.).

4. be-gin; -gan; -gun. Anglosaxon be-ginnen; sing. -gann, plur. -gun-
non; -gunnen. Old-English be-ginnen; sing. -gan. plur. -gonnen; 
conjugative sing. -gonne (Rob. of Gloucester); -gonnen.

The preterite he begun is in DAME SRIZ p. 3 The simple verb ginnen 
(gin), which is cited as obsolete in Modern-English, is found, strange to 
say, spelt 'gin in modern prints, as if the first syllable had been cast off, 
although the simple verb says exactly the same as that compounded 
with be: Their great guilt . Now 'gins to bite the spirits (Shakespeare 
Temp.). The loud Ethereal trumpet from on high 'gan blow (Milton).
Even Anglosaxon ginnen and begun, incipere, stand beside each other.

5. run; ran; run. Anglosaxon rinnen; sing. rann, plur. runnon; run-
nen more usual in the form irnan; sing. orn, plur. ornun, urnen, 
compare brinnan and birnan; brêstan and berstan; hence the Old-
English rennen (RITSON'S Romanc. and Old-Scotch; riin in Skelton 
I. 420 &c.), often rennen, perhaps through coincidence with the 
weak Anglosaxon verb of like meaning rennan; sing. ran, plur. 
ronnen (also roune and roon); ronnen; and alongside thereof y-ernen 
(Piers PLOUGHIM. 306., compare ernynge = running, 3. p. 418.); 
sing. y-orn (205.), also orn (Halliwell s. v.), plur. orn (Rob. of 
GLOUCESTER I. 34.) and ourne (II. 405.); orne.

Beside ran there early stands in the preterite roon as orn. The present 
and the infinitive have assumed the obscure vowel of the preterite, as 
burst (Anglosaxon berstan) and burn (Anglosaxon birnan), which belonged 
to the same strong form of conjugation.

6. climb; *clamb; *clomb; the verb is now commonly inflected weakly: 
climbed; climbed. Anglosaxon clamban; sing. clamb, plur. clambon; 
clamben. Old-English climben; sing. clamb, plur. clamben; clom-
en, frequently with b cast off (even in Rob. of Gloucester), as 
in Old-Scotch: climb; clam; clum.

climme, preter. clome in Drayton (+ 1631.), clum instead of climbed 
northern dialects.

7. ring; rang, rung; rung. Anglosaxon hringan, uncertain, whether 
a strong or a weak verb: sing. hrang, plur. hrongon; hrungen or 
riegen; sing. rang, plur. rongen; rongen, rongene (Halliw. s. v.).

8. fling; flung; flung, is wanting in Anglosaxon. Old-norse flingja, 
verberare, Swedish flanga; Old-English flingen; sing. flang, plur. 
flongen; flongen; Scottish fling; flang; flung.

9. wring; wrung; wrung. Anglosaxon vringan; sing. vrang, plur. vrun-
gon; vrungen. Old-English wringen; sing. wrang (wrong Piers 
PLOUGHIM.), plur. wrongen; wrongen.

Webster cites also wringed as preterite and participle, although little
10. *dung; *dung now commonly dinged; dinged. In Anglo-
saxon the weak verb dencgan; dunged is in use, for which we may
suppose the strong dingan; sing. dang, plur. dungon; dungen. Old-
English dyngen; sing. dang, plur. dongen; dongen. Old-Scotch
ding; dang; dungen (dungen); dungen is still dialectical, for instance
in Lancashire.

The weak dinged is already old See D Lindsay ed. Chalmers 3.
p. 310.

11. *sang, *sungen. Anglosaxon singan; sing. sang, plur. sungen;
Old-English singen; sing. sang (song Piers Plough-
man), plur. songen; songen.

sage and song stand beside each other in Skelton; I 39. 373.—153.
According to Smart song is less in use; Webster makes it equal to sung.
It is frequently to be met with in poets. The preterite onke in Gower
is remarkable (see HALLIWELL s. v.). But compare Anglosaxon sang and
sane, cantus

slongen; sungen. Old-English slingan; sing. slang, plur. slungen;
slongen, slongene (HALLIWELL s. v.), forslongen = swallowed up
(Reynard the Foxe p. 10.).

13. *swing, *swung, *svung; *swung. Anglosaxon swingan; sing. svang,
plur. svungon; svungen. Old-English swingen; sing. swang, plur.
swongen; swongen (swongene, svangene as a plural in HALLIWELL
s. vv.).

14. *spring, *springen, *springe; *sprung. Anglosaxon springan (sprincan);
sing. sprang, plur. sprungon; sprungen. Old-English springen;
sing. sprang, plur. sprungen; sprungen (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER
also sprung), asprongun (DIGBY MYSTER. p. 118.), sprongene (HALLI-
WELL s. v.).

Skelton has sprange and sprung equally beside each other, as Shak-
speare spring and sprung. According to modern lexicographers sprung
is growing obsolete; yet compare: Goethe, like Schiller, sprung from the
people (Lewes).

stongon; stungen. Old-English stingen; sing. stang, plur. stongen;
stongen.

Skelton has stang as preterite plur.: Scorpions that stang Pharaotis
(I. 134.) and stonge: Behold my body, how Jewes it stonge (I. 144.), as
a participle stonge, stonge (I. 79. 41.). Stang is dialectical as an in-
nitive in Craven and Lincolnshire.

16. *string, *strung, *strung. Anglosaxon strengan, extendere, and strang-
jan, vigere, are weak verbs, for which we may suppose the strong
verb stringan; sing. strang, plur. strungon; strungen. Compare the
Anglosaxon string, funis; strang, robustus; stringé, athleta.

I cannot point out any Old-English affective forms, whether merely
from inattention, I know not. Shakspeare has several times strong
in the sense of musical instruments being furnished with strings, for which
strunged is now common. Wallis does not cite the verb at all.
17. cling; clung; clung. Anglosaxon is clingan; sing. clang, plur. clungon; clungen, in use only in the meanings clangere and marcescere. Old-English seems to know clyngen (Piers Plough. and Rel. Antiq. II. 210.), clongyn (Halliwell s. v.) only in the latter meaning. Shakspeare has cling in the sense of to dry up Macb. 5, 5, else cling; clung as to cleave; like clung, dried up in HOLLYBAND 1593. Dialects have the verb also in the meaning to smear; Danish klynge to heap, also to cleave. Thus the verb clunge appears in the dialects of the South of England for to crowd, to squeeze. Clung is also cited by lexicographers of the present and of former times as the infinitive and present for cling.

18. drink; drank, *drunk; drunken, drunk, drank. Anglosaxon drincan; sing. dranc, plur. drunceon; druncen. Old-English drunken, sing. drank (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER drone), plur. dronken; dronken, — fordronken = very drunken.

The forms of the preterite drank and drunk stand beside each other in Shakspeare, as Wallis also cites both. The participial form drunken has been preserved, especially in the meaning involuted; drank has penetrated from the preterite into the participle: Thrice have I drank of it (L. Byron); drunk readily assumes the meaning of drunken: I am as drunk as any beast (LONGFELLOW). Skelton still has: I dranke (I. 33.). They have dronke (100).

19. sink; sank; sunk; sunk; sunken. Anglosaxon sincan; sing. sanc, plur. suncon; suncen. Old-English sinken; sing. sonk, plur. sonken; sonken.

The preterite sank and the participle sunken are noted by lexicographers and grammarians as little used. Instances are frequent enough in poets: Now sank the sun (Parnell). Her heart sank in her bosom with dread (Southey). And exhausted and breathless she sank on the floor (m.). Then in a swoon she sank (LONGFELLOW). On his breast his head is sunken (m.). They lift her o'er the sunken rock (m.) &c.

20. slink; *slunk, slunk; slunk. Anglosaxon slincan; sing. slanc, plur. sluncon; sluncen. Old-English slinken (linchen), dialectically also slingen; sing. slank, plur. slonken; slonken.

21. stink; *stank, stunk; stunk. Anglosaxon stincan; sing. stanc, plur. stuncon; stuncen. Old-English stinken; sing. stank, plur. stonken; stonken.

The preterite stank is called obsolete: Her breathe stanke (Skelton I. 112.). Wallis (sec. XVII.) cites drank among the verbs in ink, not stank, and says that similar preterites of others are rarer.

22. shrink; shrank, shrunk; *shrunken, shrunk. Anglosaxon scrincan; sing. scrance, plur. scruncon; scruncen. Old-Engl. shrinken; shrink; plur. shronken; shrunken.

The preterite shrank is called obsolete, although modern poets and prose-writers do not disdain it: I shrank not from him (L. Byron). Peril he sought not, but ne'er shrank to meet (m.). That girl. . . Shrank from its harsh, chill breath (of the storm) (Whittier) — Her sunny nature shrank from storms (Lewes Goethe).

23. bind; bound; *bounden, bound. Anglosaxon bindan; sing. band, plur. bundon; bunden. Old-English binden; sing. band (bond), plur. bonden, bounden; bonden, bounden.
The participle *bunden*, bundyn is cited by Halliwell from Langtoft and Ritson's Anc. Pop. Poet. p. 89.; where *bunden* rhymes with *wonden*. The transition from *o* to *ou* is very old in verbs in *ind*; even Robert of Gloucester has *o* and *ou* beside each other. In the singular *a* and *o* are as often interchanged. The participle *bounden* is still in use in the limited sense (limited, appointed, beholden to). Fairfax in Tasso has the preterite *band*, which has remained in use in dialects.


The preterite *fand* is still in use in Westmoreland, as Fairfax uses it in Tasso. *fand, fan* also occur dialectically as a participle, but is erroneously ascribed by Chalmers to Old-English.


The verb *wind* = to ventilate from *wind*, Anglosaxon *vind*, ventus, is inflected regularly. The weak preterite *winded* instead of *wound* is in Pope. See Smart Dict. s. v.


The preterite passes in Chaucer into the weak conjugation: And *grynete* with his teeth (7743.). The form *grinting* certainly stands in The Persones Tale p. 150. II. Tyrwh., as if a collateral form *grint* for *grind* were the standard.


The participle *foughten*, obsolete in writing is in use dialectically, for instance, in Craven (alongside of *foffen*); *feight* and *feighten* rule in Westmoreland; Old-Scottish *fecht*; faught; *fockty* (BARBOUR) and faucht.

We must regard as having passed over into this class:

28. *dig; dug; dug*, alongside thereof *digged; digged*, in Shakspere also *digt*, which are the older forms. Anglosaxon has a weak verb *dícjan*, whence Old-English *diken*, *dichen*; *dikede*; *dikde*, even now *dike* = to surround with a dike; Danish *dige*. It also occurs in Old-English in the meaning to *dig* (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 128.). Yet Old-English has also *dyggen* (MAUNDEV. p. 107.).

29. *stick; stuck; stuck*. The infinitive and the present agree in meaning with the weak Anglosaxon *sticjan*; *pungere*, *haerere*. The Old-English has however the verb *stiken*; *stack*, *stek*, which points to Anglosaxon *stécjan*; sing. *stác*; plur. *stacan*; *stécan*, alongside where-of, particularly in Scotch steck; stecked (steekkit, stiekit, steikkit) stands. With *stike*, *stuck*; *strike*, *struck*, strikingly agrees (in the fifth class). The preterite stack is still in use in Yorkshire.

30. *hang; hung; hung* beside *hanged; hanged*. Anglosaxon *hangan*; sing. *héng*, plur. *hégon*; *hangen*. See the last class.
In Modern-English there have almost wholly passed into the weak conjugation:

31. swell; swelled; swelled and swollen, swollen. Anglosaxon svellan, svillan; sing. sveall, plur. svullon; swollen. Old-English swellen; sing. swal, swalle, plur. swullan; swollen.

The participle swollen, swollen, is still in use: The maidens fair Saw from each eye escape a swollen tear (LONGFELLOW). The surge most swollen (SHAKESPEARE Temp.). Asking few In aid to overthrow these swollen patricians (L. BYRON).

32. help; *holp, helped; *holpen, *holp, helped. Anglosaxon helpan; sing. healp, plur. holpen; holpen. Old-English helpen; sing. help, plur. holpen; holpen (holpe).

holp as a preterite and participle alongside of helped was still familiar to Shakespear; later writers have holpen.

33. melt, intransit. and transit.; melted; *molten, melted. Anglosaxon meltan, melting; sing. melt, plur. multon; molten, dissolved, alongside whereof meltan (-ede, -ed, and -te, -t) liquefacere. Both meanings are combined in the Modern-English verb. Old-English meltan; sing. malte (GOWER), plur. molten; molten.

The participle molten is mostly used now as an adjective only.

34. burst. See above p. 351.

Old-English had a multitude of strong verbs of this class, now passed into the weak conjugation or wholly lost. Here belong, for instance: thringen; sing. throng, plur. throngen (thrungens PIERS PLOUGHMAN); throngen, Anglosaxon pringan; sing. prang, plur. prangon; prungen: Modern-English to throng. — swicken; sing. swank, plur. swonken; swollen, Modern English to swim (SPENSER). — yellen; sing. 5al (Rob. or Gloucester), plur. yollen; yollon. Anglosaxon gillan, gellan; sing. geall, plur. gullon; gollen: Modern-English to yell. — yeldon; sing. yald, yalt (HALIFAX s. v.), plur. seldon, seldon. Anglosaxon gildan, gildan; sing. geald, plur. guldon; golden: Modern-English to yield. — delven; sing. dalf, plur. dolwen; dolwen. Anglosaxon delfan; sing. deaf, plur. dulfon; dolfen: Modern-English to delve. — swellon; sing. swell seems weak even in Old-English, since swelted and the participle swelt are also found, Anglosaxon sveltan; sing. svealt, plur. svulton; svolten: Modern-English *to swell. — sterven; sing. starf, plur. storven; storven. Anglosaxon steorfan; sing. steerf, plur. sturfan; storfen: Modern-English to starve. — kerven; sing. carf (also kerf), plur. corven; corven: Anglo-saxon coorfan; sing. cearf, plur. curfon; corfen: Modern-English to carve. — werpen; sing. warp, plur. worpen; worpen, Jaeere: Anglosaxon verpan; sing. vearp, plur. verpon; vorpen: Modern-English to warp, in a different meaning, and many others.

Second Class. It comprises in Anglosaxon verbs having in the present i (e, 9), in the preterite sing. a (a), plur. a (d, a) and in the perfect participle u (o). They end in a single nasal or liquid letter. In Old-English the corresponding present is e and i (o only under the influence of the previous Anglosaxon e) preterite sing. a (e and o), plur. a (e, o), perfect participle o. Modern-English has in the present ea (o as in Old-English), preterite sing. and plur. 9 and a, perfect participle 9. The passing of the vowels into each other is explained by the relations of sound in Anglosaxon.
1. cōme; came; cōme (exceptionally with a short o, for the Anglosaxon u), Anglosaxon cviman, cuman; sing. cvam, cam, com, plur. cvamun, cāmon, cōmon; cumen, cumen Old-English komen; sing. cam, com, but also coom, came, come, plur. coomen, komen. Conjunctive sing. plur. coome, coomen; kommen.

The compounds become, overcome follow the simple verb. Com instead of cāme is still in use, especially in the North of England, cum stands for it in Langtoft. The older Scottish had cum alongside of com as a present. The perf. participle cum is met with towards the sixteenth century: I was cum (SKELTON I. 405.). A weak participle comed stands in Roger Ascham, as Northern dialects still have comed, cummed. The form extends to a great antiquity. Compare Dial. of Craven I. p. 83.

2. steal; stole; stolen, *stole. Anglosaxon stēlan; sing. stāl, plur. stālon; stolen, Old-English stelen; sing. stale, stel, plur. stolen (PIERS PLOUGH.). stolen, stole, stolne (also stale for stole HALLIWELL s. v.).

The preterite stale remained long in use: She ... stole away (SKELTON I. 22.). The shortened participle stole is still met with in Modern-English, as well as in Milton.


The compound forbear has the preterite forborne, part. forborne and likewise overbear. Modern usage limits the preterite bare and the participle born to the meaning partie, partus. The older language does not know this distinction: Alas, the tyme that I was borne (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 188.). The worste brawler that euer was borne (SKELTON I. 298.). Milton still has the participle bore.

4. weār; (wear) wore; worn. In Anglosaxon the strong verb which we must else presuppose is wanting: vēran; sing. vær, plur. væron; voren; the weak verb to be referred here is verjan, -ëde, -ed, also -ôde, ôd, induere, gerere (vestes). Old-English weren (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 322); sing. ware, were, plur. ...; worn, forworn (HALLIWELL s. v.).

The preterite ware cited by Smart as obsolete, familiar to Skelton, is still not uncommon with poets. Old-English has also the weak form corresponding to the Anglosaxon: He wæered a gepoun (CHAUCER 76.).

5. tear; (tare), tore; torn. Anglosaxon tēran; sing. tār, plur. tēron; toren. Old-English teren; sing. tar (tarne, HALLIW. s. v.), tore, plur. ...; torn, torne (tare Voc. Ms. sec. XV. in HALLIW. s. v.).

Of the obsolete tare the same may be said as of ware. A weak form of the verb seems not unknown in Old English: To be teared thus and torne (SKELTON I. 357.).

6. shear (diverging in vocalization from the e-sounding other verbs in ear); *shore, sheared; shorn, *shore. Anglosaxon scērān; sing. scær, scear, plur. scærōn, sceārōn; scoren. Old-English scheren; sing. share, shore, plur. shoren; shorne, shore.

The preterite shore is the rule in the seventeenth century, as in Shakspere; share is also permitted alongside of it; shore, shoor is still widely
diffused dialectically. The weak form also formerly sounded *scharde (HALIHWELL v. share). The participle *shore is in Shakspeare Mids. N. Dr. 5, 1.

As passed over from the fourth class into the second is to be regarded:

7. *swear; (sware), swore; sworn, *sware. Anglosaxon *sverjan; sing. *svór, plur. *svóron; *svaren, *svoren. Old-English *sveren; suor, swor, swoor, later also sware; plur. sworen, yet very early even sweren (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); sworen.

The transition is accordingly old; the preterite *sware, even in Shakespeare alongside of *swore, was used in the seventeenth century, along with the latter. It is now almost forgotten.


Third Class. It has been variously disturbed in its vocalization in Modern-English, partly under the influence of consonants. In the Anglosaxon it has in the present *i (eo, e), in the preterite sing. *ā (ea), plur. *e (ei), and in the perfect part. *i or *e. The Old-English present has *i or e, the preterite sing. *a (o), the plur. *e (rarely o), the perf. participle *e (*i, also o). Modern-English offers in the present *i, *e, *ea, in the preterite *a and *o, in the perfect participle *i, *ea, *e, *o. It originally ends in a single mute consonant.


The mixture of the two Anglosaxon verbs is manifest in the Modern-English forbid; forbade; forbidden, forbid, to which only the Anglosaxon *forbēdon, prohibere corresponds; Old-English forbēden, in the perfect participle forboden, forbode, forbed (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 6). Compare also: Who hath yow misboden? (injured) (CHAUCER 911.).

The preterite and participle *bid (bidd) stood in the seventeenth century quite even with *bad, *bidden and is still tolerated alongside of these, as forbid: If the Euphrates be forbid us (L. BYRON). It seems, like the Old-English *bidde (PIERS PLOEGUM. and SKELTON), to rest upon a passing into the weak conjugation. We often find *bad instead of *bade, for instance in Shakspeare: Love *bad me swear, and love bids me forswear (TWO GENTL. OF VER.). whereas the modern editions mostly offer *bade. See Mommersen's Romeo and Juliet p. 8. She *bad still in Skelton I. 384.


The form of the preterite *sate is frequent enough, although often absent
in dictionaries: Amidst the common pomp the despot sate (L. Byron). It also stands for the participle: Had I sate down too humbly (L. Byron). He had sate in the High Commission (Macaulay). Wallis has sate for the preterite and participle, and also cites sitt, for both, by analogy to bidd.

3. spit; *spat, *spitten. See above p. 349.

4. give; gave; given (forgive; -gave; -given). Anglosaxon gifan, geofan, sing. geaf, plur. geafon; gifen, (forgifan &c.). Old-English given, ðeuen, yeven; sing. ʒaf, ʒef, even ʒif (Rob. of Gloucester I. 162.); gave, yave, yove, plur. ðeuen; yeven, ʒ0ve, ʒ0ve (Lydgate, Gower); dialectically gin, gon.

5. lie; lay; lain. Anglosaxon liegan, liggan, ligēan; sing. læg, plur. lægon; lægen. Old-English liggen (ly3n, Maundev.), lien; sing. lai, lay, plur. laien, leyen; leyen, ylege, lien (Chaucer p. 170. 172. ed. Tyrwh.), lein, lain.

The forms are explained by the softening of g into i, y.

6. get; got; gotten, got. Anglosaxon gētan, gitan; sing. geat, plur. geaton; gēten. Old-English geten, yeten, getten; sing. gat, gatt, get, plur. geten, goten (Maundev. p. 67.); geten, yetten, goten (Maundev.).

The compounds forget; forgot; forgotten, forgot. Anglosaxon forgētan and bejet; begat, begot; begotten, begot. Anglosaxon begētan, mostly the form gat. In the seventeenth century the preterites gat, forgat, begat were still current; even Shakspeare has the forms gat and got alongside of each other. At present gat and forgat pass for obsolete. Dialectically the simple gat is still in use. This verb has also at times weak forms in the ancients: What hast thou gotted? (Skelton I. 296.).

7. see; saw; seen. Anglosaxon sēon, séhyvan; sing. seah, plur. sāvon, seāgon, seagon, ségon; sēven, ségen, seoven, seogen, sēn, sīn. Old-English sen, sene, see, sing. sey, say (Rob. of Gloucester), seigh, seyghe, saugh, saughe, plur. sayen, seighen &c.; seyen, seighen, scene.

The compounds, as foresee. Anglosaxon foresēon, providere; oversee.

Anglosaxon ofersēon, videre, contemnere, follow the simple verb. The vowel changes are explained by the w of the stem interchanging with g.

8. tōad; tōd (trode); tōdden, tōd. Anglosaxon tōadan; sing. trād, plur. trādon; tōden. Old-English treden; sing. trad, trade, trode, plur. troden; troden.

The passage of the participle into the o-sound seems to be very old. The preterite with an inorganic e still occurs: And round the white man's lordly hall, Trode, fierce and free, the brute he made (Whittier); as well as the participle that had suffered apocope: "Twere not the first Greek girl had trod the path (L. Byron). A weak preterite is known by Piers Ploughm. Creed, p. 475: tredede.

9. breāk; *brake, broke; broken, broke. Anglosaxon brēcan; sing. brāc, plur. brācon; broon. This Anglosaxon verb passes, with its participle, into the second class, as well as occasionally also sprēcan, spēcan. Old-English breken; sing. brak, brek (even Rob. of Gloucester), brake, breke, plur. braken; broken, ybroke.

The weak preterite braikit is Old-Scottish. The preterite brake is ob-
solete; By the brede that God brake (Skelton I. 3:0.). His passion no’er brake into extremity of rage (Shakespeare Com. of Err.). The blunted participle brake is, as in Shakepeare, so in the most modern times, in use: That his frail bonds . . are broke (I. Byron Ch. Har.) . . That time may have tamed, but has not broke (Longfellow).

10. ēat; ēte, ēat; ēaten, ēat, with change of vocalization. Anglosaxon ētan; sing. ēt, plur. ēton; ēten. Old-English ēten; sing. ēt, ēt, ēt, plur. ēton, ēten; ēten — yȝete (Rob. of Gloucester often). Compare ge-gessen, to which the Anglosaxon, which has gedrincan, seems to offer no support.

A compound of eat is the now weak fret, to rub; fretted (fret Levit 13.); fretted and fretten even in Shakespear in Merch. of Ven. 4. 1., in the quartos, and in rockfretten. Anglosaxon fre-tan (compare Gothic fra-it-an); sing. frät, plur. freaton; freten. Old-English freten; sing. frat, fret, fret, plur. freten; freten, fretyne (Morte Arth. in Halliwell).

Skelton has the participle frete with apocope: He is frete with angre (I. 79.). From this compound we must distinguish fret commonly conformed with it, to do elegant work, to adorn, which belongs to the Anglosaxon fråtu, ornamentum, fråtvjan, ornare.

11. wēace; wœre; woven (wove). Anglosaxon vēfan; sing. vāf, plur. vœfon; vēfen. Old-English weven, weffen (Gower); sing. wave (Chaucer) . . . woven

The weak form seems to have been also early used for this verb, compare Anglosaxon vejan, webban: vejede; vejed. Old-English has beweved (Guy of Warwick p. 303. in Halliwell). In the North of England the participle weft is in use. Weace has also the weak forms in Modern-English: weaved stands as the preterite and participle in Shakespear, and is quoted by moderns as sometimes used. The blunted participle wove has Dryden for example.

12. spēak: spake, spoke; spoken, spoke. * Anglosaxon sprēcan, spreo-can, often also spēcan; sing. prēc, plur. spreeson; sprēcen, occasionally spreen (see break). Old-Engl. spéken; sing. spak, spek, plur. spekon (Rob. of Gloucester), later there appear the preterites spake, spoke; speken (Dame Siriz p. 8.), bespake (Rob. of Gloucester I. 55.), spoken, spoke.

The preterite spake stands equivalent to spoke in the seventeenth century: in modern times it has remained chiefly with the poets: The same patron whom I spake of (L. Byron). They spake a mutual language (rd.). Smiling she spake these words (Longfellow) He moved not, he looked not, he spake not (rd.). Then to his conqueror he spake (Bryant). The participle spoke, with apocope, very common in Shakespear, likewise belongs especially to poets. It is found in Sterne, W. Scott, and others.

13. A remnant of a verb of this class is quoth, now commonly employed as first and third person of the preterite (quoth I, he, she). Anglosaxon cvēdan; sing. cvāð, plur. cvēdon; cvēden. Old-English quethen; sing. quap (Rob. of Gloucester), quoth (Maundev.), quod (Piers Ploughman.), plur. quotho &c.

Quoth is falsely declared to be the present. Even in Old-English the formula quotha, quoda = quoth he occurs, which in East-Anglian dialects sounds cutha. Quothe passes also as the Old-English for the plural:
The strong conjugation. 365

quothe thee (Maunder, p. 220). So Shakspeare also uses quothe: Did they? quothe you (Love's L. L. 4, 3). — The compound beguoth, Old-English beguothen, is now inflected weakly. In Old-English the preterite biqweop (Rob. of Gloucester) and biquth (Heare), Anglosaxon becvedan, legare.

To the strong verbs, now abandoned, belongs: wréak; wroke; wroken, as these forms sounded in the later Old-English, now wreaked; wreaked. The earlier Old-English forms were: wrekén (frequent in the compound awrekén), wrechen; wrek; wrak, wake; i-wreken (Dame Shirz p. 7), awrèke (Rob. of Gloucester I 1n.), bevrecke (in Halliwell s.v.), wroken. Anglosaxon vrécan; sing. vrác, plur. vræcan; vrecen. — Vestiges of other verbs are: kneaden; participle kneede (Chaucer Rom. of the Rose 4814), even now in Northern dialects knodden, Anglosaxon cnédan; sing. cnád, plur. cnáden; cnéden. Modern-English to knead. — weave; participle weygen. Anglosaxon végan; sing. vág, plur. vágon; végan. Modern-English to weigh &c.

Fourth Class. In Anglosaxon it offers in the present a, ea (e), in the preterite sing. and plur. o, in the participle perfect a, ea (ii). In Old-English it has in the present a, which through the cooperation of a following guttural passes into another vowel (see 7th class); in the preterite sing. and plur. o, more rarely oo, in the participle perfect a (o). Modern-English offers in the present short and long a, in the preterite oo and o, in the participle perfect o, sometimes oo, o. Some verbs of this class have passed into other strong conjugations, as swear into the second, draw and slay essentially into the seventh. Many have preserved only their strong participle, and have else passed into the weak form.

1. wake; woke, waked; waked and the compound awake; awoke, awaked; awaked. Here blend the strong Anglosaxon verb vacan; voc; vacan — avacan &c., suscitar, expurgiscere, and the weak vacjan, ávacjan in the same meaning. They pass over at the same time in English into the transitive meaning. Old-English waken (awaken); preterite wok, wooks, woke. The simple, as well as the compound verb have also in Old-English the weak preterites and participles waked, awaked, and these forms seem to be chiefly found in the participle.

In Modern-English wake is stated by lexicographers to be always weak. The preterite woke is in use even now, although Shakspeare has it not: And the startled artist woke (Longfellow). I turned to thee. And woke all faint with sudden fear (m.). Shuddering ... I woke As from a dream (Whittier).

2. take; took; taken, often ta'en, particularly in poets, also took Anglosaxon tacan; toc; tacen. Old-English taken; toke, took; taken, take. takene.

As in Modern-English ta'en with an elided k stands as a participle, the Old-English and the Old-Scottish had tan. Old-English even conjugated ta (infinitive), present taþ; preterite to; participle tan. The compounds mistake, partake, betake, overtake follow the simple verb. The form of the preterite which has penetrated the participle, common to this class in general, is denoted a barbarism by moderns, but is common enough: And he that might the vantage best have took (Shakspeare Meas. f. Meas.). I have mistook (Two Gentl. of Ver.). He had lately
undertook To prove &c. (Butler). Thou hast mistook (Rowe). Who is he . . whose brethren . . have not partook oppression? (L. Byron)

3. shake; shook; shaken, also shook. The weak form of the preterite and participle *shaked is no longer cited by modern grammarians and lexicographers. Anglosaxon scecan, sceecan; scêc, scêc; sceacen, sceacen. Old-English shaken, schaken; schoc, shook; shaken.

The weak form *shaked is old: Howe Cupyde *shaked His darte (Skelton I. 347.). It was in use up to the eighteenth century. Shakspeare has all strong and weak forms of the verb beside each other, also the participial form shook, met with even in the latest times: How many hands were shook and votes were won (Bryant).

4. forsa; forsook; forsaken, also forsook. The simple sake, which occurs in Old-English, is said by Halliwell to be still in use. Anglosaxon for-sacan; -sac; -sac, negare, detrahare. Old-English forsaken; forso; forsaken.

The participial form *forsook is the same as others of this sort: Proteus hath *forsook her (Shakspeare Two Gentl. of Ver.). The immortal mind, that hath *forsook her mansion (Milton); so too in Lady Montague and later writers.

5. stave; store; stowe or stoved, as the preterite also sounded, seems of modern formation, a denominative from stäf, truncus. Compare Old-norse stofna, truncare, and the Highdutch stieben standing in relation to staub and stah. Stovven = split, riven, is dialectic in the North of England.

6. stand; stood; stood. Anglosaxon standan; stôd; stenden. Old-English standen; stod, stode, stood; stouden.

Neither the simple verb nor the verbs compounded with it shew in Old-English the passage of the preterite into the participle. In the Craven dialect the participle stôdhen occurs.

A number of verbs of this class, which have preserved only their strong participle beside weak forms, are:

7. shape; shapen and shaped. Anglosaxon scepan, sceapan, sceppan; scôp, sceôp; scapen, sceapen. Old-English shapen; shop, swoop; shapen. Even in Old-English the weak form of the preterite shapte also occurs. The weak form of the participle is now considered the better, even beside misshapen, misshaped is called correct.

8. grave; graven, also graved. Engrave is, according to some, weak, according to Smart engraven is also permitted. Anglosaxon grafan; grôf; grafen. Old-English graven; grofe; graven, also grove. In the Craven dialect groven; graun (Skelton I. 385.).

9. shave; shaven and shaved, the former obsolete. Anglosaxon scafan; scôf; scafen. Old-English shaven; shoie; shaven.

10. lade and load; laden, laden and laded, loaded. Anglosaxon ladan; hlôd; hladen. Old-English laden, loden; lode; laden, loden. Loaden is less usual than loaded.

11. bake; baken, now commonly baked. Anglosaxon bacan; bôc; bacen. Old-English baken; boke; baken, ybake.

12. wax; waxen, waxed. Anglosaxon veaxan; vôx (veóx); veaxen.
Old-English wexen; wex, wexe, woxe; waxen, woxen. In Robert of Gloucester the preterite sing. wax, plur. wox; in Piers Ploughman sing. weex, plur. woxen is remarkable. Waxen is obsolete.

In Old-English a few more strong verbs of this class are maintained: faren, fore; faren, farn. Anglosaxon faran; for; faren, i.e. Modern-English to fare. The weak ferde corresponds in form to the Anglosaxon ferjan. — aken; ok, oke; . . . . (Rob. of Gloucester 4.). Anglosaxon acan; òc; acen. Modern-English to ache. — quaken; quok, quoke . . . . yet also quakede; quaked is weak in Anglosaxon cvacjan, tremere, like the Modern-English to quake. — waschen; wosche, wesshe; washen; but also weak even in the preterite wasshed (Maundev. and Piers Ploughm.). Anglosaxon wascan; vöse; vascen, viscen. Modern-English to wash. The participle washen has nevertheless been long preserved. — laughen, launhen (Old-Scottish lauch) and lyshen (Rob. of Gloucester); low3, low (to.), lough (Piers Ploughm.); lowen (to.). Anglosaxon leahan, hlîhhan; hlôh, plural hlôgon; hlahan, hleahen. Modern-English to laugh. Piers Ploughman p. 275. has the weak form laughed. — gnawen; gnove, gnoghe; gnawen. Anglosaxon gnagan; gnôg; gnagen; Modern-English to gnaw, whose strong participle gnawn Shakspeare has in Merry Wiv. 2. 2, has, like draw already passed in part into the seventh class, since it had also the preterite gnew still in use in Suffolk.

Fifth Class. It has in Anglosaxon in the present ï, in the preterite sing. ë, plur. ï and perfect participle ï. Old-English leaves to the present ë, gives to the preterite sing. ò, also a, plur. ï and to the participle ï. In Modern-English ï remains in the present, the preterite fluctuates between ë and ï, the perfect participle retains ï, although often assuming the vowel of the preterite. In the seventeenth century the forms of the preterite in ï are preferred by Alexander Gill to those in a, and to those in ò then in use along with these, and deemed equal to those in ò by J. Wallis, who especially acknowledges thrive, rise, smitt, writ, abidd, ridd, as Gil drive. Many of these verbs offer the semblance of a transition into the weak form of stems ending in ò or ñ. Some have at the same time passed wholly or partially into the weak conjugation in ed.

1. shine; shone; shone. The preterite and the participle have also adopted the weak form shined, which however is postponed in usage to the strong one. Anglosaxon scînan; sing. scân, sceân, plur. scînnon; scînen. Old-English shinen; sing. shon, shone, pl. shinen.

The passage of the preterite into the participle seems old; I have not observed the participle shînen. Besides the vowel of shone sec. XVII. was in the seventeenth century still marked long shône. The weak form of the preterite is not quite recent. The shinde in use in Northern dialects is in Fairfax's Tasso: Flames in his visage shinde.

2. drive; *drave, drove; driven, *drove. Anglosaxon drîfan; sing. drâf, plur. drîfon; drîfen. Old-English driven; sing. drof, plur. driven; driven, drefene (Halliwell s. v.).

Instead of drof we find in Old-English also dref (comp. Danish drev) as a preterite; drave occurs, as well as in Shakspeare, in modern poetry: From battle fields, Where heroes madly drave and dashed their hosts Against each other (Bryant). The participial form drove is in Milton.
and is common to several dialects; instead thereof we find drowen (War-
ton I. 88.).

3. *strive; strove; striven*, although fundamentally Germanic, rests upon no Anglosaxon verb, but on the Old-French estriver; the strifan, which has been imagined in Anglosaxon, according to others stre-
fan, did not exist. Old-English striven; sing. strof, plur. . . : striven.

North-English dialects still have the preterite *strave*, formerly in use in Modern-English: Not us'd to frozen clips he strave to find some part (Sydney). Shakspeare inflected *strive; strove; strave*.

4. *thrive; threwe; thiven*. The preterite also runs thrived (compare Shakspeare Pericl. 5, 2. thriv'd, ed. Collier), as well as sometimes the participle. Anglosaxon prifan; sing. prôf, plur. prifon; prifen, colere, curare. Old-English thriven; sing. throf, also thrafe, thrave (Perceval 212. 226.), plur. thriven; thriven.

*Thraeve and throve* are also cited for the preterite. The older preterite *thrive* (sec. XVII.) rests upon the transition of the plural into the sin-
gular, as well as the rest in *i*.

5. *bite; bit; bitten, bit*. Anglosaxon bitan; sing. bát, plur. biton; biten. Old-English biten; sing. boot, bote, also bate, plur. biten; biten.

6. *write; wrote, *writ; written, writ, *wrote*. Anglosaxon vritan; sing. vrat, plur. vrition; vritten. Old-English writen; sing. wroot, wrot, also wroate (frequently in Skelton); plur. writen; writen, wyryte, wretete (Halliwell s. v.).

The older preterite *writ*, which Shakspeare also has, is indeed found in moderns, but is upon the whole obsolete, although in use dialectically. On the other hand the participle *writ* is still very frequently to be met with, especially in poets, as well as in Shakspeare: Go, read what' er is *writ* of bloodiest strife (L. Byron). And what is *writ*, is *writ* (id.). The participle *wrote*, springing from the preterite, is met with in Shakspeare, Milton, Addison and others.

7. *smite; smote; smitten, smit, smote*. Anglosaxon smitan; sing. smad; plur. smiton; smiten. Old-English smiten; sing. smot, smote, plur. smyton (Rob of Gloucester); smiten, ysmyte, smeten (Halliwell s. v.) smitten.

The participle has passed over in Chaucer into the weak form *smitted*, Troil. and Cress. 5, 1544.; the participial form *smit* is still in use: *Smit* with the love of sacred song (Milton). How *smit* was poor Adelaide's heart at the sight (Campbell). The perjurer . . . and he who laughed . . . Are *smit* with deadly silence (Bryant). The form borrowed from the pre-
terite still belongs to the modern poets: When their fresh rags have *smote* The dew of night (Shakspeare Love's L. L. 4, 3.). Ah, Judas! thou hast *smote* my side (Longfellow). — The preterite *smit*, which was current in the seventeenth century, is still diffused in dialects.

8. *ride; rode, *rid; ridden, rid, rode*. Anglosaxon ridan; sing. rîd, plur. ridon; riden. Old-English riden; sing rod, rood, rode, plur. riden, redyn (Halliwell s. v.); riden, ridden.

The preterite *rode* and *rid* still stand alongside of each other in Shaks-
peare, the latter is now obsolete. In Nothern dialects *raad* still prevails,
as *rad* in Spenser and *rade* in Barbour (as a plural). Among the three forms of the participle in Shakspeare, that with the vowel of the preterite singular is noted by Smart as the best.

9. *bide; preterite *bid (SHAKSP.), now commonly as a compound *abide; abode; abode.* Anglosaxon *bidan, ãbidan; sing. bâd, plur. bidon; biden. Old-English biden, abiden; sing. -bod, -bood, -bode, -bade (habade HALLIWELL), plur. -biden; -biden, -bidden, -boden (PIERS PLOUGHM.), -bode.*

The simple verb, widely diffused in Old-English (comp. Old-Scottish bide; bade, baist; biden, bidden) has in Modern-English yielded to the compound *abide* but has remained in several dialects. The preterite in *i* a favorite in the seventeenth century, is obsolete. The participle *abidden* is still found in the seventeenth century: What punishment he had *abidden* for his jealouse (COBLER OF CANTERBURY 1608); as *bidden* is even now in use in Northern dialects. The change of the vowel of the preterite singular into the participle is old. The weak form *abided* is quoted by J. Wallis as well as thrived.

10. *slide; slid; slidden, slid (WEBSTER).* Anglosaxon *slidan; sing. slâd, plur. slidon; sliden. Old-English sliden; sing. slod, slode, plur. sliden; sliden.*

The preterite *slade* is in use in Northern dialects, as in Scotland in Ramsay.

11. *stride; strode, strid; stridden, strid (WEBSTER).* Anglosaxon *stridan; sing. strâd, plur. stridon; striden. Old-English striden; sing. strod, strode, plur. striden; striden, stridden, strid.*

Northern dialects have the preterite *stred*, others *strade.* Besides the still usual compound *bestrade* the Old-English has also *umstride.*


Moreover this verb early receives the character of a weak verb, in spite of its participle *chidden,* since, in Piers Ploughman for instance the singular of the preterite runs *chidde, chydde,* so that the verb was assimilated to the weak *hide* (Anglosaxon *hydan, hydde, hyded,* which on the other hand assumed the strong participle *hidden.* See above p. 341.

13. *rise; rose; risen, *rose. In Anglosaxon the simple verb is impersonal: me *rised,* decet mihi, me. The compounds are, on the contrary, personal, as *arisan* (Engl. arise &c.); sing. âras, plur. ârison; ârisen. Old-English *risen, arisen; sing. -roos, -rose, plur. -risen, also -resyn, -resyn (HALLIWELL s. vv.); -risen, -risse (riz still vulgarly in London).*

The preterite *riss, riz,* in J. Wallis *rise,* is often found in Beaumont and Fletcher. See Sternberg The Dial. of Northamptonshire p. 87; and is still in use in different dialects. The participle with the o: *rose* still occurs in Fielding: He had *rose* pretty early this morning.

In the transition into the first class is comprised:

striken; sing. strook, strake, plur. striken, strekyn (HALLIWELL v. streke), also stroke (PERCY Rel. p. 3. II.); striken, strike, strekyne.

The preterite stroke, strook, strooke were still common in the seventeenth century; stroke has been preserved the longest, in Northern dialects streuk. Shakspeare, who has the preterite struck, uses the participles stricken, strucken and struck. Strucken stands in: The clock hath strucken twelve upon the bell (Com. of Err. 1. 1. Coll.). Even the most modern times have stricken, and that not merely where it is used adjectively, as in mind-stricken, thunder-stricken &c. Compare: From the spot where I was stricken (L. BYRON).

There has been partly preserved:

15. cleave; clave and cleaved; cleaved, of which also clave is upon the point of being lost. Anglosaxon clifan; sing. clâf, plur. clifon; cli-fen. In Modern-English it coincides in the infinitive and present with cleave, which has likewise almost completely passed into the weak form, but which belonged to the next strong class, Anglosaxon cleâfan. Old-English clyven (PIERS PLOUGHMAN p. 215.); clave (CHESTER PLAYS 2, 70.). The one mingles, even in Old-English, with forms of the other verb.

Of the sixth class there have passed into the fifth and partly assimilated to the verb drive:

16. rice; rived; riven. Anglosaxon rêfan; sing. reáf, plur. rufon; rofen, findere. Old-English rifen, riven; sing. rofe, roofe, rafe (PERCEVAL 2157.) . . . ryffen (TOWNEL. MYST.), to-revyne (HALLIWELL v. slege), roven (ID. v. rove). The maritime reece; rove; rose, would agree with this.

Northern dialects still have the preterite raav and therewith rave, like the Scottish. The rafe, occurring in Chaucer, belongs to the weak Anglosaxon verb reáfjan, whence the Modern-English bereave, Anglosaxon beredajfan.

To a verb of this class its strong participle is still sometimes given:

17. writhe and commonly wrieth (wreathe); wretched; wretched and wreathed, formerly writhe. Anglosaxon vrîdan; sing. vrâd, plur. vrîdon; vrîden, vreôden. Old-English writhe; preterite writhe (PERCY Rel. p. 75. II.). Yet even early in the weak form writhed (HALLIWELL v. writhe); part. writhe. This participle is still in use in the North of England.

The Old-English possessed other verbs of this class, few traces whereof have been preserved in modern times, except in dialects: sryyen (Rob. of Gloucester), shriven; sing. serof, shrof, shrove, also shrawe, plur. shriven; shriven, yssryye. Anglosaxon scifan; sing. scraf, plur. scifon; scifer. Modern-English to shrive. — shiten; sing. shote (compare behalf Lancaster), plur. shiten; shiten, shitten. Dictionaries disdain this popular word, which now sounds in general shite; shit; shitten. — atwiten; sing. atwot, plur. atwiten; atwiten. Anglosaxon atvitan; sing. -vât, plur. -viton; -viten, exprobrate, compounded of vitan, now, strange to say, to twist with rejection of the a. — gliden; sing. glod, glode, plur. gliden; gliden: Modern-English to glide. — gripen, grypen; grep (BEVES OF HAMTON p. 90 and in WEBB) (which moreover early had weak forms: gripte [Rob. of Gloucester I. 22.]) with an apparent transition into the following class, is remarkable. Anglosaxon gripan; sing.
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grap, plur. gripon; gripen. Modern-English to grip; like *repen; sing. 
repe, plur. ropen; roopen (Modern-English to reap), which points not only 
to the Anglosaxon ripan; sing. ráp, plur. ripon, ripen, but also to a verb 
reopan; sing. reáp, plur. rupon; ropen, which is wanting in Anglosaxon. 
Therewith is associated bleven, blewyn (HALLIWELL s. v.); blef (CAXTON) 
from the Anglosaxon be-lifan; sing. -láf, plur. -lifon; -lifen, manere, 
whereas the weak forms blefde and blept point to the Anglosaxon beléfan.

— We often find steyen, stigen (astygen, astyen); sing. stey, stay, steigh, 
steigh, but also frequently the weak forms stighide, stiede, steyed; see 
Dial. of Craven 2. p. 165. Anglosaxon stigan; sing. sták, plur. stigion; 
stigen. The change into the weak form seems generally old; compare 
also swiken, beswiken; swykade; swuken in Halliwell; Anglosaxon svican;
sing. svác, plur. svicon; svicen. Other forms are preserved in dialects.

Sixth Class. The few verbs of this class which have been pre-
served in the literary language have become undistinguishable in 
Modern-English, others have passed wholly or partially into the weak 
conjugation. The Anglosaxon offers here in the present &c. eo, 
rarely é, in the preterite sing. ed, plur. u, and in the perfect 
participle o. The Old-English gives to the present é, to the 
preterite sing. ee or e, plur. o (where e sometimes penetrates from 
the sing.) and the perfect participle o. Modern-English has 
in the present ee, ea, but does not here let the o-sound enter, and 
gives o equally to the preterite and the participle. The inter-
change of s and r in some of these verbs is taken away in Modern-
English and partly even in Old-English in favour of the s. Verbs 
with a final h, v have passed into the seventh class.

1. freeze; froze; frozen, *froze. Anglosaxon freósan, frýsan; sing. freás, 
plur. fruron; froren. Old-English frozen; sing. freez, frese (frez 
Bedfordshire dialect), plur. froren? (Dialectically a-vraur, Somerset); 
froren, yfrore, befrore (GOWER in Halliwell s. v.), a-vrore in Western 
dialects, forforn in Caxton.

The shortened form of the participle froze is found in Shakspeare and 
Young N. 3.

2. seethe; sod; sodden, *sod, forms, which now, along with seethed, 
seethed begin to be obsolete. Anglosaxon séodan, siódan; sing. seað, 
plur. sudon; soden. Old-English sethen; sing. sethe, plur. soden, 
sode (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 408.); soden, ysode, sothen (Reliq. 
Ant. I. 82.).

The weak form seethed is in use for the preterite and participle even 
in the seventeenth century. See J. Wallis p. 118. Shakspeare, among 
others, has the abbreviated participle sod: Twice sod simplicity (Love's 
L. L. 4, 2.).

3. cleave; clove, *clave; cloven, now also wholly passed into the weak 
conjugation: cleft; cleft see p. 343. Anglosaxon cleófan, clúfan; 
sing. cleáf, plur. clufon; cloven. Old-English clefen, cleven; sing. 
clef, cleef, also clæfe (HALLIWELL s. v.), plur. cloven; cloven.

4. heave; *hove, *hoven, *hove, in modern times heaved; heaved. The 
Anglosaxon has here hebban; sing. hóf, plur. hófon; hafen, which 
belonged to the fourth class, and with which the Modern-English 
forms agree. The Old-English ones, on the contrary, at least in
part, refer us to the form *heòfan (1), which Ettmüller lays at the root of *heòfod; sing. heàf, plur. hufon; hofen. although Rob. of Gloucester likewise presents the present hebbe I. 17. Old-English heven and hufe (TOWNEL. MÝST. p 32.), which agrees only with *heòfan = húfan; sing. hefe (HALLIWELL s. v.) and hafe (ID.), haf (CHAUCER 2430.), hof (HAVELOCK 2747.), plur. hofen, hoven; ho- fen, hoven, hove.

The participle hove still occurs in moderns, as Milton.

5. choose; chose; chosen. *chose. Anglosaxon ceòsan; sing. ceás, plur. curon; coren. Old-English chesen; ches, chees, chis (Wedd); plur. chose (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), cheson (ID.), formerly probably also coren; coren (GUY OF WARRIKE p. 428.), icore (A. BRANDAN p. 33.), chosen, ychose, ichose (even ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

The participial form chose is in Shakspeare and Milton. In the seventeenth century the weak form chose is also cited by grammarians for the preterite and participle. In the older Scotch the preterite cheisit also occurs. The infinitive chese still prevails, in Lancashire for instance, chaise in Scottish.

6. lose; now passed into the weak form lost; lost; traces of the participle in forlorn, lasslorn. See p. 343. Anglosaxon leòsan; sing. leás, plur. luron; loren. Old-English leson; sing. les, lees (thou lore ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), plur. loren, lorne; loren, lorne (forlore), ylore, yet also even lost (PIERS PLOUGHM.).

7. shoot; likewise weak shot; shot, *shotten. Anglosaxon sceòtàn; sing. sceát, plur. scoton; scoten. Old-English scheten; yet also shoten; sing. schet, plur. shotten (PIERS PLOUGHM.), yet shete even in Rob. of Gloucester; shoten, yssote (ROB OF GLOUCESTER). See p. 346.

With this class agrees the strong participle rotten, belonging to rot (compare Anglosaxon reòtàn; sing. reàt, plur. ruton; roten, plorare, the stem of rotjan, putrescere), Old-English roten. Yet the strong participial form may have been given to the weak verb. Other verbs of this class are still to be pointed out, at least in single Old-English forms: crepen see above creep. — fleten; preterite flete (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); part.

floten (= distant? GAWAYNE). Anglosaxon fleòtan; sing. fleát, plur. fluton; floten. Modern-English to float. — shoven; sing. shof, shofe, plur. shoven; shoven. Anglosaxon sceòfan; scufan; sing. sceáf, plur. scufon; scofen, Modern-English to shove, seems like choose, lose &c. to have early assumed the o in the present. — loken, to lock, has the strong participle lokon, beoke, biloke. Anglosaxon lícian; sing. leác, plur. lucon; locen, alongside whereof lokede from the weak form of the preterite usually occurs. Modern-English to lock. — leyen, lien, has in the preterite leyhe, leyhe; leyen, leen; liegh, liegh, leyhe, flayhe &c., plur. flowen, as the participle lowen and flowen also occur. Anglosaxon leógan, fleógan; sing. leáh, fleáh, plur. lugon, flugon; logen, folgen. whereas now to fly has passed into the seventh class, like others of the sixth class in Old English. Teen to draw, preterite tegh also occur. Anglosaxon teóhan, teón; sing. teáh, plur. tugon; togen.

Seventh Class. This and the following class comprise the verbs which originally repeated the initial sound of the verbal stem before it in the preterite, therefore the reduplicative verbs. This redupli-
cation is however, hardly more to be met with in Anglosaxon; but, through the blending of the syllable before the stem, arising from this reduplication, the two classes of verbs have arisen, whereof one presents *e*ó, the other *é* in the preterite.

In Anglosaxon the first of these, which is here cited as the seventh, has various vowels in the present: *ea, ò, éd, ò, ó*; in the preterite sing. and plur. *éó*; in the perfect participle *ea, ò, ó.* Old-English, like Modern-English, mostly has in the present obscure vowels, corresponding to the Anglosaxon ones: *a, o*; in the preterite sing. and plur. the vowel *e*, appears in Old-English, which likewise always appears in Modern-English, except in the verb *beat*. Yet with the proportionally greater number of verbs ending in *v*, the *v* has been softened and gives with *e* the diphthong *ev*. Since also verbs of other classes, ending in *g* or *v*, readily blended their softened consonant with the preceding vowel into *eo*, many others must be regarded as passed over into this class. The participle of the perfect has nothing characteristic, except that it appropriates the vowel of the present, although not without exception, as is the case also with the corresponding Anglosaxon verbs. Moreover many verbs have only preserved the strong participial form in Modern-English.

1. *beat; beat; beaten, beat*. Anglosaxon beátan; beót; béaten. Old-English beten; bete, but also bete (PIERS PLOUGHM.); beten, ybete, bete, bet.

The Old-English form bette shews a passing over into the weak conjugation. The participle beat no longer often cited. Compare on the other hand: Had your heart newer beat for any of the noble youth? (L. BYRON).

2. *fall; fell; fallen* (fall’n often with poets), in composition mostly befal; befel; befallen. Anglosaxon feallan; feóll, feallan. Old-English fallen; fel, fil, file; fallen.

The invasion of the vowel of the preterite into the participle is remarkable: Sure some disaster has befel; Speak, nurse! I hope the boy is well? (GAY). The participle fell is said to belong to the Londoner of the lower sphere.

3. *hold; held; holden, held*; likewise behold &c. Anglosaxon healdan, beheldan; heóld; healden. In Old-English we often find here an interchange of vowels in the singular and plural of the preterite, and even of the present: halden, holden (hald 3. pers. sing. pres., plur. holden PLOUGHM.); pret. sing. hult, bihul’d, plur hul’d (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), sing. heeld, plur. helden (PIERS PLOUGHM.), also sing. halde, plur. halden (HALLIWELL); part holden, hold, at-hold (HALLIWELL s. v.).

The participles upholden and withheld pass as obsolete. Shakspeare has the participles held and holden alongside each other. As fill alongside of fell, so held occurs alongside of hold (see HALLIWELL s. v.) and is still to be met with in dialects.

4. *blow; blew; blown*. Anglosaxon blávan; bleóv; bláven, flare. The English verb blow, belongs to the Anglosaxon blóvan, florere, which was probably likewise a strong verb (bleóv; blóven), so that both might coincide in their forms. Old-English blawen (HALLIWELL s. v.), blowen; blew; blowen, yblowe, blow, blawun (id.).
5. *throw; threw; thrown. Anglosaxon prāvan; preów; prāven. Old-
English thrawen, threwen; threw; thrown, throw.

6. *know; knew; known. Anglosaxon cnāvan; cnéów; cnāven. Old-
English knawen, knowen; knew, knownen, know, beknaue.

7. *crow; crew; *crown, crowed. In Anglosaxon the corresponding
word does not occur, but is to be inferred: crāvan; creów; crāven.
Old-English crawen; crew, creew (Maunder.); crowen; crowe.

8. *grow; grew; grown. Anglosaxon grōvan; greóv; grōven. Old-En-
GLISH growen; grew; growen, grofen (Halliwell s. v.).

Among the verbs in *ow, inclining to the formation of a weak preterite,
is *grow in the olden time: It groved to a gret tree (Maunder. p. 117.).
Though neuer green grewed (Piers Ploughm. p. 275.); for which also
groved stands, for instance Townel. Myst. p. 12. The employment of
the weak forms blowed, throwed, drewed (Convett) &c. is therefore not
new. In the seventeenth century blow'd, throw'd, crow'd, draw'd &c.
passed among grammarians as preterites and participles with a warrant
equal to that of the strong forms.

The following verbs have in Modern-English exchanged their
strong preterite with the weak one:

9. *hew; hewed; hewn and hewed. Anglosaxon heávan; heóv; heáven.
Old-English hewen; hew; hewen. Anglosaxon also has a weak
verb heávjan.

10. *mow; mowed; mown and mowed. Anglosaxon mâvan; meóv; mâ-
ven. Old-English moven; mew; mowen. The preterite mew is
still in use in Northern and East-Anglian dialects.

11. *sow; sowed; sown and sowed. Anglosaxon sāvan; seóv; sāven.
Old-English sowen; sew; sowen, sow. The preterite sew is found
in several dialects, as in Lincolnshire.

The two following verbs have weak forms in Anglosaxon, but
seem to have been early assimilated to the preceding ones in the
participle:

12. *show, shew; showed, shewed; shown. Anglosaxon scavjan, sceav-
jan; -óde; -ód, aspicere. Old-English, and commonly, shewen; shew-
ved (shewed Halliwell s. v.); shewed; but in Old-Scottish schaw;
participle schawin. Dialetically even the preterite shew shews
itself in Essex.

13. *strew, strow, even *straw still in Northern dialects; strewd, strow-
ed; strewn, strown, strowed, streewed. Anglosaxon strevjan, stréav-
jan, stréóvjan; -óde, -ód. Old-England strewen; strewed; streewed
(Townel. Myst. p. 180.).

There have passed over out of the fourth class on account of
their final guttural sound:

14. *draw; drew; drawn. Anglosaxon dragan; dróg; dragen. Old-
English drawen, dray (Townel. Myst. p. 49.); dro3, draw3, drogh,
drought, drow, drw (= drew); drawen, drawe, drayne (Halliwell
s. v.).

15. *sly; slew; slay. Anglosaxon slahan, sleahan, slagan, contracted
slean, slán; shlōn, plur. slōgon; slagen, slägen, slegen. Old-English
sleen, sle, sle, sla, slene, sloo, slo (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.); slowgh, slough, slou (Rob. of Gloucester pl. slowe), slow, slew; slawan, yslawe, slawe, soon (Halliw. s. v.), slain.

Both verbs are treated analogously in Old-English, yet the contracted Anglosaxon forms of the latter had preponderant influence; the entrance of the *w* in the preterite is more modern than that of other forms.

16. *fly; flew; flown.* Anglosaxon *flogan*; sing. *fleah*, plur. *flugon*; *flogen*, *fleen*, *yflowe* still the grete, from dewe gnog; *glogen*, *fleih*, *fleihan*, *fleen*, meaning flugon; *flogen*, *fleen*, *yflowe* still the grete, from dewe gnog; *glogen*, *fleih*, *fleihan*, *fleen*, *yflowe* (Rob. of Gloucester), *feye* (id.), flaine.

Some verbs of this class, which Old-English still exhibits alongside of others which have passed over into others are: *wepen*, see above to weep p. 342. — *falden, folden; feld; folden, fold* (unfolden), Anglosaxon *faldan*, whence the participle *folden* reaches into Modern-English. Modern-English to fold. — *walken; welke* (Percival 209.), *iyt*; *walke*, *wolke*. Anglosaxon *vealcan*; *veole*; *vealcan*. Modern-English to walk. — From the fourth class there passes over occasionally *gnawen*; *gnaw* (thus still in Suffolk) alongside of *gnoghe*, *gnowe*; *gnewen*. Anglosaxon *gnagan*; *gnog*; *gnagen*. Modern-English to *gnaw*. See above p. 367. — *daven; dewe* (Halliwell s. v.) points to an Anglosaxon *dagan*; *dög*; dagen which cannot be shewn. Modern-English to *daven*. The dialectical *snew*, *snown*, from *snaven*, is perhaps only an unjustified imitation; Anglosaxon knows only *snivan*, sing. *snâv*, plur. *snaven*; *sniven*, and the verb to snow seems denominative. From the sixth class the preterite *browe* (Piers Ploeghm. p. 90.) belongs here, although the plural of the preterite *browe* occurs in Rob. of Gloucester and the participle *browen* elsewhere. Anglosaxon *browe*; *snew*, *brev*; *brêav*, plur. *bruvon*; *browen*. Modern-English to *browe*.

**Eighth Class.** This second class of originally reduplicated verbs has no longer a verb to exhibit in Modern-English, the verb *hang*, which belonged here, having passed over into the first strong conjugation. In Anglosaxon the present has *a*, *â*, *e*, the preterite sing. and plur. *ê*, the perfect participle *a*, *â*, *ê*. Old-English gave *e* to the preterite and preserved to the participle the vowel of the present.

Old-English verbs of the class are: *hangen, hangen*, mostly transitive, yet also intransitive; *henge, hinge; hangen, høngen, hønge*. Anglosaxon *hangan*; *hêng*; hangen. Modern-English *hang*; hung; hung. Yet the intransitive is early in use hangen, høngen; hanged; hanged &c. Anglosaxon *hângjan*; -*ôde*; -*ôd*, pendere, mingled with the strong verb. — *fangen, fongan*; *feng*, *aveng* (Rob. of Gloucester); *fangen, fongan*, capere accipere. Anglosaxon *fangan*, *fon*; *fêng*; fangen, yet here *ô* early presses into the preterite: *fong* and even the weak form: *underfonged* (Piers Ploeghm.). — *gangen* see irregular verb *go*. — *gretan; grete*; *greten*, *gréte*, also *igroten*. Anglosaxon *gretan*; *gré*; *gretan*, whence still *gréit*, preterite *grat* in Northern dialects and Scotland, with the participle *grutten*.

Others have passed over into the weak conjugation, as *haken*. See hight p. 352. *laten*, see p. 350. *slepen*, see p. 342. Even in Old-English *dreden, adreden* has degenerated, participle *draid*; *adraid*, but also *adred* (Rises). Modern-English *adred*. Anglosaxon *a-draidan*; -*drêdi* -*draiden*. 

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Irregular Verbs.

Under this name we comprehend a number of verbs whose anomalies are not explained by the linguistic processes hitherto discussed. Here belong:

a) The verb be, springing from several verbal stems. Anglosaxon beón.

### Present Indicative.

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<td>Old-Engl. am</td>
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<td>is</td>
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### Preterite Indicative.

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### Infinitive

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<td>vés vésad vésende</td>
<td>yben, ben, be, abyn</td>
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<td>beth</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Modern-English has in general use given up a number of forms, still possessed by Old-English. Moreover the forms from be have not been given up in poetry, where beest also occurs for the conjunctive. Bee, beést, bee, plur. bee, are given by J. Wallis as regular forms for the conjunctive, yet also for the indicative: If thou beest Stephano, touch me (Shakspe. Temp.). If thou beest he (Milton P. L. I. 84.); particularly in the plural: There be some sports are painful (Shakspe. Temp.). Those be rubies (io. Mids. N. Dr.). And who be they (L. Byron). There be more things to greet the heart and eyes (io.). — Bez instead of beth in the singular in Longtoft’s Chron. p. 244. Bees as 3. pers. sing. and 1. 2. 3. pers. plur. is frequent in the Towneley Mysteries. Thou beys Skelton still has, as he also still employs be for the second person plural: Ye be an apte man (I. 36.), whereas it was subsequently frequently used for the third person. The plural beth: We beth brethren (Piers Ploughman p. 391.), is still found in Skelton as beyth. Be for the first person, as well as for all others of the singular and plural of the indicative, not merely of the present, is peculiar to many dialects. Bin, which proceeds from the plural ben, stands dialectically for are, were and is; it is also found for is in ancient dramatists. Chalmers quotes out of Shakspeare:
The Parts of Speech. B. The Verb. Irregular Verbs.

With every thing that pretty bin, and Lord Byron writes: There bin another pious reason. Be instead of been is still familiar to the sixteenth century: The PARDONER AND THE FRERE p. 95. For is, es sometimes occurs in Old-English (HALLIWELL v. fame 2). — In the preterite wast and wert are subsequent formations; although the latter at present passes for the conjunctive, yet even now as well as formerly it still stands as the indicative form: Wert thou alone? (CONGREVE). Thou wert godlike E'en then (id.). Thou wert the throne and grave of empires (L. BYRON). When all were changing thou alone wert true (id.). I turned to thee, for thou wert near (BRYANT). Instead of wast, was formerly occurs: Sithene was thou straynede one the crosse (Mss. in HALLIWELL v. straine); waste in Skelton I. 260. The genuine verbal form thou were is still in Shakspeare (K. Lear.). Was as 2. pers. plur. often occurs: I'll pepper you better than ever you was peppered (FIELDING). It is here and there regarded as the regular form. The employment of am, as well as of be, for all persons: he'm, we'm, you'm &c. in Northampton, Bedford, Somerset &c., is dialectical, as also are occurs for the singular: I are, he are &c. The rejection of the initial vowels of the verb has pressed from the popular into the written language: I'm in love (LONGFELLOW). Thou 'rt gone (BRYANT). You 're a child (L. BYRON). She 's in Madrid (LONGFELLOW). How 's this? (id.), as n'as instead of no was, was not are found.

b) The verb do. Anglosaxon dön.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Indicative.</th>
<th>Conjunctive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>dost, doest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. dön</td>
<td>dést</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. doest, dest</td>
<td>dop, dooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R. of Gl.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preterite Indicative.</th>
<th>Conjunctive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>did</td>
<td>didst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. dide</td>
<td>dide, diden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. dide, dudi</td>
<td>didest, dudest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R. of Gl.)</td>
<td>dide, duden, duden, duden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>doing</td>
<td>done</td>
<td>gedön</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. dön</td>
<td>dö, döö</td>
<td>doande, doand</td>
<td>ydon, doon,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. don, doon,</td>
<td>do, doth,</td>
<td>doing</td>
<td>ydo, do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doone, doe, do dooth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modern-English Grammar no longer cites the older forms of the conjunctive; the indicative forms, where varying from these, are used for them. The forms dost and doest are now understood to be so distinct, that doest is to be used in a pregnant sense, dost as a periphrastic verbal form (auxiliary verb). The elision of the o in do is familiar to rapid speech in few contexts: „So soon returned!" old Dobson cries. „So soon d'ye call it?" Death replies (Mss. THRALE). Hence the popular verbs don, dout, dup, instead of do on, out, up, the two former of which occur in Shakspeare. Compare also: I would don my hose of homespun gray (LONGFELLOW). The spelling doe for do occurs even in the seventeenth century.
c) The verb *go*, which completes its preterite by another verbal stem, Anglosaxon *gangan*, gān, see p. 375.

### Present Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>goest</em></td>
<td><em>goes</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *gange* (gā)  
Old-Engl. *go, go*  

### Conjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
<td><em>go</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *gengan* (gān)  
Old-Engl. *gongen*  

### Preterite Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>wentest</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *geóng*  
Old-Engl. *eode, eode &c.*  

### Conjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
<td><em>went</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *eodan*  
Old-Engl. *yode, yode &c.*  

### Infinitive.

| *go* | *go* | *go* | *go* | *gone* |

Angl. *gangan, gân*  
Old-Engl. *gangen, gongen, go, goth*  

The fuller forms from *gangen* do not frequently occur in Old-English.  
For the preterite belonging to it there is frequently substituted, even in Anglosaxon, a weak verb of another stem: *eode*; the forms *yede, yeade &c.* still occur in Spenser, and even now *yewd* and *yod* are said to be in use in the North of England. The verb *wend*, which also occur in the present:  
If, maiden thou wouldst *wend* with me To leave both tower and town  
(W. Scott), underwent even in Old-English the transformation of the *de* into *t*. See above p. 348. In *ago* the old abbreviated participial form is still preserved: *My sparrowe is *go** (Skelton 1. 54).*

d) Finally there belong here a number of the so-called *preterito-presentia*, or *past-presents*, that is, those verbs in which an originally strong preterite enters as a present and receives a new preterite of the weak conjugation, which in Anglosaxon was formed after the first weak conjugation. They have been mostly incompletely preserved in Modern-English.

1. *can.*

### Present Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>canst</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *can*  
Old-Engl. *kan*  

### Conjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl. 1</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
<td><em>can</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *cunnon*  
Old-Engl. *konnen, konne, can*  

The verb *wend* also occur in the present:  
If, maiden thou wouldst *wend* with me To leave both tower and town  
(W. Scott), underwent even in Old-English the transformation of the *de* into *t*. See above p. 348. In *ago* the old abbreviated participial form is still preserved: *My sparrowe is *go** (Skelton 1. 54).*

1. *can.*
### Preterite Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl.1.2.3.</th>
<th>s.1.2.3.</th>
<th>pl. 1. 2. 3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>could</td>
<td>cooldst</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Anglos.** cūde, cūdest cūde cūdun cūde (on)

**Old-Engl.** kouthe, kouthest, kouthe, koupen, koupe, kouthen, couthe, coude, coudest coude, coude, coude, couden

### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>con</em></td>
<td><em>cunning</em></td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Angl.** cunnan, valere; posse, scire

**Old-Engl.** connen, conne.

The infinitive *con* is still in use in the sense of to study, to commit to memory; obsolete in the sense of to know (still in Shakespeare). The perfect participlestands in the compound: uncouth. Anglosaxon uncūd, incognitus. The *l* in *could* has been inserted in modern times from a false analogy to *shall, will*. Skelton still writes without *l*: I would ye *could* (I. 26.). The participle *cunning*, which sounds like the Anglosaxon substantive, is an adjective. As to the rejection of *st* in: Thou can (Skelton I. 260. 263 &c.) see p 331.

### 2. dare.

### Present Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl.1.2.3.</th>
<th>s.1.2.3.</th>
<th>pl. 1. 2. 3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dare</td>
<td>darest</td>
<td>dares, dare</td>
<td>dare</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Angl.** dear, dearst, dear, derron, durren, dure, duren, dore (Gower durre in Hall, s.v.)

**Old-Engl.** dar, daret, dar, dare, dur, duren, dore (Gower durre in Hall, s.v.)

### Preterite Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl.1.2.3.</th>
<th>s.1.2.3.</th>
<th>pl. 1. 2. 3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>durst</td>
<td>durst</td>
<td>durst</td>
<td>durst</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Angl.** dorste, dorste, dorston, dore, dore (Gower durre in Hall, s.v.)

**Old-Engl.** dorste, dorste, dorston, dore, dore (Gower durre in Hall, s.v.)

### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>—</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Anglos.** durran

**Old-Engl.** durren, durre, durre, daren

The genuine third person of the present *dare* still occurs along with *dares* See p. 332. In the meaning of to challenge *dare* has wholly passed over into the regular weak conjugation: *dared; dared*. As to the rejection of the inflected termination of the second person present, as in: Thou dare (Skelton I. 297.) see p. 332.

### 3. shall.

### Present Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s. 1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>pl.1.2.3.</th>
<th>s.1.2.3.</th>
<th>pl. 1. 2. 3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>shalt</td>
<td>shall</td>
<td>shall</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Angl.** sceal, scealt, sceal, sculon, sceolon, syclē (scule) syclēn

**Old-Engl.** shal, shalt, shullen, shuln (shullep shul shullen, shuln

**R. of Gl. I. 3), shul shullen, shuln
In this verb the rejection of the *t* of the second person singular of the present was very frequent: Then *shalt* thou se (HALLIWELL s. v. slagt), s. p. 331. The abbreviation of the *shall* into *Ise, Pís, ve’s yeis (ye shall*), seems remarkable, as it occurs in Northern dialects and in Scottish. The *s* is the remnant of *shall*, with whose *l* the preceding vowel also perished. We also find the verb shortened into *sh*: By Iys Ish lug the by the swete eares (THE PARDONER AND THE FRERE p. 122). Ish knocke the on the costarde (in.). *l* in the North of England and in Scotland is confessedly often thrown off.

4. *may*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Indicative</th>
<th>Conjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>may</em></td>
<td><em>mayst</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. <em>mág</em></td>
<td><em>mág</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. <em>mow</em></td>
<td><em>myht</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preterite Indicative</th>
<th>Conjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>might</em></td>
<td><em>mightest</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. <em>meahte</em></td>
<td><em>meahtest</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. <em>moȝte</em></td>
<td><em>migtest</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angl. <em>magan</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. <em>mowen</em>, <em>mowe</em> (may?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The old form of the second person singular of the indicative *myht* is still found a long time in Old-English: Ameude thee, while thou *myght* (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 228.). The rejection of the inflective termination is not rare: No thing *thou may take fro us* (MAUNDEV. p 294.). As thou *may se thy self* (SKELETON I. 145.), s. p. 331. The forms in *ow, oȝ, ough* seem to have universally subsisted along with those in *ay, iȝh*, yet the latter might have been early more general. Rob. of Gloucester, for instance, has *miȝte*. 
The Parts of Speech. B. The Verb. Irregular Verbs.

5. *will.* This incomplete so-called auxiliary verb is to be entirely separated from the weakly inflected *to will,* Anglosaxon *villjan;* -ôde; -ôd, *cupere.*

Present Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Pl. 1. 2. 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *vilë* (ville)  
Old-Engl. *wille,* *wille,* *wilë,* *wille,* *willenn,* *wiln,*  
wole, wole, wole, wol, wollep, wollen, wole &c. wolen &c.

Conjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Pl. 1. 2. 3</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td><em>will</em></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *vilë* (ville)  
Old-Engl. *wille,* *wille,* *wilë,* *wille,* *willenn,* *wiln,*  
wol

Preterite Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>would</em></td>
<td><em>wouldst</em></td>
<td><em>would</em></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *volde*  
Old-Engl. *wolde*  

Conjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<td><em>would</em></td>
<td><em>wouldst</em></td>
<td><em>would</em></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Angl. *volde*  
Old-Engl. *wolde*

Infinitive.

Angl. *vislan.*

The *ô* has in Old-English early penetrated into the present (perhaps from the preterite) without the *ô*'s being supplanted thereby. The latter is found alongside of the former: *Ich wille* the love (Dame Siriz p. 5.). The forms in *ô* are in Rob of Gloucester. A remnant of the *ô* is preserved by the language in *won*t or *wo* n't, that is *wol* not instead of *will* not, which cannot have sprung from *would* not, as many think. *I wol* is found even late (Jack Jugler p. 9.). *The more complete wonot see in Abbot: That I wonot* (Craven Dial. II p. 260.). The *ou* in the preterite did not gain more general diffusion till late. For the rejection of the inflection of the second person: *Thou will* (Percy Rel. 111. I), see p. 331. The more rapid speech often throws off the stem of the verb down to the final sound, often the whole stem down to the inflection, after vowels before other parts of speech, particularly before a verb: I'll sigh and weep (Shakspe Two G. of Ver.). You'll disturb the abbot at his prayers (Longfellow). We'll speak more largely Of Preciosa (m. I'd put a girdle round about the earth In forty minutes (Shakspe. Mids. N. Dr.). Cack's soul! thou *'dst* rather play (Longfellow).— Old-English also possessed the negative verb arising by composition with *ne* and the rejection of the primitive *wille,* *nill,* *nille* &c.; *nolle,* *noldest* &c.; *nol,* *nolui.* Anglosaxon *nylle,* *nylt,* *nylle*; *nyllad*; *nolde* &c. Use is still made of it in Modern-English: Will he *nill* he (Shakspe. Haml. 5, 1). Will you *nill* you (Tam. of the Shrew 2, 1). To will or *nill,* to think things good or bad Alike with me (B. Jonson Cataline); and hence still in the popular language: *willy nilly* = will ye *nill* ye.
6. *mote. Of this only the preterite *must, which even passes into the present signification, has remained in the more general use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. *môt</td>
<td>*móst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. mot, mote</td>
<td>(most)mote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preterite Indicative</th>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angl. *môste</td>
<td>*môtest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. moste,most</td>
<td>mostest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infinitive.

Angl. *mûtan

We still occasionally see use made of the ancient mote, yet partly without a clear consciousness of its grammatical nature: Whatsoever this grief mote be, which he could not control (L. Byron). Compare Old-English: Men mooten given silver to the pore freres (Chaucer 232). Ever blissid mot thay be (Townel. Myst. p. 293.). Amen! so mot hyt be! (History of Freemans. p. 36.).

7. *wit, is a verb now but little used in Modern-English, although very familiar to Old-English, whose infinitive wit still occurs in the chancery style and adverbially as to wit, videlicet. Alongside of it is placed the likewise obsolete infinitive form to weet, but to which wot, wote is falsely taken to be the preterite. Much unclarity prevails about the grammatical relations of these forms, which is easily removed by the ocular statement of their origin.

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>s. 1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
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<td>*wot</td>
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<td>Angl. wåt</td>
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<td>Old-Engl. wot,</td>
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<th>Preterite Indicative</th>
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<td>*wist</td>
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<td>Angl. viste (visse)</td>
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<td>Old-Engl. wiste,wyste,</td>
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<td>wuste,weste</td>
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The verb to wis = to know, given in the dictionaries, is an assumption, which seems to find support in the frequent /wis. It has been already pointed out that this formula, Old-English ywis, was originally nothing else than the Anglosaxon geviss = certus. The genuine to wiss, Old-English wissen, is the Anglosaxon weak verb visjan, vissjan, regere, docere, whose meaning it also retains, and has originally naught to do with the one before us. Modern poets use our verb here and there. Shakspeare has, I wot, you wot, they wot, and has even formed a participle wotting (Winter’s Tale 3, 2. ed. Collier). Of the moderns compare: God wot (H. Wallpole). How is that young... Gaditana That you both wot of? (Longfellow). Sudden he gazed and wist not what to do (Parnell). They laid them in the place of graves, yet wist not whose they were (Bryant). — The old forms wotest, woteth, wyte, as well as those with o in the plural of the present, belong to an unwarrantable assimilation. — Old-English has also a negative verb, whence niste, nisten. Anglosaxon nát, nást, niton &c.; nisse, niste &c.; nescire.

8. To this class belongs, finally, the verb owe, Anglosaxon ágan, properly to hold, then: to owe, be indebted. In these meanings the preterite that has become a present is now conjugated weakly, and furnished with a preterite and participle owed; owed; and therewith remains to it ought with the same significations, resting upon the Anglosaxon preterite. Besides, the preterite ought appears in the sense of a present and preterite with the meaning of duty or of necessity. We disregard the weak forms owe; owed; owed, and only give the English forms founded immediately upon the Anglosaxon. Old-English has moreover annexed the meaning of indebtedness and necessity to the present and preterite, and used this preterite even in the present sense. Compare: Guy of Warwick p. 7. Chaucer 11934.

### Present Indicative.

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<td>Angl. áh</td>
<td>ágeh</td>
<td>áh</td>
<td>ágon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Old-Engl. awe, (awe?)</td>
<td>awe</td>
<td>awen</td>
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### Preterite Indicative.

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<td>Angl. áhte</td>
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<td>áhton</td>
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<td>Old-Engl. ahte, aȝte,</td>
<td>aughtest, aughte, aughten,</td>
<td>aughte &amp;c. aughten &amp;c.</td>
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<td>aȝte, aught</td>
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<td>te, ought</td>
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<td>&amp;c. oughte</td>
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The Old-English also used *ought* as an impersonal verb, like *oportet*: Wel *ought* us werche, and idelinesse withstond (CHaucer 15482. Tyrwh.).

Among the lost preterito-presentia of the Anglosaxon is *munan*, pres. ann; pret. üde; part. geunnen, amare, largiri; and *munan*, pres. man (plur. munon); pret. munde; part. munen; cogitare, putare; which answers to the Old-norse *munu*; pres. mun, plur. munum. The latter served, like the Greek *πέλετον* to form the periphrastic future. With that agrees the Old-English *mon, mun, moun*: Where I am ye *moun* not come (Wicliffe Joh. VII.). Ye *moun* not serve God and richesse (in Math. VI.), which Chaucer presents several times in Tyrwhitts edition, where Wright has *may*. This form might certainly be also equivalent to *mowen* (from *may*); yet it is remarkable that even now they say in the North of England *mune*, *munete*, *munna*, which is usually explained by *must I, thou, he; ye muen* do it etc. I dare not claim unconditionally the Anglosaxon *mun* for this form. Even the preterito-presents *purfan*, pres. sing. pearf, plur. purfon; pret. porfte, indigere, opus habere, is lost. We *may*, however, presume this verb in the Old-English *tharen, tharine* (Towel. Myst. p. 126.), in which *f* has been cast off, as it likewise does not appear in the corresponding Danish *turde*. Compare: What *thar* the recch or care How merily that other folkes fare? (Chaucer 5911.) as so often impersonally, but also personally: He *thar* nat weene wel that eyvl doth (in. 4318.). The *a* of the infinitive comes from the present. Compare also Halliwell's vv. *thare, tharine*.

### Compound and Perihrastic Tenses.

The poverty of the English language in inflective forms of the verb renders the use of auxiliary verbs necessary to determine more particularly, partly the relations of the activity to the sphere of time, partly the subjective relation of the speaker to the predicate, finally, to gain passive tenses.

We are wont to term *have, be, shall, will, can, may, do, ought, must, let* auxiliary verbs. We do this on the one hand, so far as they do not by themselves make up the predicate, but only in union with the participle or infinitive of another verb; but in this case we might augment their number to an indefinite extent. On the other hand it is assumed that by those verbs with their complements those relations of the verb are expressed which, in tongues of richer development of forms, are represented by tenses and moods. But here we manifestly go too far, since, for example, the certainly modal determinations contained in *can, must &c.*, are expressed with decision by no verbal form in any tongue whatever.

The doctrine of forms has to do primarily only with the statement of those combinations of participles and infinitives with verbs of that class by which inflective forms of the verb existing in other tongues are supplied.

So far as the auxiliary verbs coming here under review offer
only two inflective forms of time, they often appear themselves compounded in periphrastic forms.

1. The tenses of the active voice gained by composition are essentially preserved by have, shall and will. How far be comes under review here is a matter for syntax.

   Tenses of the present time are completed in the following manner; the perfect: I have been, had, loved: The future: I shall (will) be, have, love; when the first person receives shall, the two others will in the singular and plural: The future perfect: I shall (will) have been, had, loved.

   Tenses of the past:
   The plusquamperfectum: I had been, had, loved. The imperfect of the future: I should (would) be, have, love. The plusquamperfectum of the future: I should (would) have been, had, loved.

   Middle forms:
   The compound gerund (participle): having been, had, loved.
   The infinitive of the past: to have been, had, loved.

2. The verb may may serve for the periphrastic formation of the conjunctive in its simple and compound forms; upon which syntax has to give more particular explanation. The completion of a few forms of the imperative is given by the verb let: Let me, him, us, them be &c.

3. The verb be with the participle of the perfect is substituted for all passive forms:

   Tenses of the present:
   Present: I am loved. Perfect: I have been loved. Future: I shall (will) be loved. Future perfect: I shall (will) have been loved.

   Tenses of the past:
   Preterite: I was loved, Plusquamperfectum: I had been loved. Imperfect of the future: I should (would) be loved. Plusquamperfectum of the future: I should (would) have been loved.

   Middle forms:
   The gerunds: of the present, being loved; of the past, having been loved.
   The infinitive: of the present, to be loved; of the past, to have been loved.
   Imperative: be (thou, you) loved; let me, him, us, them be loved.

4. Periphrastic forms of another sort, neither serving as substitutes for non-existent tenses, nor expressing modal relations of the predicate, are familiar both to Modern- and Old-English. They are shades of the notion of activity itself, for which, strictly speaking, no other verbal form could be substituted.

   Here belongs the periphrasis with be with the participle or gerund of the present; as: The wind is roaring (LONGFELLOW). The day is drawing to its close (ID.). We had been wandering for many days (WHITTIER). Old-English: Syngynge he was or flowtynge,
al the day (CHAUCER 91.). We han ben waytyng e al this fourtenight (931.). Here the verb of the predicate is resolved in such a manner that the activity is to be taken as a determination or quality cleaving to the subject, where the image of involution with or severance in the activity is approximate. Another periphrasis with be is that in which the infinitive is joined with it: Your brother is to die (SHAKSPEARE Meas. for Meas.). How is this to be reconciled with the doctrine of hereditariness? (LEWES). The infinitive with to expresses here, in connection with the preceding verb, the activity which the subject inclines to, strives towards or is designed for, where Old-English used to join for to the infinitive: 3if that hit be for to done (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. for.).

A familiar periphrasis is that when the verb do precedes the simple infinitive: We do want a coach (GOLDSMITH). Bring the lamp, Elsie. Dost thou hear? (LONGFELLOW). I did not write (MURRAY). Do thou love; do ye be loved (1D.). Comp. Old-English: Do me endite Thy maydenes deth (CHAUCER 11960.). This mode of expression, wherein the general precedes the particular notion of the activity, seems originally to admit the reduplication for the sake of emphasis, which, however, has been weakened by the progressive enchoachment of this periphrasis. Syntax has to shew in what manner Modern-English departs from the older usage in the employment of it, particularly in negative and interrogative sentences.

The statement of the forms hitherto cited conducts us to the domain of syntax, where the more particular discussion of cognate phenomena will find its place.

C) Particles.

1) The Adverb.

The adverb or word of circumstance serves to determine the notion of the activity. If the adverb determines another part of speech than the verb, this only happens so far as the fundamental notion of an activity is still perceived in it. If the adverb receives at the same time a reference to a substantive, it becomes a preposition; if it relates at the same time to an entire sentence, it takes the nature of a conjunction.

a) It serves primarily to express determinations of space. Here it is the determinations of the Where? Whither? and Whence? which are denoted in an interrogative, demonstrative or more particular manner.

1) To the where? refer: where? here; there; anywhere; elsewhere; somewhere; negatively nowhere. More particular determinations contain yonder; below; before; behind; within; without &c. Yet the separation of the Where? from the Whither? is not always carried out; even where is extended to the latter by the usage of the tongue: And from the mart he's somewhere gone to dinner (SHAKSPEARE Com. of Err.). We wish to inquire whence you came, and where you are going (LONGFELLOW).
2) To express the Whence? whither? hither; thither; hitherward(s) and similar compounds serve, as, eastward, backward &c., where-in however direction and movement coincide, and some others, as home &c.

3) The Whither? is denoted by: whence? hence; thence, as well as combinations of determinations of space with a preceding from: from below; from above &c., when we also even add from to the three characteristic adverbs whence? hence; thence: from whence? &c., which appears a pleonasm, but is very usual.

b) The adverbs of time serve
1) To denote a point or space of time generally, in which the activity falls. Here belong the interrogative when? the generalising whensoever and the demonstrative then. In a more definite manner is denoted:

a) either the present, for instance, by now; at present; to day &c.

b) or the past, as by yesterday; newly; lately; formerly; before; erewhiile; of yore &c., although here occasionally we may start even from a past point of time,

γ) or the future: to-morrow; soon; anon; hereafter; by and by &c. when the standing-point from which the speaker starts, may again belong to various times.

2) They also express the continuance of the activity, as well as its extension from a point or up to a point of the line of time, as: long; longtime; still; ever; always; henceforth; henceforward; since; since then; hitherto; and negatively no longer; never.

3) So too the more or less frequent repetition of the activity is denoted by the adverb of time, as by again; once more; seldom; oft, often; oftentimes; sometimes; now and then; daily; weekly; monthly; yearly &c.

4) Adverbs frequently have regard to the contemporaneous or the temporal succession of activities, as is the case in then; after; afterward; forthwith; first; last, and others.

5) Finally, the adverb of time may receive a subjective tinge by a reference to the image of appropriateness or expectation and the contrary, as appears in early; late; betimes; already; sudden; suddenly and others.

c) Adverbs of manner denote in the most general sense a quality of the activity. As the adjective, the numeral and the adjective pronoun act in the determination of the substantive, so this adverb acts in the determination of the notion of activity, and comprises accordingly, besides qualitative determinations in the narrower sense, also demonstrative and quantitative ones, and, by analogy to the negative indefinite pronoun, the negation in the sentence. Thus these adverbs comprise:

1) Adverbs of manner in the narrower sense:

α) as interrogative and demonstrative ones: how? so; thus; or indeterminate ones: somehow &c.
and with a more particular notional determination: well; wisely; admirably; foolishly; slowly; quickly; at random; by stealth &c.

2) Adverbs of determination of quantity and degree: little; enough; half; much; abundantly; plentifully; exceedingly; superfluously; scarce; hardly; nearly; almost; quite; all; even &c. also interrogative and comparative: how much?, as, so &c. We may also assign here the terms for the repetition of the activity definite times, as once; twice; thrice &c. How near, moreover, determinations of degree and qualitative determinations border on one another, is seen in some of the adverbs cited, as well as in forms like intensely; mightily and similar ones, in which the mode of the activity at the same time includes the degree.

3) Adverbs denoting the not merely temporal succession of actions, as first; firstly; secondly; finally; lastly &c., or the order of rank in the narrower sense, as principally; chiefly; rather &c., or the additional relation, in which that of outbidding may at the same time be contained, as further; besides and moreover. To these may also be added the expressions for the communion of the action, as in together, or the separateness, as in asunder; apart; separately, as well as for the interchange: alternally; alternately; by turns &c.

4) As a particular class we must cite that of the sentential adverbs, which repose formally upon the notion of the activity, but properly express a judgment of the speaker with regard to the predicate attributed to the subject.

[a)] They appear in part as affirmative asseverations: truly; certainly; verily; surely; really; indeed; forsooth &c., to which originally very belongs:

[b)] in part as terms of possibility, probability or doubt: likely; probably; possibly, peradventure, perhaps &c.:

[c)] or, they are negations taking away the reference of the subject to the predicate, as not; not at all, by no means, noway, noways &c.

d) or, they are absolute affirmations or negations, which removed out of a sentence, strengthen or take away its matter, as ay, yes, yea, and no, nay, for which other adverbs annexed to the predicate may also be substituted, or which may be strengthened by these, as indeed &c., not at all &c.

d) The adverbs of causality act in great part also as conjunctions, not containing themselves the causal determination of the action, but denoting it retrospectively, as if contained in another sentence. Here belong, with the exception of the interrogative why?, the adverbs wherefore; therefore; hence; consequently; accordingly &c., to which adversative ones, as nevertheless &c., are also annexed.

**Origin and Form of Adverbs.**

The adverbs of the English tongue are partly simple, partly,
and that frequently, compound words. In the composition, however, there is mostly only to be perceived an arrangement of parts of speech referred to one another, which are combined under a unity of accent. Compare: *somedeal* (some deal), otherwise, *away* (Anglosaxon onvêg, âvêg), *asunder* (Anglosaxon on sundran, ãsundron); *whereever* (where ever) &c.

Adverbs are developed from substantives, adjectives, numerals and pronouns; the bulk of them rests upon adjectives. With respect to their form and, in particular, to their derivative terminations, they are attached to the Anglosaxon; the Romance element of the tongue accommodates itself to the Anglosaxon form. The blunting of the Anglosaxon final vowels and final syllables, certainly takes from them, particularly in Modern-English, their characteristic forms, but they have adopted no Romance compensation for this loss.

For the simple adverb or that formed by the blending together of different parts of speech a preposition with a noun after it is often substituted, which may be regarded as the expression of or as the periphrasis for a simple adverbal notion. The boundary between these periphrases and developed adverbial sentential determinations is scarcely to be specified, and in point of fact indifferent for syntax. We therefore also cite among adverbs a succession of familiar prepositional adverbs, which appear especially in vocal fusion.

a) Substantive adverbs:

The case of a substantive may become the determination of the notion of the activity in such a manner that it no longer appears qualified immediately or mediatly by the verb; thus it receives the nature of an adverb no longer annexed to the predicative verb.

The genitive has but seldom been preserved as the adverbal case of a genuine substantive. Here still belongs in Modern-English *needs* (Anglosaxon *neádes? neád‡ f., gen. neádé; perhaps formed after the genitives *villes; sponte; unvilles, invite; gevealdes, sponte; ungevealdes, invite, fortuito*). Old-English had also: *his thankes*; *hir thankes*; *here unthankes*, that is, liberenter and ingratis, as well as the Anglosaxon *pances*; *heora ágnes pances, eorum voluntate*; moreover *his godes* (MAUNDEV. p. 135.). In Modern-English also the obsolescent *straightways* along with *straightway, and longways, perhaps also sideways, unless confounded with *sidewise*, as lengthways stood along with *lengthwise, belong here. In Shakspeare: Come a little nearer *this ways* (Merry Wiv. 2, 2. ed. Collier) is remarkable. The *adays* now occurring particularly in the compound *now-a-days*, perhaps rests no less upon the genitive termination. Thus we have the Anglosaxon *idages*, *hodie*, where *i* is not quite clear (compare *ýdág, hodie*), and *adays* in Piers Ploughman quite answers to the Highdutch *eines Tages, for which the Anglosaxon *nihites*, offers an analogy. The obsolete *anothergates* (HUBRAS), also cannot be otherwise taken than as a genitive.

*whilom*, Anglosaxon *hvîlum*, *hvîlon* may pass for a primitive dative of the plural. We must also regard the adverbal *piecemeal*, as a remnant of a dative, a hybrid representative of the Anglosaxon *stycemelum*, frustatim (melum dat. pl. from mäl n.). Compare Anglosaxon *dælmælum*, partim; *dropmælum*, guttatim; *bitmælum,
frustillatim; limmælum, frustatim; heāpmælum, acervatim &c. Old-English also had flocmæle, Anglosaxon flocmælum, gregatim; stounde-mæle, Anglosaxon stundmælum, mox, every moment; parcelmele, by parcels, which are found in Chaucer. The compounds in meal are moreover treated also as singular or plural substantives, and joined with by, as even in Rob. of Gloucester along with pecemel (I. 22.) also by pece mele stands (I. 216.), and so in Shakspeare by inch-meal (Temp. 2, 2.). Finally, ever and therefore never may be datives, Anglosaxon òfre (aër), according to Ettmüller, the datives from òfer; and nafrë (næfor).

A few accusatives have likewise been preserved: home, Anglosaxon hâm, domum; back, retro, for which in Anglosaxon on (after, under), bāc commonly stands. On the other hand down, Anglosaxon dūn f., mons, is only a contraction from adown, Anglosaxon āďûne and ofďûne, deorsum, as faith has originated from in faith. Cheap, where it stands for cheaply, reminds us of the Anglosaxon oreæpe, gratis (instrumental) but can be regarded as the accusative from the Anglosaxon cēdp, which also passes as an English adjectival. Here belong moreover the accusatives of the regions of the heavens, when used adverbially: north, Anglosaxon norð, south, Anglosaxon sōð, east, Anglosaxon eást, west, Anglosaxon vest, septentrionem, meridiem, orientem, occidentem versus. Compare: The plains, that, toward the southern sky, Fenced east and west by mountains, lie (Bryant). Thus especially the adverbs compounded with way, wise, deal, while and time, also in the plural, are originally accusatives, as: straightway, noway, alway, more frequently always, Old-English alway, Anglosaxon ealne vēg, also noways, alongside of which in Old-English algate and algates, i. e. always, subsisted; midway, also half-way; otherwise, also otherwise, Anglosaxon (on) òдре visan; novise, hence also the compounds coastwise; corner-wise, i. e. diagonally; endwise, i. e. erectly, whose last substantive appears here and there corrupted with regard to form guise in guess, as in otherguess; someideal, in some degree (obsolete), Old-English som del, as every del, Anglosaxon sumne dæl; auhile, (wherein the preposition a, on is perhaps not to be sought, compare the while, all the while, a litle while); somewhat, Anglosaxon sume hvîle, somhvîle, aliquando, interdum; otherwise and otherwhiles, Anglosaxon òдрервîle, interdum; meanwhile; sometime (Shakspeare Temp. 2, 2.) (this the older form), and sometimes; meantime. The compound of time with the adverb oft is not yet quite abandoned: It reckons with me oftimes for pain, and sometimes pleasure (L. Byron); oftentimes (Shaksp.), Old-English offtime, as sedentime along with ofte sithes, often sitthes, from the Anglosaxon sid, tempus, vicis. Here belong also yesterday, Anglosaxon adverb gistran and ģestran dåg and yesternight as adverbs. Numerous other adverbial accusatives are not in the same manner expressed as adverbs. Old-English was richer in those of the latter sort; there we still find way, Anglosaxon vēg, accus., along with òveg, onceeg (Do way your hondes [Chaucer]), fote hot, formed after the Old-French chaud le pied, and many more. aye, always, for ever, Old-English ay, is also to be regarded as an accusative,
Anglosaxon ā (="āv"), dat., āva, aevum, belonging to the Gothic aivos; see Negative and Affirmative Particles.

In conclusion we may here mention the substantives which appear like adjectives with the adverbial ending -inga, -ēnga, -unga and an l prefixed: -l-inga, -l-unga. In English it is often confounded with the lang appearing in the often misunderstood end-long, (Old-England andelong, also endlonges (Maundev. p. 49.), Anglosaxon endalang, prepos. in longum); compare also Anglosaxon ealdslang, vestlang, orientem, occidentem versus. Here belong the Old-English noseling (Halliw. s. v.), the Modern-English sidling, in a side or sloping way (Old-English sidelings = sideways), Scottish sydling is, and those formed from adjectives darkling, flatling, still very usual in the seventeenth century and in Shaksp. Temp. 2, 1. where flatlong is mostly written. The moderns have sidelong, headlong as well as flatlong. partlings &c. is still used dialectically.

b) Adjective adverbs.

The adverb proceeding from the adjective shews itself as the case of an adjective. In composition with ly, appearing as a derivative syllable, which we shall next consider, we shall likewise recognize a case.

1) In the adverbial forms arising from cases of the adjective, apart from the adverbs in ly, the genitive seldom participates in English. There have been preserved else; Anglosaxon elles from the pronominal adjective el, ele; Old-English elles, ellis, also elle, el; eftsoons (Shaksp.), also eftsones, eftson; Anglosaxon sones and sona, English soon; and eft sona, post cito; unawares, also unaware (Milton), formerly unwares, in Shakspeare at unawares; Anglosaxon unvāres; unethes along with uneth (Shaksp.) is obsolete, as in the Old-English unethes, uneth, Anglosaxon only uneāe. Old-English also has allynge, omnino (compare above sidelings, partlings) formed from the Anglosaxon eallinga, -enga, -unga, so too mocheles = much, Anglosaxon mycel, mucel: Not mocheles more (Maundev. p. 291.). endlonges see above.

But the genitive words along with the accusative ward in compounds is still frequent in old adverbs and imitations, Anglosaxon veardes: inwards, outwards, afterwards, upwards, downwards, backwards, northwards, homewards &c. along with inward, outward, afterward, upward, downward, backward, northward, southward, eastward, homeward &c., to which also belongs towards along with toward, Anglosaxon tōveardes.

Mitford wrongly deems the forms in s the later and Johnson afterwards worse than afterward. Anglosaxon has upveardes, niderveardes, pidervarde, toveardes, hāmveardes along with afterveard, hiderveard, upveard, niderveard, innveard &c. as equally correct adverbial forms.

Accusative forms are predominant as adverbs. Of accusatives of the masculine gender there is, however, hardly an instance, unless seldom, raro, belongs here, Anglosaxon seldon (seldon, seldum) along with seld, Old-English seldon and selde (still
in the sixteenth century), as well as *seld* in Shakspeare. Compare moreover the Old-English *ferm* or *ferrom*, Anglosaxon *feorran*.

As *neuter* accusative adverbs (without mark of the case) we must regard: *enough*, Anglosaxon *genôb*, *full*, Anglosaxon full, adj. *plenus*, mostly in compounds, and those compounded of *ward*. The *al* appearing in compounds: *almighty*, *already*, *almost* &c. answers to the Anglosaxon particle *æl*: *ælmeahtig*, *ælmeast* &c., but has completely coalesced with *all*, Anglosaxon *eall* (*eal*, *al*) in *all-accomplished*, *all-beauteous*, and the like.

But we often meet with accusative adverbs which belonged to the Anglosaxon weak declension and then ended in *e*, which frequently appears in Old-English, but has been cast off in Modern-English, except where it was retained for phonetic reasons. Compare: Old-English *longe*, *lowe*, *rathe* (whence rather), *bitte*, *softe*, *sovere*, *starke*, *clene*, *harde*, *hote* &c. Here belongs the Modern-English: *evil*, *ill*, Anglosaxon *yféle*, Old-norse *illa*, male; *even*, Anglosaxon *éne*, plane, *aeue*; *eath*, Anglosaxon *eáðe*, faciliter; *much*, Anglosaxon *myecele*, mycle, Old-English mochele, mochel, mickle, multum; *little*, Anglosaxon *lytle*, paullulum; *light*, Anglosaxon *lihte*, leviter; *like*, Anglosaxon *lice*, similiter; *late*, Anglosaxon late, tarde, sero; *long*, Anglosaxon lange, diu; *right*, Anglosaxon *rihte*, juste; *rath* (Milton), Old-English *rathe*, Anglosaxon *ráðe*, *ráðe*, citó; *fair*, Anglosaxon *fagere*, pulchre; *fast*, Anglosaxon *faste*, firmiter; *wide*, Anglosaxon *vide*, late, undique; *deep*, Anglosaxon *deópe*, profunde; *dear*, still sometimes used for dearly, Anglosaxon *deópe*, *díyre*, *care*; *thick*, Anglosaxon *picce*, dense, frequenter; *sore* (obsoleote), Anglosaxon *sáre*, graviter; *soft*, Anglosaxon *sófte*, molliter, suaviter; *small*, Anglosaxon smile, subtiliter (compare: She has brown hair, and speaks *small*, like a woman ([Shaks. Merry Wiv. 1, 1.]); *still*, Anglosaxon *stille*, quiete; *clean*, Anglosaxon *cláene*, penitus; *high*, Anglosaxon *héáhe*, alte; *hard*, Anglosaxon *héarde*, *hure* (also close).

Many existing adjectives of this sort are not to be shewn as Anglosaxon adverbs in their neuter form; but from a few we find adverbial comparatives and superlatives formed. Here belong: *mighty*, Anglosaxon *adjective meahtig*, mihtig; *lief*, Anglosaxon *leóf*; *loud*, Anglosaxon *hlíd*; *low*, compare Hollandaish *laag*; *ready*, from Anglosaxon *adjective rád*, promptus, celer; *pretty*, from the Anglosaxon *práte*, ornatus; *fain*, Anglosaxon *adjective fágen*, *látus*; *thin*, Anglosaxon *adjective pynne*; *thwart*, Anglosaxon *pveorh*, *pvér* &c., curvus, even Old-English with *t*. Compare Highdutch *zwerch*; *sicker*, Scottish *sikker*, Old-Highdutch adverb *sichuere*; *sound*, Anglosaxon *adjective sund*; *sudden*, Anglosaxon *soden*, Old-French *sodain*, sudain; *slow*, Anglosaxon *adjective slav*; *slope*, compare Anglosaxon part. *slopen*, lapsus; *sweet* (Singing so sweet, and clear, and loud [LONGFELLOW]), Anglosaxon *adjective *svéte*; *stark*, Anglosaxon *adjective *steare*; *straight*, Anglosaxon part. streth, compare Latin *stricte*; *sheer* (little in use), Anglosaxon *adjective *sçærë*, *sceer*, *purus*, compare Old-norse *skiarr*, fugax; *short*, Anglosaxon *sçort*; *scant* (unusual). The word is found early, for instance, in Maundevelle, and is
diffused in Scottish and Northenglish dialects. Does it belong to the Old-Highdutch scant, inhonestus? skew, compare Old-norse skeifr, Danish skiæv, obliquus; quick, Anglosaxon adjective evic, vivax.

In Old-French neuter adjectives were likewise, as many still are in Modern-French, used adverbially. The Anglosaxon and the Romance usage here touched each other. English could therefore readily assimilate Romance adjectives and participles to Anglosaxon in this regard. Here belong: monstrous (popularly like the corresponding Germanic wonderful), Old-French monstros; round, Old-French roënd, round; plain, Old-French plain, plein; false, Old-French fals, faux, Modern-French adverb faux; very, Old-French verai, Latin veracem; due, Old-French participle du from devoir; distinct (And he said, Speaping distinct and slow [LONGFELLOW]), French the same; sure, Old-French segur, seïr; scarce, Old-French eschars, escars, Medieval-Latin scarpus, excarpus; just, Old-French just, Modern-French adverb juste; chief, a substantive used adjectively, Old-French chief, chef; common, Old-French commun; clear, Old-French clair, cler, cler, Modern-French adverb clair; close, Old-French part. clos; quite, Old-French cuite, quite, Latin quietus; gross (rare), (I'll speak more gross, ShaksP. Meas. for Meas.). Other Romance-Germanic words belong here, as exceeding i. q. eminently; doubtless, and the like.

Unclear as to their origin, but mostly referring to primitive adjective forms are; eft (obsoleute), Anglosaxon eft, äft, iterum, denuo, and aft, the same word, as well as the Anglosaxon eft, äft in compounds; oft, now poetic, beside often, Anglosaxon oft, Old-English ofte, often; nigh, Anglosaxon neah; now, Anglosaxon nu or nû; far, Anglosaxon feorr; well, Anglosaxon vêla, véi, Old-English wele, wel; soon, Anglosaxon sona, see above; yet, Anglosaxon git, gët, geot, gyt, gëta; yore (not used without of standing before it), Anglosaxon yara, geára, olim. Related to geár, annus?

In the place of well, good has been here and there used adverbially, also in the meaning of very (compare Halliwell v. good), but which is now obsolete and inelegant. Anglosaxon is naturally richer than English in neuter adverbial forms, as Old-English excels Modern-English in this respect.

2) By far the greatest number of adjective adverbs, answering to a neuter accusative in e, are the adverbs now ending in ly. They arise from the adjectives compounded with the Anglosaxon lic (similis) and therefore sounded in Anglosaxon lice. The adjectives compounded with lic in Anglosaxon (in English ly and like) were of various kinds, so that lic was also added to substantives. So far as the Modern-English adjective termination and the adverbial termination sounded equally ly, both coincide in form. Old-English long distinguished the adverbial termination by the e after it: stiletliche, fulliche, worthiliche, soothiliche, boldeliche, principalliche, fetisiliche (neatly), bataumtliche (= hastily), foliliche &c., as well as frequently in Piers Ploughman, yet the termination ly came in early alongside of lye, as well as the termination lick
without e. In Modern-English the syllable ly, although appearing also in adjectives, is regarded as that by annexing which an adjective can be turned into an adverb.

This termination then generally is added to the unchanged noun stem of Anglosaxon and Romance words: *highly; steadfastly; willingly; perfectly; evidently; obscurely; safely; foolishly; noiselessly.*

If the stem ends in *ue*, the e is cast out: *duely, truly, from due, true.*

If it ends in an unaccented *y, y* is changed into *i*: *merrily from merry; lazily from lazy; noisily from noisy; on the contrary views diverge as to the accented *y*. Some spell *slyly, from sly; dryly from dry; others *stily, dribly* (SMART). If the stem ends in *le* with another initial consonant preceding it, *le* before *ly* is commonly cast off: *affably from affable; immovably from immovable; nobly from noble; terribly from terrible; singly from single; gently from gentle; idly from idle, but also *idilly* (BISH. HALL).* If, however, no other initial consonant precedes the final *le*, *le* is not cast out: *palely from pale; vilely from vile; solely from sole; fertilely from fertile (SMART); servilely from servile; hostilely from hostile; on the other hand at least for a long time *e* has been thrown out in *wholly*, from whole, Old-English holly.

If a word ends in *ll*, an *l* is thrown out when *ly* is added: *stilly from still; fully from full; dully from dull; this according to the Anglosaxon precedent: stillice from stille; fullice from full; in Old-English on the contrary, also *stilleliche* (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER).

Formations of this sort from adjectives in *ly*, are also attempted, which then end in *lily*, as: *livelily, lovvelily, lowlily, uglily, cleannily &c., whereby a distinction between the adverb and the adjective is striven after. They are, however, not favoured, although the reduplication in *likely* (properly lic-líc and lic-líc, where-with the dubious Anglosaxon ungúflic can be compared; see Ettmüller p. 183.) is a precedent. It is preferable to make adverbs of the same sound as adjectives perceptible by the context.

Modern-English on the other hand has also abandoned many adjectives in *ly*, and preserved only the corresponding adverb, where Anglosaxon employs the adverb and adjective. Here belong the adverbs: *evenly; earnestly; manifoldly; newly; lightly; rightly; rankly; wisely; fastly; deeply; sorely; shortly; greatly; hardly, and a few more.*

By far the greatest part of the Germanic adverbs coinciding with adjectives spring from the Anglosaxon, where we mostly find the adjective and the adverb, and only accidentally miss, in the literary works which have been handed down, sometimes the adverb and sometimes the adjective. Imitations mostly concern the compounding of Romance stems with *ly*.

As in Anglosaxon the simple adverbs in *e* often had an adverb compounded with *lice* alongside of them, so in English double adverbial forms of the same sort are still found in English, which
are in part distinguished by a shade in the meaning, and whereof
the greater number rests upon Anglosaxon forms.

Of this sort are: even: evenly, Anglosaxon ëfenlice; evil: evilly
(SHAKSP.), Anglosaxon adjective yfellic; mighty: mightily, Anglo-
saxon mihtiglice; light: lightly, Anglosaxon lîhtlice; late: lately,
Anglosaxon latelice (thus there also stands along with the super-
elative last: lastly); long: longly = longingly, also tediously, Anglo-
saxon langlice, longe, diu; right: rightly, Anglosaxon rightlice;
fair: fairly, Anglosaxon fägerlice; fast: fastly = surely, Anglo-
saxon fástlice; full: fully, Anglosaxon fulllice; deep, deeply, Anglo-
saxon déollice; thick: thickly, Anglosaxon piclice; sore: sorely,
Anglosaxon sârlice; sudden: suddenly, Anglosaxon sodenlice; slow:
slowly, Anglosaxon slavlice; still: stilly, Anglosaxon stilllice; stark:
 starkly, Anglosaxon sôrlice; sound: soundly; scant: scantly (DRIYDEN); straight: straightly
(SHAKSP.); sheer: sheerly; quick: quickly &c.; from Romance words:
monstrous: monstrously; round: roundly; plain: plainly; very:
verily = indeed; due: duly; just: justly; common: commonly; clear:
clearly: chief: chiefly. Thus too doubtless and exceeding have the
collateral forms doubtlessly, exceedingly.

The adverbs in ward, standing alongside of the adverbs in
wards and wardly, are mostly distinguished from them in this,
that the latter are used more in the ethical sense: inwardly;
outwardly; backwardly; forwardly.

Adverbs in ly are rarely formed immediately from nouns, as
the old namely and marbly = in the manner of marble, according
to Webster. Most forms of this sort referring to substantives
have sprung from adjectives of the same sound, of which fatherly,
motherly, friendly, godly, worldly, heavenly, yearly, monthly &c.
belonging to the Anglosaxon, were instances, according
to which others, as hourly, quarterly &c., were formed.
— Adverbial formations peculiar to English are the compounds
of participial forms in ing, ed &c. with ly, in which Anglosaxon
with its participial forms in ende led the way, whence adjectives
in ëo were formed, as nemnendlice, nominativus; brosnend-
lice, corruptibilis; faallendlice, minosus &c. Old-English still
had adverbs of this sort: aylastandly, = everlastingly; stelendelich
= by stealth &c.; but also even in ing: brenningly = hotly &c.;
Modern-English: laughingly; boastingly; vauntingly; Wittingly; jo-
kingly; glancingly = obliquely; slaveringly &c.; and forcedly;
wisely; constrainedly; forbiddenly &c.

3) Adjective, and, in particular, accusative adverbs are ori-
ginally capable of comparison by derivation, and have accordingly a comparative and superlative. Comparison has rarely penetrated into other adverbs, as in the Old-English in back: I went me bakker more (CHAUCER Ms. in HALLIW. s. v.).

The comparison of adverbs is effected, like that of the adjectives, either by the derivative terminations er and est, or by the addition of more and most to the positive. The former mode of comparison is very limited in Modern-English, the second has become the common one.

a) Comparison by derivative terminations consisted, with the Anglosaxon adverb in the comparative form of the adjective appearing in the comparative with the weak inflection cast off: raðe: raðor; oft: oftór; in the superlative the accusative of the strong form (without a mark) was used: raðe: raðöst; oft: oftöst.

Old-English employed this mode of comparison to a large extent. In Modern-English the anomalous degrees of comparison, as well as a few débris of forms of comparison, have been chiefly preserved, whereas for the great number of regularly compared adverbs not only are the limitations for the comparison of adjectives the standard, but an aversion, particularly in prose, towards this mode of derivation is prevalent and is still more fostered by grammarians.

Of the Modern-English comparatives belonging here a few alone still share the Anglosaxon irregularity of casting off the characteristic letter of the comparative, r, as in the Anglosaxon mā, bet, leng and others, whereas these forms are still frequent in Old-English.

The English anomalous forms of comparison are:
much, comp. more, sup. most. Anglosaxon mīcelē, mycelē, comp. móre, mā, sup. māest. Old-English myculle, mickle, muchel, mochel, mucho, moche &c., comp. mare, more, ma, mo, sup. mest, most. For the comparative mo extending into Modern-English see p. 277.

nigh, comp. near, sup. next. Anglosaxon (neāh), comp. neār, sup. neāhst, neāst, nēxt. Old-English comp. nar, nere, narre, sup. next. In English the fundamental distinctions are here in part obliterated, near signifying, like the positive, nearly and almost, and the superlative being primarily referred to temporal and ordinal succession. nearer comes in as the comparative of near.

little, comp. less, sup. least. Anglosaxon lytle, comp. līs, sup. lāst. Old-English līte, comp. lassē, lesse, less, sup. leeste. The form lesser, which has penetrated into the corresponding adjective (for the Anglosaxon lāssa) is also used as an adverb, for instance, by Shakspeare. It is related externally to the Anglosaxon lās exactly like the English adverbial better to the Anglosaxon bet.

late, comp. later, sup. last. Anglosaxon regularly late, lāte, comp. latōr, sup. latōst. Old-English like Modern-English.

far, comp. farther and further, sup. farthest, furthest (SMART).
The Anglosaxon fiorr, feor, procul, has the comp. fyrr, sup. fyrrest, feorrest, fyrest, like the Old-English comp. ferre, sup. ferrest. The Modern-English farther, farthest are anomalous formations, which have been assimilated to further; further answers to the Anglosaxon fürőr, förőr, ulterius, which attaches itself to the adverb foró. The Old-English forther may have occasioned the confusion: She gropest alway forther (CHAUER).

well, comp. better, sup. best. Anglosaxon věla, věl, comp. bet, bett, sup. betst, best. Old-English wel, well, comp. bet, bett, sup. best, best. The adverbial form bet has been quite lost in Modern-English. Old-English: I may the bet hem cleyme (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 389.). Go bet (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 241., HALLIWELL s. v. and CHALMERS Gloss. ad Lindsay p. 266.). Yet bettre also occurs, for instance PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 102.

evil, ill, comp. worse, sup. worst. Anglosaxon (yfele), comp. virs, vyrr, sup. vyrrst. Old-English evel, comp. wers, worse, sup. werst, worst. As with the corresponding adjective, worser has sometimes also penetrated as an adverbial comparative: In time go and bargain lest worser you fal (TUSser see Dial. of Craven 2. p. 269.). The adjective positive Anglosaxon veorr, perversus, in fact a comparative, is also found in Old-English as an adverbial comparative: Hast thow bacbyted thy nephewe, For to make hym fare the worre? (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. worre.)

Remnants of adverbial forms of comparison are comp. ere, now used mostly in comparison, where ere may also operate as a preposition: erewhile, erewhiles, sup. erst, mostly poetic, else obsolete. Anglosaxon comp. ær, prius, antea, sup. ærost, -est, -ist, the adjectives of which comp. æra, sup. æresta have been abandoned. Old-English comp. ere, sup. arst (RITSON), erst. Also comp. rather, the positive of which is obsolete, and whose superlative (by Shakspeare transformed jocosely into rathertest Love's L. L. 4. 2.) no longer occurs, belongs here. Anglosaxon raé, ráé, comp. raéor, sup. raéost. Old-English rathe, comp. rather, sup. rathest. The sup. oftest in Shakespeare Much Ado &c. 4. 2. = soonest? is questioned (defest according to Delius); it would belong to eft, Anglosaxon eft, et, iterum, denuo. lief, comp. lever is obsolete. Anglosaxon adj. leóf, comp. leófre, sup. leófest. Old-English lefe, leef, lief, comp. lever, leifor, sup. levest, liefest &c. Chiefest, stands without a comparative: But first and chiefest with thee bring Him that yen soars (MILTON).

Of other accusative adverbs we often find a few others compared, as: loud — louder — loudest; soon — sooner — soonest: fast — faster — fastest; high — higher — highest; early — earliest; often — oftener (SHAKSP. MIDS. N. DR. 2, 2.) — oftesten (Anglosaxon oft — oftór — oftóst). Old-English oft — ofter (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER), ofter — oftest; in Skelton: ofmar, ofthenere and others. The Anglosaxon interchange of vowel in a few adverbs is, as with the adjective, abandoned: long — longer — longest. Anglosaxon lange — leng — lengst. Old-English longe — leng — lengest: Hii ne mynte no leng abyde
(Rob. of Gloucester I. 174. 229.). Even Skelton has longer I. 69.

Poetry especially still employs derivative comparatives and superlatives, and, in contradistinction to the other limitations of this usage, sometimes even those alongside of which no adverbial positive is in use, as frequently in Old-English: You have spoken truer than you purposed (Shakspe. Temp.). And look how well my garments sit upon me, Much feater than before (ib.). Thou art easier swallowed than a flap-dragon (ib. Love's L. L.). The tenderest ones and weakest, Who their wrongs have borne the meekest (Whittier). Compare Murray's censure of comparatives and superlatives p. 162, 163.

The annexing of the syllable ly to the comparative and superlative instead of the comparison of the positive compounded with ly (-lier, -liest) is remarkable. In Modern-English a few forms of this sort, in part with the obliteration of the meaning of the degrees of comparison, have remained, as nearly; latterly = lately; formerly; mostly; lastly; firstly; foremostly (obsolete). This formation is old and formerly diffused itself wider: More plenerly (Maundev. p. 42.). Better perceyved And thank fullerly receyved (Skelton I. 341. according to Dyce's Ms.).

β) The comparison with more and most is as old with adverbs as with adjectives. It touches first of all the adverbs in ly, but likewise seizes the rest: I breathe again more freely (Longfell. As he most learnedly delivered (Shakspe. Temp.). Ebbing men, indeed, Most often do so near the bottom run &c. (ib.).

A reduplication of the comparison by the combination of more and most with the derivative degrees of comparison was frequent in Old-English, but is now, as with the adjective, regarded as improper: Old-English: Ofte sype aboue was, and binepe ofter mo (Rob. of Gloucester I. 264.). More plenerly (Maundev. p. 42.). Parceyveth moore depper (Piers Plooughm. p. 307.). So in Shakspeare: more proudlier (Coriol. 4, 7.). With near we still often find more, where the comparative import of near is no longer felt: Yon stood more near him (L. Byron). Let me . . . more nearly, Dying thus, resemble thee (Longfell.

In Shakspeare, where near still occurs in the comparative, near is usually written, as if an abbreviation from nearer were in question.

The comparison with more, most may also be transferred to other adverbial determinations than the original adjective forms: What are the books now most in vogue? (Longfellow). That which is most within me (L. Byron).

The combination of less, least with adverbs may be regarded as a comparison downwards. See the Adjective.

c) Adverbs of number.

Adverbs of number denote partly the order of the activities according to number, partly their simplicity or multiplicity, partly the oneness or repetition of the same act.
1) Numerical adverbs of order are formed by annexing the syllable ly to the ordinal numbers: firstly, alongside of first; secondly; thirdly; fourthly; fifthly &c. Anglosaxon offered no support for this. Periphrastic forms are: in the first, second &c. place.

2) Numerical adverbs of complexity exist in a small number, as singly, which however is only used distributively, as individually; doubly, for which the accusative adverb twofold also appears (comp.: on the other hand the Anglosaxon preôfæaldlice, tripliciter), as other numerals in fold are also employed adverbially: trebly, triply, quadruply, and a few similar ones. From manifold, manifoldly is formed, after the Anglosaxon manegfealdlice.

3) Frequentative adverbs are mostly gained by periphrasis; the few formed by a derivative termination (ce) rest upon the genitive form, as once, Anglosaxon ânes (comp. ânes hvât, quoque modo, although else ânè sidè, una vice and sometimes âne as an adverb), Old-English anes, ones; twice, Anglosaxon tvigges, Old-English twyes, twies; thrice, Anglosaxon only priga, priva, Old-English thrie, and formed according to the others: thries.

Once is often treated as an accusative, and combined with this, that: This once I yield (J. Hughes). Let us appear this once like generous victors (ib.). Compare Webster s. v.

The rest of the frequentative adverbs are formed by periphrasis, for which the cardinal numbers are employed with the substantive time in the accusative of the plural: four times, five times, ten times &c.; as the former are also sometimes expressed periphrastically: a single time, another time, three times and the indefinite frequentatives: sometimes, many times, several times. Anglosaxon here used the substantive sidè, gressus; ðërè sidè, iterum; feover sidon, quater; secon sidum, septies &c. This mode is to be met with in Old-English: And if men me it axe Sice sithes or seven (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 102.), where the accusative then also appeared instead of the Anglosaxon instrumental and dative: And thankyd God a C. synth in rhyme (Ms. in HALLIWELL v. sith), with which we may however compare the Anglosaxon eahta sidè twentig (CHRON. SAX. 1071.); but alongwith them time is also employed: And thus tene I trewe men Ten hundred tymes (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 103.).

d) Pronominal adverbs.

Here belong the adverbs which have especially proceeded from demonstrative and interrogative pronominal stems, of which the former have mostly the import of space, the latter chiefly of time.

1) Adverbs from demonstrative stems.

To the Anglosaxon þè (se), þeo (sed), þat belong: the, thilke. Anglosaxon þær and þær, þér, ibi, illic. Old-English ther, there, which was also used relatively, as in Anglosaxon, where it also signified ubi, quo. Compare: Ther nature wol not werche, Farewel physike (CHAUCER p. 21. I. Tyrwh.).

thâther. Anglosaxon þider, pyder, illuc, istuc, also relatively, with and without þe: quo, Old-English thider.
thence. Anglosaxon panan, panon, panonne &c. Old-English thenne, but also early with the genitive termination thennes: Ere she thennes yede (Piers Ploughm. p. 19.), whence the Modern-English thence.

then, in a metaphorical meaning. Anglosaxon ponne, penne, tunec, tum. Comp. the accusative m. thone, thâne, Old-English thanne, than. It is the same word as the English than, which, dissimilated from the former, is used for quam, after the comparative. In Anglosaxon ponne, penne also passes for quam. Old-English had tho, tha, Anglosaxon pâ, tum.

thus, Anglosaxon pus, Old-English the same.

so, also. Anglosaxon sva, sic (svâ, sicut) and ealsvâ, etiam, sic.

To the Anglosaxon hë, heó, hit belong:

here, Anglosaxon hêr, Old-English her, here.

hither, Anglosaxon hider, huc, Old-English hider.

hence, transferred to time: from new. Anglosaxon hinan, heonan &c., hinc, abhinc, also illuc. Old-English henen, henne (Rob. of Gloucester and others), yet also early with the genitive termination hennes, hens, whence the Modern-English hence. Instead thereof hithen in Rob. of Brunne p. 26. Hen is still in use in Lincolnshire.

hind, whence behind, Anglosaxon hind; in compounds, like hindward, and hinter, adverb and prepos. post, now considered an adjective.

To geon, preserved in Anglosaxon only in the adverb geond, Gothic jäins, (English yon) belong.

yond, yon. Anglosaxon geond, illuc. Old-English yond, yon. Comp.: And say what thou seest yond (Shaks Temp.), where without reason yond is commonly written: Him that yon soars on golden wing (Milton). These forms are becoming obsolete in comparison with yonder, which is formed analogously to the Anglosaxon hider, like the Gothic jâindré compared with hidré.

2) From the interrogative pronominal stem hva, hvät there develope themselves:

where, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon hvar, hvăr, ubi. Old-English wher, where.

whither, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon hvâder, hvider, hvidre &c., quo. Old-English wyder, wider.

whence, interrogative and relative. Anglosaxon vhanan, vhanon, hvana &c., unde. Old-English whanne, wannan (Rob. of Gloucester), also early whennes, whence the Modern-English whence. Old-English also whethen.

Thence come the compounds whereso, wheresoever, wherever, whither-soever, whencesoever; also nowhere, Anglosaxon nåhvar, nusquam; elsewhere, Old-English elleswhere; compare Anglosaxon elles hvider, elles hvergen, aliorsum, everywhere; somewhere, anywhere, for which in the Old-English owghtwhare, owhar, owhere also occurs, otherwhere (Shakspeare), some other where, and several others.

when, also a conjunction. Anglosaxon hvenne, hvanne, hvonne, quando. Old-English whan, wan, when.
why, Anglosaxon hvý (hvê) and how, Anglosaxon hû, have arisen from the instrumental of the pronoun. Thence the compound somehow.

3) Hither also may be referred the adverb any, borrowed from the indefinite pronoun, for which anywise now rather occurs. It belongs to the Anglosaxon ōanig, ullus, and probably sprung from the instrumental anigē, Old-English any, eny, ony; Old-English Or I proceede ony ferthere (MAUNDEV. p. 53.). Modern-English: If you tarry any longer (SHAKSP. Two Gentl.). Before I any farther go (LONGFELLOW). The word other, also occurring in Shakspeare, likewise belongs here: Nay, but it is not so. — "It is no other" (Meas. for Meas. 4, 3). Comp. Oth. 4, 2.; like else, see above.

e) Prepositional Adverbs.

The combination of prepositions with adjectives, substantives, numeral and pronominal adverbs is very usual, which partly serve to complete adverbial determinations, with which a preposition is adapted to define the relation more particularly. The prepositions themselves, obviously originally in part adverbs, serve in general to denote relations of space and time, but which they transcend, when used metaphorically; and although chiefly in the closest connection with substantive notions, they still betray an originally adverbial character.

For this reason prepositions also appear again as adverbs, where they appear exempted from substantive notions and only shew themselves as determinations of activity. Language everywhere presents instances, and one needs scarcely to be reminded of sentences like: Toiling on and on and on (LONGFELLOW). Reading, the whole year out and in, Naught but the catalogue of sin (ID.). Sometimes the modern language distinguishes the adverb from the preposition (although sometimes only in a determinate meaning) by the form, as fro in to and fro, from from; too, from to; off (also a preposition) from of. A preposition is moreover hardly incapable of appearing adverbially, on which the Syntax has to give more particular explanations.

The union of other parts of speech with prepositions, whence proceed many blendings of particles, or, at least combinations of them under one accent, is a phenomenon common to many tongues. The prepositions come partly before, partly after another word. Those which precede lean proclitically upon them and are therefore mostly confined to the monosyllabic ones. Where the proclisis, certainly not to be rigidly defined, ceases, developed adverbial sentences make their appearance. The prepositional adverbs rest partly upon Anglosaxon precedent.

1) The preposition combines with a substantive.


   ere: meanwhile, erewhiles, which, reversed, also appears as whilere, while-ere (SHAKSP., MILTON), as in Anglosaxon the preposition
ær may also follow its case: feóvertýne dagum ær (MATTH. 24, 40).

at commonly stands separated from the noun: at home, Anglo-
saxon æt hâm, domi, Old-English atom (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER); at hand, Anglosaxon æt handa (Dat.), at no hand; at any hand; at sea, at land, at doors, compare adoors; at length &c. at some-
time corresponds to the French à: at leisure, French à laisser; at random, French à randon.

on only appears separated from the noun, as in on land, on shore, on board, on foot, compare Old-English afote, Modern-
English afoot &c. Yet it is frequently blended with it in the inter-
change with a, where the Anglosaxon æ lies at the founda-
tion, which might also appear for of. These compounds are in
Modern-English mostly limited to determinations of space and
to abstract expressions of an activity or condition, whereas in
Old-English they are also referred to time. Some rest imme-
diately upon Anglosaxon and Old-norse originals, as a-back;
Anglosaxon on bæc, retro; away, Anglosaxon onveg, ãveg;
awheels (obsolete, BEN JONS.), Anglosaxon on hveole (Ps. 76, 17.), to which also belongs the preposition among, Anglosaxon
amang, onmang from the subst. mang; again, Anglosaxon on-
gêgna &c., àgên prep. and adv. rursus, obviam, belonging to the
substantive gägn, commodum? aright, Anglosaxon ärht, from
the subst. riht; amiss, Old-norse âmís, de via, contra jus et
aemum, in Anglosaxon subst. misse, miss, mis, mist, only in
compounds, still in use in Old-English as an independent sub-
stantive, for instance, in the Towneley Myst., like the Old-norse
missa, damnum; ak thirst, which moderns cite only as an adver-
sive. Old-norse à porstî = pyrstî, sitiens.

English imitative forms, or forms at least not to be pointed
out in Anglosaxon, which are mostly old, but seem to increase of
late although many are only dialectical, frequently serve to
denote the where? and whither? or position and direction; alee,
subst. lee, Anglosaxon hleóv, hlív, hléó, refugium [so we must
think the lee left undetermined above p. 199.]; aloof = more
nearly to the wind and at a distance, Old-English aluffe, per-
haps from the Anglosaxon lôf, palma. Comp : Old-English lufe,
manus (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 32, where hufe is a misprint); loof
is moreover a part of the ship; a-oft, from Anglosaxon lyft, ær,
nubes; arow, subst. row, Anglosaxon räv; abed, subst. bed, An-
glosaxon bedd; abaft, Old-English also baft, in maritime language
the contrary of afore, belongs to the Anglosaxon subst. bâfta,
tergum, although connected with bâftan, prep. post; aboard,
subst. board, Anglosaxon bord; abreast, subst. breast, Anglosaxon
breóst; afield, subst. field, Anglosaxon fild, fîld; afoot = on foot,
in action, subst. foot, Anglosaxon fôt; awether = to the wind-
side, subst. weather, Anglosaxon vêder, Old-English wedur; atop,
Anglosaxon top, vertex; adoors (obsolete), Old-English also adores,
Anglosaxon duru, dyr; acop (obsolete) = at the top, high up,
subst. cop, Anglosaxon copp, culmen; agate (local), subst. gate,
Old-norse gata, semita; aground, subst. ground, Anglosaxon
ground; ahead (naut.), subst. head, Anglo-Saxon heáfd; astern, subst. stern, Anglo-Saxon stearn, gubernaculum; ashore, subst. shore, Anglo-Saxon score.

In union with different dimensions a denotes the direction: alength, aheight; likewise aside.

Transferred to concrete and abstract substantives, in which the activity is accomplished or to which it is directed, the adverb appears with a in: ablaze, subst. blaze, Anglo-Saxon blása, flamma; afire, subst. fire, Anglo-Saxon fýr; areek, subst. reek, Anglo-Saxon rēc, reác; asleep, Old-English aslepe, subst. sleep, Anglo-Saxon slaep; awork (Shakespeare), Old-English aworke, subst. work, Anglo-Saxon veorc, verc, vorc; astir, subst. tilt, dialectically in the North of England tilt, vehement, turbulent, compare Anglo-Saxon tealt, vacillans, Old-norse tölt, vagatio tollutaria? also tipped (of a barrel) subst. tilt, leaning, perhaps from the Old-norse tilt, from tilla, elevatio; afloat, subst. float, from the Anglo-Saxon floétan and flójtan, fluctuare; adrift = floating, at random, subst. drift, to Anglo-Saxon drifan; abrood, subst. brood, Anglo-Saxon bród, concretic, compare adject. bródig, incubans; astride, subst. stride, Anglo-Saxon stræde, passus; astray, subst. stray, from the Anglo-Saxon strægan, strégan, spargere, Old-English on straye and astrayly (Halliwell s.v.); astrut, Old-English astrout, astrote (formerly also swollen, turgide), subst. strut = affectation of stateliness in walking &c., allied to strotzen? amain, subst. main, Anglo-Saxon mägen, vis, robur. Some of these words are now employed as adjectives, as alive, certainly naught else than the Anglo-Saxon on life, in vita; akin, Anglo-Saxon cynn, cognatio; astir = bustling, active, Northern-Engl. asteer, subst. stir, from Anglo-Saxon stéran, styran, movere, agitate and others.

Old-English forms, which still live in dialects, are: abloðe (dialex. ablood); afere, timid; aknæn, aknewes, aknowe, down, on the knee (dialex. akne); agame, in jest (now also addicted to gaming), and others, which appear as adjectives, as afret, Anglo-Saxon frátu, ornamentum; aflaunt, subst. flaunt, mundus, Gothic flautan, and others.

There come here into contact with the Anglo-Saxon forms Romance ones having ā for their foundation, as apeck, French à pic; apart, French à part; apace = hastily, French à pas, Old-English apas (Chaucer), to which are attached amort, lifeless, depressed; apiece = to the share of each; afront = in front; agog = in a state of desire, French à gogo. Old-English has agref = in grief, and many more.

The reference to time often takes place in Old-English, in: amorwe, amorve, in the morning; anight, in the night, and the like. A-morweninges .. And in evenynges (Piers Ploughm. p. 222.).

out is found compounded in outdoors = abroad, hence provincially out-door-work = field-work.
over: overboard; overhead = aloft, above.
under: underfoot = beneath; underhand = secretly.

26*
be = by; betime, betimes, comp. Middlehighbutch bizîte; beside, besides. By is not found blended, as in: by land, by water, by stealth, by chance, by degrees &c.
before and behind: beforehand = previously &c., also aforehand; beforetime = formerly; behindhand = backward, tardy, also as an adjective.
per in Romance formations: peradventure, Old-English peraventure, peraunter; percase (percace Jack Jugler); perchance, in the same signification as the imitated form perhaps, Old-norse hâpp, bona sors, compare the Anglosaxon adj. hâpp, comodus; perforce; perdy = certainly, French par Dieu! as an interjection.
for: forsooth, Old-English forsothe, Anglosaxon for sóð, pro veritate. Compare: And he woot the sothe (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 199.). Besides, for appears separated: for instance &c.
within is compounded in withinside, which is also regarded as an adjective.
to is put in nearer connection with determinations of time: to-morrow, from the Anglosaxon subst. morgen; to-night; to-day, Anglosaxon tô niht, tô dâg; dialectically also to-month = this month, to-year, like the Old-English to yere = this year. In other cases we leave to without closer connection with the substantive, as in to boot (SHAKSP.); compare Old-English to sope (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER) = forsooth.

2) The adverbial determination of the activity is often expressed by prepositions with adjectives or adjective adverbs, yet the prepositions mostly stand separated from the adjective. Compare in vain, French en vain; in common; in short; ere long; ere now, compare Anglosaxon är pam, är ponne; at unawares, as at once, for which atones, atones, atenens &c. stands in Old-English; at last; at least; at first; Old-English also averst and aterst, Anglosaxon àt ærestan, primum; on high; of old; of late; over all (And light was over all (MILTON), yet also spelt over-all, Old-English over al; from high; from far (afar) &c.
The greater and almost sole number of blendings of the preposition with the adjective is comprised by the composition with a (Anglosaxon on, an, ã, ã). The next section explains the prepositions which have arisen in this manner. Here belong: anew; anon (ever and anon = every now and then); from the numeral, Anglosaxon on án, continuo, Old-English also anone, anonen; alate (obsolete) = lately; along, also alongst (Somerset), which is at the same time to be regarded as a preposition, arose from the Anglosaxon andlang, prep., in longum, per; aloud = loudly. aloud, Old-English alowe, alough, alogh = below; abroad = widely, at large, belonging to the Angl. brâd latus. Grimm distinguishes abroad, as the Old-norse à braut, abhine; in Old-English abrood (PIERS PLOUGHM.) also stands for the latter; afar, Old-English also oferrom, afarne, from the Anglosaxon adv. feorran (the contrary of the obsolete anear, dialectically also anearst); aflat, from flat Old-norse flatr, planus; afresh = anew, Anglosaxon fêrsc; awry, from wry = crooked, distorted, from the
Gothic vraiqvs; adry, passes now for an adjective, yet it is perhaps properly: on the dry; compare Anglosaxon on pam dry-
géan (Lucas 23, 31); athwart, Anglosaxon on pveorh, see thwart p. 392; asunder, now commonly in sunder, formerly also asun-
derly; separatim, Anglosaxon on sundran, ñsundron; aslant, from slant = oblique, compare Swedish slettra. Besides we also find formerly aslet and asloute, as well as dialectically aslew and aslash with the same meaning; aslope from slope, see above; askew, see above skew and Old-norse á ská, oblique; askaunt and askaunce, else also ascance, ascauce, is also used in Old-
English in the meaning of askew and at the same time of scar-
cely. In the meaning of askew it is allied to the latter, as well as to asquint, compare the verb skien in the North of England, like squint; in the meaning scarcely it belongs to scant, see p. 392; the termination ce is to be regarded as a genitive ter-
mination; asquint, like askew and askaunt, from squint, dialecti-
cally (Craven) also asquin, in Eastern dialects sywynikken, squinny, squin-eies sec. XVII. = squinting eyes; allied to skew; agood, may also spring from the substantive good, Anglosaxon gðd; ahigh = on high.

Other combinations of prepositions with adjectives are those from ere in erelong = before long; erenow = before this time; after in afterall = at last, with the indeterminate pronoun all; likewise with in withal; be in below, Old-Engl. also alowe; here also belike (Shakesp.) seems to belong, for which beikely stands in
Bishop Hall, whereas in the regular besure the abbreviation from to be sure is contained. In together a primitive adverb may also be found, Anglosaxon to gádere, for which in Old-English togideres also stands (Piers Ploogh. p. 167.).

3) The union of prepositions with adverbs of another sort concerns particularly the pronominal adverbs, which the former usually follow, as in therein, Old-English therinne, thereinto, therabouts, also therabout, with the genitive s, thereafter, thereat, thereon, thereof, thereout, thereunto, thereunder, therefore, thereupon, thereby, therefore, therefrom, Old-English also thereof (Piers Plooghman p. 223.), therewith, therewithal, thereto; tótherto; thencefrom (ob-
solète); herein, hereinto, hereabout (hereabouts), hearafter, hereat, hereon, hereof, hereout, hereunto, hereupon, hereby, herewith, hereto, heretofore; hitherto; wherein, whereinto, whereabouts (thereabouts), whereat, whereof, whereunto, whereupon, whereby, wherefore, wherewith, wherewithal, wherethrough &c. They are formed partly after the Anglosaxon precedent; compare: þærinne, þæráðtaían, þæráfter, þærón, þæróf, þærufón, þærúte, þærmid, þærvíð, þæró; þánonvëard, whereas in the other Anglosaxon particles of this class the compounds seem to be wanting. Other adverbs rarely have prepositions subjoined, as forthwith. More rarely still a connected preposition precedes adverbs of this sort, like be in behind, Old-English also ahind, ahint, and beyond; although pre-
xixed prepositions otherwise occur, as in from hence (thence, whence), where the superfluous from is censured by grammas-
rians, from where, from elsewhere, till then &c.
f) The Negative and Affirmative Particles.

From the aforesaid adverbs the negative and affirmative particles are distinguished, which require a particular discussion, so far as they are not touched upon hereafter among Conjunctions.

The primitive English negative, or the negation of the reference of the subject to the predicate, was denoted by *ne* (Anglosaxon *nê*), which always preceded the predicative verb: Devyne ye, for I *ne* dar (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 13.). This *ne* was in Anglosaxon and in Old-English sometimes blended with the following verb, as *habban*, *villan*, *vitan*, *vesan*, in which the initial consonant was cast off, as *nabban*, *nillan*, *nesan* &c., Old-English *nave = have not*; *nill = will not*; *niste = wiste not*; *nom. nis, nas, bere = am, is was, were not* &c. In print we often find *n'am, n'is, n'hath* &c. with the mark of elision. These Anglosaxon negative particles coincided in form with the Old-French *ne*.

This *ne* is to be distinguished from another *ne*, which answered to the Anglosaxon *né*, *neque*, and in reduplication was equal to the Latin *neque* — *neque*, Anglosaxon *né* — *nê*: Lewed men *ne* koude Jangle *ne* jugge (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 9.). There is no bawme *ne* gumme of Arabe More delectable (Skelton I. 303.). This *ne* is obsolete, but is found here and there, for instance in L. Byron. Modern-English commonly replaces the single *ne* (né) by *nor*, the reduplicated by *neither = nor*. See the Conjunction.

The simple negation has, as in other Germanic tongues, yielded to that compound one in which itself constitutes the negative element, and whose expletives originally followed the verb in order to strengthen it. In Modern-English it appears as *not*, which is the shorter form for *naught, nought*, Old-English also *noght*, *nat &c.* is, the Anglosaxon *nâviht, nâuht, nàht, nóht*; *nât* that is *ne-â-viht* (yuht), *ne — unquam — hilum* (creatura), nihil. Compare the original separation of *ne — viht* in the Anglosaxon: *He ne mehte viht* gefeohtan, non potuit pugnare (Beóv. 2160.).

The strengthened negation early appeared alongside of *ne*: Thei wil *noughte*, that thei dyen of kindely dethe MAUNDEV. p. 194.). Thei wol *noght* come there (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 67.). My strengthe may *not* be told (TOWNEL. Mvst. p. 3.). He was *not* pale as a forpined gost (CHAUCER p. 2. II. Tyrwh.). And where *not*, *noght* is to be taken as properly a substantive indefinite pronoun, *nothing* also took its place (see below), which still occurs in moderns as a strengthened negation: You know it well and feel it *nothing* (L. BYRON).

In Old-English however these strengthened negatives are very commonly added to the *ne = non* and *ne = neque*, as the accumulation of negatives was familiar to Old-English: This *ne yeveth noght* of God etc. (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 67.). *Nothing ne* knew that it was Arcite (CHAUCER p. 12. I. Tyrwh.). *Ne con ich saien non falsdom Ne non I ne shal* (DAME SIRIZ p. 4.). Hit semyd hym never *ne never* shalle (TOWNEL. Mvst. p. 4.). Similar accumulations are still found in Modern-English: Harp *not* on that; *nor do not* banish reason For incredulity (SHAKSP. Meas. for Meas.), yet are rejected by grammarians.
Modern strengthenings of not by substantive accusatives, denoting a trifling object, among which even a whit (from the Anglosaxon viht) again occurs, are analogous to similar ones in Old-French. Old-English: To be corséd... The counteth noght a bene (not a bean) (Piérs Plough. p. 51.), when never often appears instead of not: never a del, never a whyt &c. Modern-English: Th' one has my pity; not a jot the other (Shakspe, Meas. for Meas.). I perceive, you delight not in music. — "Not a whit, when it jars so." (Two Gentl. of V.). Here belongs also not a bit &c. A similar one is effected by other adverbial determinations, as not at all &c.

In rapid utterance not is attracted enclitically, even with the loss of its vowel, to a preceding word, as in can't, don't &c., wouldn't &c.

Instead of the negation not there also appears no, Old-English na, no, before adverbs. If the origin of no in nowhere is dubious (compare anywhere, everywhere) and no appears as the indefinite pronoun, although the Old-English neverwhere also occurs instead, it unquestionably is equivalent to the Anglosaxon ná, nó = ne-á, nunquam, non, before comparatives. Compare Anglosaxon nó pý láss, Old-English nameless, Modern-English nevertheless, as opposed to the affirmative Anglosaxon a pý mà, eo magis, compare evermore, now equal to always. Modern-English: I can go no farther, sir (Shakspe, Temp.). I will put off my hope, and keep it no longer for my flatterer (ib.). Hold up the jest no higher (Merry Wiv.). Go, sin no more! (Longfellow). To die is no less natural than those acts of this clay (L. Byron). This no rarely stands before other than adverbial comparatives, as in: It will seem no more to thee Than if... I should a little longer stay Than I am used (Longfellow). Old-English: & ne myȝte noleng sytte (Rob. of Gloucester I. 185.). He was so wery, that he myghte no færther (Maundev. p. 148.). It rennethe no furthermore (p. 102.). I suffe yow no lenger (Piérs Ploughim. p. 65.). Na-moore (as little) myghte God be man (p. 343.); yet also before the comparative used substantively: I kan na-moore seggen (p. 53.).

The obsolete negative is expressed by the same no, compare Gothic nē, in the dialects of the North of England still nā. But alongside of it stands the now little used nay, which only accidentally coincides with the Old-French naie, and represents the same word as no (Anglosaxon ne-á). Compare above the adverb aye, p. 390, and below ay for yes. In Old-English it is frequently used for no: Thei seyn simply ȝe, and nay (Maundev. p. 292.). He... that couth not say nay (Townel. Myst. p. 112.). Can he hem thank? Nay, God wot, never a del (Chaucer p. 23. II. Tytw.). In Modern-English it is often, like the Latin imo, used in outbiddings: "Are all prepared?" — They are — nay more — embark'd (L. Byron). Also in challenges and exhortations: Nay then! And not a word said he. — Nay, why so downcast? Jaspar cried (Southey). Also the Old-English formula: By ya or nay! (Chaucer) is still found in Modern-English: By yea and nay! by my faith! (Shakspe. Merry Wiv. 4, 2. Love's L. L. 1, 1.). Whence the old verb denay, approaching in sound to the Romance deny.
The absolute affirmation is denoted by the obsolescent yea, Old-English ye (DAME SHIRI, MAUND.), ye, which still stands frequently in Skelton, and ya, Anglosaxon gea, etiam, sane, signifies, and is still commonly opposed to the nay, and is preserved mostly in solemn speech; but the affirmation is commonly effected by yes, the amplified ye, Anglosaxon gese, gise, gyse, that is, sane — sit (se — sie, si). Alongside of it ay, Anglosaxon a = ever, in northern dialects also au (Warwickshire), is still in a limited measure current, to which perhaps the West-English yaw = yes belongs. In the older writings i is frequently found for it, which has been perhaps produced through the common pronunciation of the ay. Compare "All ready?" cried the captain; "Ay, ay" the seamen said (Whittier).

We may also regard as substitutes for adverbial particles sentences and elliptical expressions, for which perhaps adverbs might be substituted, as: may be; howbeit = however; as it were, as't were (Shakespeare); as though it were; to wit; to be sure and the like, which sufficiently betray their original syntactical relation, and penetrate out of the more rapid colloquial into the written language.

2) The Preposition.

Prepositions, or words of relation, stand in immediate relation to a noun, whose relation to the notion of the activity they denote in a less general, more closely defined manner than is done by the case alone. The preposition denotes primarily a relation of space, is then transferred to the temporal, and finally extended to causal and modal relations. The more modern and periphrastic prepositions sometimes have no longer the original reference of this part of speech to relations of space.

The English prepositions are mostly founded upon Anglosaxon ones, which could frequently be combined with two and even three different cases, whereas in English they all appear with the same oblique case.

Prepositions are divided, on the one hand, according to their form, into simple and compound; on the other hand, into those founded upon ancient particles and those demonstrably founded upon nouns, with or without prefixed particles. Lastly we may here place periphrastic forms, serving as substitutes for prepositions.

We accordingly distinguish: a) prepositions proper, or, those resting upon particles; b) prepositions developed out of nouns; c) prepositional forms.

a) Prepositions proper are partly simple, partly compound. The simple ones do not contain derivatives.

1) Simple are:

*in*, Anglosaxon in, with dat. acc. in, ad, Old-English the same.

*in* in carless speech sometimes casts off its *n*, especially before the article: *I* the death of darkness (Shakespeare Temp.).

*at*, Anglosaxon *at*, with dat. an, in, apud, ab, de.

*on*, Anglosaxon *on*, *an*, *d*, *a*, with dat. in, cum; with acc. in, contra, Old-English *on*, *an*, *a*. *On* is sometimes shortened to *o*:

A pox *o* your throat (Shakspe. Temp.), where it may inapty
be taken for of, although on and of are interchanged. It frequently passed into a. Comp.: the adverbs compounded with a, abed &c. Here belongs also the combination of a with the gerundive substantive in ing: The spring is near when green geese are a breeding (SHAKSP. Love’s L. L. 1, 1.). There are worthies a coming (5, 2.). Like a German clock still a repairing, ever out of frame (3, 1.). Hence: to be a coming, to fall a trembling &c., to which also: Having sworn too hard-a-keeping oath (SHAKSP. Love’s L. L. 1, 1.) may belong. In Old-English on and a interchange in this case: Ne non that gothe on beggynge (MAUNDEV. p. 207.); in Chaucer: to ride on hunting, on hawking, to go a begging &c.

of, Anglosaxon of, af, āf, with dat. a, de, ex, Old-English af, af. The shortening of of into o’ is familiar: It is the quality o’ the climate (SHAKSP. Temp.). Because their business still lies out o’ door (Com. of Err.). Mine eyes are made the fools o’ th’ other senses (Mach.). Body o’ me! what inn is this! (LONGFELLOW). Hence: a Tom o Bedlam, vagabonds, also called Abrahman. The popular o’ clock rests upon of clock: Four of the clock it was tho (CHAUCER). Chaunte-clere . . . Must tell what is of the clock (SKELTON I, 66.). Modern-English: It was almost eight of the clock (FIELDING). Yet we also say a clock, which seems to lead back to on; comp.: At twelve aclock at night (BALLAD by Tarlton 1570.).

off, is a collateral form of of, now often adverbial. Compare too off hand—at once, and others. Old-English: pou art mon off strange lond (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 115.).

up, Anglosaxon up, upp, uppe, adv. sursum; in English also a genuine preposition opposed to down; compare up hill &c. — We may here incidentally mention the adverbial upsidedown, which seems to be a disfigurement of the Old-English upsodown.

by, Anglosaxon bē, bi, bi, big, c. dat. juxta, ad, in, de. Old-English be, by, even in Skelton often be: Be my fay! (I. 28.).

for, Anglosaxon for, c. dat., acc.: pro, ante, propter; Old-English the same.

from, Anglosaxon fram, from, c. dat., a, ab. Old-English fram, from, fron (TOWNEL. Mсты. p. 106.), fro, fra, still fro, frae in northern dialects. Old-English very often has fro: Fro the bygynyng of pe world (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 9.); along with from: From oure firste fader Adam (ib.). And so he departed fro hem (MAUNDEV. p. 225.). Fro the londe (GOWER in HALLIWELL s. v. dreint). Fro and fra Chaucer has; fram stands alongside of from, fro in Piers Ploughman. Fro is now considered an adverb only.

with, Anglosaxon vid (also vid), c. gen., coram, c dat., pone, juxta, pro, contra, c. acc., ad, juxta. Old-English the same.

till, Anglosaxon, Old-norse til, c. dat., ad; comp. adj. til, aptus. Old-English til.

to, Anglosaxon tô, c. dat., ad. Old-English to; in Modern-English we distinguish the particles too, in Old-English likewise commonly spelt to, from the preposition, Anglosaxon tô, as an adverb insuper. To, which is also joined to the infinitive, is sometimes
shortened into 't, especially before vowels: To learn his wit 't exchange the bad for better (SHAKSPERE Two Gentl. of V.). Being once perfected how to grant suits, How to deny them, whom 't advance &c. (Temp.).

Here also we may mention the two foreign prepositions, which have thrust themselves in.

per, Latin per, distributive = for: A man earns 30 shillings per week, how much does he earn per annum? (CROSSLEY.) If I am charged 3 pence per mile &c. (id.). To find the interest of any sum of money at 6 per cent (id.); where the mingling of the Latin per and pro, occurring in Old-French, pour, por shews itself.

sans, Old-French sans, sanz, still frequently used in Shakspeare, not merely in an affected manner, now out of use. Old-English sauz, saunce. Religion saunz rule (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 263.).

Among the derivative prepositions of this class are to be reckoned:

ere, poetical as a preposition (SHAKSP., DRYDEN). Anglosaxon ær, c. dat. ante, of the same sound as the adverbiale comparative ær, prius, antea, belonging to acc. Old-English er, or: or this; or his nativitee (CHAUCER). Ore even in Shakspeare, All's well &c. 1, 3.

after, Anglosaxon ëfter, c. dat. post, belonging to ëft and af, of. Old-English the same.

over, Anglosaxon ofer, c. dat., acc., ultra, post, to ufa, adv., supra Old-English the same. v is often elided: o'er.

under, Anglosaxon under, c. dat., acc., sub, subtier, subtus. Compare Gothic und, ad.

fouth = out of, otherwise an adverb. Anglosaxon ford, inde, still occurs as a preposition. See L. Byron 2, p. 130. ed. Lips.

through, occasionally abridged thro'. Anglosaxon purh (puruh, þeð), c. dat., acc., per, propert. Gothic pairh. Old-English thorþ, thorgh, throguh (PERCY Rel.), poru, thorowe, thorow, thorough &c.

The form thorough occurs now in compounds; Shakspeare still has it as a preposition: And thorough this distemperate, we see The seasons alter (MIDS. N. DR. 2, 1.).

since, has developed itself out of the Anglosaxon adverb sidtan, sippan, sidde, side, also sidda (from the adverb sid; serius). Rob. of Gloucester often has seppe as an adverb; seth is still found in the fifteenth century. The abridged form sith, sith, early occurs as a preposition: Sithé the tyme of Sowdan Sahaladyne (MAUNDDEV. p. 44. ib. 148.). From sithen proceeded on the one hand the shorter sin, which still survives in dialects, on the other the amplified genitive form sithenes, sithence, from which since arose.

2) Compound of particles are:

into, Anglosaxon intó. Old-English the same. Old-English also possessed intil: Turne . . intil oon bileeve (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 258. compare HAVELOK 130.). Compare until.

out of, appear in English disconnected, and might therefore be compared with the syntactically connected up to, up till, from under, from among, from beyond &c.; yet out is, in contradístinc-
tion to the casual connection of other prepositions with an object already more particularly determined by a preposition, always accompanied by of. Anglosaxon *uten*, prep., Matth. 7, 5 &c. Old-
norse *utan*, whereas in Anglosaxon *ute*, *ut*, extra, also occurs as a preposition with the dative. In dialects *ut* is still in use for *out*. The combination out of also belongs to Old-English.

until, and unto, are compounds of *til* and *to* with the particle, which answers to the Gothic *unté*, Old-Anglosaxon *uniti*, Old-High-
dutch *unzi*. Compare Old-Highdutch *unz ze = unto.*

upon, Anglosaxon *uppan*, *uppen*, c. dat., acc., super, post, contra. Old-English *upon*, *apon*.

underneath, Anglosaxon *underneódan*, and beneath, Anglosaxon *
benedan*, benidan, from the adverb *neódan*, deorsum. Old-English *undernethe*, *binethen*, *bynethethe*. The simple *neath* in the same meaning is considered an abbreviation: And *'neath* her bodice of bright scarlet dye Convulsive clasps it to her heart (LONGFELLOW). The snowbird twittered on the beechen bough And *'neath* the hemlock (BRYANT).

afore, Anglosaxon *onforan*, c. acc., and before. Anglosaxon be-
foran, c. dat., acc., ante, coram. Old-English *aforen*, *aforne*, *afore* and *beforen*, *beforne*, *before*. The Old-English *toforn*, *tofere* is lost as a preposition. Anglosaxon *tóforan*, *tófor*, c. dat., ante, coram, pro: *Tófere* alle opere (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 2.). At Sales-
bury touore hym (I. 377.). Lyveris toforn us (before us living) (PIERS PLOUGH. p. 235.). The simple *fore* is treated as an ab-
 abbreviation: Places the ransomed child, new born, *'fore* the face of its father (LONGFELLOW)

behind, Anglosaxon *behídan*, adv. retro, post. Old-English be-
hynede. The older dialects and northern ones even now have *ahint*.

beyond, Anglosaxon *begóndan*, c. acc., according to Boswell also
begónd, trans, ultra. Old-English *bízende* (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.),
bízunde (HALLIWELL s. v.), *bízonde*, *beyond*.

but, is commonly no longer regarded as a preposition, but is
decidedly such in sentences like: *All but one were lost* (SMITH).
Anglosaxon *bitán = be útan*, c. dat., sine, praeter. Old-English *but*, often *bou* (compare about), as still in northern dialects *bout = without*.

within, Anglosaxon *vidínnan*, from *vid* prep., c. dat., acc. and
innan, in use in the compound as an adverb; Old-English with-
inne.

without, Anglosaxon *vidítan*, from *vid* prep., c. dat., acc., and
útan, likewise current in the compound as an adverb. Old-English
withouten, *withouten*, *withouen* (DAME SIRIZ p. 7.)

throughout, an Old-English compound: *poru out al* (ROB. OF
GLOUCESTER II. 377.). *Thorghi* out many othere iles ((MAUNDEV.
p. 4.). *thurghout* &c.

Compounded of three particles are:
above, Anglosaxon *bufan = be ufan*, c. dat., supra, with the pre-
fixed preposition *à*, compare *ábítan*. Old-English *abufé*, *abuf* (TOWNEL. M.Y.), *aboven*, *above*, *aboone*, *abone*, *aboven*, *above*,
about &c. The old bote is likewise found in early times: Bi horae Loverd, hevene king, That ous is bote! (DAME SIRIZ p. 5.). In modern times 'bode appears as an abbreviation of above: His bold head 'Bode the contentious waves he kept (SHAKSP. Temp.).

about, Anglosaxon prep. abutan = à be utan, along with which abutan; c. dat., sine, praeter (see but). OldEnglish abouten (still in use in the East of Sussex), abought &c.: Abouten Inde (MAUN-DEV. p. 4.). The crounes .. abouten here hedes (p. 188.). Beren beighes .. Abouten hire nekkes (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 10.). Abouten prime (CHAUCER 2191.). In the dialects of the North of England however abut is equal to but. — 'bout is shortened from about; In troops I have dispers'd them 'bout the isle (SHAKSP. Temp.).

b) Prepositions arising from Nouns.
The oldest and most important amongst these are compounded of particles and nouns, and their appearance without a particle is mostly to be considered as arising from the rejection of the latter.

1) Compound particles of this sort arise
from substantives:
among, amongst, the latter of which forms, like similar ones, has arisen from the older form with a (genitive) s by the adoption of an inorganic t (comp. against, amidst). Anglosaxon amang, onmang, c. dat., inter, cum, apud, from the subst. mang, mixtura. Old-English amang (ROB. OF BRUNNE, Scottish and in dialects of the North of England), among, emang, amonges, emonges, emongs (JACK JUGLER), also emongst. The form in es is old, for instance in Maundeville, Piers Ploughman and Chaucer. The a is often thrown off in Modern-English: No marrying 'mong his subjects (SHAKSP. Temp.). The keenest eye might search in vain, 'Mong briers .. For the spot &c. (BRYANT). The ways that wind 'mongst the proud piles (id.).
adown, Anglosaxon adîne, adv. deorsum, from the subst. dîn, mons. Old-English adown, adoune; frequently simply down. Old-English downz (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER p. 208 in HALLIWELL s. v.).
across. Old-norse kross = Latin crux, Old-French croiz, cruz, cruz; Smart even cites the simple cross as a preposition. Across as a preposition seems to belong to modern times.
against, Anglosaxon ongeyn, ongén, ògén; c. acc., contra, adver- sus, alongside of the simple gáyn, gén, adverb, which appears as an accusative. Besides that tógeynes, togénes stands as a prepo-
sition, c. dat., acc., contra. Old-English frequently æzen, æzeyn, agein, ageyne, again as a preposition from Rob. of Gloucester to Skelton, also with the meaning e regione: Æzeyn Franche stonde pe contre de Chichestre (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 6.); like over against now; also = towards: To riden again the quene (CHAUCER 4811.); alongside thereof againes, ageins, agens (Scottish aganis), agenst is an Old-English form: Many other dyverse schapp, azenst kynde (MAUNDEV. p. 223.). It stands abbreviated as 'gainst: 'Gainst form and order they their power employ (DRYDEN). „All the nations .. are loud in wrath against thee“. — „'Gainst me!“ (L. BYRON). — Gain; gainer; gainest, near; nearer; nearest is in use dialectically as an adjective in the North of England, and occurs
also, in other significations, as: easy, dexterous, convenient. Compare Anglosaxon adverb ungándose, inepte. The simple gain, contra, is still found in a few compounds.

beside, besides, Anglosaxon be sidan, ad latus. The form besides is not, as Halliwell thinks, inferior to the others in age. Comp. Old-English: Bi syde Scotland hem 3ef a place (Rob. of Gloucester I. 143). Bysydes hym (283).

often from adjectives.

amid, amidst, Anglosaxon: a form amidd, amid from the adj. midd, medius is wanting; on the other hand to middes; c. gen., dat., inter, according to Bosworth also on middan, á middan, in media parte, compare Old-norse á medan, interim. Like the gen. sing. neutr. middes, the dat. plur. middum was also used as an adverb in medio. Old-English has early amid, amyd, amydde and amides; middes is here even regarded as a substantive: Amiddles of the tempul (Chaucer 2011.). In pe middes of pe world (Rob. of Gloucester I. 61.); whence the substantive midst; and in middes is likewise used prepositionally: Men settten him . . . in middes the place of his tent (Maundev. p. 253.).

As abbreviations 'mid, 'midst occur, to which however the mark of elision is often not prefixed: A youth, who bore, 'mid snow and ice, A banner with the strange device: Excelsior! (Longfellow). The clear pure lymph, That from the wounded trees . . . Falls, mid the golden brightness of the moon, Is gathered in (Bryant). Whither, midst falling dew . . . dost thou pursue The solitary way? (id.).

With the now lost preposition mid, Anglosaxon mid, c. dat. cum, this mid has nothing in common. Compare Old-English: Hors and Hengist . . . Come to Kent . . . Myd pre schipful of knytes (Rob. of Gloucester I. 111.).

anent = opposite to, concerning, about, which modern lexicographers denote a Scotticism, is an Old-English as well as Scottish word. Its fundamental form is anen, its fundamental meaning, opposite. Anglosaxon on efn, on enn, e regione, contra, from the adj. efen. Compare Old-English: And anen that vale of Josaphate . . . is the chireche of seynt Stevene (Maundev. p. 80.).

With anen is primarily connected anens (also anense, Halliwell v. anenst; onence id. s. v.), comp. also afore nens, perhaps always to be spelt aforenens = opposite to and the Old-English and Scottish anenst, still enenst, forensten in northern dialects. An amplification by an unorganic t gave anent (now especially in Lancashire, Derbyshire &c.) anont in Wiltshire, also foranent in the North of England, to which the primitive genitive es was early appended, aneyntes, anentis: Unto aneyntes Egipt and toward Ethiope (Maundev. p. 143.). Alle that comen aneyntes hem (p. 298.). An other literary from is anends. See Craven Dialect. I. p. 8. The form in es is found even in the Anglosaxon to emnes, plane. Compare moreover the Old-Highdutch in ēban = meaning beside.

along, dialectically and Old-English also alongst (Halliwell s. v.), is deformed from the Anglosaxon andlang, c. gen., in longum, per. Old-English endelong: Endelong Breataigne and the like.
(CHAUCER), see above p. 404. Along is not to be confounded with the simple long, which is used with the accusative with reference to time, and may be regarded as a preposition (although placed after the noun): The nightingale shall cease to chant the evening long (BRYANT).

athwart, also overathwart, even in MAUNDEV. p. 211., also as an adjective in Skelton I. 27., see p. 392. aslant and askaunt, askaunce the same, see the corresponding adverbs p. 405.

around, along with which the simple round occurs, is formed after the Old-French roond, round, reon, Old-English also aroun (KING ALISAUNDER 6603.), as still in northern dialects. The English formation perhaps leaned upon the Old-French a la roonde, a la roënde.

below. See the adverb p. 405.

between and betwixt. Between arises from the Anglosaxon be tveónum (dat. plur. from the substantive tvéona, tvyna = interstes), also betvýnan (dat. sing.), which stands as a preposition with the dative; this form belongs therefore properly to the substantive forms. Old-English betwene, along with which also atwene, atween, occurred, which still survives in atween, especially in the North of England. Even the mere twene was used as a preposition: Twene hope and drede My lyfe I led (SKELTON I. 424.). Betwixt rests upon the Anglosaxon betweaks, betwoks, betweor, betvux, alongside of which betwezet occurred, c. dat., acc., inter; a simpler form was betvih, inter, belonging to the adv. teih, intra, from i, duo. Old-English betwix and betwixen, betwixt, alongside whereof also atwix, atwicen, atwixt, the latter whereof is still in use, for example, in Suffolk. The Promptorium Parvulorum (sec. XV.) has atwexyn, atwyxyn, atwyxt. — Betwixt often appears shortened into 'twixt: The time 'twixt six and now (SHARSP. Temp.). And 'twixt the heavy swaths his children were at play (BRYANT).

toward, towards, gen. Anglosaxon tòveardes, c. dat., versus, belonging to the adj. veord, vergens (only in compounds), whence tòveard = futurus. Old-English toward alongside of towards. In Old-English both elements of the compound were often separated by the substantive referred to them: To wodewarde wyll I flee (PERCY Rel. p. 98. II.). To Dovere ward (p. 90. II.). To Thebes ward; to Troie wardes &c. (CHAUCER). To me warde (SKELTON I. 46.). Hence even in Modern-English: I take my course To seawarde (TURBEVILE'S Ovid. 1567.). To God ward (2 Cor. 3, 4.); with which the substantive forms are allied, as in: That vessel to the windward yonder (LONGFELLOW). The mountains piled to the northward (WHITIERR).

Moreover ward was also compounded with other prepositions: As fram ward Teukesburi (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 543.). From Burdeux ward (CHAUCER 399.). Thi (thou?) lext amidward thi teth “thou liest through thy teeth” (GY OF WARWICK p. 154.4.)

An imitation of a Romance form is withal, which from olden times has followed its substantive, retaining however the effect of a preposition. Old-English: Ony mon . . . that him list to speke with alle (MAUNDEV. p. 24.). Modern-English: A merrier man . . .
I never spent an hour's talk withal (SHAKSP. Love's L. L. 2, 1.). The best rule of life that ever the world was acquainted withal (TILLOTSON). It answers to the Old-French a tout, a toz. We may regard al as well as tot as strengthening of with, a.

2) Some simple and compound nouns, in which however the compounding does not entail the prepositional character, may, in connection with the oblique case, pass as prepositions. They are in part borrowed or imitated from the Old-French.

The prepositional employment of nigh, near (next), Anglosaxon neáh; c. dat. prope, juxta, rests upon Anglosaxon usage, and also answers to the Highdutch naechst as a preposition.

save, saving, Old-French saif, sauf, salw &c., also for hormis, excepté. Old-English sauf, save and saving (CHAUCER) in the same meaning: No man might gladen this duk Theseus Saving his olde fader (2839. Tyrwh.). The popular forms saving your reverence, saving your presence, wherein saving may be rendered by without prejudice to (SHAKSPARE Rom. 1, 4.), are old forms of courtesy or of exclamuation for undue speech.

traverse. Old-French travers, a preposition, also without the addition of a, de or en.

Particiles of the present, as during, Old-French durant; notwithstanding, Old-French nonobstant, nonobstant; touching, concerning, respecting, French touchant, concernant &c. are imitations of Romance forms. Old-English has taken up similar forms directly, as moyenaunt;Old-French moyennant.

Particiles of the past also occur thus: the originally Anglosaxon ago, always following its substantive, works prepositionally from olden times with the meaning since; properly, passed, from the Anglosaxon ãgangan, ãgân, praeterire. Old-English agon. I have here with my cosín Palamon Had strif and rancour many a day ago (CHAUCER 2785. Tyrwh. i-gon Wright). Even in Shakespeare agone: Above an hour agoone. Romance forms are except, French excepte; past = beyond, above, after, which is attached to the French passé; in use in olden times: It is past all remedye (SKELTON Merie Tales.).

Even the Romance maugre, in compound formed into a substantive, still in use, at least in burlesque speech, is frequent in Old-English: Maugre the Philistins of that citee; maugre his head; maugre thin eyen; also maugre his (CHAUCER). Occasionally maugre, magre, mauger operates as a substantive: In the mauger of doughte Dogles (PERCY Rel. p. 2.). Magre of our beard (see DYCE ed. SKELTON I. p. CXII.); so that it coincides with spite, despite, Old-French despit, used in like manner: Then must I save him Spite of himself (L. BYRON). He gazed — how long we gaze despite of pain, And know, we dare not own, we gaze in vain (1d.); for which the periphrastic in spite, Old-French en despit, stands. Compare Old-English: In the spyt of me PERCY Rel. p. 2.).

c) Prepositional forms:

We reckon here those combinations of substantives with prepositions, operating approximately as prepositions, in which the substantive as such remains effective, and therefore only appears with
the intervention of the case preposition of, or combined with a
genitive or a possessive pronoun. They are by no means all mo-
dern formations, but are attached partly to Anglosaxon and Old-
French forms.

1) To Germanic manners of expression are attached:

- in behalf (of), occasionally on behalf, also with the possessive
  pronoun: In my behalf, on his behalf &c. Anglosaxon half, half,
yet Oldfrieslandish bhahalva, Hollandish behalven, praeter. Old-
English on (a) . . . halfe &c., yet also on . . . behalve: Come in, on
Godes halfe (Chest. Plays). It shall not lacke certaine on mine
halve, properly on myside (Chaucer Troil. a. Cress. IV. 945.).
On Goddes halfe! (Skelton I. 128.). And commanded hem, on
Godes behalve &c. (Maundev. p. 225.).

- instead (of), also in his stead, along with instead of him. An-
glosaxon in (on) stede, in loco, instar (LyE). Old-English in stede,
also in hys stede.

- on this side, on the other side (of). Compare the Anglosaxon
on eallum sidum. On this side is treated quite as a preposition
and combined with the oblique case: On this side the Rhine etc.
Benedict, I fear, has views on this side heav’n (H. Walpole).
Old-English rather used on this half in like manner: On this half
the see (Maundev. p. 20.). Alle the londes and contrees on this
half the mount Belyan (p. 227.). Dialectically a this side is also
used of time: a this side Christmas.

- by way (of). Comp. by way of apology. Anglosaxon vég, via.
Old-norse végna (gen.), propter, pro.

- by dint (of). Anglosaxon dynt, ictus, percussio, comp. Holland-
ish uit kracht, perhaps formed upon the French à force de. Dint
is familiar to Old-English and Old-Scottish for blow, stroke.

- for the sake (of), often with the Saxon genitive and the pos-
sessive pronoun: for God’s sake, for glory’s sake, for your sake
&c. Old-norse fyrir sakir also merely sókum (dat. plur.) propter.
The Anglosaxon saca was not thus employed, but instead of it
ping: for mines vifes pingum, uxoris mea causa; for mínun ping-
gum, mea causa. Old-English: For mercies sake (Piers Ploughm.
p. 188.). For my promise sake I forgeue thee (Skelton Merie
Tales). Sake appears also in the plural in reference to several:
For both our sakes (Shaks. Taming of the Shrew 5, 2.). For
your fair sakes have we neglected time (Love’s L. L. 5, 2.). For
our own sakes And for our honour (L. Byron). But once in,
with their hilts hot in their hands, They must on for their own
sakes (id.).

2) With Romance forms are ranked:

- in lieu (of), French au lieu de, assimilated to the Germanic in-
stead: In lieu of the promises (Shakspeare Temp.), also in Lord
Byron.

- in regard (of), Old-French ou regard d’elles (Amiot).

- in front (of), = French en face de.

- in (by) virtue (of), French en vertu de.

- instead of, Old-French en despit de. Old-English in
the spyt of. See above.
in consequence (of), French en conséquence de.
by means (of), French au moyen de. Compare: Duers other
gentlemen hidden thither by Skeltons means (Dyce ed. Skelton
I. p. Ixxxv.).
by reason (of), French à raison de.
because (of), dialectically also cause, French à cause de. Because
has been in use from olden times, and is found in Chaucer.
Here also are reckoned Gerunds to which the object is an-
nexed with to, as, owing (to), Old-English also owing (Anglosaxon
&gan, habere, potiri), in which meaning in Old-English and even
later long of was used: It was not long of me, in faith, That I
went at this time (Gaulfrido and Barnardo 1570.). Compare
Anglosaxon gelang (on, at), pertinens ad. Here also belongs ac-
cording (to), from the old verb accorden, acorden and the like.
Many simple and compound Anglosaxon prepositions have been a-
bandoned in English, or only preserved in a few compounds. Old-English
still possessed some of them: edc as a preposition c. dat. connected
with cardinal or ordinal numbers, Old-English éce, etiam, operated only as
a conjunction. — ymbe, ymb, ime, embe, emb, c. acc. circa, intra,
erga, Modern-Highdutch um. Old-English umbe, umbi, um, frequent in
compounds: umbeclappe, umbeset, umbethinke, umgife, amthynce, umshade
&c. — ðed c. gen., dat., acc., usque ad, compare Old-Highdutch unz. —
mid (mid) c. dat. cum, Old-norse méd, Old-English mid (see amid), fre-
cquent as a preposition in B. of Gloucester. Compare Kyng All-
saunder 832. — geond c. acc. ultra, still in northern dialects yont (see
beyond). — hinder c. dat. post, now used adjectively. — Old-norse in-
ilum, ánilum, Danish imellem, Swedish emellem, between, among. Old-
English ymelle, ymell, emelle, abandoned in Modern-English. — innan,
c. dat., acc. in. Old-English inne as an adverb, as also in Anglosaxon.
binan, binnon, c. dat. in, intra. Old-English binne, byn (Ritson)
= within. In Yorkshire ben is still used for in, into; on the other hand
bin passes in Somerset for because, which perhaps belongs here. — onin,
oninnan (intus, intra), onufan, onuyon and onuppan (super, supra) seem
not imitated, whereas inat for instance, is connected (Percy Rel. p. 3,
2.). — utan, úton, c. dat. extra, Old-English oten, uten, still dialecti-
ally, partly adjectively in use for foreign, strange. The compounds
ütanyumb and ymbutan seem not imitated. — bæfnan, c. dat. post, sine,
may be contained in the Old-English baft, in the sense of abast —
vidgeondan, circa, tōcēc and tōcēcan, c. dat. praeter, insuper, gehende,
c. dat. apud, and others are wanting in English. Other Anglosaxon pre-
positions have been mentioned above.

3) The Conjunction.

Those particles which constitute the bond of sentences, and, ac-
cordingly, in contraction, of the members of a sentence, are called
conjunctions.
We distinguish those conjunctions which connect sentences gram-
matically homogeneous, as conjunctions in the stricter sense,
from subordinating conjunctions, which originally connect the
subordinate with the principal sentence.
English conjunctions, with trifling exceptions, spring from the
Anglosaxon. There appear among them, besides the particles serving

Mützner. engl. Gr. I.
solely to connect sentences, prepositions and adverbs also, which undertake allied functions.

a) Coordinating conjunctions, or conjunctions in the stricter sense.

1) They are first copulative, if they link together sentences homogeneous in form. Here belong *and*, Anglosaxon and, et, etiam, Old-English *and*, sometimes mutilated to *a*, as even now in dialects (Halliwell v. a. 14.). — also, Anglosaxon *alsvâ*, alsvâ, sic, etiam, Old-English alswa, alsway (Townel. Myst.), also, alse, als (comp. below as), beside which stands likewise, from the Anglosaxon *gelic* and *vise*, comp. Old-English *lyche*, iliche, Anglosaxon gelice, pariter. — *eke* is obsolete, (Shaksp.), Anglosaxon *écâ*, éc, etiam, Old-English from ekyn, compare Anglosaxon tó écaen, insuper. — *too*, Anglosaxon tó, prep. and adv., insuper, Old-English to, too. — *besides* and *beside* (see prepositions); *withal* (see prepositions) and *therewithal*, comp. Anglosaxon porvid, cum eo; *moreover*, formed from the Anglosaxon mâra and the preposition ofer, comp. Anglosaxon pérofer, dialect. *moreover than that*; also *inover* (Withals); *further*, Anglosaxon furdôr, ulterius, Old-English forther, further, and *furthermore* (Bible) and others may likewise be regarded as substitutes for conjunctions. In the comparative sense stands *even*, Anglosaxon *éna*, aeque, plane, ecce. Old-English even. — *Also* now, now, Anglosaxon *nu* or *nû*, Old-English now, may prolong the discourse connectingly and subsumingly. The numeral adverbs *first*, *firstly*, *secondly* &c., *lastly*, and *finally* corresponding with this in meaning, may likewise be regarded as connecting particles, although adverbs, strictly taken, prolong the discourse asynodetically and may therefore mostly take *and* before them.

With a reciprocal relation of sentences or members of a sentence *and* often appears along with other particles; thus, in *both* . . *and*, where *both* comprehends both members, although not always standing in a direct relation with them, and which appear united by *and*. The manner of expression is old. Anglosaxon: *Bá tév Adam and Eva* (Gen. 26, 35.). Old-English *Both* pees and *werre*, Blisse and *bale* *bothe* I seigh (Piers PLOUGH. p. 222.). *Both* to *kith* and to *kyn* (268.). Compare Middle-Highdutch *beidiu*, *unde* (Benecke). The members are joined by *also* instead of by *and* (Smart). The comprehension of the members is also effected by *at once* (simul), to which *and* is given as their union. It is otherwise with *alike* . . *and*, which exactly answers to the Latin pariter atque, Anglosaxon gelice . . *and*. The connections by *what* . . *what*, *what* . . *and* and are also old, more completely *what* . . *and what*, properly, something . . *something*, that is partly . . partly, corresponding to the Anglosaxon hvat, aliquid. Old-English: But *what* for the *yles*, *what* for the *see*, and *what* for strong rowyenge, fewe folk assayen for to passen that passage (Maundev. p. 306.). In this firste host is the nombre of poeple 50 Cumaweze; *what* of *hors*, *what* of *fote* (p. 240.). *Wat* vor *honger*, *wat* vor *wo*, men *deyde* (Rob. of Gloucester II. 378.). They shall . . yeve hem such than-
kings what with kissing, and with talkinges (Chaucer p. 255 Tyrwh.) — not only . but also, seems to be assimilated to the Romance non-seulement . mais encore, Latin non solum . sed etiam; but answers to the Anglosaxon conjunction būtan, nisi, therefore properly: not only. As well . as, as well as, operates similarly, wherein properly a modal junction of sentences is contained. Anglosaxon presents sva gelic svā, pariter ac. Old-English has early the eal-onsvā and vēla, vēl based upon als, as wel as: Als wel on hors back . as on fote (Maundev. p. 249.). The wommen weren breech as wel as men (p. 250.). Negative sentences are connected by the almost forgotten ne, Anglosaxon nē, neque (see p. 406.), now commonly by nor, for which neither also occurs. This nor, as well as neither is the Anglosaxon nāhvāder, nādor, nāder, neque: Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it (Smart). Neither . nor commonly appear in reciprocal relation. In Old-English for neither the forms Nouthor, neither appear, yet also neither, also neydur (Econom 883.), as still in northern dialects noughter, nawther, nother, neither and nowdir, which, as in the Anglosaxon nādor with nē, often entered into reciprocal relation with ne: Nouthor be day ne be nught (Maundev. p. 303.). Nother after his death ne in his lif (Chaucer p. 76. II. Tyrwh.). That han neither konnyng ne kyn (Piers Ploughm. p. 220.). Yet nother is also early repeated, and in the second member often assumes the shorter form nor: For measure is a meane, nother to by nor to lawe (Skelton I. 231.). In the form neither it also appears repeated: Neither in this world, neither in the world to come (Matt. 12, 32.), which is censured by moderns. There also appear nor . nor in reciprocal relation, especially in poets: Ye knew nor me, nor monarchs, nor mankind (L. Byron). Etymologically considered all these forms are equally justified.

2) Disjunctive conjunctions announce that only one of the limbs is valid. Here belongs or, Anglosaxon ãhvāder, ãvāer, ãdor, ãder, alteruter, Old-English outhor, other, or, or also ather, as still in Yorkshire, aythere (Townel. Myst.), formed quite analogously to Nouthor, nother, nor, to which else, Anglosaxon elles, Old-English also elle, is given as an augmentative, which also operates disjunctively: Be quiet, else be gone. It commonly enters into reciprocal relation as either . or, in both which forms the same word is to be recognized. Here too Old-English mostly preferred the shorter form in the second limb. Comp. Old-English: A tale outhor tweye (Piers Ploughm. p. 167.). Oper he smot of pe arm, or pe hond, or pe heued (Rob. of Gloucester I. 17.). Outher here or elli where (Piers Ploughm. p. 280.). The use of or . or is still poetical: To try whose right, Or thine or mine, is most in Helena (Shakespare Mids. N. Dr. 3, 2.). That were heroic or to win or fall (L. Byron). The Anglosaxon oðde, aut, in reciprocal relation oðde . oðde, was abandoned.

3) Adversative conjunctions oppose the connected limb, limitingly or negatively, to another. Here belong but, Anglosaxon butan, as a preposition sine, praeter, as a conjunction, nisi, which has
taken the place of the ae still widely diffused in Old-English (Rob. of Gloucester, Pierson Ploughm. &c.), ak (Wright Politic. Songs p. 211.), ake (Halliwell s. v.), oc (Beves of Hamtown p. 61.), Anglosaxon ac (oe, âc, òc, Gothic ak), sed, at, as the Anglosaxon vitodlice, sed, vero and sôðvhâdere, verumtamen were abandoned. On the other hand yet (also combined with and and but), Anglosaxon git, get, geot, gêta, nunc, adhuc, which appeared augmentatively before comparatives, git, sviðor, adhuc melius, and some compounds came in, as, nevertheless, Old-English also natheles, developed from the Anglosaxon næfre and nà py (pê) lâs, nunquam (minime) eo minus and corresponding to the Old-French neantmoins; notwithstanding, from the Anglosaxon vîðstandan, and assimilated to the Old-French no-nostant; however, formed from the Anglosaxon hvê, hvîy, hû, the instrumental of hvît and ofre, properly an elliptical sentence, as it appears complete in howbeit (formerly abbreviated as howbe). The hybrids meantime, meanwhile, from the Old-French meien and the Anglosaxon tima and hvîl may also be used adversatively. Compare the French cependant.

4) Causal conjunctions are those which indicate that the annexed sentence contains the cause or the consequence of another.

The preposition for used to combine sentences serves to denote the cause; essentially it annexes a subordinate sentence, which however, sometimes receives a freer position and seems to pass into a principal sentence. We may compare it with the French var, likewise originally annexing the subordinate sentence. Old-English often denoted the sentence introduced by for, as a subordinate sentence, by the collocation of the words: pe Picars were wroth eke. For he myd such vnkyn dede heore felawes slow (Rob. of Gloucester I. 110.).

A conclusion is mostly annexed by primitive pronominal adverbs, as hence, therefore and thereupon, both which seem, both in composition and application, unknown to Anglosaxon (also thereon, Anglosaxon pærón, in eo), whereas the now obsolete forthy = therefore, in Anglosaxon for py, igitur, ea causa, Old-English for thi, forthy, undertook the same function, although, in spite of its originally demonstrative character, it penetrated into the subordinate sentence in Anglosaxon with the meaning qua. Old-English also used forthan, Anglosaxon for pam, propter ea, forpan, forpon, igitur. Further, Modern-English employs also the adverb then, Anglosaxon þonne, þene, also substituted for ergo, igitur, and so, Anglosaxon sva, sic, ita, which also occurs combined with then (so then), although it frequently, like the Old-French si, serves only to lead on the discourse with more emphatic reference to what precedes. Adverbs like accordingly &c. are properly to be passed over here.

b) Subordinating Conjunctions:

They serve to connect the substantive sentence with the adverbial sentence, whereas in the adjective sentence the relative pronouns at the same time take the function of subordinate conjunctions.
1) To connect the substantive sentence with its (absolute or relative) principal sentence the conjunction that, pâ, quod, ut, primarily serves. But this conjunction is in English, in the most comprehensive sense, the conjunction of the subordinate sentence generally, so that it was once attached to almost all conjunctions, as it still is or may be subjoined to some, a phenomenon which will be discussed in the Syntax, therefore is not considered here.

Negative sentences of this class are also introduced by lest, quin, quominus, Anglosaxon list, minime, Old-English least, lest, especially after verbs of apprehension. Anglosaxon used pê las, and pê las pe for quo minus, ne, wherein the appended pe is not to be regarded as the cause of the t. The t might be an inorganic letter, but it seems more natural to derive it from the form of the adverbial superlative, which, after the abandonment of the pê, eo, quo, like the Latin minime, was adapted to represent the negation ne. Thus too but (see above) is employed, particularly after the notion of doubt.

In indirect questions, which belong here, stands if, Anglosaxon gif, si, not num, like the Old-Highdutch ibu, Old-English 3if, 3ef, 3ife, if &c., for which also whether, which was in use in Anglosaxon, hvâder, utrum, an, still sometimes occurs: People, who came to learn whether the bad news was true (MACAULAY); although commonly whether . . or, is used in double question. In the direct question the Anglosaxon employed cvist pu, for num, which has been abandoned in English. Whether appears moreover sometimes in the compressed form whe' r: Whe' r thou beest or no (SHAKSPEARE Temp. 5, 1.); wher.

With the lower people the primitive interrogative particle how, also in the combination as how, is sometimes substituted for the particle of the substantive sentence that, with which we may compare the French comme, comme quoi.

2) The adverbial sentence, which contains adverbial determinations of the predicate of the principal sentence in the form of a subordinate sentence, is divided into several sorts.

a) It serves to determine place. Sentences of this sort are annexed by relative adverbs of place.

b) It contains a determination of time.

Sentences which specify the When? in general as a space of time, or point of time of an activity, are introduced by when, Anglosaxon hvenne, hvanne, hvonne, quando, Old-English whanne, whan, wan, which formerly also appeared in the combination whenâs (MILTON), and generalized, by whenever, whensoever &c. The Anglosaxon ponne, penne, quando, was given up; on the other hand the Anglosaxon pâ, pâ pe, quando, quum survived in the Old-English tho, tha: po pis folk was on lond, forp into Kent hit drow (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER I. 111.). Sori ich am, quop Vortiger po he herde pis (p. 113.). pis was po in Engolond Britones were (p. 2.). The properly modal as, Anglosaxon ealsvâ, Old-English als, as, is also substituted for the temporal conjunction.
To denote duration *while, whilst*, from the Anglosaxon *hvīl, hvīle, tempus, serve*, whence *pā hvīle* and *pā hvīle pe*, quam diu, for which in Old-English *whils, whiles* was also early in use: *Whils* that the peple of Israel passeden the see (Maundev. p. 85.). *While* (as long as) I am on your side (Skelton I. 37.), in which I take the *s* to be a plural (comp. Anglosaxon *hvīlum, hvīlon, dat. plur. aliquando*). The form, connecting the later *while* also occurs in Modern-English, for instance, often in Shakspeare: It so falls out, That what we have we prize not to the worth, *whiles* we enjoy it (Much Ado etc.). And here you sty me In this hard rock, *whiles* youn do keep from me The rest o’th’island (Temp.). *While* moreover formerly served instead of *until*, as even now in Yorkshire. See Craven Dialect. 2. p. 254. Modal forms serve to determine the limits more particularly, as *as long as*, Anglosaxon sva lange svā &c.,

Coincidence in a point of time is expressed by an originally modal joint of a sentence: *as soon as*, Anglosaxon sva, sona sva, pās pe, statim exquo. Old-English as sone as, at the same time answering to the Old-French si tost comme, alongside whereof a comparative joint *no sooner . . than* occurs, Comp. French pas plus tôt que.

Extension of an activity from a limiting point is denoted by *since*, Anglosaxon *sīōpan &c.*, as a conjunction ex quo, post-quam (see p. 410.); duration up to a point of time by *till*, Anglosaxon til, donec (Chron. Sax. 1140.), and the compound *until*, see p. 409., whereas the Anglosaxon *ōð* along with *ōð pe*, *ōð pāt*, donec also used as a conjunction, was abandoned.

If the activity which precedes that of the principal sentence is denoted by the subordinate sentence, the latter is introduced by *after*, Anglosaxon *after pam pe*, but which stands also for quemadmodum (see the preposition after, p. 410.). If the succeeding activity is expressed in the subordinate sentence, it is preceded by *ere*. Anglosaxon *ær pe*, *ær pam pe*, *ær pon pe*, priusquam; Old-English *er, ere, or*. *Or for ere* also occurs in Modern-English of early times: I . . . return *Or e’er* your pulse twice beat (Shakspeare Temp.), as still in northern dialects. Instead of *ere*, *before* also appears. Even Old-English used the preposition before, befor, before (that) in this case, but commonly gave in addition *that*, but also sometimes *or*: *Before or thei resceyere hem* (Maundev. p. 83.).

Further, the adverbial sentence serves as the expression of determinations of causality, and denotes the *cause* or the consequence of the activity predicated in the principal sentence.

1) The *causal sentence* in the narrower sense, which specifies the causal fact, is introduced by *for*, Anglosaxon for *pam*, for *pam pe, quia*. Old-English *for* (that) and *forth*, Anglosaxon for *pĭ*, for *pĭ pe, quia* (see p. 420.), along with which also *in that*, and the mere *that*, quod, occur in the causal sentence. The particle of time *since*, obsolete *sith*, postquam, has also been employed from of old, to which, however, as to the French tandis que, an adversative relation is frequently given.
Old-English: Why menestow thi mood for a mote in thi brothers eighhe Sitten a beem in thyn owene Ablynceth thiselvse (PIERS PLOUGHM. p 189.). Alas! that a cristene creature Shal be unkynde til another Syn Jewes . . Eyther of hem helpeth other (p. 164.). The modal as, and therewith whereas likewise stands with an adversative relation.

2) The conditional sentence, which contains a supposition or assumed cause, is introduced by if (see p. 421.). Formerly the conjunction and, an was widely diffused in Old-English and Old-Scottish instead of if, which is nothing else than and, and hence is frequently expressed in Old-English by &c. It answers to the Middle-Higndutch unde in conditional and concessive sentences. See Benecke's Dictionary p. 186. Compare Old-English: And myghte kisse the kyng for cosyn And she wolde (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 36.). The pecok, and men pursue hym, May noght flee heighe (p. 242.). But and sche have children with him, thei leten hire lyve (MAUNDEV. p. 171.). An frequently stands for and in Rob. of Gloucester. And and an are not only in extensive use in dialects with the common people, especially in Lancashire and Westmoreland, but are also to be met with in Modern-English literature: Why, an I were &c. (BEN JONSON). We steal by line and level and't like your grace (SHAKSPEARE Temp.). An a may catch your hide and you alone (King J. 2, 1.). Frequently an is combined with if: I pray thee, Launce, an if thou seest my boy, Bid him make haste (Two Gentlem.). Let me say no, my liege, an if you please (LOVE's L. L.). Hence the formula: without if's or ands. Shakspeare also transfers an to the indirect interrogative sentence: To spy an I can hear my Thisby's face (Mids. N. Dr. 5, 1.).

The conditioning sentence is also introduced by so (so that), mostly however by way of limitation, like dummodo; the Anglosaxon sva is not found thus employed, Old-English has so, by so: Roughte ye nevere Where my body where buryed By so ye hadde my silver (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 206.). Periphrastic forms have been fashioned upon the French, as, provided that, providing, French pourvu que; in case that, French en cas que; on condition that, French à condition que, and others.

Negative sentences are introduced by unless; it is foreign to Anglosaxon and seems fashioned upon the Old-French a moins que . . ne, for which formerly lesse than (HALLIWELL S. V.) occurred. The negation un perhaps arose from the endeavour to indicate the nature of the dependent sentence at the outset. Sometimes we find unless shortened into 'less (MILTON). The Anglosaxon būtan, būtan pāt, nisi, still appears in but, but that. The particle without, Anglosaxon vidūtan, Old-English withouten, without, is also substituted for unless, especially in dialects. Compare Old-English: I shall breake your palettes Wythout ye now cease (SKELTION I. 106.), for which also the Romance save that and except appear.

In the contraction of a modal sentence with a conditional
sentence as if, as though (see below) or even as alone, with suppression of the second particle, appear.

3) The concessive sentence is introduced by though, abbreviated tho' and amplified although. Anglosaxon peah pe, peah, quamvis [the pronominal peah is properly of demonstrative nature: tamen], Old-English thau (DAME SIRIZ), the3 (LIFE OF TH. BEKET p. 8.), theigh (PIERS PLOUGHM.), thagh (HALIWELL s. v.), thoue (EGLAMOUR 592.), thofe, still dialectically thof in the North of England (PERCEVAL 81.), though, thogh &c. Old-Scottish thoch, thocht. The strengthening al, comp. Middle-Highdutch al, occurs also alone in Old-English with this meaning as al, all (CHAUCER); frequently it was placed with other particles, as with though, comp. alle thow (TORMENT OF PORTUGAL p. 10.). gif, if: allegif (HALIWELL s. v.), alle if (ID. v. alle-hool), in Skelton algife (I. 13.). Thus it early appeared in the formula albeit (that) (CHAUCER), which appears in the dependent sentence even in Modern-English, as well as in albe that (LYDGATE) and all be though (SKINNER). Notwithstanding, fashioned upon the Romance, also occurs in these sentences. Generalizing particles, as however, whenever, wherever &c., as also the disjunctives whether ... or, may also introduce concessive sentences.

4) In the consecutive sentence, which expresses the consequence of the activity, stands that; Anglosaxon pat, ut, to which a correlative like so, Anglosaxon svá pat, adeo ut, or such, Anglosaxon svelic, svile, sylc, talis, is attached, which the correlative as also follows.

5) The final sentence, which represents the purpose of the activity of the principal sentence, likewise introduced by that, Anglosaxon pat, ut, for which also in order that (W. SCOTT) occurs; the negative final sentence is also introduced by lest, Anglosaxon pe lás pe, quominus. See above. In Old-English the variously employed for, used with the infinitive to express the purpose, is also referred hither: Briddes ... Hidden and hileden Hir egges ... For men sholde hem noght fynde (PIERS PLOUGHM. p. 223.)

3) The modal sentence, also called the comparative sentence, denotes the sort and manner of the activity of the principal sentence qualitatively and even quantitatively. The particles occurring here are as, the shortened also: Anglosaxon ealsvá. Old-English alse, als, as, often with correlatives, as as, so, such. The forms als, as long run alongside of each other: As foule as thei ben, als evele thei ben (MAUNDEV. p. 158.). Als longe as here vitaylles lasten, thei may abide there (p. 130.). That these sentences may also be temporal sentences in meaning, is observed above. Like, Anglosaxon gelice, similiter, may also, under certain circumstances, be substituted for as. The dependent sentence is annexed to a comparative correlative by than, Anglosaxon ponne, penne, quam.

The further development of dependent sentences and the seeming interchange of particles, as well as periphrastic forms belonging to this head, have to be stated in the Syntax.
4) The Interjection.

The Interjection, or the sound of emotion, is the expression of an emotion, of an affection, or even of desire, which, however, expresses no notionally determinate image, and, not being interwoven with the context of the sentence, stands outside of it. Interjections are partly words by themselves notionless, partly notional words whose determinate meaning has evaporated, so that they become more or less the expression of the subjective frame of mind or the conventional term for acts of the will. Ellipses whose complements are neither clearly present to the imagination nor can be pointed out in the history of the language also belong here.

Owing to the indefinite character of sounds becoming the involuntary expressions of sensations a strict division of interjections is perhaps not possible, many of them, although often produced with a different strength or pitch of sound, often answering to different moods of the mind.

a) To express pain the ambiguous ah and o, oh, variously serve, which seem to be absent in Anglosaxon, whereas in Old-French a! ah! ah! o! oh! ohi! are familiar emotional words.

Ah! is frequently the expression of pain and complaint, especially in the combination ah me! (Milton, Longfellow &c.) for which also ay! ay me! occurs, and with which we may compare the Old-French haemi! hemi! aym! and the Old-Highdutch ah mih! (Notk. Ps. 119, 5.), Middle-Highdutch ach mich! (Juliana p. m. 9.). The Old-English has a!: A! Lorde, he saide, fulle wo is me! (Ms. in Halliwell s. v., comp. Chaucer p. 9. Tyrwh.). Besides ah naturally serves as the expression of unkind feelings, as to denote indignation and contempt, but also of surprise and joy: Ah! is n't this the Captain coming? (Sheridan). Ah! my dear friend! Egad! we were just speaking of your tragedy (id.). Ah! Mr. Delaval, I am heartily glad to see you in England (Th. Holcroft). Ah! how the streamlet laughs and sings! (Longfellow) as also ay! becomes the expression of joyful astonishment: Ay! this is freedom! (Bryant). Comp. Old-English: A! swete sire! I seide tho (Piers Ploughm. p. 355.).

Still more ambiguous is o! oh! which frequently expresses pain and affliction, and moreover indignation and astonishment: O, woe the day! (Shaksp. Tump.). Oh! horror! shall I be the cause of murder (Th. Holcroft). O, the hideous fellow! (G. Colman). Oh! are you there, gentleman? (G. Farquhar); but readily adapts itself to every frame of the mind: Oh! that I was safe at Clod Hall! (Sheridan). Oh! the dear Colonel! (J. Vanbrugh). O joy! O joy! (Longfellow); and attaches itself in a serious and even jocose address to the vocative: I believe, O God, what herein I have read (Longfellow). Hasten! hasten! o ye spirits (id.). O, sweet angel! (id.). O doctor! that letter's worth a million (Farquhar). This, O brave physician! this Is thy great Palinogenesis! (Longfellow); thus even in Old-English. O! oh! also becomes the expression of consideration or of delay in answering: You seemed upon an interesting subject. — „Oh! an affair of gal-
lantry" (S. Foote). Hence the frequent o, yes! o, no, oh, no! as also ah, yes! ah, no occurs (frequently in Longfellow). Formerly ou, ow were found with painful and joyful motion: Ou, he seide, pe grete despit (Rob of Gloucester I. 18) — Ow! lord, pe noble folk (p. 56.)

The obsolete welaway! is genuinely Anglosaxon, Anglosaxon và là vâ, válavâ, prob dolor! properly miseria, ecce, miseria! Old-English walaway, weeloway (Piers Ploughim.), welewo (Towell, Myst.), welawaye (Lydgate), well away (Skelton), which has been deformed into well-a-day (even in Shakespear), with which we may compare woe the day! wherein, as in woe is me! &c. the same Anglosaxon và appears as an original substantive.

The Romance alas! Old-French hailas, halas, alas, Modern-French hélas, properly ah, wretched! was early introduced along with woe and walaway: He sayd Alas! and woe ys me! (Percy Rel. p. 4. II.). Full oft he said alas and walaway! (Chaucer). Alas, alas and welaway (Towell, Myst. p. 4.), with which the notion of time is often combined: alas the day! alas the while! as even in the most ancient times: Alas! pilke stonde (Rob. of Gloucester I. 56.). The expression is strengthened by out: out alas! (Shaksp.), wherein out is the expression of repugnance. Even this form is Old-English: For the whiche his emys cried Owte and alas! (Ms. in Halliwel v. out). Nowe, out alas! the Tanner he cryde, That ever I saw this daye! (Percy Rel. p. 111. 11.)

A popular deformation of alas is alack! from which alack-a-day! lackaday! and jocously lackadaisy! as in the Middle-Highdutch achlach! (Benecke Wb.) to which perhaps good lack! does not belong, since here lack, otherwise lawk, seems deformed from lord. tear is elliptical. Comp.: Dear, dear! What will this come to! (Holcroft); which likewise seems to be an invocation to God, although o dear me! as well as ah me! oh me! springs from it.

The expression of affliction and longing is also heigho! Heigho! I have no comfort (Arth. Murphy). Heigho! I wish Victorian would come (Longfellow). I may sit in a corner, and cry heigh ho! for a husband (Shaksp. Much Ado &c.). In dialects it is heigh! often a calling to stop, as heigho! also occurs: Heigho! la ha, ha! (Holcroft).

The outburst of emotion with bodily pain is rendered by ugh! ouch! to which perhaps the Old-English verb uggen, to feel a repugnance to, to be terrified, belongs.

b) Joyful emotions are expressed, besides by the above cited ah! and o! oh!, especially by hey! comp. Middle-Highdutch hei! (although this does not denote joy merely): Hey! boys! thus we soldiers live, drink, sing, dance, play (Farquhar). Converting all your sounds of woe Into Hey, nonny, nonny (Shaksp. Much Ado &c.); likewise heyday (which also appears as a substantive)! Freedom! hey-day! hey-day! freedom! freedom! hey-day! freedom! (Shaksp. Temp.). Both certainly serve to express surprise and indecision: Hey day! here’s a cat! (Sheridan). What is your intention in regard to him? "Hey! I can’t tell you (S. Foote).
The loud shouts of rejoicing are hurrah! and huzza! Huzza for the queen! (Farquhar), also hillho! (Dickens). Comp. below f.

c) Surprise, with which vexation, indignation or doubt are partly mixed, is intimated by eh! ha! or hah!. Eh! Ods life! Mr. Fag! (Sheridan). Eh! what the plague! (id.). Eh! why don't you move? (Goldsmith). Eh! where's Rouse? Rouse, Rouse! 'Sflesh! where's Rouse gone? (Farquhar). The Old-English used ey!: Ey, benedictie, What eileth you? (Chaucer). Ey maister, welcome be ye! (id.). — Ha, my dear Sneer, I am vastly glad to see you (Sheridan). Ha! what do I see? Miss Neville, by all that's happy! (Goldsmith). Both however become also the expression of the expectation of an answer, which is often supposed: Is he rich? eh? (Sheridan). There must be something that you think might be mended, eh? (id.). Harkye, hast thou never a pretty acquaintance now .. ha? (Mrs. Centlivre). Oh, ho! also serves as the expression of astonishment: Oh, ho! Mrs. Amlet! What brings you so soon to us again; Mrs. Amlet? (J. Vanbrugh). How! what! are also peculiar to the question of surprise: Eh! how! what! Captain, did you write the letter then? (Sheridan); so too in combination with other exclamation: how (what) the devil! and the like. Lo, la also becomes the term for astonishment, Anglosaxon là, ecce, en, Old-English often la, which like look! behold! see! is ambiguous: When they were .. removing the rubbish, lo! they found fragments of the marble tomb of Robert Bruce (W. Scott). The old la is even in Shakspeare: Ay, or else I would I might be hanged, la! (Merry Wiv. I, 1); so too Fielding, Holcroft &c., where la! is frequently to be taken in the sense of refusal. Aha! expresses often satisfied expectancy: Aha! I see you well (W. Scott); and triumphant expectancy and contempt. Comp. Ps. 35. A ha! also occurs in Old-English, for instance, in Chaucer, especially as an expression of reflection and satisfied expectancy.

d) Expressions of contempt, abomination and ignignant rejection are fy! or fie! Old-French fi, Old-English fy, fie, fye, answering to the Latin phy (Tarent.), Highdutch pfui! often combined with on, upon with reference to the object of the abomination, even in Old-English: Fie! fie! I blush to recollect my weakness (Walpole). Fie on thee! (Shaks. Two Gentl.). Old-English: Fy on fautors (Piers Ploughm. p. 308.). Fie upon a lord that wol have no mercie (Chaucer p. 14. I. Tyrwh.). The same is denoted by foh! fugh! faugh! with an obscured vowel, from which judge! with which we turn off lying babblers, is perhaps to be separated. In dialects judge denotes nonsense, and perhaps belongs to the stem fagan, whence Anglosaxon fegan, pagere, fagjan, ornare, comp. Old-Highdutch fuogjan. With a change of vowel po! pooh! (Mrs. Centlivke) pugh! are used in the same sense, along with which pho! occurs. In the ancients baw! Baw for bokes (Piers Ploughm. p. 210.). Pish! psha! pshaw! are equal to expressions of contempt, with which twish! Hailwell s.v.) is associated, which is equivalent to tush! Old-English tusche! tush! in general commanding silence. Compare Danish tys! (from tysse, to be silent). Tut! is also thus used, as buz (Shaksp.), which is
perhaps the substantive "Twattle". Whew! likewise occurs: Whew! away with inscriptions (Br. Otter). Indignant dismissal and contempt is denoted by many parts of speech used elliptically, as, out: Out dog! out, cur! thou driv'st me past the bounds Of maiden's patience (Shaksp. Mids. N. Dr.); particularly in the combination out on (upon)! I know not thy mistress: out on thy mistress! (Shaksp. Com. of Err.). Out upon him, the lazy loon! (Long-fellow). Other expressions make their notional value come out still clearer, as hence! away! in Rob. of Gloucester away! (I. 289.), the Romance avaunt! Old-French avant (Latin ab-ante): Rogues hence! avaunt! (Shaksp. Merry Wiv.) aroyn! (aroint, Shaksp.), which is compared with the Old-English roin = scab, begone! in the same sense; for shame! &c. Finally we use the substantive fiddle-faddle (fid-fad), by which we denote empty twattle: "You tell me marriage is a serious thing." — Why is it not? — "Fiddle-faddle! I know what it is: 'tis not the first time I have been married" (Th. Southern).

e) In assertions, which may accompany affections of every kind, the popular language is particularly rich. They mostly contain primitive notional words thrust forth elliptically, partly undeformed or but little shortened, as, indeed! in faith! i' faith! faith! perdy! French par Dieu! parde! (Chaucer), perde! (Skelton), partly as mutilations of the name of God, Jesus Christ or the Virgin, wherein roughness is strangely mingled with the dread of the abuse of the divine name. Thus God is transformed into Gad, Cod, Cot, Cut, Cog, Cock, Od, Odd and Ad, with which substantives are combined, denoting qualities of God or the corporeality of Jesus Christ, but also all sorts of forms of words, either in themselves or in their combination devoid of meaning. Compare Egad! Ecod! God's life! also Cod's my life! Od's my life! Ads my life! (Farquhar) along with God's my life! Cut's splatter and nails! Cog's bones! Cock's soul! Odsheart! Od's heartlings! Odd's blood and hounds! (mutilated from wounds), Odd's bobs! Odd's pittikins! (from pity), Odd's dickens! (= devil), Odsfish! &c., also Gadso! Odso! perhaps an abbreviation of the likewise mutilated Odzooks! (see below). Mutilations of this sort are old. Chaucer has Cockes bones! and in the Scottish Lindsay we find be Coks passion, hart blude, bones, toes, wounds, mother &c. God is also transformed into Gar, hence dialectically begorz! begosh commonly pronounced, along with begammers! Another mutilation is the rejection of the stem before the genitive termination, whereby out of God's we have 's: 'Sdeath! 'Slife! 'Slid! (Shaksp. Merry Wiv.); 'Sblood! perhaps the same 'Sbud! to which also Zounds! (= God's wounds) belongs, which becomes 'ounds! oons! oons! and wauns! of which Pounze! is a new mutilation. I do not venture to decide whether the exclamation: Zooks! Zookers! Zoodikers! may have arisen from 'Shooks (from the Anglosaxon hóc, uncus, or hōh, hōc, irrisio, comp. Old-English hoket). The name of the Lord: Lord! is also used as an exclamation in the mutilated forms Lor! Lud! and also Lawk! The name of the Virgin appears in Marry! for by Mary! as in the term Lady! Comp. Bird-lady! (by our Lady). Beleddy! in northern dialects, whence the
mutilations of the diminutive: By'r lakin! (SHAKSP.) (By our lakin! SKELTON), and in the North of England Bealekinis! The asseverations By Jings! Jinkers! are referred by Fiedler to the name Jesus; by others to St. Gingoulphe, as to which we may mention that in the North of England By Jen! refers to John. The devil is not only invoked as Devil! but also as Deuce! dyce! in Skelton, and the Dickens! Whether O, gemini! which also becomes asseverative (SHERIDAN Rivals) and as Gemminy! is an expression of surprise in various dialects, answers to the Highdutch Oh Jemine! Slav. jojmenie! I leave undecided.

f) Invocations and Calls with various intentions are numerous. With hulloa! hello! holla! we call, especially from a distance, compare French hola! also occur here hola! ola!: Hola! ancient Baltasar. — „Here I am“ (LONGFELLOW). Ola, good man! — „Ola!“ (ID.); likewise with ho! hoa! Martina! ho! Martina! (LONGFELLOW). Ho! seneschal, another cup! (ID.); strengthened: What ho! Yo ho! and with hoy! hey!: Hey! Trapanti! (COLLY CIBBER) and Hip!, (SMART); with less exertion and partly privately by hem! and hist!: Hem! hem! Madam — hem! (SHERIDAN Rivals). Hist! hist! Donna Violanta (CENTLIVRE). Hist! Martina! One word with you (LONGFELLOW).

The ancient cry for help harow! Old-French haro, in Spenser has been abandoned. Modern-English has help! hoa! The encouraging summons is well then! (= French allons); the sailors shout: Ohoi! and yo heave ho!: Cheerly, my hearties! Yo heave ho! (LONGFELLOW); shout of approval: bravo! well you! also well done you!

Attention is awakened by verbal forms, as hark! look! see! and the like, Old-English we, wemo, wemay (TOWNEL. MYST.). The sheriff or cries commands silence before a proclamation by the Old-French imperative oyes! (oyez). In common life mum! hist! whist! hush! tut! tush! as well as the substantives silence! peace! are used, which partly express reproach and a monition to be attentive. With ho! we frighten men. Children are lulled to sleep by lullay, lullaby and the like. Compare: With lullay, lullay, lyke a childe Thou sleypyst (SKELTON I. 22.), with which arbitrary variations are associated. A halt at sea is commanded by avast! = stop!

The English driver has encouraged horses from olden times by hait, Old-English heit (even in Chaucer: Heit, scot, heit brok! heit now!), Old-French hait. He turns them to the left by the cry hait-woo! as well as by camether, Old-English come heder (TOWNEL. MYST. p. 9, of ploughing); to the right by ree! and gee! He brings them to a stand by joss! Old-English jossa! (CHAUCER) and stalk! The cattle driver's cry is prow! that of the goose driver: shough! (= shōō). The dog is set on by hey! Hey, Mountain, hey! (SHAKSP. Temp.); Old-English: Hey! dogge, hey! (SKELTON I. 101.); as also enticed: Hay, chysshe, come hyder (p. 261.). He is sent home by hout: Hout, hout, to kennel, sir-rab, go (OTWAY). Swine are enticed by tig! in several counties.

Soho! is an old exclamation, Old-English sōhōwe, sometimes spelt
sohow even now, which is customary as a term of the chase upon finding the hare (Prompt. Parvul.), as the cry whoo resounds at the death of the beast in whoo-up! and many more.

g) Consideration and doubt are expressed by hum! humph! also um! to which is added hem! (Colley Cibber), also as the expression of embarrassment. The frequently employed, originally interrogative why! Anglosaxon hvê, quomodo, cur? may also be regarded as an expression of reflection and a decision following upon it: And you bore all with patience, I make no doubt? — "Why, yes, though I made some occasional attempts at felo de se" (Sheridan). Shall I order a private room, sir? — "Why, no, Sam" (Dickens). If I don't lie myself out of it again, why, then I will be content to be crucified (S. Foote); although why may also denote the delay of surprise: Why, I never heard this of him (id.).

h) There is a series of imitations of noises and sounds, not indeed so much expressions of subjective emotion as repetitions of outward affections of sense, but which often denote the former. Thus wheee! is the term for a rushing, quick movement: Whew! how they tore along! (of horses) (Dickens), Old-English with wæhel! (Chaucer). Whip, has been taken from the whip and its effect (Angl. hwep, flagellum), which also denotes the suddenness of an event: And whip! we were all off at an hour's warning (Sheridan). About an hour ago she was for scaling walls to come at me, and this minute — whip, she's going to marry the stranger (Colley Cibber). flæ! flæ! serves for the report of a whip. — Pop! is used for suddenness (whence the verb to pop). Dash! stands near to pop (compare to dash), strengthened slap dash! — at once. Rap! is the imitation of the sound or noise in striking: Rap! he gives me a stroke on the head with his cane (Sheridan Rivals). Similarly pat! is also used of clapping appearance: To hear her come pat, pat, pat, along in her slippers (Colley Cibber). The report of a shot is expressed by boh: Lo, we fight. Boh! I kill him (Sheridan); the cracking and crackling. bounce!: Bounce! from the fire, a coffin flew (Gay). Old-English: I herd gunnis rushes out at ones Bouns, bouns, bouns (Skelton I. 386.). Dub a dub has denoted from of old the beat of a drum, as also tantara! Dub a dub, Dub a dub, thus strike their drums. 'Tantara, tantara, the Englishman comes (Percy Rel. p. 146. II.). Thus too the tol de rol, else used of humming, seems sometimes to stand: Tol de rol, de rol — halt! Stand to your arms (Jam. Cob.). Compare: Sing to de rol, and let her go (id.). The fighting step and noise is imitated by sa, sa, sa: A duels but a dance to him: he has been at sa, sa, sa! for you already (Colley Cibber). Compare: There's no tantara, sa, sa, sa, or force Of man to man (Taylor).

The tolling of bells is denoted by ding, dong! (Shakespore Temp.), dialectically ting-tang! and bim, bom! as the beating of the clock is denoted by ding: Ding, ding, ding, ding! just four (Delamotte). Other clapping and dashing is denoted by: clash! clang! tik, tak! and the like.

Singing to oneself is denoted by tum, tum, tum and tum, dum,
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_The_ Old-English_ laughes_, _hoity-toity_; _fingle-fotch_; _wicksey_.

The language denotes a few voices of beasts by some agreement of sound, thus, _dogs_’ barking by _bow, wow_ (SHAKSP. Temp.), _bough, waugh, waugh, waugh_ (OTWAY); the _bleating of sheep_ by _baa_! the _cockerow_ by _cock-a-doodle-doo_ (SHAKSP. Temp.), _cock! cock!_ (CHAUCER); the _note of rooks_ by _caw, caw_: _caw! caw_! the _rooks are calling_ (LONGFELLOW); of the _lark by tirra, tirra_ (SHAKSP. Wint. Tale 4, 2.); the _whoop of the owl_ by _tirra, tu-whit, tu-who_ (ID. Love’s L. L. 5, 2.) and others, although the different dialects make distinctions, and poets often follow their individual apprehensions.

i) Finally, another class of words may here be mentioned, which arise from a play with the sounds, and partly in a picturesque manner make up for the image of the thing by the meaningless word. They mostly appear as notional words, and either represent the same verbal body twice rhymed with a difference of initial sound, or with a different accented vowel, without change of initial vowel, when a clear interchanges with an obscure vowel (especially _i_ with _o_). In origin they lean partly on notional words, partly consist of meaningless syllables.

Here belong rhyming substantives: _handy-dandy_; _hocus-pocus_ (from Oechus Bochus?); _hoddy-doddy_; _hodge-podge_ and _hotch-potch_; _hurly-burly_; _hugger-mugger_; _hurdy-gurdy_; _cagmag_; _kixsey_; _helter-skelter_ are commonly adverbial; _higgledy-piggledy_ (compare higgler subst.); _harum-scarum_; _harry-darry_, as an exclamation (OTWAY); _habnab_ (HUDIBR.) = at random; _hoity-toity_; _hobnob_, challenge to drink (take or do not take).

Repetitions with an alternating clear and obscure vowel are frequent: _mizmaze_ (from maze); _mish-mash_; _raff-raff_; _fidde-faddle_; _ingle-fangle_; _fimflam_; _whimwham_; _tick-tack_, sometimes used for _tric-track_; _ittle-tattle_; _twittle-twattle_; _snip-snap_ (SHAKSP.); _kit-cat_, epithet of a club (after the pictures hanging there) is said to come from the proper name _Kit_ (Christopher) Cat; _knick-knack_; _gibble-gabble_; _chit-chat_, the same — _ingle-dangle_ = carelessly pendent; _skimble-scamble_ &c.

ding-dong; tip-top; sing-song; slipslop; ninny-nonny; criss-cross. — _hip-hop._

_see-saw_; _gew-gaw._

Many of these forms fluctuate between the interjection and the noun. They are mostly foreign to the more noble literature, familiar to common life, and denote particularly insignificant or blameable subjects, and are formations in which the popular fancy still roams at large and mocks etymology. Who would be able to point out the place in which the mixed stuff made of linen and wool was first named _linsey-woolsey_?
II. The formation of words.

A. Derivation.

The forming of words by derivation in the proper sense takes place by means of the addition of sounds, in themselves without meaning or obscured in regard to meaning, to the stem.

We may, however, also reckon as derivation that formation of words which is effected without the addition of sounds. It takes place in two manners; firstly, by a verbal stem, with one of the vowels of the strong verbs which change the vowel, either within the same class of words or passing into another class, receiving an altered signification; secondly, by one and the same verbal body or part of speech passing immediately into another class of words and adopting its inflection. Both sorts may be called improper derivation.

A middle step between derivation and composition is made by those words in which a syllable, in itself significant, appears so far insignificant, as it is extinct as a word used independently, as -ald, -ard, -dom &c.

1) Improper Derivation.

a) The formation of words in connection with variation of sound, which is connected with the change of sound in strong verbs, (as to which the reduplicating classes of verbs are hardly considered, their change of vowel being mostly produced by reduplication,) is the foundation of families of words with a distinction of meaning. Proper derivation may be combined with the improper by means of a termination, when the latter at the same time expresses its effect, whereas a modification of the vowel has no influence upon the meaning. Compare Modern-Highdutch Saenger, Middle-Highdutch singer, from singen, sang.

This derivation concerns Germanic words only, and lies in the rear not only of the English, but partly even of the Anglosaxon tongue, many forms produced by a variation of sound referring to strong verbs which are no longer to be pointed out in Anglosaxon nor even in other Germanic idioms. In English these strong verbs are of course still more frequently absent. Compare broad, Anglosaxon brád, Old-norse breida, expandere, to which an Anglosaxon bridan, not to be pointed out, would correspond; cram, Anglosaxon the same, Middle-Highdutch krimpfen, alongside whereof an absent Anglosaxon crimpan must have stood.

By changes in the vowel, details whereof are given under Phonetics, the relations of the variations of the vowel have been frequently dimmed in English. We give here by way of example some series of forms of verbs and nouns varying the vowel, attached to different classes of strong verbs.

To the first class of Anglosaxon verbs with the vowels i (eo, è); a (ea), u; u (o) (compare vinnen — vaan, vunnon — vunnen)
belong: stunt, Anglo-Saxon stynan, hebetare, from stintan, English stunt. bend, band, bond, Anglo-Saxon bendan. Old-English band, Anglo-Saxon bend, from bindan, English bind. wend, Anglo-Saxon vandan, from vindan, English wind. brand, Anglo-Saxon brand, from beornan, byrnan, brinnan, English burn. drunk, drench, Anglo-Saxon drinc and drynce; drencan, from drincan, English drink. spring, Anglo-Saxon the same, from springan, English spring. string, strong, Anglo-Saxon string; strang (strong), from an assumed Anglo-Saxon stringan, Latin stringere. song, Anglo-Saxon sang (song), from singan, English sing; stench, Anglo-Saxon stenc, also stanc; stencan, from stinkan, English stink. ground, Anglo-Saxon grund, from grindan, English grind. foundling, from the Anglo-Saxon findan, English find.

To the second class of Anglo-Saxon verbs with the vowels i (eo, ē); a (ā), α (ā, ē); u (o) (comp. bēran — bār, beron — boren) belong: birth, bare, bere, a sort of barley in Scotland, Engl. barley; bearn, bier (barrow), Anglo-Saxon beorð; bār; bere; bēran; bēr, from bēran, beoran, English bear. tale, Anglo-Saxon talu, from the assumed tēlan, whence tellan alone remains. sale, Old-English sala, with which only the verb sellan still agrees. hollow, Anglo-Saxon hol, from hēlan, tegere.

To the third class of Anglo-Saxon verbs with the vowels i (eo, ē); ā (ea), α (ē, ē); i, ē, (compare biddan — bād, bæden — bēden) the following are to reckoned: bed, Anglo-Saxon bedd from biddan, humi prosterni. trode, Anglo-Saxon trōd, from trēdan, English tread.

set, Anglo-Saxon settan, settle, Anglo-Saxon sitel, sētel; sunset, Anglo-Saxon siot, sēt, occasus, from sittan, English sit. lay, Anglo-Saxon lecgan, from liegan, English lie. speech, Anglo-Saxon spreac, spēc, from spērcan, English speak. stick, stake, stock, Anglo-Saxon stōc; staca; stocc, from Anglo-Saxon stēcān. Compare English stick.

To the fourth class of Anglo-Saxon verbs with the vowels a, ea (e); ā, ē; a, ea (ā) (compare standan — stōd, stōdon — standen) are attached: step, staple, Anglo-Saxon stepē; steppan; stapul, from stapan, gradi. *) fare, Anglo-Saxon fār, far, and faru, iter, from faran, English fare. grave, Anglo-Saxon grāf, from grafan, English grave and the like.

To the fifth class of Anglo-Saxon verbs with the vowels i; ā, ī; i (compare bītan — bāt, bīton — biten) are attached: drive, drove, Anglo-Saxon drāf, from drīfan, English drive. shrove, shrift, Anglo-Saxon shrift, from shrīfan, English shrive. bit, bite, bait, bitter, Anglo-Saxon bit; bite; bāt, biter, from bītan, English bite. lid, Anglo-Saxon hlīð, hlīd, from hlīðan, hlīdan, togene. **) ride, road, Anglo-Saxon rād, iter, from rīdan, English ride; raise, rear. arouse, Anglo-Saxon rāsjan, ræran, from rīsan, English rise. wroth, Anglo-Saxon vrāð, from vrīðan, torquere, English writhe. strike, stroke,

*) The parallelism of logical development in mercare, French marcher, on the one hand, and step, staple, on the other, is noteworthy; also that the course of development is reversed, the root notion being marketing in the former, and going in the latter.

**) Comp. clothe &c.
Anglo-Saxon strica, linea, strácjan, palpare from strican, English strike.

The sixth class of Anglo-Saxon verbs, with the vowels éó (ô); ed, u; o (comp. cleófan, clúfan — cleaf, clufon — clofen) is represented by: loose, loss, Anglo-Saxon lésan, lýsan, los, from the Anglo-Saxon leósan. shoot, shot, Old-norse skot, jactus; scot, Anglo-Saxon scot, tributum. sheet, Anglo-Saxon scête, linteum, from sceó-tan, English shoot. frost, Anglo-Saxon the same, from freósan, English freeze; float, Anglo-Saxon flota; flotjan; fleet, Anglo-Saxon fleót, sinus; fleet-milk, skimmed milk, Anglo-Saxon flét, flos lactis, from fleó-tan, Anglo-Saxon fleet.

Many forms of the Germanic family of tongues founded upon verbs which vary the vowel have been lost in English. With the dimming and mixing of forms the language sometimes seeks here, as elsewhere, to arrive at a distinction of the confounded forms by the differentiation of a consonant; comp. singe, Anglo-Saxon sengan, from sing, Anglo-Saxon singan.

b) The formation of words by the transfer of an unaltered verbal body to another class of words is in English not to be sharply separated from the formation just treated of, different parts of speech often coinciding with forms attached to verbs which vary the vowel.

But this freer management and interchange of the different parts of speech has, in principle, little in common with that primitive organisation of the word, and is common to the Romance as well as to the Germanic elements of the tongue. It is attached to the licence, practiced to a smaller extent in Anglo-Saxon than in Old-French, of transferring an undervived or even a derived word, without any further derivational termination, to another class of words.

The cases belonging here concern the verb first of all, which readily proceeds from other parts of speech:

1) From substantives. Anglo-Saxon commonly used, with this formation, the derivational vowel i (ë, jë): end-jan, ebb-jan, land-jan, vundr-jan &c., whereas Old-French contented itself with annexing a mere inflective termination: branch-er from branche, brance; bargain-er from bargaigne; experiment-er from espermment, experiment. English early contented itself with the stem without a vowel of derivation: end, ebb, land, wonder, branch, bargain, experiment, which inflection or the context must shew to be verbs. Modern forms are therefore numerous: our; milt; mitt; lead; heard; bag; father; fleæ; fleece; worship; Anglo-Saxon veordscipe, honor; witness, Anglo-Saxon witnes, testimonium. — air; experience; reverence; matter; favour; humour; pity; fancy; nurture; bayonet; dungeon. Even proper names serve as verbs, as: hector. Comp. also: You look as if you were Don Diego’d to the tune of a thousand pounds (The Tatler N. 31.). In the frequent identity of sound in verbs and substantives, many verbs, which in Anglo-Saxon occurred in another form, have been assimilated to substantives, as: foam, Anglo-Saxon subst. fâm from fæman; snow, Anglo-Saxon subst. snâv from snîvan, Old-English sneven; comb, Anglo-Saxon subst. camb, comb, from cemban, Old-English kemben; stone, Anglo-Saxon subst. stân, from stān; ground, Anglo-Saxon subst. grund, from gryndan and others.

2) From adjectives. Anglo-Saxon often employed the derivational vowel
II. The Formation of Words. A) Derivation. 1) Improper Derivation.

even here, as in: idel-jan, éjen-jan, open-jan, vearm-jan, hvít-jan alongside of hvít-an &c., where English offers idle, even, open, warm, white. Even French formed verbs from adjectives without a derivational termination before the inflection, as palir, cherir &c. Thus we transfer to Germanic and Romance adjectives the verbal notion: black; english; sickly (Shaksp.); — mature; mimic &c. Yet we here often find the adjective termination en employed by preference, as it were as a verbal suffix, as in: meek-en; fatt-en; whit-en; fresh-en; deaf-en; dead-en; thick-en; sweet-en; hard-en &c., as the French forms often have the derivational termination -ish (iss, Latin is): cher-ish; burn-ish (brunir, burnir) &c.

3) From pronouns this seldom happens, as in thou.

4) From particles: hence (Sidney) = to send off; but (L. Byron); encore (Smart); atone (from at one); in; out; over (Dicken). Interjections often become verbs, as: holla and hollow; huzza, hush, whist; hist! Hist along! (Milton) = bring along with the warning of hist! and the like. As verbs arise from substantives, so also substantives often arise from verbs, so that we may believe the infinitive turned into a substantive. This happens not only in Romance words, as the French change developed from changer, pleur from pleurer, like other abstract and concrete substantives, but also in Germanic words. It is sometimes not to be settled whether the verb arose from the noun, or reversely. The majority of Romance forms of this sort have been transferred to English, to which, for instance search belongs, Old-French cerche, cherche, now recherch. Thus arise concern; turn; crack; blush; fast (unless shortened from the Anglosaxon fæsten), from verbs of the same sound. Here also takes place the assimilation of a substantive, sounding in Anglosaxon differently from the verbal stem, to the verb, as in: heed, Anglosaxon from hēdan, subst. höd; wish, Anglosaxon from vyscan, subst. ūsc; thirst, Anglosaxon from pyrstan, subst. purst; kiss, Anglosaxon from cyssan, subst. coss; sweat, Anglosaxon from svætan, subst. svät and many more. The transition of adjectives into the substantive meaning, with or without the adoption of the inflective forms of the substantive, may likewise be placed here. See p. 270.

2) Derivation Proper.

With derivation proper, which consists in an augmentation of the word, whereby the general conception, lying at the bottom of the root or stem, is more particularly determined, the Germanic is to be separated from the Romance element, although both here and there pass into or blend with one another. We give here the derivational forms of nouns and verbs, referring to the Doctrine of Particles for the formation of particles.

a) Germanic Derivative Terminations.

The derivative termination or the derivational suffix may be a vowel, if the body of the word is augmented by vowels alone; the suffix is called consonantal, if it contains consonants only, or is formed of a vowel and consonant combined. Purely vowel suffixes are rare, even in Anglosaxon; where they appear in English, they have arisen by the suppression and softening of consonants. But we

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consider suffixes according to their form in Modern-English, when we regard the extinct consonant as no longer existing.

We must observe generally that the Germanic derivational suffixes, although often sharply expressed, have remained less fruitful for English than the Romance ones. Many of the former have been lost as such for the linguistic feeling.

Vowel Derivational Terminations.

Here the terminations \( y \) (ey) and \( ow \) are considered for Modern-English.

\( y \), sometimes \( ey \), appears in substantives for the Anglosaxon suffix \( ig \): bod-\( y \), Anglosaxon bod-\( ig \) (Old-Highdutch pot-\( ah \)); \( iv-y \), Anglosaxon if-\( ig \), (Old-Highdutch \( c \)-\( ah \)); penn-\( y \), Anglosaxon pen-\( ig \) (for pen-\( ing \), pend-\( ing \)); hon-\( ey \), Anglosaxon hun-\( ig \) (Old-norse hun-\( ång \)). Comp. kersey, Swedish kersing, French carisel, -set, creseau.

In adjectives they arise from the Anglosaxon suffix \( ig \), \( eg \); adjectives of this sort are very numerous in Anglosaxon: \( iv-y \), Anglosaxon \( is-ig \); empt-\( y \), Anglosaxon emet-\( ig \); an-\( y \), Anglosaxon \( ån-ig \), \( ån-ig \); mist-\( y \), Anglosaxon mist-\( ig \); mood-\( y \), Anglosaxon m\( òd-ig \); prett-\( y \), Anglosaxon pr\( òt-ig \), pr\( òt-ig \); blood-\( y \), Anglosaxon bl\( òd-eg \); fenn-\( eg \), Anglosaxon fenn-\( eg \), \( -ig \); dizz-\( y \), Anglosaxon dys-\( ig \); speed-\( y \), Anglosaxon sp\( èd-ig \); guitt-\( y \), Anglosaxon gylt-\( ig \); hear-\( y \), Anglosaxon hef-\( ig \), and many more. Subsequent formations are very numerous, with which stems not merely Germanic are considered: earth-\( y \), mould-\( y \), bloom-\( y \); brier-\( y \) (full of briers); fier-\( y \) (fire); word-\( y \) (verbose); hast-\( y \), heart-\( y \); hoar-\( y \); tallow-\( y \); willow-\( y \); window-\( y \) (having windows); bath-\( y \); spum-\( y \) &c., after vowels \( ey \) also appears: clay-\( ey \), sky-\( ey \), glu-\( ey \) (from glue). The termination imports the being provided with something.

The diminutive termination \( y \), Scottish \( ie \), which partly diminishes (as blame) partly flatters, seems formed from \( ig \): dumm-\( y \); ninn-\( y \) (fool), bab-\( y \) (babe), nodd-\( y \) (fool); especially in proper names: Billy, Betsy, Tibby &c., see p. 177.

Verbs in \( y \) have sometimes been developed from adjectives: blood-\( y \), Anglosaxon blod-\( eg-\( jan \), cruentare; bus-\( y \), Anglosaxon bys-\( eg-\( jan \).

\( ow \) rests partly upon \( v \), which also exhibits itself as \( u \) in Anglosaxon, partly upon \( g \) and \( h \), with or without a vowel before or after it.

Substantives of this sort are: mead-\( ow \), Anglosaxon mead-\( u \), -eves; mall-\( ow \)(s), Anglosaxon meal-\( ve \); pill-\( ow \), Hollandish peul-\( uw \), Latin pulvinus, Anglosaxon pyl-\( e \); wid-\( ow \), Anglosaxon vud-\( uve \); sparr-\( ow \), Anglosaxon spear-\( va \); swallow-\( ow \), Anglosaxon sval-\( eve \), sveal-\( ve \); shad-\( ow \), Anglosaxon scad-\( u \), -ves. — \( ev \) has arisen here in sin-\( ew \), Anglosaxon sin-\( eve \) and sin-\( u \). — bell-\( ows \), Anglosaxon bel-\( g \); bor-\( ow \), (pledge), Anglosaxon bor-\( ga \); will-\( ow \), Anglosaxon vil-\( ig \); soll-\( ow \), Anglosaxon sal-\( ig \), seal-\( h \); barr-\( ow \), Anglosaxon bear-\( g \), bear-\( h \), bear-\( ug \); far-\( ow \) (litter of pigs), Anglosaxon fear-\( h \), porcus. — The termination ough appears in bor-\( ough \), Anglosaxon bur-\( uh \), bur-\( h \), bur-\( g \).

Adjectives in ow arise chiefly from \( v \) (\( u \)). These end in the strong Anglosaxon form in \( u \), \( o \), weak in \( va \): narr-\( ow \), Anglosaxon
near-u; fall-ow, Anglosaxon feal-u; sall-ow, Anglosaxon sal-u; call-ow, Anglosaxon cal-u; yell-ow, Anglosaxon gel-u. Words in ig seldom occur here; but compare holl-ow, Anglosaxon hol, Swedish hol-ig, likewise the subst. hall-ow.

Verbs attach themselves to one or the other of those suffixes: narr-ow, Anglosaxon near-v-jan; shad-ow, Anglosaxon scead-v-jan; wall-ow, Anglosaxon veal-v-jan; borr-ow, Anglosaxon bor-g-jan; sor-ow, Anglosaxon sor-g-jan; hall-ow, Anglosaxon hál-g-jan.

Consonantal Derivative Terminations.

Derivative consonants are in Anglosaxon either accompanied by a vowel, mostly already weakened, or not. Derivative terminations with more than one consonant are rare. Among them are decayed forms, which we, like others, cite by their last consonant. Two primitive consonants appear sometimes in English as one simple sound; as, sh instead of sc. That many derivative terminations have been cast off in English is pointed out in the Phonetics.

1) The nasal and liquid letters m, n, l, r are, as derivational consonants, of particular importance, and are, in part still distinctly felt and employed as such.

m appears in substantives partly as om, partly as m, me, Anglosaxon commonly m, more rarely em, um or ma: bott-om, Anglosaxon bot-m; fath-om, Anglosaxon fád-em; bliss-om, Anglosaxon blóst-ma, blóis-ma; bes-om, Anglosaxon béis-ma; bos-om, Anglosaxon bölz-um, bölz-m. — drea-m, Anglosaxon drea-m (= dreág-am); sea-m, Anglosaxon sá-m (séo-m, also së-m according to Boswell); strea-m, Anglosaxon streá-m; glea-m, Anglosaxon gleá-m; hel-m, Anglosaxon hél-m; hal-m and hau-m, Anglosaxon heal-m, hal-m; hol-m, Anglosaxon hol-m; qual-m, Anglosaxon cveal-m, cveal-m, cvyl-m; ar-m, Anglosaxon ear-m; swar-m, Anglosaxon svear-m; bar-m, Anglosaxon hear-m; wor-m, Anglosaxon vur-m — ti-me, Anglosaxon tí-ma (= tía-ma); ho-me, Anglosaxon há-m.

Adjectives are rare: war-m, Anglosaxon vear-m, Old-Highdutch war-am.

Verbs arise from substantives and adjectives, as fath-om, Anglosaxon fád-em-jan &c.; ti-me, Anglosaxon tí-m-jan, accidere, &c.

Hither we refer the substantive termination dom and the adjective termination some, both originally selfstanding words, but which in English have the import of suffixes only:

dom, Anglosaxon dóm, Highdutch thum (Anglosaxon dóm, examine, judicium, auctoritas) denotes, in composition with names of persons, their station, dignity, power and dominion: king-dom, Anglosaxon cyning-dóm; earl-dom, Anglosaxon eorl-dóm; bishop-dom, Anglosaxon bispop-dóm; martyr-dom, Anglos. martyr-dóm; christen-dom, Anglos. christen-dóm, christianitas; heathen-dom, Anglosaxon hænd-dom; with adjectives the condition, the essence: wise-dom, Anglosaxon wis-dóm; free-dom, Anglosaxon freó-dóm. Even in Anglosaxon dóm often interchanges with håd (hood) and nyss (ness) &c. Many Anglosaxon forms have been abandoned; but few modern ones, as duke-dom, birth-dom.

some, Anglosaxon sum, Highdutch sam (Gothic sama, similis,
idem), expresses appropriateness, inclination, aptness and fulfilment, and is annexed to various parts of speech: long-some, Anglosaxon lang-sum; win-some, Anglosaxon vyn (vun)-sum. Imitated forms are not rare; it is annexed to Romance words: blithe-some, weari-some, whole-some, glad-some, irk-some, burthen-some, toil-some, hand-some, game-some, labour-some, trouble-some, humour-some. In noisome, from the Old-French noisir = nuire an s has been cast out; buxrom, Old-English bowghsomme, also bowsom, belongs to the Anglosaxon béogán, comp. beóg-ol, flexibilis.

n appears in substantives rarely as in, more frequently as en, on, n (ne), in Anglosaxon mostly as en, rarely as on, un and n: ett-in (Beaum. et Fl.), Anglosaxon ét-on, gigas (edax); welk-in, Anglosaxon volc-en. — ov-en, Anglosaxon of-en; mix-en, Anglos. mix-en; maid-en, Anglosaxon mögd-en, mæd-en; ræv-en, Anglosaxon hræf-en, hreaf-n; bærd-en, burth-en, Anglosaxon byrð-en; tok-en, Anglosaxon tácé-on, -un, -en (Old-English swee-en, Anglosaxon svef-en; ster-en, Anglosaxon stef-n, stem-n); kitch-en, Anglosaxon cyc-ene; hear-en, Anglosaxon heof-on. — ir-on, Anglosaxon fr-en, iser-n; beac-on, Anglosaxon béac-en; weap-on, Anglosaxon væp-en, -un; wagg-on, also wag-on and wai-n, Anglosaxon väg-en, väg-n, væn. — mai-n, Anglosaxon mäg-en, -yn; rai-n, Anglosaxon ræg-en, re-n; blai-n, Anglosaxon blæg-en; brai-n, Anglosaxon bræg-en; aw-n, Old-Highdutch ag-ana, ak-ana; loa-n, Anglosaxon læn= læh-en, Old-norse lá-n; fer-n, Anglosaxon fear-n; quær-n, Anglosaxon cveor-n; bar-n, dialectically = child, Anglosaxon bear-n (barn, is a compound ber-arn, contracted bern); yar-n, Anglosaxon gear-n; mor-n, Anglosaxon morg-en, mor-n; thor-n, Anglosaxon por-n; cor-n, Anglosaxon cor-n; hor-n, Anglosaxon hor-n. — tha-ne, Anglosaxon þeg-en, þé-n.

Adjectives in en, n, Anglosaxon en, n, are with the exception of names of materials, rare: er-en, Anglosaxon ef-en; op-en, Anglosaxon op-en (participle from *eopan); drunk-en, Anglosaxon drunc-en (participle from drincan); beath-en, Anglosaxon heal-en. — fæi-n, Anglosaxon fæg-en; ow-n, Anglosaxon ðæg-en (participle from ágan); der-n, Anglosaxon der-ne; ster-n, Anglosaxon ster-ne.

More frequent are adjectives in en, Anglosaxon en, Old-Highdutch in, Old-norse inn, Modern-Highdutch en, which are derived from substantives and by which notions of materials are turned into adjectives. Anglosaxon derived adjectives of this sort from names of beasts also, as bir-en, sein-en, gret-en &c., in English these, like many others, have been abandoned; some, on the other hand, turned into substantives: ash-en, Anglosaxon áscen; asp-en (also a substantive), Anglosaxon ásp-en; oak-en, Anglosaxon ác-en; beech-en, Anglosaxon bèc-en; birch-en, Anglosaxon birc-en; lin-en (also a substantive), Anglosaxon lin-en; flax-en, Anglosaxon flæx-en; wooll-en, Anglosaxon yull-en, yvll-en; silk-en, Anglosaxon séloc-en; wheat-en, Anglosaxon hwæt-en; lead-en, Anglosaxon lead-en; braz-en, Anglosaxon bræs-en; gold-en, Anglosaxon gyld-en (gold-en Boswell); Old-English glaz-en, Anglosaxon glás-en. Some are imitated, as wood-en; hemp-en; yew-en; twigg-en (Shaksp. = made of twigs), milk-en &c.
The forms in er-\text{n}: easter-\text{n}, Anglosaxon éást-\text{n}; wester-\text{n}, Anglosaxon wester-\text{n}; norther-\text{n}, Anglosaxon norðer-\text{n}; souther-\text{n}, Anglosaxon süðer-\text{n}, have substantive forms in er at their base, whence Anglosaxon süðer, meridies, occurs. The Old-norse has corresponding forms: ern, orn in undern, Anglosaxon the same, hora nona matutina, and acorn, Anglos. ácern, glans are scarcely to be regarded as derivative suffixes. See Grimm 2, 237. &c. Diefenbach's Dictionary I. p. 115. 31.

Verbs in en, on, u rest partly upon substantives and adjectives, as: tok-en, Anglosaxon tás-\text{n}-jan; beac-on and beck-on, Anglosaxon beá-c-\text{n}-jan; rai-n, Anglosaxon rig-n-an; ev-en, Anglosaxon ef-en-\text{j}-\text{an} &c.; of others English has not preserved the nouns, as fast-en, Anglosaxon fást-en-\text{j}-\text{an}, subst. fást-en, munimentum; christ-en, Anglosaxon crist-en-\text{j}-\text{an}, adj. crist-en. Many have no noun for their foundation even in Anglosaxon: glist-en, Anglosaxon glís-n-\text{j}-\text{an}; heark-en, Anglosaxon hér-c-\text{n}-\text{jan}; reck-on, Anglosaxon rec-n-\text{an}, rec-\text{n}-\text{jan}.

The formation of verbs in en has found great favour in English, especially from nouns, and often with a disdain for the simpler Anglosaxon forms, from adjectives: meek-en; mad\text{-\text{d}}-en along with mad; f\text{a}	ext{t}-\text{t}-en; fresh-en; whit-en; tough-en; deep-en; dead-en; thick-en; sick-en; slack-en along with slack; sweet-en; stiff-en; sharp-en along with sharp; short-en; glad\text{-\text{d}}-en along with glad; hard-en &c.; from substantives: length-en; height-en; comp. fright-en along with fright; light-en along with light and others. It is also appended to Romance stems: chast-en &c.

Here too we must cite the substantive diminutive termination k-in, answering to the Middle-Highdutch ek-in, ik-in, in Modern-Highdutch popular dialects eck-en, ich-in, Lowdutch ek-en, Modern-Highdutch ch-en. It is foreign to Anglosaxon, in English it belongs mostly to the popular language. Here belong: mini-kin, (from minion, Old-Highdutch minni), also used adjectively; mani-kin, (comp. French mannequin); nipper-kine = small tankard; nap-kine (French nappe); la-kin = ladinik (lady); lamb-kin; lad-kin; Od's piti-kine (pitty) (Shakspe.); devil-kine; kilder-kine; can-akin; so too in the names of dispraise bump-kine, thumb-kine = awkward, rustic; slam-kine, slammer-kine = trollop and others; more frequently in Old-English faunt-ekine; especially in proper names: Wil-ekine, Modern-English Wil-kin (Dame Siriz p. 8.); Per-kin (Piers); Haw-kin, Hal-kin (Henry); Tym-kin (Tim-othy), Tom-kin (Thomas); Daw-kin (David), Sim-ekin &c.; whence modern family names like Perkins, Wilkins &c., arise.

I serves for the derivation of substantives as el, l (le), Anglosaxon el, al, ol, ul, l, le: nav-el, Anglosaxon naf-\text{o}-\text{la}, -ela; weas-el, Anglosaxon vës-le; wast-el, Middle-Highdutch wast-el; teas-el, Anglosaxon tæs-el, -l; haz-e', Anglosaxon hâs-el; hous-el, Anglosaxon hûs-el, -l; kern-el, Anglosaxon cryn-el. — nai-l, Anglosaxon någ-el; tai-l, Anglosaxon tåg-el, -l; sai-l, Anglosaxon sóg-el, -l; snai-l, Anglosaxon snåg-l, snæ-l; hat-l, Anglosaxon hâg-al, -ol, -ul, hâg-el; sow-l, Anglosaxon sâv-el, -l; ow-l, Anglosaxon û-le, Old-norse ug-la; fow-l, Anglosaxon fug-ol; ear-l, Anglosaxon eor-l; pear-l, Anglo-
saxon pär-l; chur-l, Anglosaxon ceor-l. — ang-le, Anglosaxon ang-el, -ol; app-le, Anglosaxon app-el, äp-l; need-le, Anglosaxon ned-l, nèd-l; nett-le, Anglosaxon nét-ele; bead-le, Anglosaxon byd-el; bust-le, Old-norse bust-l; brid-le, Anglosaxon brid-el, l; fidd-le, Anglosaxon fide-le, Old-norse fid-la = Latin fidicula; thist-le, Anglosaxon pist-el; throst-le, Anglosaxon prost-le; sick-le, Anglosaxon sic-ol, -el; sadd-le, Anglosaxon sad-ul, -ol, -el, -l; steep-le, Anglosaxon stèp-el; stap-le, Anglosaxon stap-ul, -ol, -el; shack-le, Anglosaxon scac-ul; cand-le, Anglosaxon cand-el; crad-ol, Anglosaxon crad-ol, -ul, -ul; kett-le, Anglosaxon cet-il, -el, -l; gird-le, Anglosaxon gyrd-el: hand-le, Anglosaxon hand-el.

A few adjectives in il, le have been preserved, as ev-il, Anglosaxon yf-el, ūf-el; id-le, Anglosaxon id-el; mick-le, muck-le (obsolete), Anglosaxon mic-el, myc-el, muc-el; litt-le, Anglos, lyt-el; cripp-le (used as a substantive), Old-norse crypp-il, gibbosus, claudus. Of the numerous class of Anglosaxon adjectives in ol, as forgit-ol, negligens; hat-ol, odii plenus; han-ul, procax; knit-ol, petulucus; pane-ol, providus; picc-ol, corpulentus, sag-ol, loquax; slāp-ol, sum-nulentus &c., hardly one, except fick-le, Anglosaxon fic-ol, has been preserved in the written tongue; some are still dialectical, as forgettle, whence forgetilship. Britt-le, Old-English brotel (from bryttan) seem formed later, brick-le (from brécan).

Many verbs in l, le were developed from substantives even in Anglosaxon, as nai-l, Anglosaxon nāg-l-jan; sai-l, Anglosaxon sēg-el-jan; fow-l, Anglosaxon fug-el-jan; brid-le, Anglosaxon brid-el-jan; wadd-le, Anglosaxon wād-l-jan, substantive wādl; whist-le, Anglosaxon hvist-l-jan, substantive hvistle. Others have been formed in Anglosaxon even without this mean: nest-le, Anglosaxon nest-l-jan; twink-le, Anglosaxon tvinc-l-jan &c. But this suffix, as in other Germanic and Romance tongues, has been variously employed, and modifies the meaning of the stem in various ways, where, however, the diminutive and the frequentative meaning pervade each other. Hence the expression for a weakened activity in mizz-le, to rain small; dribb-le, drizz-le; besprink-le; frizz-le; gigg-le; frībb-le; déwined-le; with which diminishment or degradation may be combined: nibb-le; babb-le; brang-le; wrang-le; cack-le; dabb-le; gutt-le; or the frequentative meaning of hither and thither comes to the foreground, as in dadd-le; dang-le &c.

The suffix s-el, s-le, Old-Highdutch is-al, is wanting in English, except in ou-z-el, Anglosaxon ó-s-le, Old-Highdutch amisala. In ground-sel (ground-sill, gronde-swyle) and hand-sel (Anglosaxon hand-sellen, from hand-sellan) compounds are contained, and ax-le belongs to the Anglosaxon eax, Latin ax-is.

The weakened ful, Anglosaxon English full, may be regarded as an adjective suffix compounded with substantives: bale-ful, Anglosaxon bealu-full; thank-ful, Anglosaxon thanć-full; sin-ful, Anglosaxon syn-full &c. Imitated forms, even with Romance words, are numerous: art-ful, power-ful, fruit-ful &c. Dialects even attach ful to verbal and adjective stems: urgeful; weariful.

A suffix in adjectives, from which adverbs are also developed, is the termination ly, Old-English bich, later li, ly, Anglosaxon lic,
similis, in use only in compounds, even in Anglosaxon. I mean properly likeness, like like, still used independently, comp. child-ly and child-like, Anglosaxon cild-lic, infantilis; man-ly and man-like; yet the unaccented ly, recedes into the more general meaning of appropriateness and relation; comp. god-ly = pious, god-like = resembling God, Anglosaxon god-lic, divinus. Combined with substantives it particularly serves to express conformity and relationship: father-ly, Anglosaxon fader-lic, paternus; mother-ly, Anglosaxon mòdor-lic; friend-ly, Anglosaxon freônd-lic; and so in connection with other names of persons: king-ly; prince-ly; broker-ly; bumpkin-ly &c. as well as with names of things: love-ly, Anglosaxon luf-lic; world-ly, Anglosaxon vorul-lic; flesh-ly, Anglosaxon flæsc-lic; heaven-ly, Anglosaxon heofon-lic; bodi-ly &c. It is distributive in notions of time, as month-ly, Anglosaxon monâd-lic; year-ly, Anglosaxon geâr-lic; and so in week-ly, dail-ly, quarter-ly &c. Annexed to adjective stems ly denotes the approximation to the notion of the stem, partly as a weakening, partly as inclination and tendency: green-ly, from the Anglosaxon grêne, and in other similar adjectives, now lost, which, on account of their sameness of sound with the corresponding adverbs, have been abandoned; and loath-ly, Anglosaxon lâd-lic; low-ly; sick-ly; clean-ly, Anglosaxon cleen-lic; god-ly, Anglosaxon gôd-lic; grim-ly, Anglosaxon grim-lic; to which also on-ly, Anglosaxon án-lic, and dead-ly, Anglosaxon dead-lic belong. Ly is annexed to other stems, even to particles: in-ly, Anglosaxon inlîc, internus; over-ly, Anglosaxon only an adverb ofer-lic; Anglosaxon also possessed up-lic, supremus; ût-lic, extraneus &c. For the adverbia ly comp. p. 393. r affords numerous Germanic derivatives, not however to be always distinguished from Romance suffixes.

Here we must first mention substantives in er, rarely r, re, which correspond to Anglosaxon forms in er, or, ur, r (re, ra). They denote partly persons: broth-er, Anglosaxon broð-er, -ur, -er; fath-er, Anglosaxon fãd-er; moth-er, Anglosaxon mòd-or; daught-er, Anglosaxon doht-or; sist-er, Anglosaxon svest-or, er; partly beasts; add-er, Anglosaxon nàdd-re; beav-er, Anglosaxon bëf-er; weath-er, Anglosaxon ved-er; chaf-er, Anglosaxon ceaf-er; culv-er, Anglosaxon culf-re, columba; gand-er, Anglosaxon gand-ra; partly concrete objects: add-er, Anglosaxon ãd-er, -r; liv-er, Anglosaxon lif-er; bolst-er, Old-norse bôlst-r; bladd-er, Anglosaxon blæd-re; fing-er, Anglosaxon the same; feath-er, Anglosaxon fëd-er; fett-er, Anglosaxon feot-ur, -or; fodd-er, Anglosaxon fôd-ur, fod-ur &c.; wat-er, Anglosaxon vat-er; timb-er, Anglosaxon timb-or, -er; tind-er, Anglosaxon tynd-er; tap-er, Anglosaxon tap-ur, -or, -er; silv-er, Anglosaxon sill-er, sylf-er; should-er, Anglosaxon sculd-or; hamm-er, Anglosaxon ham-or; partly abstract ones: mord-er, Anglosaxon mord-ur, -or, -er; laught-er, Anglosaxon heat-er; weath-er, Anglosaxon ved-er; wond-er, Anglosaxon vund-or, -er; thund-er, Anglosaxon pun-or; summ-er, Anglosaxon sum-or, -er; hung-er, Anglosaxon hung-ur, -or, -er. A mere r and re appear in tea-r, Anglosaxon tãh-er, tæ-r; stat-r, Anglosaxon stág-er; eæg-re (tide), Anglosaxon ãg-or, oceanus; ac-re, Anglosaxon ãc-er; ðî-re, Anglosaxon ðyr. Imitations,
to which **slaught-er** belongs, are often not to be distinguished from Romance.

**Names of persons** in **er**, which answer to the Old-English **ere**, Old-Highdutch **ari**, require a particular regard. They denote persons by their activity, and were chiefly developed from verbs (although these were sometimes denominative): **mong-er**, **Anglosaxon mang-ere**; **lead-er**, **Anglosaxon laed-ere**; **rid-er**, **Anglosaxon rid-ere**; **read-er**, **Anglosaxon red-ere**; **play-er**, **Anglosaxon plög-ere**; **bak-er**, **Anglosaxon bac-ere**; **fight-er**, **Anglosaxon feocht-ere**; **fish-er**, **Anglosaxon fisc-ere**; **follow-er**, **Anglosaxon folg-ere**; **foul-er**, **Anglosaxon fugel-ere**; **full-er**, **Anglosaxon full-ere**; **writ-er**, **Anglosaxon vrit-ere**; **delv-er**, **Anglosaxon delf-ere**; **thrash-er**, **Anglosaxon thref-ere**; **përse-ere**, **prësc-ere**, rarely from Nouns: **wagon-er**, **Anglosaxon vägn-ere**; as in many imitated forms: **glow-er**; **hätt-er** &c. Modern forms are not always to be distinguished from Romance ones in **er**, both being confounded, and even **er**, or occurring instead of **ere** in Germanic stems: **li-er**, **begg-er**, **sail-er** &c., where the older tongue presented **ere**. We also find *i*, *y* inserted before **er**, whereas this *i*, even in French words in **ier**, is usually cast off: **braz-ier**; **glaz-ier**; **coll-i-er**; **cloth-i-er**; **law-i-er**; **saw-i-er**; **bow-i-er**; in a few cases notional differences are attached to **i-er** and **er**. Compare **spurr-i-er**, who makes spurs; **spurr-er**, who spur. Moreover the termination **er** (**ere**) is transferred also to beasts and lifeless objects: **grasshop-er**; **grind-er**; **hopp-er**; **ten-pound-er**; **crack-er**; **cool-er**.

It is doubtful whether the **er** often dialectally appended to substantive forms is to be reduced to the above **er** or to the **ere** appearing in names of persons. Compare **chopp-er** (Hants.), **hunk-ers** = haunches (North.). This **er** becomes augmentative: **balk-er**, a great beam (East.); **team-er**, a team of five horses (Norf.); and diminutive: **fresh-er**, little frog (East.); **grom-er**, a little man, a boy; **blank-er**, a spark (Webst.). Dialectical forms, as, **mason-er** (also mason-t-er), **musician-er** (also musik-er), **poeter** &c., point decidedly to the old termination **ere**.

Alongside of this **er**, Old-English **ere**, there stood a feminine termination **st-er**, **Anglosaxon est-re**, **ist-re**, Old-English (**e**)st-ere; **bak-st-ere**, **Anglosaxon bac-ist-re**; **tapp-ist-ere**, **Anglosaxon täpp-est-ere**; **brev-est-ere**; **fruit-est-ere** &c. Comp. p. 250. In Modern-English this termination, like the Old-English **ere**, is used of men with regard to their occupation. This more audible suffix is particularly in use with the people: **malt-ster**, **web-ster**, **whip-ster**; **wit-ster**; **tap-st-er**; **team-st-er**; **deem-st-er**, **dem-st-er**, (Isle of Man); **seam-st-er**, **huck-st-er**. Sometimes the modern tongue attaches a slur to the termination: **lend-st-er**; **pun-st-er**; **trick-st-er**; **game-st-er**. In dialects more such substantives are met with, as **lit-st-er**, **band-st-er**; **woo-st-er**; **salt-st-er**; likewise in the older tongue: **thack-stare**, a thatches (Prompt. Parv.); **shep-st-er**, a shearer of sheep (Palsgrave). Hence the family names **Brewster**, **Baxter**, **Webster**, **Whitster**, **Tapster**, **Kemp-st-er** &c.

The termination **ster** has remained feminine in a few words, as **spin-st-er**, dialectically **bake-st-er** (Derbish.), **sew-st-er**, (Somerset),
knit-ster (DEVON); as indeed er is sometimes referred to female persons: hunt-er, rag-gatherer, common woman.

Adjectives in er, r, Anglosaxon er, or, ur, are rare: oth-er, Anglosaxon ðoð-er; litt-er, Anglosaxon lyð-er, malus; bitt-er, Anglosaxon bit-er; dapp-er, Hollandish the same; slipp-er, commonly slipp-er-y, Anglosaxon slip-ur; fai-r, Anglosaxon fäg-er (sicker, Old-High Dutch sihhar, arising from securus, does not belong here), Old-English wacker, dialectically wacker, Anglosaxon vachar, vacker. Dialects have imitations, as, col-ler, Anglosaxon cöl, frigidus; hett-er, Anglosaxon hät, fervidus.

According to the Anglosaxon precedent many verbs in er, derived from nouns, and among them many from comparative forms, have been received into the English: mürd-er, Anglosaxon myrð-r-jan; feath-er, Anglosaxon fðr-er-jan; fett-er, Anglosaxon feot-ur-jan; timb-er, Anglosaxon timb-er-jan; fóst-er, Anglosaxon fóst-er-jan, subst. föst-re, nutrix; gath-er, Anglosaxon gad-r-jan (Bosw.), adv. gad-or; hind-er, Anglosaxon hind-er-jan, adv. hind-er; hett-er, Anglosaxon bet-er-jan, Comp. bet-er; furth-er, Anglosaxon fyrð-er-jan, Comp. fyrð-or &c. Others arise without this intervention, as: whisp-er, Anglosaxon hvisp-r-jan; slumb-er, Anglosaxon slum-er-jan; whence the English substantives whisper, slumber have been formed. But the verbal formation in er has spread further, as in other Germanic idioms. Verbs of this sort resemble those with a derivative l, especially in the frequentative sense, yet not without being distinguished from them. They often denote an activity repeating itself, and in the repetition appearing undecided or unstable, as flitt-er, flick-er, flatt-er; quiv-er, quav-er; glitt-er; glist-er; shiv-er; hover; especially, and this partly in a reproachful sense, repeated, unclear, disagreeable and defective sounds or noises: mutt-er; fall-er; clatt-er; gibb-er; comp. stamm-er, from Anglosaxon stamor, balbus; sometimes with an admixture of desire and of indecision: hank-er; ling-er. Sometimes, however, the suffix appears to be without any particular influence; it is also annexed dialectically to many other stems than in the written language, as in: nick-er, (neigh) (NORTH.); snick-er, to laugh inwardly (SUSSEX); sniff-er, Old-English sniff, Modern-English sniff, sniffle &c.

2. Lip-sounds hardly need to be considered in English in Germanic derivations. In words in mp (np), lp, rp, sp the p is by Grimm rightly regarded as derivational; but the derivative sound has long become dead, and no longer felt as such, as in lim-p, Anglosaxon lim-pan; hem-p, Anglosaxon han-ep; yel-p, Anglosaxon gil-pan; shar-p, Anglosaxon scear-p; as-p, Anglosaxon ðas-p.

A derivative b perhaps appears in lam-b, Anglosaxon lam-b; dum-b, Anglosaxon dum-b. It is likewise extinct.

A derivative f, as it passed into Anglosaxon, partly from a primitive f, partly out of b, quite like those just named in its ineffectiveness, appears in: wol-f, Anglosaxon vul-f; sel-f, Anglosaxon sill-f, Gothic sill-ba; hal-f, Anglosaxon heal-f, hal-f, Gothic hal-bs and subst. hal-ba.

A derivative f appears in dwar-f, instead of g (h), Anglosaxon dveor-g, dveor-h, also pveor-g.
In *sil-ve*r *v* appears for the Anglosaxon *f* in an audible syllable, Anglosaxon *sil-for*, Gothic *sil-ub-r*; it likewise stands for *f* in *fi-ve*, Anglosaxon *fi-f*, Gothic *fim-f*; *sal-ve*, Anglosaxon *seal-f*, Gothic *sal-ba*. The derivative Anglosaxon *v*, more effective and sensible, is perceptible in English in olden times in the termination *we*; in Modern-English *w* has become mute, and appears in the suffix *ow*, see above.

Here, however, the suffix *ship*, Anglosaxon *scipē*, *scypē* (forma, modus), must be mentioned, which, even in Anglosaxon did not appear as a selfstanding word, but only in composition. It is made use of to form abstract substantives, most frequently joined, as in Anglosaxon, to substantives, particularly names of persons, and denotes then the quality, the condition, the business, the rank or the dignity of the person: *lord-ship*, Anglosaxon *hlāfordscipe* (also as a title, and instead of domain); *friend-ship*, Anglosaxon *freōnd-scipe*; here numerous imitations: *editor-ship*; *apprentice-ship* (along with -hood); *author-ship*; *owner-ship*, *lady-ship*; *regent-ship*; *rajaship*; *prælate-ship*; *beadle-ship*; *bachelor-ship*; *denizen-ship*; *comrade-ship*; *consul-ship*; *coachman-ship* (-skill); *general-ship* *grandee-ship* &c. The suffix is also transferred to higher and lower natures: *god-ship*; *fox-ship* = *foxery*. More rarely it is added to names of things: *elder-ship*, Angl. *ealdor-scipe*, *dominatio* (Bosw.); *wor-ship*, also in use as a title, Anglos. *veorō-scipe*, honor, in an abstract sense; imitated in: *court-ship*; *discount-ship*; *relation-ship*. The collective meaning seldom occurs here, as in the Anglosaxon *beōr-scipe*, *convivium*. Yet it is preserved, sharply expressed in *land-scape*, formerly also *land-ship* (Cleaveland’s P. 1660, p. 70.), Anglosaxon land-scipe, provincia, Old-Highdutch *land-scaf* (-scap), regio, comp. Old-norse land-skapr, consuetudo, as also *lord-ship* denotes a territory. Sometimes it is annexed to adjectives, as in the Anglosaxon *freōr-scipe*; *hard-ship*, Old-English *drunke-schipe* (Gower), now drunken-ness.

3) Of greater import in derivation than the lipsounds are the tooth-sounds; here *t*, *d*, *th*, *s*, *sh* and the dental *ch* need to be considered.

*t* appears as a derivative letter for the Anglosaxon *t*, which, in the combinations *ft*, *st* and *ht* without an intervening vowel, answers to the *z* of all Germanic idioms; yet sometimes an English *t* also takes the place of the Anglosaxon *d*, Hight dutch *d*, an interchange which sometimes took place even in Anglosaxon.

In the primitive combination with *f*, *s* and *gh* (Anglosaxon *h*) we meet with *t* often employed to form abstract and concrete substantives: *lif-t*, Old-English, Scottish, Anglosaxon *lyf-t*; *shrif-t*, Anglosaxon *scrif-t*; *gif-t*, Anglosaxon *gif-t*; *weft-t*, Anglosaxon *vif-t*, *vēft-t*, *shaf-t*, Anglosaxon *sceaf-t*, *contus*; *cray-ft*, Anglosaxon *crāft*; *haf-t*, Anglosaxon *hāft*; *croft-t*, Anglosaxon *craf-t*, praediolum. — *mis-t*, Anglosaxon *mis-t*; *lis-t*, *lus-t*, Anglosaxon *lys-t*, desiderium; *wris-t*, Anglosaxon *vris-t*, *carpus*; *res-t*, Anglosaxon *res-t*, *rāst-t*; *guest-t*, Anglosaxon *gās-t*, *ges-t*, *gis-t*; *breas-t*, Anglosaxon *breōs-t*; *mas-t*, Anglosaxon *mās-t*, *malus*; *las-t*, Anglosaxon *hlās-t*; *bas-t*, Anglosaxon *bā-st*; *fros-t*, Anglosaxon *fros-t*, *fors-t*, *gelu*; *ghos-t*

(ghas-t in ghas-t-ly &c.), Anglosaxon gâs-t, gæs-t; dus-t, Anglosaxon dus-t; gus-t, Anglosaxon gis-t, Old-norse gustr (procella); thirs-t, Anglosaxon purs-t. — migh-t, Anglosaxon meath-t; nigh-t, Anglosaxon neath-t, nih-t; righ-t, Anglosaxon rih-t; pligh-t, Anglosaxon plih-t; figh-t, Anglosaxon feoh-t; flyh-t, Anglosaxon flyh-t, volatus; frigh-t, Anglosaxon fyrh-tu (-to); wrigh-t (cart-wright &c.), Anglosaxon vyrh-ta; sigh-t, Anglosaxon sih-t; knigh-t, Anglosaxon cnih-t, cneoh-t; speigh-t, Old-Highdutch speh-t; bough-t, Anglosaxon bough-t, byh-t, sinus; drough-t also draf-t, Anglos. drôh-t, tractus (Bosw.).

Adjectives of this class are: swift-t, Anglosaxon svift-t; soft-t, Anglosaxon sóf-te, sôf-t, sêf-te. — fas-t, Anglosaxon fás-t; was-te, compare Anglosaxon vês-te, desertus, Latin vastus. — high-t, Anglosaxon liht-t, levis; righ-t, Anglosaxon rih-t; brigh-t, Anglosaxon beorh-t, bryh-t; sligh-t, compare Old-Highdutch sleh-t, Old-norse slettr, aequus.

Verbs: sif-t, Anglosaxon sif-t-an (sife, cribrum); res-t, Anglosaxon res-t-an; thurs-t, Anglosaxon þræs-t-an, torquere; thurs-t, Anglosaxon þyrst-t-an. — righ-t, Anglosaxon rih-t-an; frigh-t, Anglosaxon fyrh-t-an; digh-t, Anglosaxon dih-t-an.

The derivational t, answering to the Old-Highdutch z, appears in English mostly as t without a vowel before it after n, l and r, rarely as et, Anglosaxon t (te, ta), et, ot, ut.

In substantives we find it in: min-t, Anglosaxon min-te, Lat. mentha, and Anglosaxon myn-et, Middle-Highdutch mun-iza; fîn-t, Anglosaxon fin-t; din-t, Anglosaxon dyn-t; ben-t, Old-Highdutch pin-uz. — mil-t, Anglosaxon mil-te; gîl-t, Anglosaxon gyl-t, delicatum; hil-t, Anglosaxon hil-te; bel-t, Anglosaxon bel-t, balteus; mal-t, Anglosaxon meal-t, mal-t; sal-t, Anglosaxon seal-t, sal-t; bol-t, Anglosaxon bol-t, catapulta; hol-t, Anglosaxon hol-t. — far-t, Anglosaxon feor-t, crepitus ventris; war-t, Anglosaxon veart, verrucu; har-t, Anglosaxon hoer-ut, hior-ot, hoer-t; star-t, Anglosaxon steor-t, cauda, promontorium; hear-t, Anglosaxon hoer-t; war-t, Anglosaxon vyr-t. — emn-ët, Anglosaxon æm-ëte; thick-ët, Anglosaxon picc-ët; gan-ët, Anglosaxon gan-ot, fulica; horn-ët, Anglosaxon hyrn-ët.

Adjectives of this sort are scanty: hal-t, Anglosaxon heal-t, claudus; tar-t, Anglosaxon tear-t, asper; swar-t, Anglosaxon swear-t, fuscus, niger; shor-t, Anglosaxon scor-t.

Verbs: stum-t, Anglosaxon styn-t-an, hebetare; grun-t, Modern-Highdutch grunzen; hun-t, Anglosaxon hun-t-jan. — mel-t, Anglosaxon mël-t-an; hal-t, Anglosaxon heal-t-jan. — shor-t = fail, shorten, Anglosaxon scor-t-jan, degresceere. The great multitude of Anglo-

saxon verbs in etan, ettan, Gothic atjan, Modern-Highdutch zen, has been abandoned, as dropp-ëtan, stillare; hopp-ëtan, exsultare; réc-ëttan, regere; roc-ëttan, eructare; bealc-ëttan, English belch; bie-

ettan, coruscare; brod-ëttan, tremere; flog-ëttan, volitare; cearc-ëttan, stridere; canc-ëttan, cachinnari, &c.

In substantives a derivational t answers to the Anglosaxon þ; Old-Highdutch ð: thefþ-t, Anglosaxon þefþ-þ; height-t, formerly high-th, Anglosaxon heah-þþ; mark-ët and mar-t, Old-norse mark-adr; dar-t, Anglosaxon dar-åð, -ôd, -ed. Dialectical forms may be con-
sidered imitations, as: len-t (Somerset), loan; dimm-et (Devon), dimness; Old-English brussel; thicket and the like, grost (East.) for growth.

For rt see below ard.

The suffix est, Anglosaxon est, ost, is presented only by sub-
stantives: hare-est, Anglosaxon häref-est, häref-est, Old-Highdutch
herp-ist; earn-est, Anglosaxon eorn-ost,

The Anglosaxon adjective suffix iht, eht, Modern-Highdutch icht,
whereby the being furnished, as well as likeness, especially
to an object denoted by a substantive stem, seems never to have
become familiar in English. It has been confounded with y; com-
pare her-iht, stán-iht, þorn-iht, hóc-iht, English hairy, stony, hicky.

d is likewise a frequent suffix in English. It remains perseveringly
faithful to the Anglosaxon d, which answered on the one hand to
the Gothic d and Old-Highdutch t, on the other, often to the Go-
thic p, Old-Highdutch d. The d, answering to the Old-Highdutch
t, appears in English without exception only immediately annexed
to the consonants n. l and r, that put at the side of the Old-High-
dutch d, with few exceptions, only after vowels.

Substantives with a derivational d, de, Anglosaxon mostly d,
rarely ed, od, ud, are numerous: bri-de Anglosaxon brý-d; ti-de,
Anglosaxon ti-d, for tíahd; née-d, Anglosaxon nea-d; deee-d, Anglo-
saxon dae-d; see-d, Anglosaxon sæ-d; spee-d, Anglosaxon spé-d;
mai-d, Anglosaxon mág-ed, Gothic magaps; yet comp. Anglosaxon
mägdén, mædén, English maiden; threa-d, Anglosaxon pré-d; hea-d,
Anglosaxon heáf-ud, -od, -ed, heáf-d; bloo-d, Anglosaxon blö-d;
flø-d, Anglosaxon fló-d; moo-d, Anglosaxon mó-d. — lin-d, com-
monly lin-d-en, Anglosaxon lin-d; win-d, Anglosaxon vin-d; rin-d,
Anglosaxon rin-d, hrin-d; hin-d, Anglosaxon hin-d, cerva; en-d,
Anglosaxon en-de; ben-d, Anglosaxon ben-d, ben-de; lan-d, Anglo-
saxon lan-d; ran-d, Anglosaxon ran-d; bran-d, Anglosaxon bran-d;
san-d, Anglosaxon san-d; stran-d, Anglosaxon strand-d; han-d, An-
glosaxon han-d; woun-d, Anglosaxon vun-d; goun-d, Anglosaxon
grun-d; houn-d, Anglosaxon hun-d. — fiel-d, Anglosaxon fil-d, fél-d;
shiel-d, Anglosaxon scil-d, scēl-d; weal-d, Anglosaxon weal-d, val-d;
chil-d, Anglosaxon cil-d; fol-d, Anglosaxon fal-ud, -od, -ed, fal-d,
Anglosaxon feal-d (from Gothic falpan); gøl-d, Anglosaxon gol-d
(yet Gothic gulp). — her-d in herdman, herdson, Old-English
her-de, Anglosaxon her-d; Anglosaxon hear-d; bear-d, Anglosaxon
bear-d; yar-d, Anglosaxon yar-d; boar-d, Anglosaxon bor-d; hoar-d,
Anglosaxon hor-d, thesaurus; for-d, Anglosaxon for-d (Boswell);
wor-d, Anglosaxon vor-d; swor-d, Anglosaxon sveor-d.

Adjectives are not frequent; here, along with d, ed also exists:
da-d, Anglosaxon déa-d; lou-d, Anglosaxon hlú-d; nak-ed, Anglo-
saxon nac-ed. — blin-d, Anglosaxon blin-d. — ol-d, Anglosaxon
al-d, eal-d; col-d, Anglosaxon cel-d, cald; wil-d, Anglosaxon vil-d
(yet Gothic vilpeis); bol-d, Anglosaxon bal-d, bol-d (yet Gothic
balps); fol-d, Anglosaxon -feal-d (yet Gothic falps); har-d, Anglo-
saxon hear-d.

Verbs: née-d, Anglosaxon nè-d-an. — bin-d, Anglosaxon bin-d-an;
win-d, Anglosaxon vin-d-an; grin-d, Anglosaxon grin-d-an; en-d, Anglosaxon en-d-jan; wen-d, Anglosaxon ven-d-an; sen-d, Anglosaxon sen-d-an (even Gothic sandjan, although belonging to *sinp); shen-d, Anglosaxon scen-d-an; stan-d, Anglosaxon stand-d-an. — hol-d, Anglosaxon heal-d-an; gir-d, Anglosaxon gir-d-an.

The Suffix *ed in adjectives, Anglosaxon *ed (od) is nothing but the participial termination, which is also added to stems from which no other verbal forms are made. This happened even in Anglosaxon: horn-ed, Anglosaxon hyrn-ed, cornutus; sword-ed, Anglosaxon gesvurd-od, ense armatus. English forms many from substantives, mostly expressing thereby the being furnished with the object contained in the stem: beaver-ed (covered with beaver); beak-ed (having a beak); key-ed (furnished with a key, set to a key); castle-ed (having a castle, castles); client-ed (furnished with clients); jacket-ed (wearing a jacket) &c. often in compounds: bandy-legged; bare-headed; bare-faced &c. Thus also forms in at-ed occur, not derived immediately from a substantive: bace-ated (having berries); auricul-ated (having large ears); aur-ated (resembling gold) &c.

and, Anglos. end, Modern-Hiendutch end, is still found as a substantive suffix in: err-and, Anglosaxon ær-ende (from ær, nuntius); thous-and, Anglosaxon þus-end.

old and ald seem equally to point to the substantive veald, vald, which appears in Medieval-Latin as oaldus, aldus, French oud, aud, ault, in: thresh-old, Anglosaxon prēsc-vald, -vold, -old; Old-English thresh-wold &c.; cuck-old, Medieval-Latin cugus (cucullus), Old-French cou sol, Old-English coke-wold; as in proper names: Harold, Old-Hiendutch hariovalt; Reyn-old, Old-Hiendutch rægin-alt; compare Old-English Ose-wold, Anglosaxon Os-veald, Ecg-veald; Åfvel-vald, -veald, -vold &c. Here belong also her-ald, (=Harold, -ald, army ruler), rib-ald (Diez Romance Dictionary p. 287.), which, however, rests immediately upon the Old-French. Old-English: ribaud, ribaud.

In substantives stands the suffix ard, sometimes art, answering to the Anglosaxon heard, durus, fortis. This Germanic suffix is also found in Old-French, which seems to have influenced English. The Anglosaxon, as well as the Old-Hiendutch, only offers proper names, as Rich-ard, Anglosaxon Ric-heard, Åfvel-heard &c. The suffix expresses that the quality, activity or thing exists in a high degree in the object expressed by the word. Sometimes, however, it is employed in a censorious sense, especially in names of persons, as in French, from which many words have been immediately taken: nigg-ard; wiz-ard; dizz-ard, dull-ard; drunk-ard; stink-ard; many are, like similar French ones, at the same time adjectives, as: lagg-ard; bragg-art; slugg-ard. Destard = Anglosaxon participle dastròd does not belong here. Some are taken from the French, as bast-ard, palli-ard, cow-ard (couard), galli-ard, perhaps also hagg-ard &c. We have, without a collateral notion of blame, Span-iard, as well as Savoy-ard, after the French precedent. In names of beasts are found ard: poll-ard, a stag that has cast its antlers; spitt-ard; stagg-ard; agreeing with the French: mall-ard, French mal-art; buzz-ard, French bus-art &c. The derivational
termination used of things is found in poll-ard, and mostly in
French words, as: pet-ard, poni-ard &c. As to scab-bard, comp.
below Composition.

Words in er have often been transformed into ard, art, as: giz-
vard, French gésier, gigeria; dialectically millart for miller; misert
for miser &c.

red, Anglosaxon rød, röd, Modern-Highdutch rath (Hei-rath),
commonly röden, is in use as a suffix in a few substantives: Old-
English sib-réde, Anglosaxon sib-raeden, affinitas; frend-rede (friend-
ship); man-rede (vasselage); Modern-English kind-red (perhaps from
Anglosaxon ge-cynd, generatio); on the other hand Old-English
kun-rede, kyn-rede (Anglosaxon (cynn); hat-red, Anglosaxon hete,
from hatjan. The Anglosaxon suffix röd, rød only stands in hir-
röd, familia, else röd is only adjective; here, however, hund-red,
Anglosaxon hund-red, -rid, Old-norse hund-rad, may also belong.
Compare Anglosaxon rød, promptus, from ridan.

hood, sometimes head, Anglosaxon hød, as a selfstanding sub-
stantive: persona, status, ordo, Old-English mostly hede, hed, yet
also early hode (Maundev.), is the Modern-Highdutch heit. Even
Anglosaxon employed hød to form abstract nouns. The termina-
tion is added to names of persons, in order to denote their nature
or condition, but admits also a collective meaning; as well as
to adjectives, in order to substantive the notion as an abstract
quality. The termination hood commonly appears in Modern-En-
glish. From names of persons are formed: maid-hood, maiden-
hood, Anglosaxon mågd-håd, maeden-håd; man-hood, Anglosaxon
man-håd; priest-hood, Anglosaxon pröst-håd (also collective); bro-
ther-hood, Anglosaxon brödor-håd (also collective); wife-hood, wo-
man-hood, Anglosaxon vif-håd, sexus, Old-English vif-hood; child-
hood, Anglosaxon cild-håd; knight-hood, Anglosaxon cnih-t-håd (also
collective); imitations are: neighbour-hood (collective); widow-hood;
apprentice-hood, Old-English prentis-hode and others. From ad-
jectives substantives of this sort were seldom formed in Anglo-
saxon, as efen-håd, aqua conditio. English formed numbers, whereof
many have been abandoned: likeli-hood; lowli-hood; lusti-hood; false-
hood; fair-hood (Fox's Martyrs); hardi-hood and others; Old-English
luper-hede, grene-hed (childishness); humble-hede; yong-hede &c. The termina-
tion head is still found in a few forms: god-head, maiden-
head, bounty-head, lusti-head, goodli-head, mostly as obsolete collateral
forms.

th as a derivational sound, answers to the Anglosaxon ð, which
only in a few cases has become the English t.

The suffix th, Anglosaxon ð, rarely ð, ð, ð, ð, ð, is found in
substantives of concrete and abstract meaning, and has shown
itself effective in abstract substantives, and also in imitated forms.
Concrete substantives are: ear-th, Anglosaxon eor-ðe; mon-th,
Anglosaxon môn-ð, ð, ð, ð, mon-ð; bur-th-en, also burden, An-
glosaxon byr-ð-en, comp. Old-Highdutch bur-d; bro-th, Anglosaxon
bro-ð, jus; too-th, Anglosaxon tó-ð; hea-th, Anglosaxon hág-ð, erica,
comp. Old-Highdutch hei-da, erica, hei-d, campus. Abstract
nouns are: céa-th, Anglosaxon dea-ð; slo-th, Anglosaxon slev-ð,
slāv-ð; you-th, Anglosaxon geóg-ðð, -āð, -āð, -ēð; tru-th, Anglosaxon treóðo, tryv-ð, treóð (BOSWELL); til-th, Anglosaxon til-ð; mir-th, Anglosaxon mer-ð, myr-ð &c.; bir-th, Anglosaxon beor-ð, also byr-ð (BOSWELL); heal-th, Anglosaxon hæl-ð; leng-th, Anglosaxon leng-ð; strengh-th, Anglosaxon strengh-ðu, -ðo, -ð. Others are found in other Germanic idioms: weal-th, Old-Highdutch wel-da, -pa; wid-th, Old-norse vid-d; bread-th, Old-English brede and breadthe (MAUNDEV.), Old-norse breid-d; dep-th; Old-norse dýp-t. English readily forms these from verbs and substantives: spil-th, steal-th, grow-th; warm-th, dear-th &c. Scottish transformations of the Romance suffix tie (ty) by the addition of the Anglosaxon suffix are: poor-tith; boun-tith; this new suffix was then added to Germanic stems, as in: mel-tith, a meal. See Fiedler p. 175.

Adjectives with Anglosaxon ð, English th, the are: soo-th, Anglosaxon sóð = san-ad; un-cou-th, Anglosaxon cu-ð, participle from cann, un-cu-ð, ignotus; wor-th, Anglosaxon vor-ð, vir-ð; li-the, Anglosaxon li-ðe (BOSWELL), Highdutch linde; Old-English svi-the, adv., Anglosaxon svíðe, from the adj. svi-ð, Highdutch geschwincde.

Verbs, except a few denominatives, as li-the, Anglosaxon li-ðigéan, mitigare, are wanting.

s, also contained in x (cs), answers to Anglosaxon s.

In substantives stands the suffix se, also ese, Anglosaxon commonly s (sa), yet also ese: hal-se, Anglosaxon heal-s, hal-s; ar-se, Old-English er-s, Anglosaxon ear-s, är-s, ar-s; hor-se, Old-English hor-s, Anglosaxon hor-s; cur-se, Anglosaxon cur-s; goo-se, Old-English goo-s, Anglosaxon go-s; ev-es, Anglosaxon yf-ese; often, in combination with a preceding guttural, as x: ax, Anglosaxon ax, eax, acas, compare Gothic aquizi, Old-Highdutch ahh-us; lax, Anglosaxon leax, lex (now obsolete), Old-Highdutch lah-s; wax, Anglosaxon vexax, vax, Old-Highdutch wah-s; flaax, Anglosaxon fleax, Old-Highdutch flaax, whence the Modern-English fax-es (obsolete), Anglosaxon fae-s, feax, fax, crinis; ox, Anglosaxon oxa, oh-sa; fox, Anglosaxon fox, Old-Highdutch fuh-s.

Here are considered a few verbs with a derivational s (se): bles-s, Anglosaxon blët-s-jan, blës-s-jan; rin-se, Old-norse hrein-sa, compare French rincer, Anglosaxon hrenan, purgare; clean-se, Anglosaxon clæn-s-jan (clænjan); cur-se, Anglosaxon cur-s-jan; exclusive of English denominatives, like war.

The Anglosaxon substantive suffix els, was still effective in Old-English: rek-ils, Anglosaxon réc-els, thus; comp. Anglosaxon stic-els, aculeus; fré-els, periculum &c.; even in imitated forms: met-els (from the Anglosaxon métan) and drem-els, a dream. It has been abandoned.

ness, Anglosaxon ness, niss, nyss; Gothic nassus; Old-Highdutch nassi, nissi, nissa; Middle-Highdutch nisse, nisse, nusse; Modern-Highdutch niss, is a frequent suffix to form abstract substantives from Nouns, but particularly from adjectives. In modern times it has often taken the place of other Anglosaxon suffixes, for instance, in the suffix -less-ness: lufe-lessness, Anglosaxon lif-leás-t; reck-lessness, Anglosaxon rée-leás-t, and others, although réce-leás-ness also

Mätzner, engl. Gr. I. 29
occurs. The suffix mostly remains faithful to the denoting of a
condition or a quality: ill-ness, evil-ness, Anglosaxon yfel-ness;
old-ness, Anglosaxon eald-nyss; rank-ness, Anglosaxon rance-ness;
bright-ness, Anglosaxon bryht-ness; fat-ness, Anglosaxon fæt-niss;
drunk-ness, Anglosaxon druncen-ness; sick-ness, Anglosaxon seo-
ness; good-ness, Anglosaxon gód-ness; heavi-ness, Anglosaxon hefig-
ness; hard-ness, Anglosaxon heardness &c. Transformations of An-
glosaxon forms are frequent, as: needi-ness, Anglosaxon nýd-ness;
readi-ness, Anglosaxon râd-ness; roomi-ness, Anglosaxon rûm-niss
&c.; in order to give to the root word the more decisive tinge of
the adjective. Imitations from Germanic and Romance adjectives,
even encumbered with derivational suffixes, are very common:
bad-ness; bold-ness; slow-ness; kind-ness: braz-en-ness; friend-li-ness;
entire-ness; brief-ness; art-ful-ness; voluptuous-ness; contin-u-al-ness;
arti-fic-ial-ness; suit-able-ness &c.; comp. Anglosaxon ang-mód-ness;
äfel-boren-ness; aldor-lic-ness &c. A word in ness rarely passes
over into a concrete meaning, as wit-ness, Anglosaxon vit-ness; or
into the collective notion of a locality, as wilder-ness, Anglosaxon
villeo-ð-ness.

The syllable less, Old-English les (Rob. of Gloucester), lees
(Piers Ploughman), Anglosaxon leads, vacuus, with the genitive,
Hightducht los, may be regarded as an adjective suffix, which is
appended to substantives and forms adjectives with a privative
meaning: end-less, Anglosaxon ende-les; name-less, Anglosaxon nam-
leas; life-less, Anglosaxon lif-leas; beard-less, Anglosaxon beard-leas
&c. Imitations with Germanic and Romance substantives are very
common: eye-less; boot-less; wind-less; art-less; labour-less &c.

sh appears in English suffixes in a twofold manner: in this sound
which has arisen from sc the s has belonged to the stem and the
c has been derivational, or both sounds, united into one sibilant,
are derivational.

sh answers to the Anglosaxon s-c, transposed also in x (es), Old-
Hightducht s-c (not ch) with a derivative c; only a few s-c have
been preserved as s-k, see k. In substantives we find sh: fish,
Anglosaxon fis-c, fix; dish, Anglosaxon dis-c, dix, comp. dis-k; flesh,
Anglosaxon flæs-c; ash, Anglosaxon ãs-c, fraxinus; dash, Old-norse
das-k; frush, Anglosaxon fros-c, frox, rana (a horse disease?).

Adjectives are: nesh, Anglosaxon hnes-ce, nes-c, tener; fresh,
Anglosaxon fërse, purus, Old-Hightducht vris-c, recens, Old-norse
fres-kr, glaucus; rash, Old-Hightducht ras-c, Swedish Danish ras-k.

Verbs: wish, Anglosaxon wîs-c-an; fish, Anglosaxon fis-c-jan;
mash, comp. Modern-Hightducht maischen, from Anglosaxon mis-c-
an; wash, Anglosaxon vas-c-an, vaxan; dash, Old-norse das-ka;
thrash, Anglosaxon prís-c-an, prês-c-an.

ish as an adjective suffix, Anglosaxon isc, Gothic isks, Old-High-
dutch isc, isg, Modern-Hightducht isch, wherein the double conson-
ent belongs to derivation, imports in general appurtenance to
the notion contained in the stem, and has been used from the most
ancient times, for instance, of descendent: engl-isch, Anglosaxon engl-
isch; brit-isch, Anglosaxon britt-isc; dan-isch, Anglosaxon den-isc; jew-
ish, Anglosaxon judeisch; greek-isch, (Milton), Anglosaxon gréc-isch;
and thus *ir-ish*, Old-norse ír-skř; *turk-ish*; *babylon-ish* &c. Sometimes the vowel is cast out, and, in collision with consonants, *sh* even transformed into *ch*: *wel-sh*, Anglosaxon vealh-isc, but also *väl-se*; *fren-ch*, Anglosaxon frenc-isc, Old-English frenshe myles (Maundev. p. 54.); *scoot-ch*, alongside of *scoot-ish*, Anglosaxon scytt-isc. Appurtenance and kind lie in *mann-ish*, Anglosaxon menn-isc, humanus; *heathen-ish*, Anglosaxon heven-isc; *water-ish*, Anglosaxon väter-isc; *bard-ish* = bardic; *book-ish* = versed in books (Shaksp.); *unbook-ish* = rough and the like; yet a slur is here often annexed to the quality, although sometimes presupposed by the stem itself, as in: *rogu-ish*; *bab-ish*; *baby-ish*: *fool-ish*; *fopp-ish*; *brut-ish*; *swin-ish*; *hogg-ish*; *upp-ish* (vulgar) = proud. Frequently approximation to a quality is alone expressed, when adjectives with the suffix *ish* appear: *redd-ish*; *brown-ish*; *green-ish*; *gray-ish*; *yellow-ish*; — *old-ish* (somewhat old); *new-ish* (rather new); *lat-ish* (somewhat late); *long-ish*; *sweet-ish*; *young-ish*; the latter forms belong to English.

Dental *ch*, as a derivational sound, stands for an Anglosaxon *c*, which answers to the Gothic *k*, Old-Highdutch *ch*; it is divided with the English *k* upon this field without any visible principle.

In substantives *ch* often stands: *win-ch*, Anglosaxon vin-ce; *fin-ch*, Anglosaxon fin-c; *wren-ch*, Anglosaxon vren-c-le; *dren-ch*, Anglosaxon dren-cē, dren-c; *sten-ch*, Anglosaxon sten-c; *bir-ch*, Anglosaxon bir-ce, Old-Highdutch pir-icha; *star-ch*, belonging to the adjective, stear-c; *chur-ch*, Anglosaxon cyr-ice, a foreign word.

Of adjectives hardly any other in *ch* occurs than *star-ch* = stiff, also used as a substantive.

Verbs of this sort are: *wren-ch*, Anglosaxon vren-c-an, fallere; *dren-ch*, Anglosaxon dren-c-an; *sten-ch*, Anglosaxon sten-c-an; *bel-ch*, Anglosaxon beal-c-jan.

4) Of throatsounds *k* and *g* have been preserved as derivational letters in a few cases only, the former being inclined to pass into dentals, the latter being frequently softened into a vowel sound or cast off.

*k* has been seldom preserved after *s*, where it answered to the Old-Highdutch *c*; it stands in the substantive *tuș-k*, Anglosaxon *tuș-c* = *tvis-c*, as in the foreign words *dis-k*, and *hus-k*, not perhaps belonging to the Highdutch *hulse*, see Diefenbach's Dictionary I. p. 230.; and the unclear *fris-k*. Of verbs *as-k*, Anglosaxon *ās-c-jan*, āh-s-jan, axjan, *k* has been preserved.

On the other hand *k*, has been more frequent preserved instead of the guttural *c*, which answers to the Old-Highdutch *ch*, Anglosaxon *c* (ce), *ac*, *uc*.

Substantives: *drin-k*, Anglosaxon *drin-c*; *swin-k* (obsolete), labour, Anglosaxon svin-c; *stin-k*, Anglosaxon stin-c; *than-k*, Anglosaxon pan-c; *mil-k*, Anglosaxon mil-uc, mel-oc, mil-c &c.; *wil-k*, Anglosaxon veol-oc, veol-c; *sil-k*, Anglosaxon sēol-oc, sēol-c; *fol-k*, Anglosaxon fol-c; *hul-k*, Anglosaxon hul-ce; *lar-k*, Anglosaxon lāver-ce; *wor-k*, Anglosaxon veor-c; *stor-k*, Anglosaxon stor-c; *stur-k*, Anglosaxon stir-c. — *haw-k*, Anglosaxon haī-uc, -oc.

Alongside of *k*, which, with the rejection of the vowel sometimes
preceding it in Anglosaxon, commonly appears in English as a suffix only, ock, is also found in substantives, answering to Anglosaxon oc, uc, as in: bull-ock, Anglosaxon bull-oca, juvencus; matt-ock, Anglosaxon matt-oc, matt-uc, Cymrick mattog, ligo; butt-ock, compare Old-norse butr, truncus; rudd-ock, robin readbrest, Anglosaxon rudd-uc (Boswell); mull-ock, Old-English mullok, rubber; mamm-ock, shapeless piece, fragment. This suffix is also employed as a diminutive suffix (comp. bulluca); burr-ock; pinn-ock, tom-tit; padd-ock, hill-ock; so too in proper names, as Matt-ock, Poll-ock; and with a e inserted: Willi-e-ock &c. Compare Wile-k-in. Yet the same ock is also augmentative, for instance in padd-ock, Anglosaxon padde, rana.

Adjectives are: blan-k, Anglosaxon blan-c (Boswell); dar-k, Anglosaxon dear-c; star-k, Anglosaxon steer-c, compare starch.

Verbs: win-k, Anglos. vin-c-jan; blin-k, Old-Highdutch blin-ch-an; drin-k, Anglos. drin-c-an; sin-k, Anglos. sin-c-an; slin-k, Anglos. slin-c-an; svin-k, Anglos. svin-c-an (obsolete); stin-k, Anglos. stin-c-an; shrin-k, Anglosaxon serin-c-an; mil-k, Anglosaxon mil-c-jan; wal-k, Anglosaxon veal-c-an; mar-k, Anglosaxon near-c-jan; bar-k, Anglosaxon bor-c-jan; har-k (now hardly except in the imperative) commonly hear-k-en, Anglosaxon hér-c-n-jan; wor-k, Anglosaxon vyr-c-an.

From a derivational h, k has arisen in the substantive el-k, Anglosaxon eol-h, Old-Highdutch el-ah.

Anglosaxon g, Old-Highdutch k, in Anglosaxon also interchanging with c, eg, has been preserved as a derivational sound only after n; thus in the substantives: rin-g, Anglosaxon hrin-g, hrin-c; thin-g, Anglosaxon pin-g, pin-cg; gan-g, Anglosaxon gan-g; ton-gs, Anglosaxon tan-ge, forceps; ton-que, Anglosaxon tun-ge; thon-g, Anglosaxon þran-g; son-g, Anglosaxon san-g, san-c; lun-gs, Anglosaxon lun-gen plur.; as in the adjectives: lon-g, Anglosaxon lan-g; stron-g, Anglosaxon strand-g; youn-g, Anglosaxon geon-g, jun-g; and the verbs: rin-g, Anglosaxon hrin-g-an; wrin-g, Anglosaxon vrin-g-an; sin-g, Anglosaxon sin-g-an; slin-g, Anglosaxon slin-g-an; svin-g, Anglosaxon svin-g-an; sprin-g, Anglosaxon sprin-g-an, sprin-c-an; han-g, Anglosaxon han-g-an &c.

A derivational suffix, effective down to the most recent period in the language, is ing. We have however to distinguish two suffixes of the same form, which perhaps mingle in the modern tongue, but are theoretically to be sharply separated: the one, which is essentially used to form concrete substantives; Old-Highdutch inc, and also takes l before it, Old-Highdutch linc, Gothic liggs; the other, which serves to form abstract substantives; Old-Highdutch ungo, Gothic eins.

ing, Anglosaxon ing, m, is even in Anglosaxon an infrequent suffix to denote men (particularly, yet not exclusively, indicating descent), beasts, coins, with a few imitations: athel-ing, adel-ing, Anglosaxon ädel-ing; nid-ing, also nith-ing, Anglosaxon nid-ing; king, Anglosaxon cyng = cyn-ing; lord-ing (subsequently regarded as a diminutive; compare, on the other hand: per was po in Engelond a gret louerding [Rob. of Gloucester II. 431.]); hild-ing, a ruffian (Anglosaxon hyldan, inclinare); — herr-ing, Anglosaxon här-ing
(although arising from halec); whit-ing, Lowdutch wi-ting; geld-ing (comp. Anglosaxon gelde, siccus); — skill-ing, Anglosaxon scilling; farth-ing, Anglosaxon feorð-ing, -ung, yet also feorð-líng; Anglosaxon pend-ing (penny) has passed into pen-ig even in Anglosaxon. Ing operates decidedly as a diminutive in devil-ing.

This ing with l prefixed: líng, is used even in Anglosaxon to form names of men and beasts, rarely of things, and is appended to substantives, adjectives, verbal stems and even particles. The expression of disrespect, which is attached to many of these forms, is in great part presupposed by the stem, but in later imitations is intentional. Names of men: earth-ling, Anglosaxon eord líng, earð-ling, servus (now son of earth); foster-ling, Anglosaxon fóstcr-ling; dar-ling, Anglosaxon deor-ling; hire-ling, Anglosaxon hyr-ling; easter-ling; under-ling (comp. Old-English oferlíng, over-líng = ruler, master); nurs-ling; found-ling; change-ling; with intentional disrespect: wit-ling; world-ling; whim-ling; pope-ling; starver-ling &c.; yet not Old-English lord-ling (PERCY Rel. p. 201. II.), although later, as in Swift. In names of beasts diminution is not primarily expressed by this suffix, but the image of young and small is often supposed by the stem, but, therefrom is developed in imitated forms the term for young: young-ling, young animal, Anglosaxon geông-ling, juvenis; twin-ling; yeann-ling, (Anglosaxon eănjan, eniti); year-ling; nest-ling; star-ling; ground-ling (fish); Young of beasts: kid-ling; kid-líng; duck-líng; chick-líng; gos-líng; trout-líng; Trees: sap-líng; oak-líng. Names of things are rare, as Anglosaxon bæc-líng, tergum. Comp. chitterlings; shor-ling and some more. The dialectical substantive hid-ling, has appended the termination ing to the Old-English hid-el of like meaning. Abstract substantives, like Anglosaxon bérð-líng, puerperium, are wanting in English, except perhaps in cast-líng. Sometimes the words in ing and líng are employed as adjectives.

The termination ing, answering to the Anglosaxon ung, in, High-dutch ung, serves principally to form abstract substantives from verbal stems, whereby in general activity or perseverance in action and the condition are denoted, which the notion of the stem presupposes. It coincides with the termination of the gerundial participle, and may be annexed, as a substantive termination, to almost every verbal stem: end-ling, Anglosaxon end-ung; bless-ing, Anglosaxon blêts-ung: fight-ling, Anglosaxon fiht-ung; cunn-ing, Anglosaxon cunning; wander-ling; rov-ing; oet-ing; perform-ing &c. Here also the transition into the concrete meaning occurs. Comp. Anglosaxon veof-ung, textura; eard-ung, habitatio. Then the result of the activity is then partly denoted: build-ing; gild-ing; lad-ing, cargo; leav-ing; some-thing left; dripp-ing; partly a collective notion arises, which imports an object bringing about the activity: wrapp-ing, cover-ing; cloth-ing; which is especially the case with forms derived from denominative verbs: foot-ing; floor-ing = floor; pal-ing = fencework; shipp-ing; skirt-ing. Such substantives may moreover be derived immediately from substantives: tavern-ing, a feasting at taverns. The denoting of a single, not collective existence is rare, as in be-ing.
b) Romance Derivative Terminations.

The Romance derivational suffixes which come under review here rest upon the Latin. Many suffixes of this sort were obscured even in Old-French; mutilated forms which, transplanted into English, pass here as stems, have to be discussed in the etymology of the French tongue.\(^*\) Words transplanted unaltered from the Latin or other Romance tongues can likewise find no consideration here, even if they conform to the English pronunciation and inflection. In order not to encroach into remoter fields, those suffixes belonging to the French constituent of the tongue which have remained effective in English, although often blended with one another, are cited, when substantives and verbs are divided; the latter, from the manner of their treatment in English, exhibiting but few characteristic suffixes.

1) Derivative Terminations of Nouns.

We divide suffixes according to their final sound, so that those with a final vowel, although forming only a glib shortness, are first considered, then those with a final consonant, \((\text{when an } e \text{ mute is disregarded})\). The former, although partly preceded by consonants, we call generally vowel derivational terminations; those with a final consonant, consonantal derivational terminations.

Vowel Derivational Terminations.

Y. In substantives stands the suffix for French \(e\), Latin \(\text{átus}\), \((\text{participle})\) sometimes in names of persons: \(\text{deput-}y\), alongside of which the terminations \(e y\), \(e e\), \(a t e\) are also to be met with. See above.

\(y\) often stands, French \(e\), for the Latin substantive \(\text{átus}\) \((\text{fourth declension})\) mostly in collective substantives, as \(\text{clerg-}y\); to which territorial names belong, as: \(\text{duch-}y\), \(\text{count-}y\), \(\text{Dauphin-}y\); rarely abstract nouns, as \(\text{treat-}y\). Here also we find \(a t e\). See below.

For the French suffix \(\text{ée}\), Latin \(\text{ata}\), \(y\) \((\text{also } e y)\) also stands in names of things, especially collectively: \(\text{arm-}y\), \(\text{jur-}y\) \((\text{Medieval-Latin jurata})\), \(\text{countr-}y\), \(\text{jell-}y\) \((\text{gelée})\); and abstractly: \(\text{embass-}y\), \(\text{entr-}y\), \(\text{lev-}y\), \(\text{destin-}y\).

Rarely \(y\) stands for \(\text{ée}\) instead of Latin \(a e u s\), \(a m\), as in \(\text{troph-}y\). Very commonly \(y\) answers to the French \(i c\), Latin \(i a\), Old-English \(i e\), chiefly in abstract and partly collective substantives, which are developed from adjectives and substantives: \(\text{ignomin-}y\), \(\text{modest-}y\), \(\text{perfid-}y\), \(\text{jur-}y\), \(\text{jealous-}y\), \(\text{courtes-}y\), \(\text{heres-}y\), \(\text{comed-}y\), \(\text{traged-}y\), \(y\) \((\text{fantaisie})\), \(\text{harmon-}y\), \(\text{baron-}y\), \(\text{nav-}y\) \((\text{Old-French navie})\), \(\text{famil-}y\), \(\text{compan-}y\) \&c., to which are added not only many imitations, but also words, which in French have cast off the \(i\), as \(\text{miser-}y\) \((\text{misère})\), \(\text{fal-}lac-\) \((\text{fallace})\). Of names of countries a few have preserved \(y\)

\(^*\) We may here refer to Diez’s Romance Grammar, and to Mützner’s French Grammar.
for ie: Italy; Normandy; Lombardy; Picardy; Thessaly; Germany; with which Sicily (Sicile) and some in French agne, ogne are associated by metathesis: Brittan-y; Burgund-y (Burgundia, Burgogne); Gascon-y, whereas the most are transmute into the Latin ia. See below.

We must also observe, that y also appears for the Latin ium, for which the e mute is substituted in French: augur-y; obloqu-y; obsequy (Milton); mister-y; minister-y; monaster-y; presbyter-y; larceny (latrocinium, comp. French larcin); remed-y; stud-y; subsid-y &c.

Adjectives in y hardly occur, except priv-y (privé); for hard-y, hast-y, foll-y answer to other forms. See i.e.

From the suffix y (ia) is developed er-y, r-y, French er-ie, which was primarily indebted for er partly to the infinitive termination of the same sound, partly to the substantive termination, but was then regarded as a self-standing suffix. The e is frequently cast out in English after consonants and vowels, but particularly preserved, where it reminds us of substantives in er. Imitations are numerous.

The suffix denotes partly the continuous activity or quality presupposed by the root word, frequently as exaggerated activity in the sense of blame: chival-ry; bigot-ry; ribald-ry; revel-ry; babe-ry; fopp-ery; pedant-ry; deciv-ry; or a condition or station, as: slav-ery; outlaw-ry; english-ry; as the exercise of a business or an art: bart-ery; fish-ery; herald-ry; blazon-ry; poet-ry &c.; frequently too the product of the activity, as poet-ry; drap-ery; tapest-ry; hos-ery; also the place where an activity denoted by the root word is practised, or the object denoted thereby is found in abundance: bak-ery; bark-ery, tanhouse; Nurs-ery; pant-ry (French paneterie); vint-ry; fest-ry; numm-ry; few-ry; finally, collective notions of every sort: infant-ry; caval-ry; peasant-ry; sold-ery; poult-ry; weed-ery = weeds. It is to be observed that many words unite a variety of these meanings.

Substantives with the suffix ence and ance (see below), French the same, Latin ent-ia, ant-ia, have in part assumed collateral forms in ency, any, in part the latter only. Comp. indig-ency (indig-ence); exig-ency (exig-ence); excell-ency (excell-ence); exist-ency (exist-ence); consist-ency (consist-ence); brilli-ancy (brilli-ance); conson-ancy (conson-ance); without the collateral form: oppon-ency; urgen-cy; infan-cy; constan-cy &c.; rarely with a difference of notion, as pend-ence, slopeness; pend-ency, suspense.

With this is connected the termination cy, sy, in use in English, as it were tia, (comp. Latin inertia, ineptia), which readily joins to root words in t, mostly with rejection thereof, and often takes the place of the Latin tio. It appears as a particular suffix, serving to form abstract substantives, wherein cy approaches the suffix ness and sometimes interchanges with it: idio-cy (also idiot-cy Lewes); intima-cy (intimate); intrica-cy (intricate-ness); obstina-cy (obstinate-ness); luna-cy (lunat-ico); degenera-cy (degenerate-ness); secre-cy (secret); conspira-cy (conspiration) &c.; bankrupt-cy. It often serves to denote office and rank: ensign-cy; episcopa-cy; magistra-cy; papacy (Medieval-Latin papas, papatus); prela-cy; chaplain-cy; cura-cy;
cornet-ty; min-strel-sy; sometimes also collectively, as magistra-ty and minstrel-sy. In a concrete meaning we have lega-ty (legatum).

The termination (cy) sy, zy, which has taken the place of the Latin sis, as in exta-cy, commonly eesta-sy; pal-sy (paralysis); fren-zy (phrenesis), is to be distinguished from the former termination.

Of slight extent are the suffixes any, French ain, Latin aneus, and ony, French ogne, oine, to which we may add also mony, French moin, moine, Latin monia, monium: miscell-any; chapell-any; Gascony (Gasc-ogne); imitated: balc-ony; — cere-mony; patri-mony; testi-mony; sancti-mony. Instead of any, ain, aign occur.

Of greater importance are the suffixes ary and ory, not merely in substantives, but in adjectives also.

ary answers to the French aire, ier, Latin arius, a, um and aris, whereas the French suffixes ier and er elsewhere pass into er, ar. Those in ary are of English formation. The substantives belonging here often denote persons, who are active or participators in what is expressed by the stem, and are properly adjectives turned into substantives: incendi-ary; penitenti-ary; not-ary; secret-ary; statu-ary; vision-ary; vot-ary; prebend-ary; dignit-ary. Diverging into ory is mandat-ory, alongside of mandat-ary, likewise invent-ory. A name of a beast is dromed-ary. Names of things also occur, mostly ending in ier in French, wherein English approximates to the Latin form; a few are originally masculine (arius), as Janu-ary; Febru-ary; mostly neuter (arium): mili-ary; electu-ary, Old-English lettuarie; columb-ary (columbier, columbarium); gran-ary (grenier); sal-ary (salaire); chartul-ary (chartulaire).

Adjectives of this form increase in English: necess-ary; prima-ry; tempor-ary; extraordin-ary; heredit-ary; lact-ary; cili-ary; circul-ary; hor-ary &c., see ar.

ory, t-ory, French oire, t-oire, Latin orius, l-orious, a, um, often passes over in English substantives into or, but remains, especially in adjectives, faithful to the form ory. Substantives are: memory; vict-ory; hist-ory; audit-ory; orat-ory; monit-ory; reposit-ory &c. Adjectives, many of which are turned into substantives, are: amatory; obligat-ory; rotat-ory; pulsat-ory; suas-ory; circuml-ory; compensat-ory; compuls-ory &c., derived from participles.

ty, Modern-French té, Old-French tet, te, Old-English tee, te, Latin tat-em, serves to form abstract substantives, mostly with the connecting vowel i, sometimes e, yet also without a vowel: antiqui-ty; maligni-ty; liberali-ty; vani-ty; digni-ty; — pie-ty alongside of pi-ty (Old-French pite); varie-ty; satie-ty; liber-ty; power-ty (Old-French poverte); plen-ty (Old-French plente); proper-ty alongside of propriety; certain-ty &c.

Some assume a concrete, mostly a collective meaning, as universi-ty; lai-ty; ci-ty &c.; gratui-ty (present); even for an individual: deï-ty.

ey, as a substantive, answers partly to the Modern-French é and ée, Latin atus, a, um, partly aie (Old-French, also oie, eie), Lat. eta, partly ie, Latin ia: attorn-ey, Old-French atorne (-atus); nall-ey, Old-French volee; volt-ey; chimm-ey; journ-ey; cow-ey (couvée); medl-ey; (mixture); part-ey (oral treaty); — mon-ey, Old-French moneie; comp.
tourn-ey, Old-French tournois, toernoi; — gall-ey, Old-French galie, ja-laie; Turk-ey, abb-ey (abbatia).

ee, French è, Latin atus, is used in legal expressions of the person who participates passively in an act; to the personal names in ee there commonly stands opposed one in or, er, as that of the active participator: legator — legat-ee; appellor — appell-ee; pawnor — pawn-ee; promisor — promis-ee; bailor — bail-ee; vendor — vend-ee; granter — grant-ee (one to whom a grant is made) &c. Sometimes the personal name is devoid of this passive meaning: refug-ee; ee even seems augmentative: devot-ee; grand-ee.

In names of things too we find ee, mostly equal to the French èe, Latin ata: lev-ee; couch-ee; jamb-ee; yet also collectively of persons: committ-ee, in the passive sense.

We must distinguish herefrom the ee which sometimes occurs for the French e, èe, Latin acus, a, um: jubil-ee (jubilaeus sc. annus), particularly in names: Pharis-ee; Sadduc-ee; Pyren-ees.

ia, Latin ia, which in French passed into ie, was often entirely cast off, whence many forms in English descend, as anguish (angoisse = angustia), envy (envy = invidia), grace (= gratia); Gaul (Gaule = Gallia), Greece (Grèce = Graecia) &c. Yet in modern times proper names of countries in particular have frequently assumed the Latin termination ia, even contrary to the Old-English custom: Ind-ia; Ethiop-ia; Arab-ia; As-ia; Pers-ia; Bactr-ia; which is also transferred to others: Lithuan-ia; Bavar-ia; Dalecarl-ia; Siber-ia; Sard-ia; Caffrar-ia &c.; as the Latin a has also returned in other names: Afric-a; Ameri-ic-a; Louisian-a; Chin-a &c.

o is found as a suffix and in foreign words, as negr-o, volcan-o &c.; ech-o (检疫 = チケ) and the like.

ue, tue is a rare suffix, answering to the French ve, tu, tue: statue, French the same, Latin sta-tua, from sta-tum; vir-tue, French ver-tu, Latin vir-tutem; ra-lue, Ital. val-uta.

Consonantal Derivational Terminations.

1) The nasal and liquid letters m, n, l, r are of particular importance among the Romance derivational consonants.

m, me appears in abstract substantives, like the French me instead of the primitive Greek μᾶ: apophtheg-m; paradig-m; phleg-m; the-me; sche-me; but in part instead of the Latin men (i-men, a-men, u-men): real-m, Old-French real-me, Medieval-Latin regal-i-men; cri-me; vol-u-me; leg-u-me (also leg-u-men). In vict-im it stands for the Latin vict-ima (from vinco); in cost-ume and cust-om for the Latin udinem (consuet-udinem); in ransom, m has come in for n (Old-French raancon = redemptionem).

asm, French asme, in part with an a of the stem before sm, rests upon Greek-Latin asma, asmus: mi-asm; ch-asm; catapl-asm; enthusi-asm; sarc-asm; fant-asm.

ism, French isme, apart from the suffix resting upon the Greek-Latin isma, wherein the vowel is identical with the vowel of the stem, as in prism, schism, is the derivational termination resting upon the Latin-Greek ismus, ισμός, and of extensive use. It is not
only formed of the verbs, as originally, but is also added, as in French, to noun stems. It expresses a bias to the activity signi-
fied by the stem, or an adherence to principles or doctrines, or a totality of principles and doctrines themselves: mechan-
ism; despotism; patriotism; pugilism; Platonism; Judaism; Chris-
tianism; Calvinism; paganism; gentilism; heathenism; often a
blamable bias: mannerism; papism; deism; babyism &c.; to
which egoism, formed from the personal pronoun (French the
same, with egoisme) also belongs. We also denote thereby idio-
matic modes of expression: provincialism; vulgarism; Irishism
&c. From the verbs derived from μαζι, ius (like διπλωμα) and the
forms μαζι, itsiumus arising out of them, forms in icism are derived:
atticism; empiricism; fanaticism; Hibernicism and even witticism.
— Upon the form σεμα rests baptism, Old-French baptisme, -isme,
Modern-French baptême.

n appears in suffixes with vowels before it, which however are
often interchanged in English.
in, ine, French in, ine, Latin inus, also inus, sometimes inem (vrg-
inem), serves to form numerous substantives and adjectives.

Substantives, answering to the termination inus, ina, although
not treated alike in the sound and quantity of the vowel and in
the accent, are partly names of persons, originally mostly of
the masculine gender, as: libertine; pataline; nous (consobrinus,
a); divine; concubine (concubina); to which belong also names
of notions, as: latine; philistine; sabine &c.; and names of
beasts, as: dolphine; sabine (a fish). To these are attached princi-
pal names of things in ina, and imitated forms in French,
both abstract and concrete: ruin; medecine; discipline; doctrine;
seize (saisine); famine; urine; resine; bobbin (bobine); vermine
(VERMINE); javeline (javeline) &c., where we disregard words received
with their French accent. Others are originally neuters, as: intest-
tine, matine (Shakespeare) (matutinum) &c. The scientific names of
materials in in or ine, are imitated, as: ela in; legum in; case in;
butyrine &c. Courtaine has deviated, Old-French courtine; as in
engine, Old-French enging, engen, Latin ingenium, the syllable ine
belongs to the stem.

This suffix sometimes appears as a diminutive, as in fort-in (fort-
let); cab-in, Cymric cab-an, Dimin. from cab; cod-l in alongside of
cod-l ing = small cod.

The suffix in, ine, French ine, Latin ineem, is rare: virgine, Old-
French vergine; or-ig-in.

The adjectives in ine, French in, Latin inus and inus, coincide,
with a partial interchange of the long and the short vowel. The
suffix denotes the appurtenance to the substantive notion con-
tained in the stem, partly according to descent, by which the
above substantives are also explained. To the Latin ine answer:
porcine; bovine; feline; ferine; divine; saline; but also alpine;
murine; feminine; vulpine; corvine; clandestine &c.; to inus, ori-
ginally belonging mostly to names of vegetable and mineral
things: elephantine; coralline; hyacinthine; crystalline (according
to some ine). Imitations mostly end in ine: lacertine; cancrine;

-sacchar-ine; yet or-ine. Mar-ine has deviated into the pronunciation ëen, like some substantives with a French pronunciation. ine seldom answers to a primitive ëenes: songu-ine.

en is a rare Romance suffix of substantives, arising, by divergence, from ain for amen and ain, aine, Latin anus, a, um, in: lean-en, French lev-ain, Latin lev-amen, Old-English leveyne (Gower); mizz-en, Ital. mezz-ana, French mis-aine; doz-en, French douz-aine; it stands for ien (oyen), itanus, in citi-z-en, Old-French citien, citeain, in which ë seems to have arisen from the allied deniz-en, from Cymric dinas, urbs. In ward-en alongside of guard-ian the Old-French gard-ain, -ain has been preserved; mitt-ens, Old-French mitan, has like warr-en, French garenne, Medieval-Latin warena, an obscured suffix.

In adjectives en is found in sudd-en, which fluctuates between the French soud-ain (subitanus) and the Anglosaxon soden; and in ali-en (Latin ali-enus).

ain is likewise a rare suffix for substantives and adjectives. In substantives, which are properly only adjectives used substantively, it stands for the French ain, aine, Latin anus, a, um. Here it certainly mostly yields to the suffix an: vill-ain alongside of vill-an; chapl-ain; capt-ain and chieft-ain, Old-French chevet-aine; fount-ain. This suffix is of doubtful origin in porcel-ain, Ital. porcell-ana; pursl-ain, Ital. likewise porcell-ana, from the Latin porcilaca. Of adjectives we must cite cert-ain, while the Old-French sover-ain, super-anus, has passed into sover-eign; like for-ain into for-eign.

Sometimes this suffix arises from the French aine and agne instead of the Latin ania, anea, partly with a French mute ë: barg-aïn, Old-French barg-aine, -aigne, from the Latin barca?; Sp-ain, French Espagne, Hispania; Brit-ain (Brit-annia); Champ-aïn, Old-French champ-aïgne, Campania.

an, particularly in ian, also in ean is, on the other hand a very familiar suffix.

an answers to the French an, ain, more rarely en, Latin anus, a, um, an adjective termination, frequently turned into substantives, denoting in the most general manner appurtenance to the notion expressed in the substantive stem. Names of persons are here principally considered: artis-an, French the same; veter-an, French the same; mahomet-an, French the same; public-an, French publicain; republic-an, French ain; particularly names of nations: Tusc-an, French Toscan; Americ-an, French -ain; Mexic-an, French -ain; Rom-an, French -ain; Germ-an, French -ain; Troy-an, French Troy-en. The French doy-en appears in the form de-an. Primitive feminines are: courtez-an, French courtis-ane; partis-an, French pertuis-ane; tart-an, Medieval-Latin tareta. Adjectives are of course not wanting; sometimes they have the suffix ane: galli-can, French gallic-an; mahomet-an, French -an; hum-an, French -ain; rom-an; germ-an; pag-an, French pay-en, Latin paganus; elisabeth-an; even elo-an alongside of elf-in, elfish. Forms in ane are: hum-ane, extramund-ane &c.
In Irish names an is a frequent termination: Eg-an, Dor-an, Flanag-an, Skog-an &c.

ian, French mostly ien, Latin ianus, is found chiefly in names of persons, and is particularly used of appurtenance to what the stem expresses according to occupation, station, partnership and fellowship: magic-ian; music-ian; physic-ian; tragi-ian; comed-ian; histor-ian; — patric-ian; plebe-ian; — christian; presbyter-ian; Socin-ian; barbar-ian &c.; also in names of nations: Ion-ian; Ital-ian; Arab-ian; Austr-ian; Pers-ian; Burgund-ian; Syr-ian; Scyth-ian &c. ian seldom stands in names of things: gent-ian, Latin gentiana; fast-ian, French futaine, Ital. fustagno, from the town, Fostat or Fossat (Cairo). Adjectives, from which many names of persons are developed, are frequent: pelag-ian; pretor-ian; Bacon-ian; diluv-ian; campestr-ian; gregar-ian; Gregor-ian &c.

een, French een, developed from Latin aevus (aeanus) and éus, mostly stands in geographical designations and party names used substantively, else adjectively, with a fluctuating accent and pronunciation. Substantives: Europ-ean; Chald-ian; Sub-ian; Manich-ian; Pythagor-ian; Mediterran-ian. Adjectives: marmor-ian; cerul-ian; cerber-ian; Prometh-ian; Hercul-ian; adamant-ian; Aug-ian; Atlant-ian; leth-ian &c.

on, ion is a usual suffix of concrete and abstract substantives, but is divided into two classes, the one referring to the Latin masculine o, io, the other to the feminine io.

on, ion, frequently also in modern words oon, answers to the Latin o, iō (onis), as in: fullo, histrio, leo, papilio, pulmo &c.

It is used of persons who are occupied or affected with what the stem denotes: mas-on, Old-French: mac-on, -un, Medieval-Latin machio; fel-on, Old-French fels, felon; tabell-ion; centur-ian; histr-ian; champ-ian; buff-oon; poltr-oon; sometimes in a blamable sense: glut-oon; simples-oon. A departure is surge-oon, Old-French surgien. It also occurs in names of nations: Brit-oon (Brito); Sax-oon; Gase-oon &c.

The suffix is not seldom applied to beasts (the termination oon does not here occur): mutt-oon; drag-oon (on the other hand dragoon); stall-ions; salm-oon; sturg-oon (French esturgeon, Anglo-Saxon styrja); falc-oon; cap-oon; pigge-oon (pip-io) &c.

In lifeless objects the suffix occurs as commonly: escutche-oon; punche-oon; donge-oon; septentr-ion; pavil-ion (from the Latin papilio); ball-oon; bat-oon; pantal-oon; harp-oon; carr-oon &c.; sometimes with an augmentative meaning: musket-oon; sal-oon; also with collective numbers: mill-oon; bill-oon; tern-oon &c.

The diminutive import of this suffix has mostly disappeared in English; compare minion, French mignon.

ion, t-ION, s-ION, s-ON, French ion, t-ion, s-ion, s-on, c-on, Latin io, iōnis, belonging originally to feminine abstract nouns derived from verbal roots, to which are added a few denominative forms, is numerously represented in English: obliv-ion; rebell-ion; act-ion; orat-ion; lot-ion; expuls-ion; pass-ion; declens-ion; less-ON; reas-ON; treas-ON; ars-ON; advows-ON. Fash-ion (facon) also belongs here.
For *rans-om* see p. 457. *Nat-ion; leg-ion; reg-ion* &c. pass into a concrete meaning.

Suffixes in *l* have all originally a vowel before them. With the peculiarity of their treatment in French the vowel was often cast out, and with it sometimes other suffixed consonants preceding. In English the vowel has also often been lost, so that the suffix appears as a mere *l* with a glib *e* after it. The remaining vowels are also often interchanged. We here give the English suffixes classified according to the vowel preceding and along with each we treat its collateral form in *le*.

*i*, *ile* has hardly been preserved as a substantive suffix. Adjectives used substantively, French *ile*, Latin *ile* are: *utens-il*, French *utens-ile*, *ustens-ilis*, Latin *utens-ilia*; *miss-il* (weapon), Latin *miss-ilis*. *Per-il*, French the same, answers to the Latin *periculum*; *pen-cil*, Latin *pen-icillum*; *sig-il*, else seal, Latin *sig-illum*.

In adjectives, on the other hand, *i*, *ile*, French *il*, *ile*, for the Latin *ilis* and *ilis*, are frequent, commonly with a short *i*: *miss-ilis*; *fiss-ilis*; *fort-ilis*; *flex-ilis*; *frag-ilis*; *duct-ilis*; *sess-ilis*; — *serv-ilis*; *civ-ilis*; *juven-ilis*; host-ilis; but gent-ilis, alongside of gent-eel, gent-le with another meaning; also ex-ilis, Latin exilis. Rejections of the *i*, *i* also occur: *humb-le*, French, the same; *stab-le*, French, the same; — *subl-le* (subtilis). Those in *ilis* properly expressed the passive appropriateness and ability, those in *ilis*, appurtenance and conformity, the former being derived from verbs, the latter from nouns.

*el*, *ele* in substantives takes the place of the French *ele*, *elle*, Lat. *èla*: caut-ele; client-ele; quarrel-ele; Old-French querelle; with an amplified suffix: tu-tel-age; with the *e* cast out: cand-ele, compare Anglosaxon cand-ele.

It often stands for the Old-French *el*, *elle*, Modern-French *eau*, *elle*, Lat. *ellus*, *um*, as in *c-el*, *s-el*, for the French *c-eau*, *c-elle*, *s-eau*, *s-elle*; Lat. *c-ellus*, *um*: *mors-el*, Old-French *mors-elle*, *morc-elle*, Modern-French *morc-eau*; *pomm-eau*, Modern-French *pomm-eau*; *bow-el*, Old-French *bo-el* (botellus), Modern-French *boy-au*; *grav-el*, Old-French *grav-ele*; *chap-el*, French *chapelle*; *bush-el*, Old-French *bois-elle*, Modern-French *bois-eau*, Medieval-Latin *bust-ellus*; *tunn-el*, French *tourn-elle*; — *ves-s-elle*, Old-French *veis-s-elle*, *ves-s-elle* (vas-c-ellum) and *vais-s-elle* fem., Modern-French *vaisseau*, *vaiselle*; *par-c-elle*, French *par-c-elle*; *dam-s-elle*, Old-French *domai-s-elle* (domini-c-ella); with *e* cast out: *cost-le*, Old-French *cast-elle*, Modern-French *château*. While in these forms the primitive diminutive import of the suffix is extinct, it is preserved in the double suffix *er-el* or *r-el*, French *er-eau*, *er-elle*; comp. French *mât-eau*, *band-eau*; *saunter-elle* &c.; *cock-er-el*; *pick-er-el* (name of fish belonging to the pike tribe); with an ethical diminution: *mong-er-el*, also adjectives; *dott-er-el*; dialectically *gang-er-el*, *gang-er-al*, a vagabond (*north*); perhaps too *gang-r-il*; *r-ile*; a toad (*brid*); without any such signification: *suck-r-el*, a sucking foal (*suffolk*); *gamb-r-el*, hindfoot (of a horse).

Sach-el, *satch-elle*, Latin *sacculus*, has been assimilated as a diminutive.

From the last must be distinguished the substantive suffix
el for the French el, elle, al, Latin álís, e: minstr-el, Old-English ministr-al, Old-French menestr-el, Latin ministeri-alis; vow-el, French voy-elle, Latin voc-alis; Old-English host-el alongside of hospit-al, Old-French host-eil, host-eus; jeuf-el, Old-French jo-el, Medieval-Latin joc-ale; chatt-el alongside of catt-le, Old-French chat-el, cat-el, Latin capit-ale; kenn-el and chann-el, French chen-al. The termination al is here more frequent.

The French eil, eille, Latin iculus, a, um and ialis, has sometimes assumed el: appar-el, Old-English par-aillé, Old-French apar-eil (from pariculus); fen-eil, French fen-ouil, Latin foen-icus; marv-el, Old-French meriv-eille, Old-French merv-eille, -oille, -ille, Latin mirab-ilis; yet with the vowel cast out: bott-le, Old-French bouteille, -ille, Medieval-Latin but-icula.

el also stands for the French il, Latin ialis, e: kenn-el, French chen-il, Latin can-ile; barr-el, Modern-French bar-il, Old-French bar-eil, -iel, Ital. bar-ile.

ail, French ail, aille, is a rare suffix (see at): entr-aillas, French entr-ailles, as it were Latin intralia; elsewhere el is also found: trav-el, French trav-ail. In toiv-el, Old-French towail, French touraille, the Old-HighDutch duahila is contained. a is cast out in batt-ile, as it were batt-alia.

In adjectives el is rare: cru-el, French, the same, Lat. crud-élis. al is a frequent suffix of substantives and adjectives with numerous modern formations.

Substantives in al answer to French ones in al, sometimes el, and aille, Latin álís, e; ália (pl.). The suffix is originally adjective, denoting that something is proper, conformable or appurtenant to the notion of the stem. Here belong names of persons: individu-al, comp. French individu-el; meni-al, Old-French meignée, mainly; gener-al; cardin-al &c. (The feminine fem-ale, French fem-elle, Latin fem-ella, does not belong here). Names of beasts rarely: anim-al; names of things frequently, primarily concretes: miner-al; materi-al; tribun-al; journ-al; capit-al; hospit-al &c.; abstracts, as: sign-al; phur-al &c.; ritu-al, French ritu-èl; with these are associated the collectives founded upon the French aille, Latin ãlia (pl.), then also abstract substantives, as: victu-als, French vit-aille, Latin victu-alia; spous-als, French épous-ailles, Latin spons-alia; funer-al, French funer-aïlles, Latin funer-alia. The great number of abstract English substantives in particular seems formed from these, as appears by the Old-English forms: spouisaile, arivaile &c.: espi-al; arriv-al; avow-al; acquitt-al; refus-al; recipio-al; propos-al; buri-al; festivo-al; frisk-al; tri-al; demel-al; dispos-al; cit-al; carous-al &c., which, almost without exception, are derived from verbs.

Adjectives in al (ial), French al, often el (ial, iel), Latin álís (ialis), are uncommonly frequent: équ-al; liter-al; roy-al; rur-al; fat-al; vit-al; — etern-al; natur-al; re-al; — mart-ial; jov-ial; — essent-ial; pestilen-ial &c.

Adjectives with the double suffix ic-al, which are often in use along with those in ic, are also frequent: mag-ic-al; bibl-ic-al; bi-
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ble, French ble, Latin bīlis, e, equivalent in import to the simple bitis, mostly = High Dutch bar, sam (see il); in Latin it was added to vowel stems, or, with the connecting vowel i, to consonantal stems. French added able and ible to noun stems also. The suffix has regularly the form ble, no longer bile, as sometimes the French and the older English, for instance mob-ile (SKELTON), now mov-able. Forms with any other vowel preceding than i and a are rare: fee-ble Old-French flair-ible, foil-ble (fle-bilis); no-ble; igno-ble; dissolu-ble.

able and ible appear as frequent suffixes, the latter whereof prevails, attaching itself especially to Germanic stems: ed-ible; elig-ible; ris-ible; vis-ible; flex-ible; cess-ible; corrod-ible; corros-ible; — malle-able; navig-able; toler-able; commemor-able; commend-able; eat-able; market-able; lose-able; lose-able; begg-able; bear-able; sale-able; know-able. Suffixes with other vowels sometimes pass into ible and able: indel-ible, French indélèble; peace-able, French pais-ible.

The adjective suffix ble, ple, French the same, Latin +plus, -plex; is to be distinguished from this: dou-ble; tre-ble; tri-ple &c.

r is mostly suffixed with a vowel before it, but in some cases it takes as re, like le, the place of a suffix beginning with a vowel.

er and ar are unequally divided between the French suffixes ier, ière, aire, Latin arius, a, um; aris, e, to which ary, cited above, and ier and eer, mostly for names of persons, are also annexed. Some have also deviated into or. Er is often hardly to be distinguished in names of persons from the Germanic suffix er, Old-English ere, the English termination having been given to Romance words also.

Names of persons originally mostly of the masculine gender,
commonly have er where the French gives ier, the Old-French also er: offic-e-er (officier); ush-er, Old-French ussier; messeng-er, messager (messager); marin-er (marinier); prison-er (prisonnier); barb-er (barbier); butch-er (boucher); sorc-er-er (sorcier); strang-er, Old-French estranger, estrangier &c.; instead thereof ar in vie-ar (vicaire); burg-l-ar, Medieval-Latin burglarius, burgarius; burs-ar, Medieval-Lat. bursarius; Tempi-ar (Templier); schol-ar, Old-French escolier = scholaris. or see below. ier, eer in modern words: ar-quebus-ier; brigad-ier; financ ier; caval-ier; gondol-ier &c.; musket-er; mulet-eer; pion-er; volunt-eer; gazett-eer; privat-eer; circuit-eer and other imitations. Many fluctuate between ier and eer, like bucan-ier and buccan-eer &c. Squi-re, Old-Engl. squiere, Old-French esquier, escuier, has re. A few feminine names of persons have been preserved, as laund-er (lavandière); dowa-g-er, Old-French doairiere (wherein g seems developed from i).

Names of beasts in er occur: lim-er (limier); lann-er (lanier); plovr-er (pluvier, comp. the Old-French verb plover).

Names of trees and shrubs in ier, not rare in French, have been scarcely preserved, save in popl-ar (peuplier).

Other names of things, denoting concrete, rarely abstract objects, have been preserved with the suffixes er, ar, ier; they are mostly preferable to forms originally neutral and feminine: ariu, ariq, French ier ière, rarely aîre: larîd-er (lardier); liîter (litière)! riv-er (rivière); gart-er (jarretière, comp. Old-French garret = jarret); gutt-er (gouttière); — mort-er, Old-French morter (mortier, mortarium); pill-er, Old-English piler (pilier, Medieval-Latin pilare and pilarius); cell-ar (cellier); calend-ar (calend-r-ier); coll-er, Old-English coler (HALLIWELL s. v.) (collier, Latin collare); gramm-ar (grammaire); — rap-ier (rapière); pann-ier (panier); barr-ier (barrière); front-ier (frontière). Abstracts are: mann-er (manière, as it were manuaria); pray-er, Old-French proiere; dang-er (as it were damnariairum).

The suffix er moreover takes the place of other suffixes in substantives, as of ière (Latin èria): matt-er (mat-ière); de or, eoire (Latin orium): cens-er (encensoir); mang-er (mangeoire, manuaria); of the infinitive er in: saopp-er (souper). Comp.: Justices of oyer et terminer, ad audiendum et terminandum, and the like.

But the suffix er frequently arises from the insertion of an e between a consonant and r, whether a primitive vowel is thereby restored or not: memb-er (membre); monst-er (monstre); cloist-er, Old-French cloistre; waf-er (gaufré); chart-er, Old-French chartre, chart-arium; ord-er (ordre, ord-in-em); memb-er (nombre, num-er-us); powd-er (poudre, pulv-er-em); cind-er (cendre, cin-er-em); chamb-er (chambre, cam-er-a) &c.

In adjectives we find the derivational termination ar, French aire, ier, Latin aris, since arius usually passes into ary; occasionally this collateral form is found even here: sublun-ar, sublun-ary. Both frequently interchange, even in Latin. Old-English sometimes has er: syngul-er (PIERS PLOUGHIM.); Modern-English singul-ar; regular; pol-ar; popul-ar; famili-ar; vulg-ar; triangul-ar; simil-ar; navicul-ar, with many imitations.
The diminutive suffix aster, French âtre, Latin aster; poet-aster; ole-aster, is rare.

or, our, and t-or, Latin t-or and s-or, Modern-French eur and t-eur, s-eur, occasionally t-re. In Old-French t was often thrown out, so that in the nom. sing. eres, erres in the oblique cases eor, eour appeared instead of ator. In Old-English the suffix often sounded our, which is lost in Modern-English. In imitated forms or is regarded absolutely as a suffix, as in French; words in or have been received immediately from the Latin. This suffix of the Latin supine denotes persons exercising the activity contained in the stem: auth-or; trait-or, Old-French traftres, traitor; ancest-or, Old-French ancestr, anceissor; success-or; predeces-sor; credit-or; ort-or; testat-or; tut-or; govern-or; tail-or, Old-French tailleres, tailleor; gran-tor; conquer-or; appell-or; jur-or; bargain-or &c. The form saviour rests upon the Old-French salvieres, saveor. — Rarely forms of this sort have passed into er, as paint-er, from the French peint-re; or into eer, as engin-eer, Old-French engigneres, engineor, where the nominative is the standard. Conversely, many in er (arius) has passed into or: warri-or, Old-French guerrier, yet also guerreir, guerreir, (like counsell-or, Old-French conseilleres, conseillor, Modern-French conseiller); chancell-or, Old-French chancelier; propri-or, French propriétaire; bachel-or (bachelier, baccalarius). Old-English bachelor &c.; as even Germanic ones: sail-or, Old-English salier; Old-English robb-our, Modern-English robber; Old-English minour, Modern-English miner &c.

or, our, of which our is preferred, except in modern words, although without agreement, Modern-French eur. sometimes our, Latin or, âris, is a suffix originally added to verbal stems, in French also to adjectives and participles, and denoted the activity contained in verbal stems, abstractedly, but especially as a condition or quality: flav-our; vap-our; col-our; clam-our, hon-our; hum-our; often as distinct from hum-our (moisture); splend-our; tum-our; liqu-or &c.; some of which have passed into a concrete meaning. Imitations are demean-our (from demener); behaeviour (from behave).

From this suffix is to be distinguished which sometimes takes the place of the French oir, Latin erium, orium: man-or (manoir, Medieval-Latin manerium); parl-our (parloir); Old-English dort-our (dortoir), in Bacon, dorture; mirr-our (miroir, as it were miratorium); raz-or (rasoir); sciss-ors (imitated). Another derivation is arm-our, Old-French armeur, armure, armatura; vis-or (visière) = vizard.

ior, French ieur, the Latin comparative termination, is found in some adjectives, sometimes also used substantively: infer-iour; exteri-or; sen-iour &c.

ure (t-ure, s-ure), French ure, Latin ura. This suffix of the supine, which denotes the abstract activity, but also its concrete result, was sometimes annexed to verbal stems not belonging to the supine (fig-ura), but was added in French, as ure and ture, to noun stems also. In at-ura Old-French also cast out the t; hence armeure, engendreuse, Old-English engendr-ure. Abstracts, which moreover partly become also concrete, are: nurt-
ure; tort-ure; depart-ure; capt-ure; gest-ure; expos-ure; waft-ure; moist-ure &c.; concrete: apert-ure; nat-ure (also abstract); pict-ure; furnit-ure; vest-ure; garnit-ure; verd-ure; ord-ure &c. Those which have diverged into this form are: leis-ure, Old-English leiser, Old-French loisir, leisir; pleas-ure, Old-French plaisir, pleasir; also treas-ure, Old-French tresor, Old-English tresoure, and Old-English lang-ure (Maundev.) instead of longuor, as, reversely arm-our, instead of armure. Grand-eur retains the French form.

2) Lipsounds are of slight moment; only v (f) needs to be considered.

ice, rarely iff, French if, ive, Latin ivus, a, um, Old-English frequently if, is properly an adjective termination. It denotes the inclination and capacity for the activity signified by the stem, or the condition or quality answering to the notion of the stem, and occurs in forms used substantively, and in adjectives, rarely with the old spelling iff, by which a substantive is sometimes distinguished from an adjective. Comp. plaint iff and plaint-ive. Names of persons used substantively are: native; representat-ive; capt-ive; plaint-iff; caitiff, Old-French caiff; bailiff, also baily, Medieval-Latin ballivus; the name of a beast: rest iff (stubborn horse); various names of things: alternat-ive; mot-ive; narrat-ive; purtag-ive; prerogat-ive; diminut-ive &c. Most still occur as adjectives, along with many others: instruct-ive; extens-ive; abus-ive; act-ive; offens-ive; primit-ive; destruct-ive; comprehens-ive; rest-iff; caitiff &c. Many have passed into y, as in French partly into i: joll-y, Old-English jol-if, Old-French joli, -ive; host-y, Old-English hastif, Old-French, the same. Conversely, the Old-English often has gilt-if, gelt-if, for guilt-y, Anglosaxon gylt-ig. Among the imitations is talk-at-ive, with the insertion of an apparent supine termination in at-un.

3) Of extensive efficiency are the tooth sounds, of which, besides t, d and s, the dental c and g also need consideration,

t primarily stands as the final sound in the two primitive diminutive suffixes et, more rarely ot, French et (at), ot, -e, which, as such, were foreign to the Anglosaxon, invaded English from the French, and have been added even to Anglosaxon stems. Here et has partly taken the place of at and ot. In the diminutive meaning many substantives appear, especially in et: isl-et (ilot): lapp-et; pock-et; frisk-et (frisquette); banner-et; coron-et (inferior crown); cabin-et; circel-et; Names of young beasts: eagl-et (aiglant); marmos-et; lever-et (levrette, from levrier); pork-et; pull-et, along with poult-et; eynet-et; and proper names as originally petnames: Beck-et (little brook); Grav-et (little grove); Wilm-et, also Charlotte; and Ad-cot (little Ade, Adam). At-cot (Arthur); Wilk-kot (William); Hi-ek-et (Henry), wherein c, k, answer to the k in Wil-k-in &c., and which are corrupted into Acock, Wilcock, Hickock. Another diminutive suffix is frequently inserted, especially l, el, as is the case in circl-et (circl-ul-us); leaf-l-et; ring-l-et; fort-l-et; branch-l-et; trout-l-et; stream-l-et; glob-l-et (cup-ell-n).

The diminutive import is frequently lost, as in French: mall-et;
linn-et; lock-et; banqu-et; budg-et; fresh-et (a fresh); helm-et; gorg-et; gaunt-l-et; ball-ot; fagg-ot; gali-ot; chari-ot &c. Modern forms are the terms for materials according to a constituent, (with a base) as sulphur-et. Compare the French anis-et. Occasionally the suffix works disparagingly: flor-et (imperfect flower); gigl-ot (girl of light manners); perhaps also in strump-et.

From this suffix we must discriminate et, Latin ēta, ētes, Greek ητης: com-et, plan-et, and Latin ētum: arbor-et, Latin arborētum = arbustum.

Adjectives of the diminutive form in et are rare: dulo-et; russ-et.

Moreover appears as a noun-suffix, alone or in the combinations ite (ii), ete, ulte, which are referable to the Latin participial forms -tus, itus, itus, ētus, ētus, ētus, and adjective forms formed after them from substantives (cristātus, auritus). Adjectives are frequent: erec-t; extinc-t; rap-t; perfect-t; corrup-t; infin-ite; exquis-ite; defin-ite; oppos-ite; decrep-ite; comple-ite; elev-ate; effe-min-ate; priv-ate; absol-ute; min-ute; destit-ute. Imitations from nouns end especially in ate and ute: labi-ate; lunul-ate; dent-ate; cris-ate; often with the Germanized collateral from ated: labia-ted; dentated; cristated &c.; delic-ate (deliciae) — nas-ute; hirs-ute.

Forms of this sort used substantively mostly answer to the masculine or the neuter gender of the Latin. In names of persons the forms in ate, rarely others appear: intim-ate; advoc-ate; potent-ate, Medieval-Latin potentatus; favour-ite. More frequent are names of things as primitive neuters: insec-t; edic-t; manuscript-t; precep-t; — un-it; — mer-it; cred-it; — mand-ate; duplic-ate; often in modern scientific expressions, as: nitr-ate; sulph-ate; carbon-ate; hydr-ate &c.; — trib-ute; attrib-ute &c.

From these we must distinguish the few words in t, ite, ate, Latin tus, itus, atus, according to the fourth declension: frui-t; falsely formed, ascen-t (ascensus); appet-ite; among which those in ate are particularly to be noted, which are referred to office and station, sometimes also to the domain subject to a dignitary: elector-ate; episcop-ate; magistr-ate; princip-ate; cardinal-ate; consul-ate; celib-ate.

Of the Latin-Greek gentile names in ēta, ela, ata, ota, Greek ἀης, ἀτης, ἀτς, ωτης, those in ite, French ite have been particularly preserved: israel-ite; Shem-ite; Canaan-ite; Stagir-ite; Jacob-ite; carmel-ite; with a shortened i in Jesu-īt. Mineralogy and Chemistry form words, as braun-ite; byssol-ite; dry-ite; sulph-ite; webster-ite; hydrargill-ite &c. as terms for substances. Satell-ite on the other hand rests upon the Latin satell-ītem. Of those in ot idi-ot; patri-ot; Cyprī-ot occur; many have passed into other suffixes. The suffix borders on the meaning of ist in Jacobite; Jesuit.

ent and ant, French ent, ant, Latin ent-em, anti-em, in which however sometimes the original Latin form, sometimes the French form is the standard, are properly participial terminations, which partly occur used substantively, partly as adjectives.

Used substantively they yield names of persons, which are in part of both genders, ent, ant: adher-ent; ag-ent; reg-ent;
presid-ent; stud-ent; cli-ent; — inhabit-ant; mendic-ant; merch-ant; defend-ant; descend-ant; depend-ant (distinguished from the adjective depend-ent); serv-ant; serje-ant &c. In brig-and, according to the French precedent, d appears instead of t; as the name of a beast: serp-ent.

Names of things, partly concrete, partly abstract, point to all three Latin genders, yet most rarely to the feminine: torr-ent; curr-ent (courant); ingredi-ent; astring-ent (medicine); ori-ent; occid-ent; sec-ant; accid-ent; incid-ent; sembl-ant (show, obsolete) &c. Adjectives, some whereof are also to be met with among substantives, are very familiar: innoc-ent; emin-ent; adjac-ent; urg-ent; lat-ent; pati-ent; belliger-ent (belligerant); — eleg-ant; arrog-ant; protuber-ant; brilli-ant; verd-ant; vali-ant; triumph-ant; con-son-ant &c.

In ungu-ent the suffix entum (unguentum) lies at the root.

ment, French ment, Latin mentum, is the frequent substantive termination, which is met with in abstract and concrete substantives, (among them many recent forms) and is added to verbal stems, although in English sometimes apparently to nouns, but whose denominative verbs are at the foundation (case-ment; ship-ment). It denotes the activity or the condition which the verbal notion qualified: imprison-ment; endow-ment; enchant-ment; ease-ment (relief); employ-ment; abate-ment; agree-ment; punish-ment; comport-ment; bereave-ment; bewitch-ment; forebode-ment; fulfilment &c. Concrete objects appear partly as means for effecting the activity contained by the verbal stem: oint-ment; orna-ment; liga-ment; pig-ment; pave-ment; fer-ment; gar-ment (French garne-ment); partly as such as are effected by means of the activity: frag-ment (a piece which has arisen through breaking); seg-ment; filam-ent (spun). In parch-ment a change of termination of the Old-French parchamin, parchemin, Old-English parchemyn, is contained.

lent, French lent, Latin lentus, a, um and lens, is an adjective suffix, whereby the being affected in a high degree with what is contained in the stem is denoted: esce-lent; opu-lent; maci-lent; mucu-lent; lutu-lent; lucu-lent; vio-lent; floru-lent, also floscu-lent (imitated); turbu-lent; sommo-lent &c., which almost all belong to Latin.

ist, French iste, Latin ista, Freek ɪstɪ, is a suffix whereby names of persons are formed. It denotes the person continuously engaged, externally or internally, in what is predicated by the stem. It is therefore applied to persons occupied with an art, science or trade, as: art-ist; latin-ist; pian-ist; pupil-ist; psalmist-ist; botan-ist; flor-ist; copy-ist; tour-ist; mechan-ist; tabacco-n-ist (with n inserted) &c.; likewise to those attached to a party or to definite principles, as: Jansen-ist; monarch-ist: royal-ist; destin-ist; quiet-ist; chart-ist &c.; sometimes with an admixture of censure: egot-ist; exclusion-ist; manner-ist; de-ist; devotion-ist; whence also bigam-ist, provincial-ist; proverbial-ist. The allied suffix iast is rarer: enthus-iast; encom-iast.

d appears in the adjective termination id, French ide, Lat. idus. It denotes that the notion of the stem inures in an object
as a quality in a higher degree or measure. The stem is a verb
and sometimes a noun: intrep-id; insip-id; ac-id; mad-id; morb-id;
langu-id; tur-id; rig-id; putr-id; flacc-id; viv-id; turb-id; splend-id;
cand-id; hisp-id; herb-id &c. Imitations are wanting. Words in
id are sometimes used substantively, as, liqu-id; flu-id.

From this we must distinguish the termination id, which is em-
ployed substantively, yet also adjectively by the language of the
physical sciences, and answers to the Greek ειςίς, Latin ides: al-
kalo-id; chloro-id &c.; also id, French ide, Greek Latin is, idis: Ne-
reid; Αeneid.

ade, seldom ad, French ade, Latin ata, fem., which appears along
with the French éé, under the influence of the Ital. ada, is found
as a suffix, especially in substantives denoting a collective no-
tion: palis-ade; balustr-ade; barric-ade; brig-ade; cavale-ade; cascade;
comoll-ade; similarly in lemon-ade; orange-ade. Abstract
ones are: par-ade; promen-ade; block-ade; seren-ade. It is shortened
into ad in sal-ad.

To the Greek and Latin feminine suffix as, ōdis, French ade, be-
longs ad, rarely ade, in: myri-ad; mon-ad; tri-ad; tetra-ad; deca-
ade. Of masculine names of persons in as, ōdis, nom-ad belongs
here; of the feminine: Nai-ad.

tude, French tude, Latin tudo, commonly with the connecting
vowel i: itude, a suffix added to adjective stems, denotes the ab-
stract quality, seldom passing into the collective notion, as in
multi-tude. Comp.: atti-tude (aptitudo); hippi-tude; lati-tude; longi-
tude; beati-tude; forti-tude! sollici-tude &c.

bund (bond) and cund, French bond, -e, cond, -e, Latin bundus,
a, um; cundus, a, um, two adjective suffixes to verbal stems,
both denoting the being continuously or strongly occupied
with the activity predicated by the verbal stem, are preserved in
a few words: mori-bund; vaga-bond, both also used substantively;
— rubi-cund; fe-cund; fa-cund; jo-cund; vere-cund.

s is often mixed in Romance suffixes of English, as in French,
with the dental c, whence the two sounds are not to be separated
from each other, so far as both rest upon a Latin c and t which
became subsequently dental.

ice, is, answers to the French ice, is, Latin icius, icium and itius,
ium in names of persons and things, yet the form is is al-
most extinct. Names of persons are: nov-ice; apprent-ice, Old-
English prent-is. Concrete names of things from the Latin
icius, -um are extremely rare, as: abat-is, French, the same; tre-
llis, French treillis, Latin trichila; latt-ice, French latt-is; crev-ice
has diverged from crev-asse; prejud-ice is abstract. Those origi-
nally ending in itium are: precip-ice; serv-ice; hosp-ice. Compounds
like edi-fie; ori-fie &c. do not belong here. Exerc-ise has passed
into the feminine form of abstract nouns.

In some words ice, French ice answers to the Latin termination
ex, icis; is, icis: chal-ice, Old-French calice, Anglos. calic; matr-ice,
Latin matricem; pum-ice, Latin pumicem.

ice with the collateral form ise, and is, also ess (es), French ice,
ise, esse, Old-French ece, Latin ûia und ûies, serve originally to
form abstract substantives from adjectives: avar-ice; mal-ice; not-
ique; franch-ice; just-ice; coward-ice, Old-English cowardise, -ie, Old-
French coardise, -ie; obsolete palliard-ice; covet-ice. — warrant-ice
(Shakspeare, see Smart); merchant-ice; Old-English niggard-ice;
— larg-ess, formerly nobl-ess and others; rich-ess. Many have been
abandoned; among other imitated forms are pract-ice; treat-ice. A
feminine name of persons in itia is Lätt-ice (Laetitia).

ass, ace, French as, m.; ace, asse, fem., Latin accus, a, um, forms
substantives, partly denoting variation, or operates augmenta-
tively: embarr-ass (embarras); cutt-ass (coutelas); cuir-ass (cuirasse);
grim-ace, French, the same; popul-ace, French, the same; terr-ace,
French terr-asse.

The suffix is mingled with others: fourn-ace (fournaise, from for-
nax or fornacea?), men-ace, French, the same, Latin minaciae. —
Rarely aey runs parallel to ace: popul-aey. In other words aey is
to be divided a-ey. (See above.)

ese, French ais, ois, Latin ensis, has been preserved in some names
of nations, in part also used adjectively: Malt-ese; Portu-gu-ese;
Chin-ese; Japan-ese &c.

For ess as a feminine suffix see p. 251.

ous and ose, Old-French os, ous, Modern-French eux, more rarely
oux and ose, Latin oösus, a, um, an adjective suffix, added to
substantive stems, and expressing the affection in a high degree
or the being replete with what the stem denotes, is uncommonly
extensive in English, and in modern formations frequently takes
the place of other suffixes, particularly of the Latin us after vowels,
but also after consonants, when the characteristic import of the
suffix is often lost. The form oux is the most frequent: aque-ous;
monstr-ous; nause-ous; lumin-ous; fabul-ous: furi-ous; call-ous; cove-
rous; hide-ous; — mischieve-ous; murder-ous; wondr-ous &c.; — ob-
vi-ous; spuri-ous; errone-ous; corne-ous; conspicu-ous; contigu-ous;
credul-ous; barbar-ous; fulc-ous &c.; scurril-ous (Latin scurrilis);
illustri-ous (illustris) &c. The form ose sometimes interchanges with
ous, as in: varie-ose; aqu-ose; calcul-ose &c., but is frequently the
sole one in use: bellic-ose; verb-ose; rug-ose; joc-ose and others.

ence, ance, French ence, ance, Latin entia, antia, are substan-
tive suffixes in words which have been developed from the ori-
ginal participial terminations ent, ant, and whose collateral forms
in eney, aney are mentioned above at p. 455. They give rise to
abstract nouns, in which the verbal notion receives the meaning of a
continuous quality or of a condition, rarely concrete
substantives. Modern formations prefer ance: indig-ence; inno-
ence; experi-ence; occurr-ence; penit-ence; consequ-ence; conscie-
ce; — ignor-ance; entr-ance; admitt-ance; repent-ance; griec-ance
(Old-
French grevance); forbidd-ance; forbear-ance; hindr-ance; yield-ance
&c. Concrete ones are, for example, rom-ance; subst-ance; ordn-
ance (cannon) &c. — Ence has passed into ene in the substantive
lic-ense.

age, French age, Latin aicum, is a substantive suffix proceeding
from the Latin adjective suffix, which early became very familiar
to French and in Medieval-Latin was rendered by aignum. Sub-
statives with this suffix proceed from the most different parts of speech, are both concrete and abstract, and their suffix expresses in a broad sense appurtenance to the stem.

Concrete objects are: vis-age; carri-age; saus-age (from saucissé); cabb-age, from the Medieval-Latin gabusia, French cabus; there are but few which do not denote a locality, as: vill-age; vicar-age; cott-age; hermit-age; or assume a collective meaning, as cellar-age; lugg-age; bagg-age; fraught-age (Shakespeare); float-age; plum-age; band-age; cord-age &c.; to which we may also refer names of victuals, as: pott-age; supp-age. In person-age, which is referred to the person, it is augmentative. It often denotes the yield of a thing, or the product of an activity: mile-age; lact-age; post-age; full-age; gain-age; keel-age (duty paid for entering port); consul-age &c.

In an abstract sense it denotes partly the activity which its verbal stem expresses, or which is connected by its noun stem: marri-age; langu-age; broker-age; foster-age; voy-age; till-age; carn-age; coin-age; hom-age &c.; or the quality and the condition or station of the stem: cour-age; apprentices-age; peer-age; baron-age; baronet-age; bond-age; whence collectives may be again developed.

In a few names of persons we must go back to oticus, as in: sav-age; host-age (Medieval-Latin hostagius, ostaticus = obsidiaticus).

Adjectives hardly exist, as: sav-age.

In a few substantives this suffix meets the French age, Lat. ago: im-age; cartil-age.

4) Throat-sounds hardly need to be considered in derivation.

ic, French ic, ique, Latin icus, a, um (Greek ικς), is properly an adjective suffix, denoting particularly appurtenance, and runs in Modern-English ic, Old-English ike, where the French presents ique: aul-ic; rust-ic; publ-ic; babylon-ic; fran-ic; celt-ic; bard-ic; fantast-ic; frant-ic; caust-ic; gener-ic &c.; it has also been preserved in the form atic (comp. age): aqu-atic; fan-atic; system-atic; hanse-atic &c. The adjective forms often have the above mentioned collateral form in icol. Joined to substantive forms the termination appears not only in names of persons, as: la-ic; domest-ic; cyn-ic; cathol-ic; asthm-atic; lux-atic &c., answering to the Latin in icus, but also in names of things, which presuppose a neuter icum, as: celt-ic; gael-ic; ton-ic; or which are referable to the feminine ica: arithmet-ic; mus-ic; phys-ic; phys-ic, and other plural terms of sciences, mathem-atices &c.; fabr-ic and others.

ic, French ique, Latin icus, is very rare, as in pud-ic; ant-ique, which belongs here, has preserved the French form, alongside of ant-ic, with a different meaning.

iac, French iaque, Latin iacus (Greek ιακς), a termination nearly allied to the last, is found in a few forms, commonly too in personal terms used substantively: il-iac; man-iac; syr-iac; simon-iac and the like.

esque, French esque, with which the Latin iscus (syriscus) may be compared, is an adjective suffix, transferred from the Italian esco into French, and which at once gives substantive forms and denotes derivation or variation. It has penetrated in some
measure into English: mor-esque; roman-esque; pictur-esque; burlesque; grot-esque &c., and also uses some forms substantively, as burlesque.

2) Derivational Suffixes of the Verb.

The verbal derivation of the Romance constituent of the English tongue attaches itself immediately to the French process, which practised the Latin manner of derivation of words, not merely from primitive, but also from derivative nouns, by means of weak conjugal forms, and with still greater freedom.

In French we find nearly all noun suffixes over again in verbs. English could hardly extend this mode of forming words, with regard to the sort of suffixes, although it has considerably augmented the number of verbs which have thus arisen. Here, where, after the rejection of the Romance inflective terminations of the verb, the pure noun stem remains standing, only a few suffixes of the noun are missed in the verb, among which the substantive and adjective ones in y, as: ty, cy, ity, ency, ency, ery, ary, ory and the less usual ones, as tude and the like, may be especially reckoned, although the language scorns a fixed limit in this respect.

Here therefore only the derivation of verbs from verbs, as well as that from nouns with particular verbal suffixes, has a particular interest as to the formation of words.

A) Verbs derived from verbs.

Latin-formed verbs denoting the persistence or repetition of the activity (intensive and frequentative verbs) from primitives by the suffix t and s of the first conjugation in tare, sare: saltare, prensare. In their formation they lean formally upon the supine and the passive participle agreeing with it. French imitated a multitude of forms of this sort, often with the abandonment of the intensive meaning, in connection with participial forms, and English adopted these and augmented their number. Hence verbs in t, te, ss, se (r, sh in contractions), as: trea-t, French trai-ter, Latin trac-tare; no-te, French no-ter, Latin no-tare; profes-s, French profes-ser; ra-se, era-se, French ra-sar; u-se, ab-use, misu-se, French u-ser, abu-ser; disper-se, French disper-ser; fix, French fixer; push, French pous-ser, Latin pul-sare. English imitations: uni-te; comple-te; promo-te; pollu-te; preven-t; asser-t; combus-t; corrup-t; inflict-t; ac-t; instruct-t; dismis-s; agres-s; posse-s; percus-s; confu-se; elap-se; perple-x and many more.

English goes a step further in this, forming from the supine or participle of the perfect of the first weak conjugation of the Latin a numerous class of verbs, to which neither Latin nor French gave any support. They arise from verbs of every kind, and in them ate appears as a particular verbal suffix, which has even been applied to modern formations (without any presupposed verb): indur-ate; enerv-ate; expatri-ate; migr-ate; navig-ate; renov-ate; perne-ate; procere-ate; decid-ate; castr-ate; captiv-ate &c. — impan-ate; insol-ate; emargin-ate; emascul-ate; edulcor-ate, diplom-ate &c. — Even
French participial forms give verbs: oin-t; poin-t; pain-t; prin-t; fame-t: tain-t; counterfei-t; clo-se &c.

The suffix it gave Latin frequentatives in it-are (ag-itare), some of which were also derived from nouns (periclitari). Verbs of this sort have been preserved in English, as partly in French, but they have at the same time assumed ate: ag-itare; palp-itate; hes-itate; periclitate; facil-itate; debil-itate; mobil-itate &c.

Other suffixes coincide with Anglosaxon ones, as le, French ler, ailler (ulare, aculare), which is contained, for instance, in amb-le (ambler, ambulare); tremb-le; troub-le; scribb-le (écrivailler); or, like the French eter, oter, onner, asser, they are no longer considered as self-standing suffixes in the derivation of verbs.

But here belongs the suffix ish, Old-English ise, ice, ishe, ish, Old-Scottish is, eis, even es, ishe, which has arisen from the French is, Latin isc (esc), but in French rarely appeared in the infinitive of verbs (see below), yet still exists in forms of the verb in ir (fin-iss-ons, fin-iss-aís &c.). In Old-French this suffix was also inserted in other verbs and verbal forms than in Modern-French. Moreover sc with i, e, a appeared even in Latin in verbs derived from nouns. It originally gave to the verb an inchoative meaning, which however was quite disregarded in French. In English ish mostly appears in verbs in which Modern-French still usually employs ills: impover-ish, comp. French appauvrir; embell-ish; establish; abol-ish; accompl-ish; nour-ish; langu-ish; replen-ish (plen-ish), Old-French repleinir; per-ish; pol-ish; pun-ish; burn-ish; bland-ish; brand-ish; fin-ish; furn-ish; van-ish, compare French évainir; tarnish; demol-ish; cer-ish; garn-ish &c. Yet the suffix is also put to other Romance verbal stems, as aston-ish, Old-French estoner, Old-English astonen; publ-ish (publier); vanqu-ish (vaincre); dimin-ish (diminuer); distingu-ish (distinguer), hence also exstingu-ish; admonish, compare Old-French amonester, also Old-English amoneste; and to Latin ones, as: fam-ish (fames); relinqu-ish (relinquere) and the like. In rejoice it has been mutilated, Old-English rejoissee (Piérs Plooughm. p. 324.). Other forms, as angu-ish, Old-French angoisser, from angustia, do not belong here. See also ise at the end.

In French we find esc in acquiescer, whereas an infinitive termination cir has elsewhere been formed from escere, as in noir-cir (nigrescere). In English escer likewise sometimes stands, as in: acquiesce; efferv-esc; intum-esc; efflor-esc; deliqu-esc and other modern verbs.

B) Verbs derived from nouns.

Verbs of this sort sometimes presented the suffixes ic, iq in Latin, which came between the stem and the termination, although the suffix ic already belonged to some nouns from which verbs were derived (comp. fabrica, fabricare). French represented verbs of this sort partly by iquer, igrer, iger, partly by cher, ger, ier, ayer, oyer &c.

English has developed therefrom verbs in icate and igate: commun-icate; met-igate; nav-igate; fun-igate; cast-igate, along with chastise, French châtier, Old-English chastien; and in some verbs has leaned upon abridged French forms, as forge (forger = fabri-
care); jud-ge (juger = judicare); char-ge (charger = caricare). In icare also, French ier, oier, the i, as in other verbs has been preserved as y after the rejection of the termination: carr-y, Old-French carier, charier, caroier &c., comp. marr-y (marier, maritare); var-y (varier); remed-y (remédier); cand-y (candir); accompany (accompagner = accompaniere), see p. 161. In verbs with an ic of the stem, as in those compounded with ficare, -plicare, French -fer, -plier, ý appears: mystify, justify, apply, multiply &c.; a termination, which we see transferred to others in ier, ier, and even er (are): defy (defier, Ital. disfidare, from fides); supply (suppléer = suppliere); occupy (occupier).

ize, and sometimes ise, French iser, Latin issare, also izare (Greek ἵζω) is a frequent derivational termination of denominative verbs. In French it gained a wide extension, appearing in intransitive and transitive verbs, as in English, where it yields many modern forms. In intransitive verbs (which moreover become also in part transitive) the suffix denotes the setting in notion in the sense or in the measure of the person or thing denoted by the stem: epicur-ize; moral-ize; poet-ize; fratern-ize; tempor-ize; — perhaps too the producing or the obtaining of the object, denoted by the stem: dent-ize.

Transitive verbs often have a factitive import: natural-ize; real-ize; fertil-ize; general-ize; civil-ize; human-ize; oazyl-ise; bitumin-ize; pulver-ize; crystall-ize; epitom-ize; substantial-ize; devil-ize (B. Hall.).

The verb also becomes the expression of the activity brought about by the stem, as in: exorc-ise; subsid-ize; cauter-ize.

Lastly verbs of this sort may denote an activity, in which the stem is the mark of the agent: tyrann-ize.

Verbs in ise, are modern collateral forms of those in ish, French ir, as franch-ise, enfranch-ise, affranch-ise, eclaire-ise, although they resemble Old-English ones.

B) Compounding.

Compounding consists in the combination of two words perceptible by themselves, comprehended in a notional and vocal unity under one acute accent. A compound word may enter into another compound, as in: handkerchief, ale-house-keeper, gooseberry-wine, disembark, pocket-handkerchief. Words of this sort are termed Decomposites.

The words comprised under one acute accent form, properly speaking, one verbal body, and should accordingly be represented as such in writing. In English however this happens by no means always or uniformly. While, on the one hand, this union is denoted by the written language, as in: mankind, husband, earthquake, sunset &c., the notional comprehension is, in many compound words, signified by a hyphen, as in: Anglo-Saxon, sea-coast, death-bed, moon-calf &c., or the uniting is left to the reader, as in Byron: Beyond his palace walls. Till summer heats were down. The midnight festival.
Thy birth planet. To some mountain palace &c. The last loose manner of compounding is not distinguished in effect from the others, but is particularly in use where historically propagated combinations of words, already stereotyped, do not occur.

The compound word, as a simple notion, is as capable as other simple words, of yielding derivative forms and of assuming derivational suffixes: gospel, Anglosaxon godspell, evangelium: to gospel, Anglosaxon godspellen, evangelizare; harbour, Anglosaxon hereberge: to harbour; Anglosaxon herebrigian; harbourer; harbourage; knight-errant; knight-errantry; ramify; ramification. Derivatives of this sort are termed Parasynttheta.

We distinguish genuine and spurious compounding as to form. By the genuine we frequently understand the combination of two words, originally effected by means of a connecting vowel not being a mark of inflection, or, at least the union effected by the prefixing of an uninflected stem before the determined word. We term those compounds spurious, which consist only of the union of parts of speech related syntactically to each other, and betraying such a relation by their form (comp.: respublica; agricultura; English holy-writ; Tuesday, Anglosaxon Tives dag). The compounding with particles has been placed here.

The connecting vowel is found in Latin (art-i-fex; trem-e-facio), in Gothic (mat-i-balgs, meat, bag, travellers bag; figgr-a-gulp, finger-gold, ring; bropr-u-lubo, Brotherly love), in Old-Highdutch (chind-i-spli, spil-o-man). Yet in Latin, as well as in Gothic, the prefixing of the first element of the compound in the fundamental form without a connecting vowel is not unfamiliar. The connecting vowel had become completely foreign to Old-French, save in forms transplanted immediately from the Latin, and seldom remained in Anglosaxon. English knows the connecting vowel only in imported Romance forms and a few imitations of the Latin (anglo-saxon, burgo-master, Medieval-Latin burgimagister), and perhaps in the amplified Anglosaxon niptegale, näctegale, nightingale. For handicraft and similar forms see p. 179.

Along with these, combinations of words related to each other syntactically have from the earliest times coalesced into a vocal whole in the living speech, as well as into one verbal body in the written language, and have therefore been regarded by the feeling of the tongue as equally warranted with other fusions of words.

We have therefore, in considering genuine compounding, to look not so much at the form, as at the substance and meaning. What is essential is that with the verbal whole combined into a vocal unity one particular image is connected. In this respect we may consider compounding as the abridged expression of the developed representation of the relation of given images. We cannot deny that the compounding of substantives may often be transmuted into an inflective relation. The genitive relation especially approaches that of compounding. Comp. Anglosaxon îsgicel and îses gicel = icicle. Moreover the original sense of a compound is sometimes obscured (comp. moon-calf), as the variety of meaning in compounds often hardens the explanation of them.
The primitive manner of compounding has frequently been effaced in English. Combined words, standing in a syntactical relation to one another, as was disclosed by their form, have lost the inflective termination in English, appearing therefore to be genuine compounds as to their form. If we still perceive them in such words as Anglesey, Anglosaxon Anglesèg; Ramsay, Anglosaxon Rammèsèg; Thursday, Anglosaxon punres däg; alderliefest and the like, they still vanish almost entirely where no genitive s has been preserved, which appears in many modern combinations particularly in names of beasts, plants, and the like, and is made manifest by an apostrophe (day's-work; death's-man = hangman; swine's-cress; dog's-rue; wolf's-milk), or is subjoined without it (coxcomb = cock's comb; daysman = umpire; birds-nest). This s does indeed appear where, as in Highdutch, it has the character of a connecting consonant, sometimes in contradiction with the older form: doomsday, Anglosaxon dömåg; bondsman, Anglosaxon bonda, socius, Old-norse bondamann, foederatus (distinguished from bondman, though interchanging with it); herdsman formerly herdman, Anglosaxon hirde, pastor; steersman, Anglosaxon steörmann, Old-English steresman; helmsman, Anglosaxon helma, helma, gubernaculum; huntsman, Anglosaxon hanta, venator; Scotsman; craftsman, Anglosaxon cräfta, artifex, and others. But in general the language inclines, even in improper compounding, to the mere juxtaposition of verbal stems, although it often fluctuates, as in crow-toe and bear's-foot, two analogous names of plants.

From this genitive s the s (es) of the plural is to be distinguished, which is found in a few modern compounds, as is decidedly the case in clothes-brush, clothes-basket, and not only occurs in bellowfish, news-boy, in which certainly the plural s has penetrated into the singular, but also takes place in beads-man, beads-woman and the like. It is limited to a few notions taken collectively.

Compounding supposes Bipartiteness. To be felt as a compound there must make two syllables at least, in which two verbal bodies are distinguished. They are distinguished as the determining and the fundamental word, of which the determining word, in genuine composition, (apart from the compounding of particles) as a rule has the chief accent, although the rule suffers many exceptions in English. Even the second constituent does not regularly remain unaccented. Where this happens the compounding passes into the form of derivation, and we might therefore reckon such forms as dom, hood, ship, ly, some &c. in part among derivational suffixes. If a compound is monosyllabic, like lord, Anglos. hláfveard, hláford; world, Anglosaxon veorold, world, from vêr, veor, vir, the consciousness of its living meaning vanishes; this happens to many bisyllabic and polysyllabic forms, in which a verbal body is mutilated and loses the accent: window, Old-norse vindauga; lady, Anglosaxon hlæfdige = hláfveardige; gospel, Anglosaxon godspell; stirrup, Anglosaxon stigeråp; sheriff, Anglosaxon sciregerêfa; daisy, Anglosaxon dàges éäge; twinter (a beast two years old).

Many compounds not only become recognisable, but even die out. English has abandoned many of them; on the other hand the impulse to compound has ever remained alive in the tongue and con-
It is indifferent for compounding whether the words are simple or derivative; likewise whether they are of Germanic or of Romance origin. The principle of English compounding is the Germanic, to which compounds of purely Romance elements conform. Imitations of a few Romance forms will be cited in their place. Old-French compounds, the number whereof was limited, have been received in a small number in English. Many of them were originally Germanic Compare hauberk and habergeon, Old-French hauberec, hauberonj, Anglosaxon healsbeorh; gonfalon, gonfanon, Old-French gonfanon &c., Anglosaxon guðfona = gunðfona.

In the discussion of the details we draw no sharp distinction between proper and improper compounding, so far as the living tongue gives no definite support to it, and both often pass into each other, and a few spurious, for example, appositional compounds are not to be aptly separated from genuine ones, for the sake of a general view. We consider in the first place the compounding of the noun and the verb, apart from their combination with particles, then the compounding of both with particles. The formation and compounding of particles has been already noticed in the doctrine of particles.

I) The Compounding of Nouns.

The Compound Substantive.

A compound substantive arises either through the union of two substantives, or of an adjective and a substantive, or of a verb and a substantive.

a) Compounding from two substantives.

1) Compound substantives may in the first place stand in a direct relation to each other, or be apprehended as appearing in the same case.

Here the relation of both may be a purely additional one. Here belongs the substantive deaf-mute; barber-surgeon; merchant-tailor (PASQUIN'S Night Cap. 1612.); wolf-dog (bred between a dog and a wolf); This senior-junior; giant-dwarf, Dan Cupid (SHAKSP. Love's L. L.). The shepherd kings (L. BYRON). Old-English werwolf, Anglosaxon vervulf, lycanthropus. Comp. zoophyte, gynander, hermaphrodite. Here belong too northeast, northwest and the like, Anglosaxon norðvest &c.as an adjective, also the French nord-est.

From these are to be distinguished appositional relations. The joining on of the apparently appositive generic name to the specific name is common: woman, Anglosaxon vifman, comp. the Highdutch Frauensmench, husbandman (Anglosaxon húsbonda, domus magister); fisherman (without the opposition); reindeer, reindeer, along with rane, Anglosaxon hrándear, along with hrán; humble-bee, Danish humble; palm-tree along with palm, Anglosaxon palmtreó and palm; beech-tree; cornel-tree, along with cornel, Anglosaxon corntréó; and often with trees, as the Anglosaxon áctréó, áceám, elmtréó, ulmtréó, pintreó, cirisbéam &c. — although the tree is here and there named after the fruit: plum-tree, Anglosaxon plúmntréó from plúme, prunum (yet whether not also for prunus? comp. ἑῖκ-τρέε,
Anglosaxon fictréó from fig, fruit and tree; nut-tree, Anglosaxon hnutbeám &c.; — reed-grass, Anglosaxon hreód, arundo; pebble-stone along with pebble, Anglosaxon papolstán and pabol; pumice-stone, French pierre-ponce; roadway; pathway. Here too we may reckon: eventide, Anglosaxon æfentíd; noontide, Anglosaxon nòntíd, for which also noonday stands, although here genitive relations might be found. In but-end (comp. butt) no pleonasm takes place, as in the Anglosaxon plümfèder = pluma, and in hap-hazard, waist-coat. Another apposition makes the more general precede the more particular notion: lord-lieutenant; earl-marshial; knight-bachelor; queen-dowager; queen-mother; beet-rave; beet-ravish; French betterave. Of French origin also is ostrich, French autruche, avis struthio. Here, however, we must distinguish appositions in which the preceding substantive appears completely turned into an adjective: fellow-member; fellow-prisoner; fellow-creature; deputy-marshial; deputy-sheriff.

Sometimes the former or the latter substantive solely serves to determine the natural gender of the other: man-servant; man-midwife; bondman; bondmaid; beggar-man; beggar-woman; beggar-maid; washer-woman; peacock; peahen &c.

As in the union of given and family names, the former is related to the latter as the particular to the general, the original relation of the compounding of given names with generic names must be also regarded. Here, as in other appositive relations, the English accent fluctuates: Tomboy (rude boy); Tomfool (great fool; Tomtit Magpie, Maggotpie; Jackdaw. Here also belongs hobgoblin, (perhaps Robert Goblin), comp. Gobelyn (PIERS PLOUGHIM. p. 386.), Medieval-Latin gobelinus; also hobhoulard and hob-thrush, to which Robin Goodfellow is commonly opposed.

Another relation is that in which a preceding concrete substantive determines a second concrete one by way of comparison, according to its quality. This is like the other, resembles it: blockhead; kingbird (an American bird, thus named from its pugnacity); needle-fish; horse-emmet; ear-shell; crab-louse; bell-flower; buckwheat, Danish boghvede (from the likeness of the grain to beech-mast); garlic, Anglosaxon gärleáë, from gär, hasta (properly spear lack); gold-fish, also called golden-fish; goldfinch, Anglosaxon goldfínc; gold-hammer, Lowdutch goldâmer, goldâmel, emberiza citrinella LIN.; silver-fish; silver-jer; copper-nose &c. The determining word may be even taken figuratively, as in headman = chief (properly a man like the head), Anglosaxon heáfodmann; headland, promontorium, Anglosaxon heáfudland. Comp. head lady and chief woman (SHAKSPEARE Love's L. L. 4, 1.). The primitive abstract term main, vis, robur, which is regarded also as an adjective, operates similarly in the statement of the quality, as a variety thereof: main-land; main-mast; main-sail &c., comp. Anglosaxon mägenstán, permagnus lapis.

2) Further they may stand in an indirect relation to each other.

a) In this case the former, the determining word may be regarded as a case of the substantive.

Very often it may be taken as a genitive, and spurious com-
pounds of a genitive with a second substantive frequently lie at the root of words belonging here. Of this sort, for instance, are names of days, some of which have still preserved an s: Monday, Anglosaxon mônandæg; Friday, Anglosaxon frigedæg; Saturday, Anglosaxon Sæternes dæg, yet also Sæterndæg, Sæterdæg; Sunday, Anglosaxon sunnandæg; many proper names; Rochester, Anglosaxon Hròfesceastre; Oxford, Anglosaxon Oxenaford; Buckingham, Anglosaxon Bugglingahám; Birmingham, Anglosaxon Beormingahám &c.; as the sign of the genitive is still cast out in modern names before son: Adamson; Richardson; Wrightson; Cookson &c.; Anson; Nelson (Nel=Eleanor) &c. Of course all with the sign of the genitive preserved belong here. But many others are readily explained by a genitive, the wide use of which in many tongues would allow a multitude of cases to be referred hither: landmark, Anglosaxon landmearc, terrae limes; sea-shore; shipboard; earthquake, terrae motus, as in Gower: terre mote; sunrise and sunrising; sunset, sunsetting, Anglosaxon sunset, solis occasus; folkmote, Anglosaxon folcmôt, populii concio; gospel, Anglosaxon godspell, dei sermo; bridegroom, Anglosaxon brydgium, nuptae (custos) vir &c. Of Romance origin are: solstice, French the same, Latin solstitium; oriflamme, oriflam, Old-French oriflame, oriflam (auri flamma); aqueduct &c.

A succeeding genitive is found in French forms, as: court-baron = a baron’s court. Compare propernames like: Fitz-Walter; Fitz-Gerald; Viscount Fitz Harris. Henry the second called himself Fitz-Empress.

It may frequently be apprehended as pointing to an original objective relation to a verb, therefore as an accusative. This is particularly the case when the fundamental word is derived from a transitive verb: innholder; innkeeper; man-killer, Anglosaxon mancvellere; man-slayer, Anglosaxon mansлага; needlemaker; land-owner; blood-letter, Anglosaxon blodlætere; wine-bibber; cheese-monger; cup-bearer; gold-finder; and many other names of persons in er. Thus we may imagine wright to be effective in: shipwright, cartwright &c., Anglosaxon vænyrhta. This apprehension likewise takes place before abstract substantives: oath-breaking, comp. Anglosaxon âðsvaring; man-stealing; bloodshedding and bloodshed; thank-offering; deer-stealing and many others in ing; manslaughter, comp. Anglosaxon mansleah; promise-breach, comp. Anglosaxon brâc and brice, breicing, fractio. Romance forms of this sort, founded on Latin and Greek precedents, are also naturalized, in part received immediately from the ancient tongues, and even imitated, as: armiger; dapifer; parricide; infanticide; homicide; artifice; stillicide; sanguisuge; geometer; geographer; geography, cosmography; zoographe &c. Lieutenant is French (locum tenens), originally a spurious compound.

β) Far more frequent is the compounding of the sort that the relation of the compounded substantives is explainable by the intervention of prepositions. But with the manifoldness and freedom of compounding such a procedure does not always suffice to express the often remote connection of the members of the relation.
A division of compound substantives by their relations, as to be explained by different prepositions, serves more to render visible the manifoldness of the compounds than the possibility of reducing to fixed points of view the mental bond of the compounding and the boldness of the language in suppressing intermediate images. A division must also be defective, since for many compounds more than one of the links may be considered as operating.

a) The relation of the compound substantives may be one of space.

Here the determining word may denote the local object, in, on, upon, near &c. which the subject (person, beast or thing) denoted by the fundamental word is to be found or is active: landman, Anglosaxon landmann (indigena, agricola); countryman (born in the same country); country-gentleman (resident in the country); ship-boy (serving in a ship); rope-dancer (who walks on a rope); field-mouse; water-rat; sea-bear; sea-fish, Anglosaxon sælsæc: earth-worm; grasshopper, Anglos. grashoppa, gärstapa; mountain-ash; water-lily; mountain-rain; Anglosaxon cyricc, Indigena, agricola; Anglosaxon heafodece, &c. In such words too as sea-farer; landlouper (loper); clodhopper, Lowdutch Klutenpadder; hedge-creeper; fieldfare, the moving about within the determinate space is what occupies the attention. Even Romance words come to be considered here, as: funambulist, aeronaut &c.

But on the other hand the determining word may contain the object from or out of which, or towards and to which the object contained in the fundamental word moves: eye-drop; land-breeze (blowing from the land); sea-air (from the sea); thunder-bolt; stem-leaf (growing from the stem); ground-oak (raised from the acorn); — warfare; church-goer; side-glance, quite as much to the side as from the side.

b) Or it is a relation of time:

The determining word may then denote the space of time in which the object denoted by the fundamental word appears or acts: evening-star (visible in the evening), Anglosaxon æfensteorra; morning-star, Anglosaxon morgensteorra; day-labour; day-work; daylight, Anglosaxon dägleóht; nightingale, Anglosaxon nihtegale, properly nightsinger; night-raven, Anglosaxon niht-ræfn; night-rest, Anglosaxon nihtræst; night-brawler. Yet the temporal relations are often looser, as in: night-hauck (hunting its prey toward evening); winter-apple (that keeps well in winter) &c. Romance: noctambuliste, French noctambule.

Or the determining word may denote the time for or up to which the appearance or activity of an object extends: life-annuity (during a person's life); day-fly (that lives one day only).

c) The numerous other relations of compound substantives are not to be readily distinguished from one another.
The idea frequently lies at the root that the object contained in the fundamental word is connected with the other, and thus characterized by it: bell-wether (with a bell on his neck); finger-post (with a finger); flag-ship; stone-fruit; stone-horse (not castrated); shell-fish; thunder-storm; whirlwind; Old-horse hvirf-vinds (as turbo-ventus); lime-twig (smeared with lime), grass-plot (covered with grass). Sometimes the object which is filled with another is denoted: earth-bag (filled with earth); featherbed &c.

By the determining word is also denoted the object with which a person is conversant, or in which he works or carries on business: goldsmith, Anglosaxon goldsmið; iron-smith; wine-merchant; stock-broker; stock-jobber; sword-player; ale-wife; oil-man (who deals in oils); ploughman; whaleman (employed in the whale-fishery); flax-wench (Shaksp.).

The determining word further contains the mean or tool with or by which the object, or the activity predicated by the fundamental word is produced: handwork, Anglosaxon handveorc (done by the hands); handiwork, Anglosaxon handgeveorc; hand-writing; hand-blow; footstep; fist-cuffs; sword-fight; ear-witness; birth-right (to which a person is entitled by birth).

The material of which an object consists or out of which it is made is not seldom denoted by the determining word: icicle, Anglosaxon ígícicel; ice-isle, oat-meal; flint-glass (originally made of pulverized flints); stone-wall, Anglosaxon stánveall; stone-house; steel-pen; gold-wire; gold-thread; birch-broom (made of birch); rail-way; where the object out of and from which something is gained or arises appears as the fundamental word: oil-gas (procured from oil); birch-wine; beech-oil; grape-wine &c.

Frequently the connecting idea is that of the design, of appropriateness, of the destination to or for that which the determining word contains. The fundamental word may denote a person: pearl-diver (who dives for pearls); prize-fighter; thus also we may take neatherd, Anglosaxon neáthirde; shepherd, Anglosaxon sceðhirde (employed in guarding sheep) and the like; or it denotes a beast: coach-horse; game-cock. But names of things of every sort are very common. Here belong localities: orchard, Anglosaxon ortgeard (vyrtgeard); vineyard, Anglosaxon vingeard; bee-garden (place for bee-hives); bedroom; warehouse; landing-place; footway; foot-bridge (for foot-passengers); key-hole (for receiving the key); especially names for receivers: ale-vat, Anglosaxon ealofát; inkhorn; money-box; pepper-box; beehive; bird-cage; wine-cask; wine-glass; clothes-basket; articles of clothing, armour &c.; ear-cap; breast-plate; head-piece; head-dress; horse-cloth (to cover a horse); utensils and implements; eye-glass; ear-trumpet; foot-board; finger-board; foot-stool; foot-shakles; hand-fetter; pen-knife; horse-chip; bird-bolt (for shooting birds); hearth-broom (for sweeping the hearth); toothbrush; stonebow (for shooting stones); clothes-line (for drying clothes); silk-bow (for manufacturing silk); cotton-machine &c.; in fine, objects of every sort to which the idea of appropriateness

Mätzner,engl.Gr.I. 31
or destination to anything is applicable: *life-blood* (necessary to life); *eye-salve*, Anglosaxon *eagseal* (for the eye); *fire-wood* (for fuel); *bird-time*; *gun-powder*; when the reference is often not proximate, as in *ice-boat* (used to break a passage through ice); *hour-hand* (for showing the hour on a chronometer) and the like.

Sometimes the determining word indicates the condition in which or the circumstance under which an object appears or acts: *rainbow*, Anglosaxon *rênboga*; *sleep-walker*, and Romance *somnambulist*, French somnambule. An abstract determining word may thus seem to receive the character of an adjective: *rear-mouse*, Anglosaxon *hrêremûs* (agitatio? and mus).

Familiar compounds of this class often present such general or remote references that they bear eloquent testimony to the assurance with which the tongue commits a series of ideas, in the closest compression, to the most general understanding. Compare for instance *homesickness*, the pain excited by removal from home or by the often unconscious longing for it; *godfather, godmother; godchild; godson; goddaughter*, even Anglosaxon god-fäder, godmôder, godbearn, names for the persons lifting and being lifted out of baptism, in which the name of God refers, indefinitely to the holy act and the reference made thereby to the Supreme being. Every-day names for business relations, without more, hardly give an intimation of their meaning; and who could recognise in *fire-office* the office where objects are insured for the case of risk from fire? Occasionally the license of compounds proceeds stepwise visibly further. Thus, for instance, we readily recognise in *game-cock* the cock used for fighting; thence is developed a *game-egg* in the second degree, wherein, by help of the former we perceive the *egg* from which a game cock is hatched.

In fact substantives connected by prepositions become expressions for an object. Here belong *man-of-war*, whence the new compound *man-of-war-bird* = frigate-bird; *father-in-law; brother-in-law &c.; love-in-idleness; will-o’the-wisp, Will-with-the-wisp* (wisp =); also *Jack-a-lantern; Jack-of-all-trades* (clever at any business); *Jack-a-lent*, a simpleton (properly a doll in lent). *John-a-dreams*. The giving of names, as in the last examples, is not unfamiliar to the popular fancy.

b) Compounding from an adjective and a substantive.

Here the two parts of speech stand in general in the compound substantive only in the direct relation to each other. The number of compounds of this sort is very large: *ill-will; evil-eye; oldwife*, comp. Anglosaxon *ealdacven = matrona; mid-day, Anglosaxon mid-däg; mid-winter, Anglosaxon mid-vinter; *neighbour*, Anglosaxon *neah-bür; red-coat*, figuratively, a soldier; *broad-ax, Anglosaxon brádeax; blindnettle*, Anglosaxon *blindnetel; blindworm*, comp. Highdutch *Blindschleiche*; *blackberry*, Anglosaxon *bläckerige; blackthorn; black-smith; blue-stocking; freeman, Anglosaxon *frîmann, freômann; free-mason* (franc-macon); *freestone; wild-goose; small-pox; small-beer; sweetmeat*, Anglosaxon *svétmete; quick-beam* and, strikingly, *quicken-
tree, Anglosaxon cvicbeām, juniperus, and cvictrēo, tremulus; quick-silver, Anglosaxon cvicseolfer; quick-grass and quick-grass; good-man; good-friday; gray-hound and greyhound, Anglosaxon greghund, greghund; highland; highway; half-penny, Anglosaxon halfpenning; half-brother; half-wit (blockhead); half-scholar, compare Old-norse hálfrōdir, hálfviti, mente captus; holy-day, Anglosaxon hálidgāg; commonwealth; common-sense. Half and wholly Romance forms are: gentleman, French gentilhomme; grandam; grandfather; grand-seignior; grisonomer (reversing the French collocation of the words); ver-juice, French verjus = vert jus.

Romance words have also been received with an adjective after them: republic, French république; rosemary, mutilated from rosma-rinus, French romarin; vinegar, French vinaigre, imitated in alegar = sour ale; portcullis, Old-French porte colise, also substantive coîce (coulisse), from the adjet. coulis; bankrupt, French banqueroute. A hybrid imitation is knight-errant.

The combination is often to be met with in proper names, as in names of places: Newport; Newcastle; Newlands; Leominster (Leófmynster); Longmeadow; Longwood; Smalridge; Gloucester (Gleáveastræ, splendidium castrum); and names of persons: Broundespear; Strongbow; Longespee; Fortescue (strongshield) &c.

An indirect relation seldom takes place between substantive and substantive. This is the case in merry-making and merrymake (festival), where an objective relation hovers before the mind's-eye. A direct relation is also not to be assumed in self-murder; self-murderer, Anglosaxon sylfmyrđa, sélsventa and sélsvana; self-abhorrence; self-applause; self-charity; self-esteem; comp. Anglosaxon sēlf-licung, unless self is to be reduced to the meaning of remaining in self (si-liba according to Grimm).

In falling-sickness, according to the Prompt. Parvul. falling down, we must not seek the substantive falling, but the participial form. Comp. falland-evyl (HALLIWELL).

c) Compounding of Verb and substantive.

Here two sorts of compounding are to be distinguished.

1) The first sort comprises those words in which the verb, as the determining word, contains an activity for which the object contained in the fundamental word is adapted, designed or determining, whether it practise the activity itself or it is executed by another. Here belong: hangman; neesewort; rattle-snake; pismire; brimstone, Swedish bernsten, Old-English byrnston (SKEL-TON), also brendstone (HALLIWELL); draw-bridge; tread-mill; bake-house, Anglosaxon bāchūs (yet there is also a substantive bāc); wash-tub; wash-stand, Anglosaxon vāschūs, vāsca(n) (there is certainly also the substantive vāsc); hvettstone, Anglosaxon hvettstān. Many words which might be referred hither remain doubtful, the determining word being also to be interpreted as a substantive, as: drink-money; work-day; show-bread &c. English in compounding generally prefers, the abstract substantives in ing: eating-house; burning-glass; wedding-day; writing-book, Anglos. vritbōc; writing-school &c.

2) A second sort of compound substantives arises from the prefixing
of a verb, to which a following substantive commonly stands as its object in a relation of dependency. The verb is perhaps always to be regarded as imperative; the compound frequently denotes persons, but things also. The bias, or the aptness and destination of a person or thing to anything is expressed of by an imperative sentence in the form of a summons thereto, in which derision is sometimes mingled. Anglosaxon offered no support here; the Romance tongue was rich in forms of this sort. Many Romance compounds have also passed into English, which multiplied similar forms.

Among the names of persons of this sort are also proper names: Brakespear, Drinkwater; Shakespeare; Shakespeare (Shakespeare); mumblenews (tale-bearer); lack-brain; lack-love (Shaksp.); pinch-penny (miser); pickthank; pick-pocket; find-fault (carviller); want-wit; turnkey; telltale; toss-pot (drunkard); spendthrift; smell-feast (parasite); smell-smock ("mulierarius" Nomenclator 1585); carry-tale (tale-bearer) (Shakespeare); cut-purse; cut-throat; kill-courtesy, a clown (Shakespeare); chaff-wax (officer of the lord chancellor, who fits the wax for sealing writs) &c. Even Chaucer has letsgame (hinderer of pleasure); trede-foule (cock, treader of hens).

Names of things are also often of Romance origin: breakfast, comp. Anglosaxon fastenbryce; breakwater (mole); catchpenny; — kerchief, Old-French cuevre-chief; curfew, Old-French cuevre-feu; portmanteau. In pastime, French passe-temps, time may be regarded as a vocative.

Allied to the above mentioned forms are compounds arising from sentences of various sorts, especially imperative sentences, which grow into one whole and become representatives of a notion. To be taken imperatively are: pissabed, French pisse-en-lit, dandelion; runaway, also runagate (the latter whereof also mingles with renegade); slugabed; also turnsole, wherein the preposition is absent, as in the French tournesol, Ital. tornasole; further farewell; holdback; holdfast; chanticleer, Old-French chantecler; go-between; come-off; go-by = evasion; hangby (a dependent); Dobble, Standfast as proper names; forget-me-not; kiss-me-quick; kiss-me-at-the-garden-gate; touch-me-not; thorough-go-nimble, thin bur (Dial. of Crav. 2. 201.), also provincially, a flux. Much more of this sort is in use in the lower layers of society and in dialects. Thus the Old-English poet formed imperative proper names: Sire Sewel, and Sey-wel, And Here-wel the hende, Sire Werch-well-with-thyn-hand, A wight man of strength (Piets Ploughman); similar are such proper names as: GODLOVEMILADY, Goodbehere, in which the conjunctive conditions an optative sentence. Assertive sentences with the indicative are rare, as in the sportsman's: hunts-up (res-veil or morning-song Cotgrave) = the hunt is up; love-lies-bleeding. Also jeofail, the law term for an oversight (the Old-French I err) belongs to this series.

Elliptic manners of expression (without the verb) seldom serve to denote persons or things. Here belongs, for instance, penny-a-
linen, by which is contemptuously designated the literary man who writes for public papers at a penny the line.

The Compound Adjective.

The compound adjective consists either of two adjectives or of a substantive and an adjective. The compounding of a verb with an adjective is hardly regarded.

a) Compounding of two adjectives.

1) The one adjective may here stand in a direct relation to the other. This is the case if the compound denotes two qualities additionally, the one of which does not appear as determining the other, but as equally entitled or perhaps mixed with it. Here also Romance forms with the connecting vowel o occur: oblong-ovate (Botanical); concavo-concave; concavo-convex; red-short (breaking short when red-hot); white-brown; bitter-sweet (as a substantive, the name of a plant); anglo-saxon. Examples of this sort are not frequent; for in compounds like anglo-american; anglo-danish; anglo-norman the first element, as the more particularly determining, commonly preponderates. Here however may be referred numerals in the additional relation, as thirteen, fourteen &c., twenty-two &c.

Far more commonly the first adjective operates as a determining word of the second: manifold, Anglosaxon manegfeald; red-hot; red-mad (quite mad [Durham Dial.] imitations of the preceding; half-red; roman-catholic; full-hot; dead-ripe (completely ripe HALLIWELL s. v.); daring-hardy (as else fool-hardy, Old-French fol hardi; fool-bold, wherein fool may likewise be regarded as an adjective), lukewarm, Cymric lug, Cornish lug, stifling. Here also may be reckoned the adjectives compounded with all (al), although in them the Anglosaxon particle al is primarily to be presumed, but which even in Anglosaxon is interchanged with the adjective eal, omnis, totus, in Anglosaxon: almighty, Anglosaxon almeahtig; all-eloquent; all-present; all-powerful; all-wise &c. Comp. omnipotent.

Yet from these we must distinguish the cases in which all appears as an object: all-bearing = omniparous; all-making = omnific; to which magnific, vivific, grandific, grandiloquent attach themselves as Romance and Latin forms.

Apart from the compounds of adjectives with ly and some, like loyly; weakly; cleanly; goodly &c.; longsome; wearisome; wholesome; gladsome &c.; in dialects even threesome = treble &c. we find most frequently adjectives compounded with the participles, with which the adjective sometimes receives wholly the character of the adverb: new-made; new-born; long-spun; fresh-blown; full-fed; dearly loved; dead-drunk; dead-struck; dear-bought; high-born; high-finished; high-grown; hard-gotten &c.; fresh-looking; long-stretching; deep-musing; high-flying; hard-working &c. Comp. multivagant, altiloquent and other Latinized forms.

2) In an indirect relation stand compound adjectives the second of which is derived from a substantive, which must be originally thought in a direct relation with the first, although the existence
of a compound with the substantive does not follow from it. Compare the Latin tardipes, from tardus pes. In a few cases certainly compound substantives subsist along with derivative adjectives of this sort: even-hand — even-handed; hot-spur — hot-spurred; red-coat — red-coated. Latin forms of this sort passed into French, and are also to be met with in English, even in imitative forms, as magnanimous; multiform; multinodate; multilocular; longiveous; longimanous; longirostral &c. Numerous English forms give to the derived adjective the form of a participle of the perfect, although this often does not exist in Anglosaxon: Anglosaxon olan-heort (clean-hearted); ânhende (onehanded); glæsenedeg (glasseyed); yet participial forms also occur: âneged (luscus) along with âneâge; âneged (one-eyed) along with ânecege &c. Comp. old-fashioned; open-hearted; mild-spirited; narrow-minded; long-legged; long-fanged; loud-voiced (L. Byron); red-haired; blunt-witted; full-eyed; full-winged; wide-branched; deep-coulted; dark-eyed; sure-footed; high-minded; hard-fisted; hot-blooded; hot-brained &c. Numeral adjectives especially are thus compounded: one-eyed; two-handed; two-seeded; three-edged; three-leaved; three-cornered; four-footed Anglosaxon feorferête; comp. quadruped; seven-hilled &c. This is likewise not rare in Anglosaxon: ânhyrned; pribeddod; prîfly rhed (trisulcus); priheafâd; ânhyrned &c. A few English compounds preserve the Anglosaxon form without the participle form, as barefoot, alongside of barefooted, Anglosaxon bârfôt. As an imitation of such forms, of the same sound as substantives, may be regarded: Three-foot-stool Shakspeare; Three-man-beetle (iv.); whereas the apparently adjective use of substantives, as in half-blood, is founded upon the license of loose composition in English.

b) Compounding of a substantive and an adjective.

1) We may regard a substantive and adjective as standing in a direct relation, when their being placed together rests upon a comparison of the quality expressed by the adjective with a characteristic quality of the object denoted by the substantive. Compare blood-red, that is, red as blood is red, Anglosaxon blòdread; blood-warm; blood-hot; armgauht (Shakspeare); armgret (Chaucer); milk-white, Anglosaxon meolchvit; mut-brown; sea-green; snail-slow (Shakspeare); snow-white, Anglosaxon snâhvit; stone-cold; stone-dead; stone-blind; stone-still; key-cold; coal-black; clay-cold; grass-green, Anglosaxon grásgrêne; heaven-bright, Anglosaxon heofonbeorht; honey-suede (Chaucer); hell-hated (Shaksp.); arm-shaped; pencil-shaped; cone-shaped &c. This compounding is extended to adjectives in the form of the participle of the perfect, derived from substantives, and in which the comparison touches the object expressed by the substantive lying at their root: oar-footed, that is, having feet like an oar; cock-headed; coal-eyed; li'ly-livered = white livered, cowardly (Shaksp.) &c. With these may be compared remnants of Romance forms like verumform.

Occasionally the comparison does not go to the characteristic quality of an object generally, but to its constitution, so far as the aforesaid quality belongs to it: maidpale (Shaksp.), not: pale
like a girl; but: like a pale girl; dog-mad, mad as a mad dog: dog-weary; dog-sick.

From such compounds are developed those in which the middle links are more remote, so that even the consciousness of an original comparison recedes, and the substantive preceding the adjective is often felt only as a strengthening of the adjective, and is interchanged with others which no longer have any reference to it. Compare sand-blind, halfblind (as if sand glistened before the eyes, hence in the North of England sanded), whence the strengthening in Shakspeare: high-gravel-blind (Merch. of V. 2, 2.); moon-eyed, that is with eyes change like the moon (with the change of the moon) are affected like the moon; span-new (even in Chaucer), that is Anglos. spon = splinter, perhaps with the meaning of nail, hence also compounded with spick = spike, spick-and-span-new, piping hot (HUDIRI), that is, new like a nail just coming from the fire, agreeing with fire-new, new, as if coming from the fire (growing), for which also brand-new and bran-new (perhaps assimilated to span-new) is used. Hence the combinations: span-fire-new; brand-fire-new; bran-span-new; brand-spander-new and the like, in the mouth of the people. Belly-naked (which also formerly stood in Chaucer 9200, where Wright has al aloone body naked) = entirely naked; comp. starke bely-naked . as naked as my nyale (ACOLASUS 1540.) with which Fiedler compares mother-naked, seems to go to the nakedness of the child as it comes from the womb. In purblind, poreblind, for which strangely spurblind (LATIMER) also occurs, no substantive is to be sought for: pur, pore is naught else than the adjective adverb pure: Me scolde pulte oute hope hys eye & make hym pur blynd (ROB. OF GLOUCESTER II. 376.). Thus we find in the same author purwyt (pure white); pur fersse (pure fresh); pure clene and others. Compare also plat-blind (HALLIWELL s. v.). Moreover in the provinzial starnaked (SUFFOLK) star is not substantive; it stands for starknaked, as starkgiddy (LANC.), starksstarling (VAR. DIAL.).

2) A substantive and an adjective frequently stand in the indirect relation.

a) The substantive may in several cases be apprehended analogously to a case dependent on the adjective; as, a genitive in those compounded with full (for the most part) and less and in some others, as those with weary, worthy, guilty; life-weary; blood-worthy; blood-guilty and the like; as a dative in composition with by and like: deathlike; godlike; snow-like &c. In Romance compounds a substantive appears not rarely as an accusative before a verbal adjective, as in ignivomous; armigerous; oviparous; mammiferous; morbific; morbifical; pacific; fatiferous; fatidical; carnivorous, and others. In English forms a participle of the present in ing appears with its object preceding it. Comp. earth-shaking; mindfilling; life-giving; love-darting; death-boding; soul-stirring; heartpiercing; heart-rending and many more, in which only the collocation of the words departs from the common syntactical combination of the verb with an object.

β) Some substantives compounded with genuine adjectives are
to be explained by means of connecting prepositions. They are to be reduced in part to relations of space, so far as the quality makes its appearance in, on or upon an object, or tends up to an object: bedrid, Old-English bedrede, Anglosaxon bedrida, -ridda, -rëdda, properly a substantive, participially, by a misunderstanding, bedridden; steadfast, Anglosaxon stedfăst (fast in place); Armstrong, as a proper name, Anglosaxon earnstrang (bracchio validus); headstrong, figuratively; heart-sick (sick at heart), Anglosaxon heartseoc; soul-sick; heart-deep (rooted in the heart); brimful, full to the brim; topful, the same, hence figuratively top-proud (SHAKSP.); breast-deep; breast-high, that is, to the breast; knee-deep; threadbare, that is, bare to the thread. Other references are not frequent, as that of the cause: love-sick, sick from love; sea-sick, sick from the sea. In arme-puissant (WEBSTER) the idea of the cause is likewise approximate. That of an inclination or bias to something lies in the dialectical, particularly Scottish compounding with rife, as: playrife, comp. playful, playsome; wast-rife, squandering; toothrife, enjoyable, comp. toothful, palatable; rife is Anglosaxon rif, frequens, Old-norse rir, largus, Lowdutch riwe, which is also used for "readily resolved, not shy at anything". In watertight, we may suppose the idea of tightness against water. Latin had similar forms, which, scantily native to French, were still more scantily copied; they have not been lost in English: armipotent; armisonoous; noctivagous; noctilucous; caprigenous &c. English is however most rich in compounds of this sort of a substantive and a participle, in which the reference to space, time, connection and causality is expressed, and which poetry particularly multiplies: air-built (in the air); forest-born (in a wild) (SHAKSP.); heart-hardened; soul-felt; earth-wandering (over the earth); sea-roving; sea-faring; night-blooming; night-shining; birth-strangled (suffocated in being born) (SHAKSP.); air-born (of the air); earth-born alongside of terrigenous; ale-fed (with ale); moss-clad; dew-besprinkled; sea-girt; snow-crowned; copper-fastened; angel-peopled; fool-begged (begged by a fool, foolish); wind-dried; dew-bent; sea-tossed; sea-torn; thunder-blasted; wind-fallen; book-learned; death-doomed (to death) &c.

c) Compounding of a verb and an adjective.

This sort of compounding, foreign to French, less limited in Germanic tongues, as in the Highdutch compounds with bar, haft, lich &c., is almost wholly unknown to English. A verbal stem is sometimes found here before the termination som, as in: tiresome; buxom (from beógan, bügan); in forgetful, and perhaps a few more. Through the sameness in sound of these verbs with substantives the decision is, moreover, sometimes doubtful here, as in toilsome, the dialectical feelless and others.

2) The Compounding of the Verb.

a) Compounding of two verbs.

No verb is compounded with another verb in Anglosaxon; Latin offers compounds of verbal stems with facere and fieri, as calefacere
&c., besides *valedicere*. French has adopted some such verbs, even imitated them; forms of this sort with the French form in *fy* (fier) have passed into English: *arefy*; *liquefy*; *stupify*; *calify.*

b) Compounding of a substantive and a verb.

The formation of verbs of a noun and a verb is in general foreign to the older Germanic tongues, most forms which might appear to be such being parasyntetha, therefore verbal forms from an already compound noun. Primitive compounds are especially those with the substantive *mis*, Anglosaxon *miss*, *mis*, *mist*, which indeed even in Anglosaxon was only employed as a particle in compounding, and in English coincides in form and meaning with the Old-French particle *mès*, Modern-French *més*, *mè*, Latin minus: *miswrite*, Anglosaxon *miswritan*; *misteach*, Anglosaxon *mistecan*; *misdo*, Anglosaxon *misdôn*; *mistrink*, comp. Anglosaxon *mispyncæan*; *mishear*, Anglosaxon *míshyran*; *misbehave*; *misbelieve*; *misgieve* &c.; *miscounsel*, Old-French *mesconseiller*; *misestem*, French *méstestimere*; *misjudge*; *misgovern* &c. English hardly has any others, resting upon older Germanic tongues, at whose root no visible compound lies; *handfast*, Anglosaxon handfástan (in *manum tradere*); *handsel*, Anglosaxon handsellan (subst. *handselen*, Bosw., Old-English *handsal*); *ransack*, Old-norse *ransaka* (explorare; subst. *ransak*, from *ranni*, *domus*, but also *ran*, *spolium* and *saka*, *arguer*; *nocere*, comp. Higdhutch *heimsuchen*).

English forms are: *mothere* (to eat as a moth eats a garment); *landdann* (to condemn to quit the land); *landlock* (to encompass by land); *ringlead*; *partake* (a hybrid form from *part* *take*); *backbite* (to censure the absent); in *backside* (to fall of) *back* seems to operate as a particle; *bloodlet*; *browbeat* (to depress by severe looks); *waylay* (to beset by the way); *kilndry* (to dry in a kiln); *catwralling*, comp. Old-English catwralling (to cry as cats in rutting time); *keelhale*; *cleftgraft* (to ingraft by inserting the cion in a cleft); *hoodwink* (to blind by covering the eyes), from Anglosaxon *hôd*, pileus and *vijnan*, *conivere*. *Hamstring*, is derived from *hamstring*; *spurgall*, to gall with the spur, has also a substantive of the same sound alongside of it (comp. Old-norse *gallí*, *naevus*) and seems a derivative verb, like to *gall* alongside of the substantive *gall*. Romance forms, which attached themselves to Latin ones, have likewise been received, partly imitated, particularly those in which the substantive may be taken in the accusative: *belligerate* (belligerare); *edify* (aedificare, French *édifier*); *modify*; *mortify* (mortificare, mortem facere); *pacific*; *signify*; *versify*; *tergiversate*; *duncify*; *fishify* (jocosely); *ignify*; *rapidify*; *munnify*; *salify*; *songify* &c. Verbs too, in which the substantive could not answer to an accusative, have been received according to the Romance pattern: *manumit* (manumittere); *crucify* (cruci figere); *maintain* (maintenir = *manu* tenere).

c) Compounding of an adjective and a verb.

Of this sort of composition the same was true in Anglosaxon, with the exception of the adjectives *éfén* (Engl. *even*), *ful*, *sam*, as has been observed of substantives. Of them only *fulfill*, Angl. *fulfill*, is remaining; besides a few modern forms, as *finedraw*;
finestill, to distil (WEBSTER); dumfound (to strike dumb); newfangle is derived from the Old-English adjective newfangel, greedy of innovation (comp. Anglosaxon fengel = susceptor); and newmodel reminds us of the subst. model with the adj. new, like as white-wash and dry-nurse are to be derived from the substantives of the same sound, In soothsay, which leans upon the Anglosaxon sóðsagol, sóðsprecande and the like, sooth may be taken either as an adjective or a substantive. Romance forms of this sort after the Latin pattern are mostly compounded with fy: magnify; mollify; falsify; fortify; vivify; ratify; dulcify; also with pronouns: identify; qualify; rarely others, as vīpend. The agglutination of the verb with an adjective after it is peculiar in vouchsafe, in Old-English mostly written distinctly vouchen safe (vouche saf MAUNDEV. p. 148. the king vouches it save [LANGTOFT 260.], vouche ye hur safe (Ms. in HALLIWELL from vouchen) that is Old-French vocier, vocier and saf, sauf, vocare salvum. Along therewith was formerly found the hybrid combination: witsafe (Anglosaxon vitan, imputare): That God witsafe to saue them fro damnation (THE PARDONER p. 117.).

How far participles can appear with a noun before them, has been before pointed out. In this respect the language has ruled much more freely, the verbal nature of the participles blending with that of the adjective.

There is a number of apparent or real compounds, in which a misunderstanding or a disfigurement of the fundamental forms prevails. Roundelay, French rondelet, has been occasioned by the Romance virelai; Old-English Synggyng of lewde balettes, rondelettes or virolais (Ms. in HALLIWELL from virolai); beaf-eater (a yeoman of the guard) must have arisen from the Old-French buffet = buffetier (on account of their being appointed at the buffet); fartingale, the hoop of a frock, rhymes with nightingale, and has been deformed from the Old-French vertugale, vertugadin: furbelow (apparently fur-below), is the ItaL, falbara, also farfala, farubala. Peter-see-me, a Malaga wine, is the corrupted Pedro-Ximenes; as zinc wares in Lincolnshire and Nottingham bear the name (tutenag), the corrupted name of the metal tooth-and-egg; sparrow-grass arose from asparagus, in Fletcher: sperage; causeway alongside of causey is an apparent compound instead of the Old-French cauchie, chauchie, Modern-French chaussée; crayfish and crabfish with crab stand under the influence of the Old-French escrevisse, Modern-French écrevisse and the like. Other for us are puzzling, as balderdash, with which haberdasher, is nearly allied, since in Old-English haberdash likewise denoted a jumble of things: An hole armory of suche haburdashe (SKELTON I. 267.). In the North of England the schoolmaster is also called haberdasher. Two analogous forms are tatterdemalion, tatterdemallion (tatter, perhaps = Old-French maillon = maillot), and stubberdegullion, a filthy fellow (stubber, and gullish, or guilty), in which de seems to be the French particle. Pedigree, which some would explain by pes and graduos, others by par degrés, has an older form petygrew (PALSGRAVE) which confutes those explanations. Even scabbard, seems a compound; in Old-English it is: scawberk; scawberk, perhaps Scheiden-berge, compare Old-norse scaft, scalprum, and hauberk, Old-French hauberec and haubert, Hals-berge. A greater number of obscure compounds has been incidentally treated of in the Phonetics. Others, in which a play with rhyme, alliteration and alternation of sounds takes place have been discussed at p. 431.
3) The compounding of the Verb and of Nouns with Particles.

With this sort of Compounds, prepositions, or particles nearly allied to prepositions, together with a few others, come chiefly under review. There are on the one hand primitively Anglosaxon; on the other, Romance particles. Both have entered into hybrid combinations and agree with one another here and there in form. The Romance compounding has however been preserved to a wider extent than the Germanic, many compounds with Anglosaxon particles having been wholly or partly abandoned.

a) Compounding with Anglosaxon particles.

We discriminate inseparable particles, occurring only in combination with and before verbs and nouns, and separable ones, which also occur in syntactical combination outside of these. Anglosaxon formed numerous compounds of both sorts; English has gradually abandoned them more and more, yet also employed many particles in various new forms.

1) Inseparable Particles.

a, Old-Highdutch ur, ar, er, ir, Gothic us (ur-r), Angl. a, and in Angl. not to be always distinguished from the a standing for an, on, and of, and Modern-Highdutch er, has been getting more and more rare in English. It still stands in a few verbs, partly with the meaning of direction upwards, as if up out of something: arise (arisan); arouse (arásjan); awake (avácan); awaken (avacjan, yet also onvacjan); partly of a continuous, also successful activity: affright (afyrhtan); or of an inchoate activity: alight (alíhtan). — Many are obsolete, as: abare (ábárjan); aby (abycgan); ashame (áscamjan), the participle from which, ashamed, is still particularly in use; agrise (ágrísan, horrere); asteke (ásteacjan). The old tongue had many more, as: ablenden (áblendan); avereken (ávércan); aferen (áfären, terrere); aquellen (ácvellan): aguiten (ágyltan) &c. In nouns it is hardly found save in parasyntheta: affright, Anglosaxon afyrhto.

an, a, un, Gothic and, Old-Saxon ant, Modern-Highdutch ent, in Anglosaxon rarely and, often on, answering to the Old-Highdutch ant and and, is found, as and, only in the substantive answer (andsvara) and the derivative verb answer (andsvarjan). The and interchanging with on and a, appears as an Engl. a in: abide (abidan), also and-, an-, onbidan); as well as in the obsolete acknow and acknowledge (onnávan, Old-Saxon antkennjan) and in the participle adread (andraden, ondredan), Old-English adrenchen (ádrenchan, ondrenchan). But the Anglosaxon on in the privative sense, belonging here, early passed into the English un. The reason lies in Anglosaxon forms, in which un appears along with on &c., without any essential distinction: unbind (onbindan, ondbindan, but also unbindan); ungear (ongearvjan); undo (ondn); unlock (onlúcian and onlúcan); unwind (onvindan), retexere alongside of onvindan, solvere; untie (ontygan and untygean); unyoke
The number of verbs, compounded with this privative un, answering to the Romance dis, is very great; it is also readily annexed to Romance forms: unarm; unparadise; unbias; unbutton; unfix; unsaint; unchain; uncage; unharness; unhumanize &c.

un, Anglosaxon un, Old-norse ó, Modern-Highdutch un, not only in the sense of the Romance dis but also of in, belonged, even in Anglosaxon, less to verbs than to substantives, and particularly to adjectives. In verbs the forms with un are hard to distinguish from those with a primitive on; see an. The number of substantives compounded with an Anglosaxon un very much meted away: un-truth (unteòvd), and is contained in hardly any Germanic imitations: unfriend; unfriendship; unrest; unbelief; unhap; as in para-syntheta: unanswerableness; uncouthness; uncleanness &c.; also com-pounded with Romance substantives: unacquaintance; unrepentance; unreserve; unconcern &c.

But the number of adjectives and particles compounded with un is uncommonly large: uneeen (unēfen); unwise (unvis); unright (un-riht); unfair (unfāger); unouth (uncūf); unclean (uncleane); un-earthly; unbearable; unseenly; unhandsome &c.; unending; unебbing; unabiding; unbeing; unedifying; unaccording; undeclinging &c.; un-abetted (unābētt = ābēted); unbroken (ungebrocen); unwrinkled; un-told; unexhausted; unacted; unlimited; undated &c. Nouns often alternate between un and the Romance in (see in); we find a solitary case of this in most remarkably in Anglosaxon: incūf, ignorans, incūdílice, ignoranter.

be, Anglosaxon bê, bi, biq, Old-English be, bi, Gothic bi, Old-Highdutch pi, in Modern-English in verbs and in the form be, except in the parasyntethon by-name; on the other hand in use sometimes in nouns in the separable form by, answers, as an inseparable prefix, to the Highdutch be. It affords a pretty good number of compound verbs, although many Anglosaxon compounds have been lost. The particle gives essentially, as it seems, especially to the transitive verb, the import of the activity working in the immediate proximity, therefore comprehending and comprising the object and extending beyond it: bemoan (bemēnan); belie (bèleōgan); belay (bèleecgan); befoul (befylan); beweep (bevēpan); bethink (bepencan); beseech (bīsēcan); besmear (bēsmērjan); bespeak (bēspērcan); bestre (bestrīdān); bestre (bestrīkan); begīrd (begyr-dan); beget (begētān); begnaw (begnagnan); behave (behhabban); behold (behealdan) &c.; bemaze; benumb; bewail; bewilder; bedash &c. Even Romance verbs receive the particle: bemask; bepinch; bepaint; bepounder; bepurple; betray; besiege &c. Many verbs of this sort are formed from nouns, although simple derivative verbs often stand alongside of them: bewinter (to make like winter, on the other hand, winter = to pass the winter); bedevil (abuse, on the other hand devil = to make devilish); benight; betroth; beleper (to infect with leprosy); besnuff (to befoul with snuff, not from the verb to snuff); bele (to place on the lee) &c. On the other hand befriend, bewitch, behoney, bespot, bestain and many more, have simple verbs alongside of them. Expressions like belittle (to make smaller), beguilty (to render guilty) are not naturalized in England.
The privative import of the verb behead (beheadian) also belongs to the simple head, as well as to the Anglosaxon heafdan, decollare.

In intransitive verbs the import of the particle recedes more: become (becumman); belong; behappen, although most of the intransitives are also at the same time transitive, as: betide; beseeem and others.

be is seldom united with the substantive: belief (leafa); behest behaes); behalf; behoof (behóf); but the accented by often; by-word (bivord); by-spell (bi-, bigspell) with various later formations in the meaning of the collateral, deviating and private: by-interest; by-end; by-matter; by-name; by-passage; by-path; by-blow; by-speech; by-street; but also by-stander as spectator. In proper names: Bywater; Bytheway; Bythesea &c. by works as a preposition. Adjectives in be are formed from participial forms: bemused; beloved; befogged; betutored; begild; begored &c.; whose remaining verbal forms do not occur, although we sometimes find their infinitives cited in dictionaries.

for, Anglosaxon for, answering to the Gothic faur, fair and fra, Old-English for, vor, ver (Rob. of Gloucester), Modern-Highdutch ver, precisely distinguished from fore, yet sometimes confounded with it, belongs especially to verbs and their parasyntetha.

A great number of compounds with for has been gradually abandoned. The essential import of the particle, that of forth, away, off, appears in: forbid (forbódan); forbear (forběran); fordo (fordón); forsake (forsacan); forswear (forsverjan); forgive (fogifan); forget (forgētan); participle forlorn. The older tongue has forfend, fordrive, forsay (forseccan = forbid) and others. The idea of deviation, as if of a perversion of the activity lies in the Old-English forshape (transform); forthink (repent); that of out beyond and past lies in forego (fargangan, praeterire, distinct from forego, foregangan = to go before), and the old forpass (go by). The idea of going on in doing to the end, of finishing, which goes on to annihilation, has been quite abandoned in Modern-English: Old-English forb eaten (beat down); forbiten (bite to pieces); forfreeten; forwasten; often in participial forms: forwept; fordrowned; forpined; fordronken &c.; also as fore: forespent (Shakespeare); foreshame; foreslow; in which the particle often works only strengtheningly.

In forelay, also forlay (to block up the road) the particle fore = before is perhaps to be sought; comp. forestall, Old-English also forstallen (hinder &c.). Parasyntethic nouns are: forbiddance; forbearance; forbearer; forgiveness; forgetful &c.

The particle ge, Mod.-Higd. ge, here and there appearing in participles as y, has been abandoned: ycelad &c., Old-English also in nouns, as: ywis; ylike &c.; Modern-English as e in enough. Instead of ylike we find in Modern-English alike, as akin (allied by nature) answers to the Anglosaxon gecyne, congruus. To, Anglosaxon tó, Modern-Higdutch zér, has also disappeared in Modern-English. Old English still often used it in the meaning of the Latin dis: tobreken (tobrécan); tobresten (tóbérstan); tocleven (tócélófan); torenden; todrauen; toswiknen; toluggen (tear); toshullen (cut off); tohewen; and in Skelton: toragged and torente I, 43.
2) **Separable Particles.**

_in_, Anglosaxon _in_, with the meaning of the Latin _in_ and _intra_, has been preserved in a few Anglosaxon verbs and nouns, as in: _indrench_ (indrengcan); _inland_ (inland = terra dominica); _income_ (compare incviman, intrare); _infangthef_ (infangen þef); _invit_ (invit). How far extended the Germanic _in_, not assimilating its _n_ before other sounds, is to be assumed to be cannot be properly determined, since it blends with Romance forms. Thus _in_ comes before Germanic words: _inlock_; _inbathe_; _inbreathe_; _infold_; _inwall_; _inweave_; _insnare_; _inhold_ &c.; _inroad_; _inlet_; _instep_ &c.; yet it yields to Romance forms: _enlighten_ (Anglosaxon onlyhttan); _enfetter_; _engird_; _embolden_; _embolden_; _embolden_; _embolden_; _embolden_.

_after_, Anglosaxon _after_, _post_, is no longer found in verbs, as in Anglosaxon, but only in a few nouns, in the sense of succession in time: _aftermath_; _afternoon_; _afterages_; _afterpiece_; _afterbirth_; _aftertaste_; _afterthought_; _aftercrop_.

_on_, Anglosaxon _on_ (au), Old-Highdutch _ana_, Modern-Highdutch _an_, is frequent in verbs and nouns in Anglosaxon, but only to be met with in English in a few _nouns_: _onset_ (comp. _onsettan_, _an-settan_); _onsetting_; _onslaught_ (comp. _onslag_); _onstead_ (single farm-house) might belong to one; _onward_. Formerly the verb _onset_ also was found; _onbraid_ (= upbraid, _PALSgrave_). _Onstand_ is dialectical (North.), a money compensation from the outgoing to the ingoing tenant; _onfall_ and the like.

_off_, Anglos. _of_ (af, òf), Old-norse _af_, Modern-Highdutch _ab_, is in use in only a few _nouns_: _offspring_ (ofspring), _suboles_; _offset_; _offal_ = off-fal, Old-norse _afskum_ (also regarded as an adjective = vile); _offscouring_ (without a corresponding verb), _refuse_; in _off horse_ (most distant) _off_ is regarded as an adjective. _Offset_, as a verb, is not the Anglosaxon _ofsettan_, but a parasyntheton of _offset_ in the meaning of counterreckon- 

_over_, Anglosaxon _ofer_, Old-Highdutch _uber_, Modern-Highdutch _über_, is common in Anglosaxon in verb and noun compounds, and is frequently employed in English in composition with Romance stems. It has the sense of _over in space_, with regard to an activity passing above an object. Verbs: _overflow_ (oferflóvan); _overgild_ (ofergildan); _overspread_; _oversnow_; _overcloud_; _overarch_; _overveil_; here belong also _overglance_ and the like; in the meaning of the movement passing over: _overclimb_ (oferdlimban); _overleap_ (oferhleāpan); _overreach_ = to extend beyond; _overfly_; _overshoot_; _overship_ &c., therefore also of the movement going from above downwards: _overset_ (diverging from _ofersettan_, supra ponere); _overthrow_; _overturn_. _Nouns_: _overleather_; _overstory_; _overfall_ (cataract) &c.; _overbuilt_; _overgrassed_ &c. In regard to time the sense of _beyond_ lies in _overlive_ (oferlibban) = outcome; _overdate_

The meaning of _overstepping_ a relative or absolute measure is frequent. _Verbs_: _overpoise_; _overweigh_; _overbalance_; _overtop_; _overeat_ (oferétan); _overdrink_ (oferdrinkan); _overween_ (ofervénan); _oerdo_ (oferdón); _overdrive_ (oferdrifan); _overagitiate_; _overrate_; _overfreight_; _overjoy_; _overcharge_ &c. _Nouns_: _overlight_ (immoderately
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light); overhaste; overcare; overjoy &c.; overfull (oferfull); overeager; overlong; overmodest; overneat; overwise; overelegant; overpassionate; overzealous &c.

To that is attached the meaning of superiority, which may appear as an outstripping, surpassing, and as overpowering.

Verbs: overget (yet Anglosaxon ofergetan, obliviisci); overreach (of horses); overgo = surpass; overmatch; overcome (ofercuman, super- are); overrace; overbear; overpower; overrule; overpersuade &c.

The going over a thing has also the sense of negligence and superficial doing: overlook; overpass; oversee; overslip; as the activity going over a thing may sometimes have the sense of a quicker doing in a succession: overread; overname. Over may also work merely strengtheningly: overstand (oferstandan, in-sistere).

The coming over to may further have the idea of sudden- ness, and even of privateness; thus sometimes in: overtake; overcome; overhear.

Generally speaking, many even of the above words combine sev- eral of the meanings above indicated, the understanding whereof is given by the context; comp. overrun, 1. to cover all over, 2. to outrun, 3. to harass by hostile incursions; overstep, 1. to step over, 2. to exceed. Here also belong overpass; oversee; overlook; overlay; overcast; overgrow; overhaul and many more.

out, Anglosaxon òte, ùt, Old-Highdutch ûz, Modern-Highdutch aus, has in compounds, which in Anglosaxon especially prevail as verbal compounds, in general the meaning of proceeding from something internal, when either the quitting of that space or of a point in space, or the further movement to the goal and end may occupy the mind. Therefore the out and away come in part into the foreground in the verbs: outwind; out- wrest; outbud; outpour; outroot &c.; as also in outrage, outweed &c., and, in connection therewith, selection: outlook. Nouns: out- going (útgang); outset = beginning; figuratively: outbreak; outburst; outcry; and of concrete objects: outgate; outlet and outreach. With that is connected the idea of outside and abroad, as of removal or exclusion from space, as in the verbs: outbar; outshut; and in nouns: outpost; outwall; outparish; outport &c.; outlaw (útlah); — outborn (foreign); outlandish (útlendisc); as also outside, belongs here. Extension and stretching from the point of departure lies in verbs like outspread; outreach. The out and to the end lies in outwear; outreign; outbreathe (expire).

Alongside thereof the idea of proceeding beyond something or of outbidding, in the sense of over, is frequent: outnumber; outbrave; outbalance; outwit; outwork; outdo; outdrink; outknaves; outgo (on the other hand útgangan = exire); outgrow; outfest and many more. Even here we find verbs used in more senses than one.

under, Anglosaxon under, Modern-Highdutch unter, stands be- fore Germanic and Romance stems, and forms the contrary in space to over, as referred to the deeper and lower. Verbs: undermine; underline; underprop; underwrite (unervritan); under-
sign; hence also figuratively underbear (underbëran, supportare); underfong (underfangan); undergo (undergangan, subire); undertake (Old-norse undirtaka, annuere); understand (understandan, intelligere); and so too underset (undersettan, substituire). Nouns: underwood; underbrush; undergrowth; underground; underpetticoat &c. Adj. undershot.

With that is connected the notion of less, as of a remaining behind under a measure. Verbs: underdo (on the other hand underdôn, supponere); undertlet; underrate; underprize; underpraise; undervalue; undersell &c. Nouns: underdose; — undersaturated.

The notion of subordination is frequent, especially in substantives: undersheriff (comp. undergerêfa); under-master; underlabourer; underfellow; under-workman; under-chamberlain &c. Adj.: underbred (of inferior breeding). In underplot (clandestine scheme) there lies the notion of secrecy, as of what is done in the deep, beneath; in the obsolete undersay, to contradict, there lies the image of denying by speaking. Sometimes even here different senses are annexed to the same compound in different contexts.

up, Anglosaxon up, upp, uppe, Adv. sursum, in altum, Modern-Highdutch aüf, is not frequently to be met with, and mostly in verbs, as in Anglosaxon. It remains true to its fundamental meaning, in the proper and the figurative sense; but up now commonly comes after its verb. Verbs: uplift; upload (upled Milton); uprise; upraise; uproot; upbear (upâbëran); upbind; upstay (to support); upswarm; upheave (upheban) &c., many are growing obsolete. In uplay, uphoard, there lies the notion of hanging up as of heaping up; on the other hand in upset, to overturn; uproot, upbear and the like, are perhaps the standard. Figuratively: upbraid (upgebrëgdan, exprobbrare). In the obsolete uplock = lock up (Shakespeare, we must think of the drawn up bolt. Nouns are rare: upland (highland); upstart, also a verb; uproar (brör, motus); upshot (final issue); upright (uppeht); upward &c.; uphand (lifted by the hand); uphill (difficult).

fore, rarely for, Anglosaxon fora, more frequently fore, sometimes for, ante, antea; Modern-Highdutch vor, is compounded with Germanic and Romance stems.

In verbs it denotes less commonly the before in space: fore-run; foreflow; forego sometimes for go before; often in Nouns: fore-end; fore-mast; foreland; forelock; fore-part; forehead (forehead); fore-horse &c. — forward (foreweard). Herewith is combined the notion of priority, as in foreman; forerank; forehand = chief part (Shakespeare) and the like.

By far more common, especially in verbs, is the meaning of before and previousness in time: forebode (forebodjan); foretoken (foretâcenjan); foresay (foreseegan); foresee (foresôn); forespeak (foresprêcan); forearm; forelook; foredoom; foreshadow; fore-admonish; fore-appoint; fore-determine &c.; in nouns: forenoon; forefather; foresight; foreknowledge; fore-belief &c.; frequently in participial adjectives without a verb: forepast; forequoted; forecited &c. Parasyntatha are also numerous.

The doing before appears also as anticipation in the man-
ner of checking or excluding; forestall (foresteallan); foreclose; forelay.

forth, Anglosaxon forð, inde, frequent in Anglosaxon in the compounding of verbs and nouns, is found in a few verbal adjectives: forth-coming (forðcuman); forth-issuing; and in forthgoing, also used substantively. The adverb forthright (forðrihte) likewise occurs as a substantive (straight path, ShAKESpARE). Old-English had more compounds still: forthwerpe; forthhelde; forthword (bargain); also with the comparative fotherfete (RITSON).

with, Anglosaxon við, has been preserved in a few verbs and their parasyntheta only, and only with the meaning against: withstand (vidståandan, resistere); which may be apprehended as back in withdraw; withhold. Old-English also has withsay (vidsecgan); withsitten; withscapen &c.

wither, Anglosaxon vider, an adverbial comparative form formed from við, Old-Highdutch: vidar, Modern-Highdutch wider, occurred only compounded with verbs and nouns. Modern-English still has substantives, as the law term withernam, reprisal (viðernãm); witherband; Old-English witherwin (viðer wine, inimicus); dialectical: witherwise (otherwise); witherguess, the same &c.

thorough, rare in composition through, Anglosaxon purh, puruh, Modern-Highdutch durch, to be met with in Anglosaxon in verbs and nouns, is now found only in a few nouns, in the meaning of movement through, as well as of being permeated, of being filled through and through or completely: thoroughfare (purhfaru); thorough-base; — thorough-wax; thorough-wort; — thoroughbred; thorough-paced; thorough-lighted; thorough-sped; thorough-going.

gain, Anglosaxon gägn, gedn &c., is rare in Anglosaxon in the form gedn, frequent on the contrary in compounds, in engedn &c. In English a few, mostly obsolete verbs and parasyntheta are to be met with: gainsay; gainstand (ongeanstandan); gainstrive: — gainsayer; gainsaying.

The particle well too, rarely wel, Anglosaxon vela, vël, Modern-Highdutch wohl, rarely occurred in Anglosaxon in verbal compounds, as veldón, rarely too in substantives, as veldæd; but frequently in adjectives, particularly participles used adjectively. In English accordingly the number of the last named compounds is preponderant; the fundamental words are generally of verbal nature, when well operates adverbially: well-wish; welfare; well-being; well-doing (comp. veldón); well-meanner; well-willer; well-doer; — well-meant; well-born (vel boren); well-built; well-bred; well-beloved; well-set; well-educated; well-established; well-anchored; well-complexioned and many more. — Welcome (vilcumjan, from Anglosaxon villan, ville, velle, voluntas) does not belong here.

The particle wan, Anglosaxon van, von, properly deficiens, even in Anglosaxon occurring only in compounds, works privatively, as un or dis. It is now hardly to be met with save in the obsolete wanhope (despair, want of hope); Old-English wantrust; still frequently in Scottish dialects, partly too in the North of England, as: wanchaney (unlucky) and others.
Prepositions compounded in Anglosaxon with verbs often appear in English, and in gradually increasing extent, as adverbial determinations, or working as prepositions, separated from and after them: *inbringan*, to bring in; *incuman*, to come in; *afterfylygin*, to follow after; *ongedbringan*, to bring again; *ofadrifan*, to drive off; *uteuman*, to come out; *oferbringan*, to bring over; *underbeon*, to be under; *forðōsendan*, to send forth; *purhbrēcan*, to break through &c. But such particles, especially prepositional ones, are sometimes found invertedly combined into one word with the preceding, particularly a verbal constituent, as in *hang-by*; *hanger-on*; *luck-up* (a prison): even with participial forms, presupposing a verb with a separate particle: This *seat’d-up* counsel (Shakspeare Love’s L. L. 3, 1). Until the long’d-for winters come (Butler); a combination explicable by the syntactical relation and by the accenting of the members syntactially united.

b) Compounding with Romance Particles.

Romance particles, that is, those originally Latin which have passed through the French, have received a great extension in English, where they indeed chiefly go along with Latin, yet are frequently put to Anglosaxon stems. They are never, like Germanic particles, detached and placed adverbially after a word. Many compounds of particles, moreover, proceed immediately from or attach themselves again more closely to the Latin. Many have occasioned very numerous imitations. Particles which, like *avec, dans*, have not in French been the means of forming compounds, also remain foreign to English. We consider firstly the inseparable particles of the Latin tongue, then its separable ones, and lastly, a few adverbial ones, which have proceeded from Latin adverbs and nouns, and even in French have received the character of particles, so far as regards composition.

1) Inseparable Particles.

Here belong the privative *in*, *amb*, the adverb *né* (not) occurring in the finished Latin tongue in compounds only, as well as *re*, *se* and *dis*.

*in*, Latin: French: the same, equal to the Greek ἀν as a privative particle, and coinciding notionally with *un*, whose place it takes without any fixed limit (comp. *incertain*, *uncertain*; *incertitude*, *uncertainty*; *inapt*, *unapt*; *inhabile*, *unable*; *inconceivable*, *unconcealed* &c.); assimilates, like the preposition *in*, the *n* to a following *m*, *l*, *r*, and before *p* and *b* passes into *m*. It is originally added to nouns (also to participles used as adjectives). Verbs with a privative *in* were in Latin only parasyntheta, which were much augmented in French, even newly formed substantives were in French, and are mostly in English, although with many exceptions, parasyntheta. Newly formed adjectives are numerous. *Substantives*: *insipience*, *inscience*, *inexperience*, *inpiety*, *illiberality*; — *ininsertion*; *inharmony* (comp. *inharmonic*); *intranquillity*, *irremoval*, *inunderstanding*. *Adjectives*: *inmemorial*, *impolite*, *illegal*, *incautious*, *inextinguible*, *inopulent*, *invalitudinary*, *inconcluding*, *indiscussed*, *infragrant* &c. Along with parasynthetic verbs, as: *inquiet*, *im-
mortalize; illegalize; individuate (Latin individuus): incapacitate (incapacious), but is also found, for instance inexist.

amb, am, an, properly ambi (compare Greek ἀμφί), around, about, is found, as in French, rarely. It is contained in the verb amputate, and in nouns, as ambition; ambiguity; ambages; ambulance; — ambiguous; ambulant; ancipital &c., all of which take root in Latin.

ne,Latin ne, not, is very rarely contained in Latin words: nescience (nescientia); neuter, neutral, French neutre, -al; Latin neuter; nefarious (nefarius); nefandous; Parasyntetha: neutrality; nefariousness.

re (red before vowels), is French re (red), Latin re, red, even redi, from which red appeared especially before vowels. Red stands, for instance, in English in redintegrate; redeem; redound (French redonder); redargue; redolent; yet reintegrate is also found, comp. French réintégrer. French often cast out the vowel e before en (in), e (ex) and a (ad) in modern forms; English reimported the e (reenter, French rentrer; reattach, French rattacher &c.). The principal meaning of the particle is back, whence proceeds the meaning again (reluctance, resist), with which is connected that of repetition. It often appears only as a strengthener, as in rejoice; recomand; repute; receive; in which at least the idea back no longer appears. Instances of received compounds are uncommonly numerous and need no quoting. Modern forms attach themselves particularly to the meaning again, and are added not merely to Romance stems, as in reimplant; reimprint; reinvest; reappoint; reobtain; reurge; recelebrate; recaption; recapture &c.; but also to Germanic ones: reopen; remind; remake; renew; relight; rebellow; rebuild; rebreathe; refind; redraw; regather; rehear; rehearse; rekindle; reqwicken &c.

se, French sé, Latin se, also sed (in seditio), so (in socors), is rare even in French, and in English to be met with only in a few words originally Latin. The fundamental meaning is that of removal and severance (without, particularly, aside). Verbs: select (seligere); separate; seduce; severn; sedge; segregate; sefain (WEBSTER, Scottish), whence nouns, especially parasyntetha: sedition; seduction; sejunction; secret &c.; seducible; seditious; secure &c.
dis, di, with the collateral form de, Old-French des, Modern-French dis, di, dés, dé, Latin dis, di, before f with an assimilated s = dif, denotes division and distribution; the idea of severance also passes into that of interruption. Along with that arises the privative or negative meaning of the negation of the notion of the fundamental word. English chiefly recurs to the Latin form, and uses dis before vowels and consonants. Before s with a consonant after it, s is cast out, as in Latin, (distinguish, dis-stinguerre); dispirit. Modern formations are numerous, especially with the privative sense of dis, with which the Modern-Highdutch ent may be compared. The compounding with dis is favoured in verbs and nouns: dispute; distend; dissolve; discern; differ; diffuse; — dispensation; disposition; discourse; difficulty; — distant; dis-sonant; discrepant; discreet; diffuent; — disarm, Old-French des-
armer; disappoint, Modern-French désapointer; disobey, Modern-French désobéir; disdain, Old-French desdaigner; disjoin, Old-French desjoindre; disconflit, Old-French desconfire; disguise, Old-French desguiser; — disease, Old-French desaise; distress, Old-French destresse (from the Latin districtus); dishonest, Old-French deshoneste.

The form dis is rare in English, as in French: diminish; dilapidate; dilacerate; dilate; divert; diverge; divide; divulge; divujdate; digest; digress; — dimension; diminution; dismission; divorce; divulsion; — direct; divers; diluent; dilute.

The particle in the form de (Modern-French de) is only to be distinguished by collation with the fundamental ancient forms from de = Latin de. Frequently de and dis run alongside of each other: deoxydate along with disox.; denaturalize along with disn.; deploy along with display, Old-French desployer; decor color along with discolor; decompose along with disc.; devest along with div.; defame, Latin diffamare; defy, Old-French desfiier; depart, Old-French despartir; distinct, however from dispart; detach, French détacher, Ital. distaccare; — delay, French délai, Latin dilatam; defeat from Old-French desfaire, deffaire; deluge, French déluge, Latin diluvium.

des also is found in descant, Old-French deschants, compare Medieval-Latin verb and subst. discantare; discants.

Modern forms in dis, ent, are numerous, not merely before Romance words, as: discline; disinherit; disable; dispauper; dissatisfaction; disconnect; — disimprovement; dispassion; discongruity; discourtesy; — disingenious; disinhabited; disparadized &c.; but also before Germanic ones: disembody; disembody; dispose; discantus; dislike; disroot; disburden; disbelieve; dishearten; dishorn; disgospel; — dike, dishonest; — disedged.

2) Separable Prepositional Particles.

in (im, il, ir) and en, em, Latin in &c., French en, em, has come into English partly in the Latin, also in assimilated forms, but which are likewise not foreign to the French, partly in the French transformations. Frequently the Latin and the French form run alongside of each other: intitle, entitle; inthrone, enthrone; enjoin, enjoin; incage, encage; ingender, engender &c.; imbark, embark; impeach, empeach &c. Frequently also the French form has given way to the Latin. In compounds in, en answers in meaning to the Latin preposition in, especially with a reference to movement, as in, on, upon, particularly also to the Modern-Highdutch ein, denoting the direction to the internal and the tendency to include. The Latin forms of the particle stand in words like: immitt; immerge; inescate; inaugurate; innovate; infatuate; incade; invoke; incarcerate; illustrate; irritate; — invasion; instinct; infeudation (infeodation) impulse; irruption; — imitate; infernal; incarved; ingenuous &c.; and in those to which French had given its forms, although the latter are often used alongside of the former: inebriate; inter; incloister; inquire &c. Yet French forms have also remained unaltered: endure; engage; enhaunce; embellish, embrace &c.; envoy; ensign.
II. The Formation of Words. B) Compound. 3) Compound, of the Verb &c. 501

Imitated forms are numerous, both with Latin and French forms of the particle, yet those with in are not always to be distinguished from compounds with the AngloSaxon in. Comp. moreover: immask; impalse; impawn; impoverish &c.; immunated &c.; — enact; enambush; enlarge; enravish; enfeeble; enfranchise; endanger; enseal; enpurple; empark; embody; embroider; — enarmed &c. Occasionally the assimilation before m is omitted: enmarble; enmew along with enmew.

inter, enter, French inter, entre, Latin inter, appears in English in both these forms, yet rarely in the French enter. The particle has the meaning of between, and refers to what severs two objects, comes into their midst, also interrupts and works negatively: interpose; interpoint; intercede; interject; interclude; intercept; — interval (properly a space between two poles); interact (French entr'acte); interclude; — intermundane; interosseous. This idea also lies originally in interdict; as well as in interpret (to speak as an intervening interpreter); so in interloper; intercourse. Connection appears also in the meaning among one another: intermix; interlace (entrelacer); interjoin; entertain (entretenir). Modern forms, which are chiefly of the latter sort, are not rare, even in union with Germanic stems: interfere; intermate; interchain; interchange; intermarry; — interspace; interchapter; — intercellular; international; — interlink; interleave; interweave; intertalk; intertwist; — interleaf; interknowledge; — interwreathed &c.

intro, French: Latin: the same, is very rare in French, in English in a few forms borrowed from the Latin. The meaning of the particle is: into, of movement into the inside of an object: intromit; introduce; introspect; with parasyntthetic nouns: introduction; introgression (introgredior); introit (introitus). We also find introvert; — introreception; introsusception; — introflexed, as modern forms.

ex, ef before f, e, es, Old-French ex, commonly es, Modern-French ex, é, es before s, occurs most rarely in English in the form es. The particle denotes essentially the movement out from the inside, also away and off from it, which may also go upwards (extoll); when the image of extension from the point of departure (expand, extend) as well as of the carrying out to the end, of finishing, may be the standard (comp. exsiccate and effect, elaborate). A going beyond a measure is likewise not remote; as well as a departure from the essence of an object (exceed, exorbitant, effeminate). Many Latin and French forms have been imported, when the French es, é often returns to ex, comp. extend, Old-French estendre; extinguis, Old-French esteindre; exchange, Modern-French échanger. The great majority of compounds comprehends imported words: exempt; exalt; exonerate; expatriate; exhafe; examen; examinuous; exterior; (after x an initial s is wont to be cast out: except; extil; exsiccate along with exsiccate; exude along with exudation &c.); — effect; efface; — emaciate; elect; erase; evade; edict; eloquence; elegant; — essay, Old-French essaier, asaier, as it were, exagiare; escape, Old-French eschaper, as it were escapare; estreat, comp. Old-French estreaire; escheat, Old-French subst. eschet. Modern forms are rare: exauthorize; exculpate; effran-
chise (to invest with franchise); eradiate; egglomerate; eglandulous; more frequently with a privative ex, as in the Latin exmagister, exdecurio and the like; ex-mayor; ex-president; ex-prefect; ex-representative; ex-dictator; ex-secretary &c.; also adjectively: ex-official.

extra, French: Latin: the same, outside of (of the not included) was to be met with in Latin only in compound nouns; French formed a few verbs with extra. English adopts a few such verbs: extravagate; extravasate. With nouns, like extraordinary; extra-mundane; extravagant &c. are associated modern forms: extramission; extra-pay; extra-work &c.; extra-regular; extra-parochial; extraneous; extravenate and a few more.

a, ab, abs, French Latin the same, exists in French in traditional forms, as in English also. The prefix opposed to ad has mostly the meaning of going from a point, in the sense of the High Dutch ab, ent, etc. Nouns are mostly parasyntetha: avert; avolare (avolare, also with abvolare (comp. Latin abvoco, aberto and the like); abaliente; abridge (abréger) along with abbreviate; absole; absterge; abstain; — abolition; abdication &c.; abnormous; absonous; absent together with many substantives derived from adjectives. The forms advance, advantage are erroneous formations from the Old-French avancer, avantage, from avant = ab ante.

ad, a, French Latin the same, remained in Latin before vowels and h, d, v, mostly also before m, ad, but cast out the d before double consonants (sp, st, sc, gn), and assimilated to the consonants n, l, r, p, f, l, s, c, g, y, although not necessarily. In French the rejection of the d before consonants and in Old-French also before vowels was usual, without any fixed principle. In English the proceeding with regard to d is likewise without consistency, yet less than in French, with a more frequent return to the Old-Latin usage. French has many imitated forms, especially in factitive verbs, which English adopts, without attempting considerable new formations. The fundamental meaning of the particle is that of direction and striving, as well as of motion and reaching to an object or into its immediate neighbourhood: adapt; adore; adorn (Old-French aorner, adornare); addict; adhere; adjoin; admire; arraign, Old-French araismier from raison; appear, Old-French aparoir; approve; affirm; attain; assail (assailir, assilire); assuage, Old-French assoager, as if assuaviare; accept; acquaint (acconter, as if accognitare); aggrieve, Old-French agrevier; asperge; austriet &c.; adhortation; advent (French avent, adventus); arrai, Old-French arroi, arrei, arrai from roi = ordre, from Anglosaxon ræd, ræde, promptus; appetite &c.; — aduncous; adjacent; apparent; affable &c. Imitated forms are seldom found; comp. addoom = adjudje; allure, French leurrer; affreight (to hire a ship for freight). Compounds with a remain doubtful, on account of the Anglosaxon a, as: amaze; amate (accompany) and the like.

ante, anti, French: Latin: the same, with the meaning of before in time, in space and in rank, is rare in French in traditional verbs, and is hardly imitated, but is to be found on the other hand in a few adopted and imitated nouns (also with the form anti).
In English there exist a few Latin and French compounds, and a few nouns have been imitated: antepone (anteponere); antecede (antece-dere); antedate, French antidater; anticipate (anticipare); — antiloquy (anteloquium); antecessor; antechamber, French antichambre; — antelucan; antemeridian &c. Imitations: antechapel; antiport; antetemple; anteroom; antenuptial &c.

ob, French: Latin: the same, with the assimilations of the b before p, f, c (in omit, Latin omittere, b has been cast out before m) passed into French without occasioning imitation, likewise into English. Ob denotes the direction and motion towards an object, therefore also against something, then, generally, extension over something (obversari, offuscare). The strengthening meaning of ob in obserare, as in obsecrare, returns to the sensuous image of influence away and over. Verbs: obviate; observe; obsecrate; oppose; offend; occur; occupy. Nouns: obedience and obeisance; opponent; office; occasion; — oblivious; oblong; obscure; opposite; occult. In obovate, French obové, there lies the idea of an opposite direction, inversely ovate. — Occasionally the English has abolished the assimilation: obfuscate along with offuscate; obfirm; obfirmate.

ultra, French ultra, outre, Latin ultra, beyond, in Latin only in ultramundanus, in French in a few words, as ultra and outre, stands in the English ultramontane; ultramundane; ultramarine (adj. and subst.).

per, par, French per, par, Latin per. French used per and par in traditional words, par, on the other hand, commonly in imitations. The English has adopted a few compounds with par, and transformed par in part into per. The assimilated particle pel still occurs in pellucided (pellucidus). The language hardly knows imitations. The particle is used of going through in space, as well as of diffusion through space (also through and through), therefore further of completed activity. Verbs: perish; peregrate; permit; permeate; perpend; perfume (parfumer); percert; persist; persuade; perjure (parjurer); pardon; parboil (par-bouillir whether — part-b?); Nouns: pererration; peroration; perfidy; — peracute; perennial; perpetual; perfect; pervious; pervicacious (pervicax). Modern forms: peruse (per uti?), Old-English = examine, survey; parbreak = to vomit (Skelton).

post, French Latin the same, after, with reference to time and rank, an infrequent prefix in Latin, more rare in French, is not much in use even in English, yet at the same time not without a few modern forms. Verbs: postpone; post-date, French postdater. Nouns: postliming (postliminium); postil, Medieval-Latin postilla; postscript, French postscriptum; postscenium, Latin the same; postfact, subst. and adj.; postpositive, French postpositif; posthumous. Modern forms: post-fix; — post-entry; post-existence; post-obit; postfine; post-disseizin; post-disseizor; — postmate; post-nuptial; postremote; postiluvial (-ian).

pre, French pré, Latin prae, has in compounds the meaning of before in space (present, pretend, precipitate), but more frequently that of the before in time (predetermine, preoccupy, as preclude,
prevent and preminent) with which is connected the idea of pre-
cedence (precede, prefer, preeminent) and superordination as a
previous determination (prescribe, precept). French has adopted
a great number of Latin compounds in prae, and imitated many;
English has obtained them from both tongues and imitated not a
few, especially with a reference to the before in time, as: prein-
struct; preengage; preedict; preexamine; preadmonish; preappoint;
preobtain; prepossess; pretypify; preconceive; — preintimation; pre-
acquaintance; preaudience; predefinition; precontract; — preremise;
preconsolidated &c. pro is also prefixed to Germanic stems: pre-
warn; preknowledge; predoomed.

preter, French präter, Latin praetere, was little employed in
compounding in Latin, occurs rarely in words preserved in
French, and in English is also of little import. The prefix de-
notes past, with reference to space and to time, with which the
idea of going beyond a measure is associated: pretermit; —
preterit; (preterition, preteritive), preterlapsed (praeterlapsus).
Nevertheless there are a few modern forms: preterimperfect; preterper-
fected; preterplusperfect; preterlegal; preternatural.

pro, pour, pur, por, French pro, pour, por, Old-French por, pour,
pur, Latin pró, in compounds occasionally pró (prod to take away
the hiatus). As in French compounds with pro are the most nu-
merous, so also in English. Imitations were in general not frequent,
English has hardly any to shew. The prefix denotes essentially
the direction forwards, before, forth: propel; progress, proceed;
propose; prominent. Thus in profane the before is contained (being
before the temple, therefore not in it, unholy), as in prohibit the
forth (to keep removed). With that is connected the meaning of
forth from: profer; procreate; produce; provoke; wherewith is
connected the idea of bringing forth to sensuous perception in
general, or of making notorious and of publication: pronounce;
proclaim; profess; protest; also proscribe. Forwards appears re-
ferred to time, as if out into the future, in provide, protract;
and in proroque (yet perhaps properly to ask previously) and the
like. The meaning of representation lies in proconsul, that of
relation in proportion. — The French forms pour, pur, por ra-
rely appear, but are sometimes interchanged: poursuivant and pur-
suivant; pourpresse, Medieval-Latin proprestura, from the Old-
French porprendre, purprendre, also parprendre, whence porprise;
pourparty, purparty, Medieval-Latin purpartia, propartia and per-
pars; purloin, Old-French purloignier; purpose, Old-French pur-
poser; purvey, Old-French porvoir; pursue, Old-French porsevre,
parsvevre; purchase, Old-French purchacier; purje and subst. pur-
file, Old-French porfiller, parfiller; purview, comp. proviso; purprise,
Old-French purpris, and a few parasynthia. As the Old-French
pur interchanges with par, so in English purtenance has run along-
side of appartenance. Por stands in portray, Old-French portaire,
whence portrayal and portrait, portraiture come.

trans, tra, tres, French trans, tra, tre, Old-French tres, Latin
trans, tra, was transferred in old forms from the Latin into French,
and in both served to make new forms. English, except in tres-
pass, Old-French trespasser c. der. always has the Latin forms and mostly trans. With an s after it the s of trans is commonly cast out, even Latin fluctuates between transillio, transscendo and trans-siliio, transscendo &c. The fundamental idea with this particle is that of motion or position out over an object, beyond it, as in: tranate, transmate; transmit, transport, transcend, transgress; — transition; transit; tramontane &c.; transatlantic; transmarine; transpadane; as past in transient; transitory; which may also appear as motion through an object: transfix; transcolate; transpire; transude; — transparent; translucent &c. Sometimes it imports the transfer from one place to another: transplant; transfuse; transcribe; transcript &c. With that is connected the idea of trans- formation or transmutation: transfigure; transform; transmute; transubstantiate; transvesty &c. In transact lies the idea of comple- tion; traduce, slandering &c., is properly to draw through, to expose to scorn, with obliteration of the figure even in Latin. Modern forms are: transanimate; transplace; transship and tranship; transshapere; transfreight; translocation and the like.

dé, Modern-French dé and dé, Latin de, has been preserved in many Latin forms in French and English. The particle has origi- nally the meaning of removal in space: off, away, forth, which is readily transferred to other predicaments, as it especially passes over into the idea of deviation and of need. The regard to progression and the movement to the end gives the idea of fi- nishing, when the particle may frequently appear as a streng- thening of the expression. Examples are numerous in which the French compounds with dé are to be distinguished from the comp- pounds with the Latin dis only by a comparison of the fundamental forms. Verbs: deaurate; demean, French démener; demur, Old-French demorer; deny (denegare); delight, Old-French deleiter; derive; depaint; deflagrate; detrone, French détroner, Ital. deironiz- zare; decipher, French déchiffrer, Ital. dicifare; degrade &c. Nouns: deditio; desuetude; deceit; — derelict; deviuse; devout; desultory &c. Imitations, as: deprive; depauperate; debase; deface; deforce; defoul; devoid &c., are not frequent; yet we may reckon here any coinciding with the French dés, as: deobstruct (désobstruer); deoxydate; deoxydize (désoxyder); decarbonate; decarbonize &c. Compare decorticate, Latin decorticare.

sine, Latin the same, French sans, without, stands in English in sinesure, sinescurism, -ist; the French form perhaps in saneculot- tism. See prepositions p. 410.

sub, sus, under, are developed from the Latin sub and subitus; the b in sub is commonly assimilated before m, p, f, c, g, some- times also before r. In French sub with its assimilations has been in part preserved, therewith stands the Latin sus, French sous, sou, arising from subitus, Old-French sos, soz, sus, sous, which however operates quite like sub. In meaning it is nearly allied to the Anglosaxon under. It is chiefly referred to the deeper and lower in space, both in the proper and in the figurative sense: submerge; subscribe; suffumigate; suppurate; support; suffer; subside; subsist; suppress; subvert; submit; succumb; subdue, Old-French sosduire,
souduire, subducere; suppliant; — suburb; subhastation; — subjacent; subcelestial &c.; whence the notion of subordination, as in subserve; subordinate; subdivide; sub-prior, French sous-prieur; subdean, French sous-doyen; subalterne readily results. The idea of a movement immediately behind, after and to an object, such as the Latin preposition sub affords, makes its appearance in compounds in: succeed; subjoin; suffix; sulflate; succor; subsequent &c. The notion of a completing representation lies in surregate; supply; suffice and others. The meaning of lessening, as in subtract; subdue; subduct, rests upon the idea of taking away beneath. That of secrecy is connected with that of space: suborn; surreption; it has been lost in summon (submonere), sub gives to adjectives a diminutive meaning: subacid; subfusc, Latin susfuscus. The forms cited have all come down; rarely those in sus: suspend; suspect; sustain; suspicion; suspension; sustentation; suspension; susceptible, of the Latin subterfluere.

In modern forms verbs seldom appear, substantives often, in which sub has the meaning of subordination: sublet = to underlet; subdiversify; — subinfeudation (Medieval-Latin subfeodare); subpurchaser; subtutor; sub-brigadier; sub-committee &c.; also sub-worker; subkingdom. Adjectives are most numerous, partly with the meaning of under in space; subaerial; subapennine; subcaudal; subdented (indented beneath), but commonly with a diminutive meaning: subastrangent; subtepid; subsaline (comp. subsalsus); subcrystalline; subglobose &c.

subter, under, beneath, in Latin sometimes used in compounding, was preserved in French only in subterfuge; in English in subterfuge, Latin subterfugium, and in subterfluent; subterfluous, from the Latin subterfluere.

super, rarely sur, was not rare in Latin compounds. French seldom preserved the form super; it was changed into sur, Old-French sor, sur, sour, and appeared in this shape even in modern forms. Compounds with super and sur have been adopted in English, modern forms have arisen, particularly with super. Both particles denote above, upwards over and beyond, the latter also in regard to time, as well as measure, and also assume the meaning of superordination in the ethical sense. English often restores super instead of sur in traditional words.

Adopted compounds with super are, for example: superpose: superstruct; superverne, rarely surveine, French survenir; supernive along with survive French survivre; superexalt; superabound; superinspect; supersede (French superséder and surseoir) &c.; — superstition; superabundance &c.; supernundane; supernatural, French surnaturel; superfluous; supereminent, French suréminent; supercilious &c. The French form sur stands in: surmount; surmise, comp. surmit Halliwell s. v., Old-French surmettre, subst. surmise; surpass; survey, Old-French sorvoir; obsolete surveire, survieu, also suprerce; surfeit, Old-French sorfait = excès; surcharge; — surprise; surprice; surplice, Medieval-Latin superpellicium; surface; surcoat, Old-French surcot, sorcoat; surquedry, Old-French surcuidance; sursolid.

Imitations with super, mostly with the meaning of going out
II. The Formation of Words. B) Compound. 3) Compound. of the Verb 

Beyond a measure, or an excess, are the verbs: superreaward; superpraise; superstrain, occasionally for overstrain; and nouns, like: supernonium; superexcrinction; superfexy; superfecundity and the like; supereal; superangelic; supercelestial; supertragioc; supertude = over-subtle and the like. A few verbs even have been freshly compounded with sur: surname, perhaps with regard to the Old-French surname, surnom; surrebut; surrejoin c. der.; surrebutter, surrejoynder (two law terms). The forms surcease, V. and subst.; surrender, V. and subst.; surround cannot be properly reduced to the particle sub. Comp. Old-French surrender. surcingle also belongs here.

Supra, above, over, was rare in compounds in Latin; in French it occurs a few times as soubre, subre. English has a few modern forms: supernaturalism; superalpsarian; — supraorbital; supramundane; supravulgar; suprafoliaceous; supradecomposed and the like.

circum, circ (in circuit c. der.), French circim, circon, Latin circum, around, has been preserved in English in a series of compounds, and is here and there employed in modern forms. Verbs: circumambulate; circumnavigate; circumvent; circumvest; circumvoluee; circumfer; circumflect; circumduct; circumscribe &c. with parasyntbe. Nouns: circumaution along with circuit; circumligration, Latin -ligare; circumlocution; circumrasion; circumrotation, Latin -rotate; circumposition &c. — circumambient; circumforaneous; circumfluuous; circumspect; circumjacent; circumular, French circumpolaire &c. Modern forms are: circumgyrate; circumundulate; circummured; circumterraneous.

Com, con, co, French the same, Old-French com, cum, con, cun &c., Latin com, con, co, before l, r with assimilated consonants, has in English occasionally the form con in words borrowed from the French. The meaning of the particle is always that of communion or cooperation; with, together with, but which is weakened even in Latin. Latin and French compounds with com &c. have been introduced in numbers. Verbs: command; comprehend; combine; comfort, Old-French comforter and confortor; confess; concern; collect; correct; counsel; cooperate; coestablish, Latin constabilire &c. Nouns: complex; concitizen, French concitojen, comp. concivis; concet; colleague (collega); correction; counsel; countenance; coadjutor; covenant, Old-French covenant; coheir (cohaeres); — compliant; concaoe; collateral; corrodent; coeternal (coaeternus Eccl.); coeval; coessential, French coessentiel, and many more.

Modern forms are to be found in verbs and nouns, yet only in those to which the meaning of communion or cooperation decidedly belongs. Verbs: concoagulate (with a reduplication of the particle, in the meaning — to congeal one thing with another); comprint; coenjoy; coextend; coamar; coassume; coafforest; and some little used, among them congrceet. Nouns, especially substantives compounded with names of persons are not rare: cohabitant; coexecuter; corival, also corivial; cotenant; cojuror; co-sufferer and the like; also with Germanic stems: coelder; co-worker; further abstract substantives: coheritance; coelection; efficacite; even coun-
understanding = mutual understanding &c. Adjectives: connatural; colligual; coextensif; connutritious; cosentient and the like.

contra, counter, contro, French contre, rarely contra (contradiction) and contro (controversy), Old-French controle, contre, Latin contra, contro. In Latin these prefixes were in general rare. Nouns, except parasyntheta, were unknown to it. French had from old new verbal forms and nouns, rarely adjectives. English has adopted Latin and French compounds, and therewith attempted a few modern formations. The meaning of the prefix as of over-against in space is perhaps found in (counterbalance, counterpoise); commonly that of striving against and of hostile opposition lies at the root.

The compounds with contra, contro are the more rare: contrapose; contraccene; contradict; contrast (French contra-ster, that is stare) c. der.; contramure, French contre-mur; contravallation, French contre-vallation; contrafissure; — controvert, comp. Latin controversari; controversy c. der.; more frequently those with counter, corresponding to French forms. Verbs: countermand; counterpoise; contravallation; counterbalance; counterprove; countermarch; counterevent &c.
Nouns are in part parasyntheta, yet others also: countermine (also verb); countermarch (also verb); counter-mark; counter-revolution; counterpart, compare French contre-partie; counterrole and control (French contrôle = contrerôle); counterpoison &c. Modern forms arise from Romance and Germanic fundamental words, rarely with contra: contradistinguish; contraregularity; contraversion; contranatural (rare); often with counter; verbs: counteract; countermove; countervote &c.; counterweigh; counterwheel; counterwork; counterdraw &c.; Nouns: counter-influence; counter-evidence &c.; counterwind; countertime; countertide &c.

3) Adverbial Particles.

male, mal, French malé, wal, man, Latin male, evil, is used in Latin to compound a few verbs and nouns, in French also in modern forms. English has adopted from both tongues. Verbs: maleficiate, French maléficer; — maltreat, French maltraiter; Nouns: malefaction; malefic; malediction; malevolent; maledict &c.; — malversation; maltalent &c. Occasionally male has a privative sense, as in: malcontent; malcontentedness. A few modern forms are likewise found: malexecution; maladministration; maladjustment; malposition; malpractice; malformation and the like.

The contrary to male is formed by bene, French bien, existing in English in a few Latin forms. Nouns: benefit, Old-French bienfet, bienfait, benefice; beneficence; benefactor; benefaction; benefition; — beneficient; beneficial; and parasyntheta, among them also the verb benefit.

non, French, Latin the same, not, un- rarely employed in compounding in Latin, as in nonnemo, nonnullus, nonnihil &c., is frequently used in compounding in French, still more frequently in English, which is the more striking, as there is here no scarcity of privative particles (comp. un, in). Comp. non-age, French nonage; nonsense, French non-sens; non-payment, French non-paiement &c. English compounds are not confined to Romance nouns, as:
II. The Formation of Words. B) Compound. 3) Compound of the Verb 

non-entity; non-execution; non-appearance; non-episcopalian; non-resemblance; non-juror &c.; non-essential; non-electric; non-conforming; non-contagious &c.; but extend also to Germanic ones: non-fulfilment; non-slaveholding; non-sparing and the like. Even the verb non-concur occurs, as well as the parasyntheton non-suit.

retro, French: Latin: the same, replaced in French compounds also by arrière, Old-French arere, occasionally reere, whence still in English rear-ward; rear-guard; rear-rank; rear-admiral &c., partly, backwards, back, of motion, partly back, behind, in the relation of rest, is little employed in the Latin form. Verbs: retroact (retroagere); retrovert; retrospect; retrocede; retrograde; with these, parasynthetic nouns and a few others: retrogression; retroflex. Imitations are perhaps: retromingent; retropulsive; retrofract: retrofracted.

pen, French pen, Latin paene, almost, nearly, in the Latin paeninsula, in French in a few imitated words, stands in English, as there, in substantives: peninsula, penumbra, French pénombre; and the parasyntheton as a verb: peninsulate, as in the adjective penultimate.

for, Old-French fors, Modern-French for, Latin foris, foras, properly, abroad, is in use in Old- and Modern-French in several compounds in the meaning of out, and at the same time, in the sense of going out beyond the measure. The English has preserved forfeit, Old-French forfaire (forsfait) with its derivatives: forfeiter; forfeiture; forfeitable.

vice, Old-French vis (hence English viscount, -county, -countship &c.), Modern-French vice and sometimes vi, is employed in French like pro in propraetor, proconsul, and in this meaning has passed into English: vice-admiral; vice-agent; vice-legate; viceroy; vice-president; vice-chancellor; vice-chamberlain; vicegerent; vice-consul &c.; with parasyntheta, as: viceregal; viceregalism; vicegerency &c.

Finally, the quantitative determinations bi, demi, semi are to be mentioned.

bi, rarely bis, French bi, bis, Latin bi, rarely bis in compounds, twice, double, is employed in Latin mostly in nouns (also in the verb bipartio, bipertio). In French the compounds of this sort are increased, likewise in English, particularly in the scientific language. Verbs exist not, save in the new form bisect. Substantives are likewise rare: binocle, French the same; bireme; biscuit; bissextile; else parasyntheta, as: biformity; bifurcation &c. Adjectives are on the other hand frequent, partly derived from old words: biennial, Latin biennis, French bienniel; bimanous, French bimane; bimedial, French the same; bimensal, Latin bimestris; binocular, -ate, French binoculaire; bilateral, French the same; biped; bifid; bifronted, Latin bifrons; bivious; bisulcous, bisulcate, Latin bisulcus, and many more. Modern forms are not wanting, as binangular; biaxial; birostrate; biparous; bipolar; bifacial; bifoliate; biventral and the like, even bifold.

demi and semi, French the same, Latin semi, alongside of which French set the form arising from dimidium, for which also mi stood,
run alongside of each other in English in the meaning of half, as in French, yet *semi* is by far more frequent in English. Both belong essentially to nouns.

*demi* stood even in French chiefly in nouns, to which in English it almost exclusively belongs (*deminatured* excepted). Comp. *demi-lune*; *demi-bain*, imitated *demi-bath*; *demi-tint*; *demi-tone*; *demi-cannon*; *demi-culverin*, French *demi-couleuvrine*. Compounds with Germanic fundamental words especially are imitated: *demi-man*; *demi-premises*; *demi-vill*; *demi-wolf*; *demi-devil*; *demi-semiquaver*; *demi-god*; *demi-goddes*; *demi-groat*. *demi-deify* is cited as a verb.

*semi* attaches itself immediately to Latin compounds, and sometimes takes the place of the French *demi*, as in *semi-diameter*, French *demi-diamètre*; *semi-column*, French *demi-colonne*; *semi-circle*, French *demi-cercle* and others. *Semi-arian*; *Semi-pelagian*; *semiped*, Latin *semipes*; *semitone*, French *semi-ton*, *demi-ton*; — *semi-annual*; *semi-lunar*; *semi-pagan*; *semi-barbarian*; *semi-vocal &c.* Among the modern forms is the verb: *semi-castrate*, some nouns, as *semi-transept*; *semi-sextile*; *semi-diapason &c.*; and many adjectives: *semi-indurated*; *semi-acidified*; *semi-opaque*; *semi-osseous*; *semi-lapidified*; *semi-perspicuous*; *semi-formed*; *semi-fluid*; *semi-vitrified*; *semi-transparent*; *semi-crystalline &c.*

*Plus* is found in the form *plu* in *pluperfect.*

End of the First Part.