

PREFACE

The scope of this book is indicated in § 5. It is intended for beginners, and in writing it, these words of Sir Thomas Elyot have not been forgotten: "Grammer, beinge but an introduction to the understandings of autors, if it be made to longe or exquisite to the lerner, it in a maner mortifieth his corage: And by that time he cometh to the most swete and pleasant redinge of olde autors, the sparkes of fervent desire of lernynge are extincte with the burdome of grammer, lyke as a lyttell fyre is sone quenched with a great heape of small stickes."—*The Governour*, Cap. X.

Only the essentials, therefore, are treated in this work, which is planned more as a foundation for the study of Modern English grammar, of historical English grammar, and of the principles of English etymology, than as a general introduction to Germanic philology.

The Exercises in translation will, it is believed, furnish all the drill necessary to enable the student to retain the forms and constructions given in the various chapters.

The Selections for Reading relate to the history and literature of King Alfred's day, and are sufficient to give the student a first-hand, though brief, acquaintance with the native style and idiom of Early West Saxon prose in its golden age. Most of the words and constructions contained in them will be already familiar to the student through their intentional employment in the Exercises.

For the inflectional portion of this grammar, recourse has been had chiefly to Sievers' *Abriss der angelsächsischen Grammatik* (1895). Constant reference has been made also to the same author's earlier and larger *Angelsächsische Grammatik*, translated by Cook. A more sparing use has been made of Cosijn's *Altwestsächsische Grammatik*.

For syntax and illustrative sentences, Dr. J. E. Wülfing's *Syntax in den Werken Alfreds des Grossen, Part I.* (Bonn, 1894) has proved indispensable. Advance sheets of the second part of this great work lead one to believe that when completed the three parts will constitute the most important contribution to the study of English syntax that has yet been made. Old English sentences have also been cited from Sweet's *Anglo-Saxon Reader*, Bright's *Anglo-Saxon Reader*, and Cook's *First Book in Old English*.

The short chapter on the Order of Words has been condensed from my *Order of Words in Anglo-Saxon Prose* (Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, New Series, Vol. I, No. 2).

Though assuming sole responsibility for everything contained in this book, I take pleasure in acknowledging the kind and efficient assistance that has been so generously given me in its preparation. To none do I owe more than to Dr. J.E. Wülfing, of the University of Bonn; Prof. James A. Harrison, of the University of Virginia; Prof. W. S. Currell, of Washington and Lee University; Prof. J. Douglas Bruce, of Bryn Mawr College; and Prof. L.M. Harris, of the University of Indiana. They have each rendered material aid, not only in the tedious task of detecting typographical errors in the proof-sheets, but by the valuable criticisms and suggestions which they have made as this work was passing through the press.

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OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND EXERCISE BOOK.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY.

1. The history of the English language falls naturally into three periods; but these periods blend into one another so gradually that too much significance must not be attached to the exact dates which scholars, chiefly for convenience of treatment, have assigned as their limits. Our language, it is true, has undergone many and great changes; but its continuity has never been broken, and its individuality has never been lost.

2. The first of these periods is that of OLD ENGLISH, or ANGLO-SAXON,¹ commonly known as the period of *full inflections*. E.g. **stān-as**, *stones*; **car-u**, *care*; **will-a**, *will*; **bind-an**, *to bind*; **help-að** (= **ath**), *they help*.

It extends from the arrival of the English in Great Britain to about one hundred years after the Norman Conquest,—from A.D. 449 to 1150; but there are no literary remains of the earlier centuries of this period. There were four² distinct dialects spoken at this time. These were the North-umbrian, spoken north of the river Humber; the Mercian, spoken in the midland region between the Humber and the Thames; the West Saxon, spoken south and west of the Thames; and the Kentish, spoken in the neighborhood of Canterbury. Of these dialects, Modern English is most nearly akin to the Mercian; but the best known of them is the West Saxon. It was in the West Saxon dialect that King Alfred (849-901) wrote and spoke. His writings belong to the period of Early West Saxon as distinguished from the period of Late West Saxon, the latter being best represented in the writings of Abbot Ælfric (955?-1025?).

3. The second period is that of MIDDLE ENGLISH, or the period of *leveled inflections*, the dominant vowel of the inflections being **e**. E.g. **ston-es**, **car-e**, **will-e**, **bind-en** (or **bind-e**), **help-eth**, each being, as in the earlier period, a dissyllable.

The Middle English period extends from A.D. 1150 to 1500. Its greatest representatives are Chaucer (1340-1400) in poetry and Wiclif (1324-1384) in prose. There were three prominent dialects during this period: the Northern, corresponding to the older Northumbrian; the Midland (divided into East Midland and West Midland), corresponding to the Mercian; and the Southern, corresponding to the West Saxon and Kentish. London, situated in East Midland territory, had become the dominant speech center; and it was this East Midland dialect that both Chaucer and Wiclif employed.

NOTE.—It is a great mistake to think that Chaucer shaped our language from crude materials. His influence was conservative, not plastic. The popularity of his works tended to crystalize and thus to perpetuate the forms

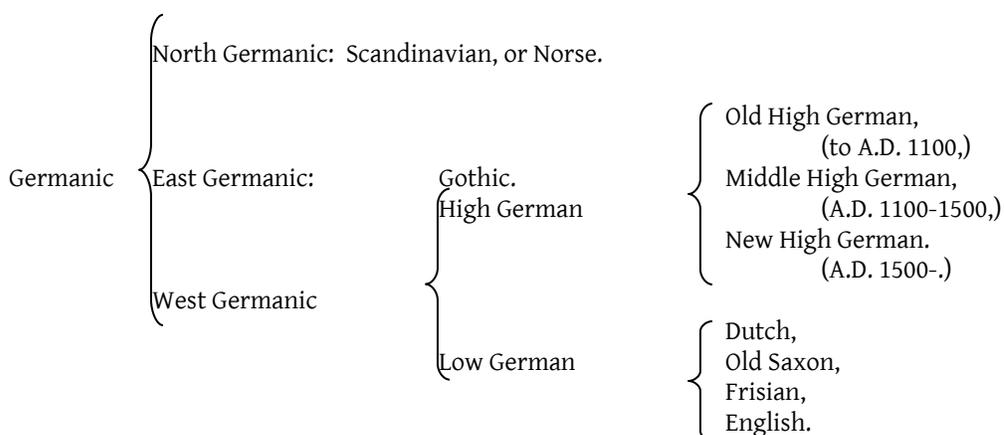
¹ This unfortunate nomenclature is due to the term *Angli Saxones*, which Latin writers used as a designation for the English Saxons as distinguished from the continental or Old Saxons. But Alfred and Ælfric both use the term *Englisc*, not Anglo-Saxon. The Angles spread over Northumbria and Mercia, far outnumbering the other tribes. Thus *Englisc* (= *Angel + isc*) became the general name for the language spoken.

² As small as England is, there are six distinct dialects spoken in her borders to-day. Of these the Yorkshire dialect is, perhaps, the most peculiar. It preserves many Northumbrian survivals. See Tennyson's *Northern Farmer*.

of the East Midland dialect, but that dialect was ready to his hand before he began to write. The speech of London was, in Chaucer's time, a mixture of Southern and Midland forms, but the Southern forms (survivals of the West Saxon dialect) had already begun to fall away; and this they continued to do, so that "Chaucer's language," as Dr. Murray says, "is more Southern than standard English eventually became." See also Morsbach, *Ueber den Ursprung der neuenglischen Schriftsprache* (1888).

4. The last period is that of MODERN ENGLISH, or the period of *lost inflections*. *E.g. stones, care, will, bind, help*, each being a monosyllable. Modern English extends from A.D. 1500 to the present time. It has witnessed comparatively few grammatical changes, but the vocabulary of our language has been vastly increased by additions from the classical languages. Vowels, too, have shifted their values.
5. It is the object of this book to give an elementary knowledge of Early West Saxon prose, or the language of King Alfred. With this knowledge, it will not be difficult for the student to read Late West Saxon, or any other dialect of the Old English period. Such knowledge will also serve as the best introduction to the structure both of Middle English and of Modern English, besides laying a secure foundation for the scientific study of any other Germanic tongue.

NOTE.—The Germanic, or Teutonic, languages constitute a branch of the great Aryan, or Indo-Germanic (known also as the Indo-European) group. They are subdivided as follows:



Chapter II.

SOUNDS.

Vowels and Diphthongs.

6. The long vowels and diphthongs will in this book be designated by the macron (ˉ). Vowel length should in every case be associated by the student with each word learned: quantity alone sometimes distinguishes words meaning wholly different things: **fōr**, *he went*, **for**, *for*; **gōd**, *good*, **god**, *God*; **mān**, *crime*, **man**, *man*.

Long vowels and diphthongs:

ā as in *father*: **stān**, *a stone*.

ǣ as in *man* (prolonged): **slǣpan**, *to sleep*.

ē as in *they*: **hēr**, *here*.

ī as in *machine*: **mīn**, *mine*.

ō as in *note* (pure, not diphthongal): **bōc**, *book*.

ū as in *rule*: **tūn**, *town*.

ȳ as in German *grün*, or English *green* (with lips rounded):¹ **brȳd**, *bride*.

The diphthongs, long and short, have the stress upon the first vowel. The second vowel is obscured, and represents approximately the sound of *er* in *sooner*, *faster* (= *soon-uh*, *fast-uh*). The long diphthongs (**ǣ** is not a diphthong proper) are **ēo**, **īe**, and **ēa**. The sound of **ēo** is approximately reproduced in *mayor* (= *mā-uh*); that of **īe** in the dissyllabic pronunciation of *fear* (= *fē-uh*). But **ēa** = *ǣ-uh*. This diphthong is hardly to be distinguished from *ea* in *pear*, *bear*, etc., as pronounced in the southern section of the United States (= *bæ-uh*, *pæ-uh*).

7. The short sounds are nothing more than the long vowels and diphthongs shortened; but the student must at once rid himself of the idea that modern English *red*, for example, is the shortened form of *reed*, or that *mat* is the shortened form of *mate*. Pronounce these long sounds with increasing rapidity, and *reed* will approach *rid*, while *mate* will approach *met*. The Old English short vowel sounds are:

a as in *artistic*: **habban**, *to have*.

æ as in *mankind*: **dæg**, *day*.

e, ę as in *let*: **stelan**, *to steal*, **settan**, *to set*.

i as in *sit*: **hit**, *it*.

o as in *broad* (but shorter): **god**, *God*.

o as in *not*: **lomb**, *lamb*.

u as in *full*: **sunu**, *son*.

y as in *mill* (with lips rounded): **gylden**, *golden*.

NOTE:—The symbol **ę** is known as *umlaut-e* (§ 58). It stands for Germanic *a*, while **e** (without the cedilla)

¹ Vowels are said to be round, or rounded, when the lip-opening is rounded; that is, when the lips are thrust out and puckered as if preparing to pronounce *w*. Thus *o* and *u* are round vowels: add *-ing* to each, and phonetically you have added *-wing*. E.g. *go^wing*, *su^wing*.

represents Germanic *e*. The symbol **o** is employed only before **m** and **n**. It, too, represents Germanic *a*. But Alfred writes **manig** or **monig**, *many*; **lamb** or **lomb**, *lamb*; **hand** or **hond**, *hand*, etc. The cedilla is an etymological sign added by modern grammarians.

Consonants.

8. There is little difference between the values of Old English consonants and those of Modern English. The following distinctions, however, require notice:

The digraph **th** is represented in Old English texts by **ð** and **þ**, no consistent distinction being made between them. In the works of Alfred, **ð** (capital, **Ð**) is the more common: **ðās**, *those*; **ðæt**, *that*; **bindeð**, *he binds*.

The consonant **c** had the hard sound of *k*, the latter symbol being rare in West Saxon: **cyning**, *king*; **cwēn**, *queen*; **cūð**, *known*. When followed by a palatal vowel sound,—*e*, *i*, *æ*, *ea*, *eo*, long or short,—a vanishing *y* sound was doubtless interposed (*cf.* dialectic *kʷind* for *kind*). In Modern English the combination has passed into *ch*: **cealc**, *chalk*; **cīdan**, *to chide*; **lēce**, *leech*; **cild**, *child*; **cēowan**, *to chew*. This change (*c > ch*) is known as Palatalization. The letter **g**, pronounced as in Modern English *gun*, has also a palatal value before the palatal vowels (*cf.* dialectic *gʷirl* for *girl*).

The combination **cg**, which frequently stands for **gg**, had probably the sound of *dge* in Modern English *edge*: **ecg**, *edge*; **secgan**, *to say*; **brycg**, *bridge*.

Initial **h** is sounded as in Modern English: **habban**, *to have*; **hālga**, *saint*. When closing a syllable it has the sound of German *ch*: **slōh**, *he slew*; **hēah**, *high*; **ðurh**, *through*.

9. An important distinction is that between voiced (or sonant) and voiceless (or surd) consonants.¹ In Old English they are as follows:

VOICED.	VOICELESS.
g	h, c
d	t
ð, þ (as in <i>though</i>)	ð, þ (as in <i>thin</i>)
b	p
f (= <i>v</i>)	f
s (= <i>z</i>)	s

It is evident, therefore, that **ð** (**þ**), **f**, and **s** have double values in Old English. If voiced, they are equivalent to *th* in (*though*), *v*, and *z*. Otherwise, they are pronounced as *th* (in *thin*), *f* (in *fin*), and *s* (in *sin*). The syllabic environment will usually compel the student to give these letters their proper values. When occurring between vowels, they are always voiced: **ōðer**, *other*; **ofer**, *over*; **rīsan**, *to rise*.

NOTE.—The general rule in Old English, as in Modern English, is, that voiced consonants have a special affinity for other voiced consonants, and voiceless for voiceless. This is the law of Assimilation. Thus when *de* is added to form the preterit of a verb whose stem ends in a voiceless consonant, the **d** is unvoiced, or assimilated, to **t**: **seġtan**, *to set*, **seġte** (but **treġddan**, *to tread*, has **treġdde**); **slāpan**, *to sleep*, **slāpte**; **drēncan**, *to drench*, **drēncete**; **cyssan**, *to kiss*, **cyste**. See § 126, Note 1.

¹A little practice will enable the student to see the appropriateness of calling these consonants voiced and voiceless. Try to pronounce a voiced consonant,—*d* in *den*, for example, but without the assistance of *en*,—and there will be heard a gurgle, or vocal murmur. But in *t*, of *ten*, there is no sound at all, but only a feeling of tension in the organs.

Syllables.

10. A syllable is usually a vowel, either alone or in combination with consonants, uttered with a single impulse of stress; but certain consonants may form syllables: *oven* (= *ov-n*), *battle* (= *bæt-l*); (cf. also the vulgar pronunciation of *elm*).

A syllable may be (1) weak or strong, (2) open or closed, (3) long or short.

(1) A weak syllable receives a light stress. Its vowel sound is often different from that of the corresponding strong, or stressed, syllable. Cf. weak and strong *my* in "I want my *lárge* hat" and "I want *mý* hat."

(2) An open syllable ends in a vowel or diphthong: **dē-man**, to deem; **ðū**, thou; **sca-can**, to shake; **dæ-ges**, by day. A closed syllable ends in one or more consonants: **ðing**, thing; **gōd**, good; **glæd**, glad.

(3) A syllable is long (a) if it contains a long vowel or a long diphthong: **drī-fan**, to drive; **lū-can**, to lock; **slæ-pan**, to sleep; **cēo-san**, to choose, (b) if its vowel or diphthong is followed by more than one consonant:¹ **cræft**, strength; **heard**, hard; **lib-ban**, to live; **feal-lan**, to fall. Otherwise, the syllable is short: **ðe**, which; **be-ran**, to bear; **ðæt**, that; **gie-fan**, to give.

NOTE 1.—A single consonant belongs to the following syllable: **hā-lig**, holy (not **hāl-ig**); **wrī-tan**, to write; **fæ-der**, father.

NOTE 2.—The student will notice that the syllable may be long and the vowel short; but the vowel cannot be long and the syllable short.

NOTE 3.—Old English short vowels, occurring in open syllables, have regularly become long in Modern English: **we-fan**, to weave; **e-tan**, to eat; **ma-cian**, to make; **na-cod**, naked; **a-can**, to ache; **o-fer**, over. And Old English long vowels, preceding two or more consonants, have generally been shortened: **brēost**, breast; **hælð**, health; **slæpte**, slept; **lædde**, led.

Accentuation.

11. The accent in Old English falls usually on the radical syllable, never on the inflectional ending: **bríngan**, to bring; **stānas**, stones; **bérende**, bearing; **ídelnes**, idleness; **fréonscipe**, friendship.

But in the case of compound nouns, adjectives, and adverbs the first member of the compound (unless it be **ge-** or **be-**) receives the stronger stress: **héofon-ríce**, heaven-kingdom; **ǫnd-giet**, intelligence; **sðo-fæst**, truthful; **gód-cund**, divine; **éall-unga**, entirely; **blíðe-líce**, blithely. But **be-haât**, promise; **ge-béd**, prayer; **geféalíc**, joyous; **be-sóne**, immediately.

Compound verbs, however, have the stress on the radical syllable: **for-gíefan**, to forgive; **of-línnan**, to cease; **ā-cnāwan**, to know; **wið-stóndan**, to withstand; **on-sácan**, to resist.

NOTE.—The tendency of nouns to take the stress on the prefix, while verbs retain it on the root, is exemplified in many Modern English words: *préference*, *prefér*; *cóntract* (noun), *contráct* (verb); *ábstinence*, *abstáin*; *pérfume* (noun), *perfúme* (verb).

CHAPTER III.

INFLECTIONS.

¹ Taken separately, every syllable ending in a single consonant is long. It may be said, therefore, that all closed syllables are long; but in the natural flow of language, the single final consonant of a syllable so often blends with a following initial vowel, the syllable thus becoming open and short, that such syllables are not recognized as prevailing long. Cf. Modern English *at all* (= *a-tall*).

Cases.

12. There are five cases in Old English: the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the accusative, and the instrumental.¹ Each of them, except the nominative, may be governed by prepositions. When used without propositions, they have, in general, the following functions:

- (a) The nominative, as in Modern English, is the case of the subject of a finite verb.
- (b) The genitive (the possessive case of Modern English) is the case of the possessor or source. It may be called the *of* case.
- (c) The dative is the case of the indirect object. It may be called the *to* or *for* case.
- (d) The accusative (the objective case of Modern English) is the case of the direct object.
- (e) The instrumental, which rarely differs from the dative in form, is the case of the means or the method. It may be called the *with* or *by* case.

The following paradigm of **mūð**, *the mouth*, illustrates the several cases (the article being, for the present, gratuitously added in the Modern English equivalents):

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
N.	mūð = <i>the mouth</i> .	mūð-as = <i>the mouths</i> .
G.	mūð-es ² = <i>of the mouth</i> (= <i>the mouth's</i>).	mūð-a = <i>of the mouths</i> . (= <i>the mouths'</i>).
D.	mūð-e = <i>to or for the mouth</i> .	mūð-um = <i>to or for the mouths</i> .
A.	mūð = <i>the mouth</i> .	mūð-as = <i>the mouths</i> .
I.	mūðe = <i>with or by means of</i> <i>the mouth</i> .	mūð-um = <i>with or by means of</i> <i>the mouths</i> .

Gender.

13. The gender of Old English nouns, unlike that of Modern English, depends partly on meaning and partly on form, or ending. Thus **mūð**, *mouth*, is masculine; **tunge**, *tongue*, feminine; **ēage**, *eye*, neuter.

No very comprehensive rules, therefore, can be given; but the gender of every noun should be learned with its meaning. Gender will be indicated in the vocabularies by the different gender forms of the definite article, **sē** for the masculine, **sēo** for the feminine, and **ðæt** for the neuter: **sē**, **mūð**, **sēo tunge**, **ðæt ēage** = *the mouth, the tongue, the eye*.

All nouns ending in **-dōm**, **-hād**, **-scipe**, or **-ere** are masculine (cf. Modern English *wisdom*, *childhood*, *friendship*, *worker*). Masculine, also, are nouns ending in **-a**.

Those ending in **-nes** or **-ung** are feminine (cf. Modern English *goodness*, and gerundial forms in *-ing*: *see-ing* is *believing*).

Thus **sē wīsdōm**, *wisdom*; **sē cildhād**, *childhood*; **sē frēondscipe**, *friendship*; **sē fiscere**, *fisher*

¹Most grammars add a sixth case, the vocative. But it seems best to consider the vocative as only a *function* of the nominative form.

²Of course our "apostrophe and s" (= 's) comes from the Old English genitive ending **-es**. The *e* is preserved in *Wednesday* (= Old English **Wōdnes dæg**). But at a very early period it was thought that *John's book*, for example, was a shortened form of *John his book*. Thus Addison (*Spectator*, No. 135) declares 's a survival of *his*. How, then, would he explain the *s* of *his*? And how would he dispose of *Mary's book*?

(*man*); *sē hunta*, *hunter*; *sēo gelīcnes*, *likeness*; *sēo leornung*, *learning*.

Declensions.

14. There are two great systems of declension in Old English, the Vowel Declension and the Consonant Declension. A noun is said to belong to the Vowel Declension when the final letter of its stem is a vowel, this vowel being then known as the *stem-characteristic*; but if the stem-characteristic is a consonant, the noun belongs to the Consonant Declension. There might have been, therefore, as many subdivisions of the Vowel Declension in Old English as there were vowels, and as many subdivisions of the Consonant Declension as there were consonants. All Old English nouns, however, belonging to the Vowel Declension, ended their stems originally in **a**, **ō**, **i**, or **u**. Hence there are but four subdivisions of the Vowel Declension: **a**-stems, **ō**-stems, **i**-stems, and **u**-stems.

The Vowel Declension is commonly called the Strong Declension, and its nouns Strong Nouns.

NOTE.—The terms Strong and Weak were first used by Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) in the terminology of verbs, and thence transferred to nouns and adjectives. By a Strong Verb, Grimm meant one that could form its preterit out of its own resources; that is, without calling in the aid of an additional syllable: Modern English *run*, *ran*; *find*, *found*; but verbs of the Weak Conjugation had to borrow, as it were, an inflectional syllable: *gain*, *gained*; *help*, *helped*.

15. The stems of nouns belonging to the Consonant Declension ended, with but few exceptions, in the letter **n** (cf. Latin *homin-em*, *ration-em*, Greek *ποιμέν-α*). They are called, therefore, **n**-stems, the Declension itself being known as the **n**-Declension, or the Weak Declension. The nouns, also, are called Weak Nouns.

16. If every Old English noun had preserved the original Germanic stem-characteristic (or final letter of the stem), there would be no difficulty in deciding at once whether any given noun is an **a**-stem, **ō**-stem, **i**-stem, **u**-stem, or **n**-stem; but these final letters had, for the most part, either been dropped, or fused with the case-endings, long before the period of historic Old English. It is only, therefore, by a rigid comparison of the Germanic languages with one another, and with the other Aryan languages, that scholars are able to reconstruct a single Germanic language, in which the original stem-characteristics may be seen far better than in any one historic branch of the Germanic group (§ 5, Note).

This hypothetical language, which bears the same ancestral relation to the historic Germanic dialects that Latin bears to the Romance tongues, is known simply as *Germanic* (Gmc), or as *Primitive Germanic*. Ability to reconstruct Germanic forms is not expected of the students of this book, but the following table should be examined as illustrating the basis of distinction among the several Old English declensions (O.E. = Old English, Mn.E. = Modern English):

I. Strong or Vowel Declensions	{ (1) a -stems (2) ō -stems (3) i -stems (4) u -stems }	{ Gmc. <i>staina-z</i> , O.E. stān , Mn.E. <i>stone</i> .
		{ Gmc. <i>hallō</i> . O.E. heall , Mn.E. <i>hall</i> .
		{ Gmc. <i>bōni-z</i> , O.E. bēn , Mn.E. <i>boon</i> .
		{ Gmc. <i>sunu-z</i> , O.E. sunu , Mn.E. <i>son</i> ,
II. Consonant Declensions	{ (1) n -stems (Weak Declension) (2) Remnants of other Consonant Declensions }	{ Gmc. <i>tungōn-iz</i> O.E. tung-an , Mn.E. <i>tongue-s</i> .
		(a) { Gmc. <i>fōt-iz</i> , O.E. fēt , Mn.E. <i>feet</i> .
		(b) { Gmc. <i>frijōnd-iz</i> , O.E. friēnd , Mn.E. <i>friend-s</i> .
		(c) { Gmc. <i>brōðr-iz</i> , O.E. brōðor , Mn.E. <i>brother-s</i> .

NOTE.—“It will be seen that if Old English **ēage**, *eye*, is said to be an **n**-stem, what is meant is this, that at some former period the kernel of the word ended in **-n**, while, as far as the Old English language proper is concerned, all that is implied is that the word is inflected in a certain manner.” (Jespersen, *Progress in Language*, § 109).

This is true of all Old English stems, whether Vowel or Consonant. The division, therefore, into **a**-stems, **ō**-stems, etc., is made in the interests of grammar as well as of philology.

Conjugations.

17. There are, likewise, two systems of conjugation in Old English: the Strong or Old Conjugation, and the Weak or New Conjugation.

The verbs of the Strong Conjugation (the so-called Irregular Verbs of Modern English) number about three hundred, of which not one hundred remain in Modern English (§ 101, Note). They form their preterit and frequently their past participle by changing the radical vowel of the present stem. This vowel change or modification is called *ablaut* (pronounced *áhp-lowt*): Modern English *sing, sang, sung; rise, rose, risen*. As the radical vowel of the preterit plural is often different from that of the preterit singular, there are four *principal parts* or *tense stems* in an Old English strong verb, instead of the three of Modern English. The four principal parts in the conjugation of a strong verb are (1) the present indicative, (2) the preterit indicative singular, (3) the preterit indicative plural, and (4) the past participle.

Strong verbs fall into seven groups, illustrated in the following table:

PRESENT	PRET. SING.	PRET. PLUR.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
I. Bītan to bite: Ic bīt-e , I bite or shall bite. ¹	Ic bāt , I bit.	Wē bit-on , we bit.	Ic hæbbe ge²-bit-en , I have bitten.
II. Bēodan , to bid: Ic bēod-e , I bid or shall bid.	Ic bēad , I bade.	Wē bud-on , we bade.	Ic hæbbe ge-bod-en , I have bidden.
III. Bindan , to bind: Ic bind-e , I bind or shall bind.	Ic bōnd , I bound.	Wē bund-on , we bound.	Ic hæbbe ge-bund-en , I have bound.
IV. Beran. to bear: Ic ber-e , I bear or shall bear.	Ic bær , I bore.	Wē bær-on , we bore.	Ic hæbbe ge-bor-en , I have borne.
V. Metan , to measure: Ic mēt-e , I measure or shall measure.	Ic mæt , I measured.	Wē mæton , we measured.	Ic hæbbe ge-met-en , I have measured.
VI. Faran , to go: Ic far-e , I go or shall go.	Ic fōr , I went.	Wē fōron , we went.	Ic eom³ge-far-en , I have (am) gone.
VII. Feallan , to fall: Ic faell-e , I fall or shall fall.	Ic fēoll , I fell.	Wē fēoll-on , we fell.	Ic eom³ge-feall-en , I have (am) fallen.

18. The verbs of the Weak Conjugation (the so-called Regular Verbs of Modern English) form their preterit and past participle by adding to the present stem a suffix⁴ with *d* or

¹ Early West Saxon had no distinctive form for the future. The present was used both as present proper and as future. Cf. Modern English "I go home tomorrow," or "I am going home tomorrow" for "I shall go home tomorrow."

² The prefix **ge-** (Middle English *y-*), cognate with Latin *co* (*con*) and implying completeness of action, was not always used. It never occurs in the past participles of compound verbs: **oþ-feallan**, to fall off, past participle **oþ-feallen** (not **oþ-gefeallen**). Milton errs in prefixing it to a present participle:

"What needs my Shakespeare, for his honour'd bones,
The labour of an age in piled stones?
Or that his hallow'd reliques should be hid
Under a star-ypointing pyramid."

—Eptiaph on William Shakespeare.

And Shakespeare misuses it in "Y-ravished," a preterit (*Pericles III, Prologue 1. 35*).

It survives in the archaic *y-clept* (Old English **ge-clypod**, called). It appears as *a* in *aware* (Old English **ge-wær**), as *e* in *enough* (Old English **ge-nōh**), and as *i* in *handiwork* (Old English **hand-ge-weorc**).

³ With intransitive verbs denoting *change of condition*, the Old English auxiliary is usually some form of *to be* rather than *to have*. See § 139.

⁴ The theory that *loved*, for example, is a fused form of *love-did* has been generally given up. The dental

t: Modern English *love, loved; sleep, slept*.

The stem of the preterit plural is never different from the stem of the preterit singular; hence these verbs have only three distinctive tense-stems, or principal parts: viz., (1) the present indicative, (2) the preterit indicative, and (3) the past participle.

Weak verbs fall into three groups, illustrated in the following table:

PRESENT.	PRETERIT.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
<p>I. Frēmman, to perform: Ic frēm-m-e, I perform or shall perform</p>	<p>Ic frēm-ede, I performed.</p>	<p>Ic hǣbbe ge-frēm-ed, I have performed.</p>
<p>II. Bodian, to proclaim: Ic bodi-e, I proclaim or shall proclaim.</p>	<p>Ic bod-ode, I proclaimed.</p>	<p>Ic hǣbbe ge-bod-od, I have proclaimed.</p>
<p>III. Habban, to have: Ic hǣbbe, I have or shall have.</p>	<p>Ic hǣf-de, I had.</p>	<p>Ic hǣbbe ge-hǣf-d, I have had.</p>

19. There remain a few verbs (chiefly the Auxiliary Verbs of Modern English) that do not belong entirely to either of the two conjugations mentioned. The most important of them are, **Ic mæg** I may, **Ic mihte** I might; **Ic cōn** I can, **Ic cūðe** I could; **Ic mōt** I must, **Ic mōste**, I must; **Ic sceal** I shall, **Ic sceolde** I should; **Ic eom** I am, **Ic wæs** I was; **Ic wille** I will, **Ic wolde** I would; **Ic dō** I do, **Ic dȳde** I did; **Ic gā** I go, **Ic ēode** I went.

All but the last four of these are known as Preterit-Present Verbs. The present tense of each of them is *in origin* a preterit, *in function* a present. Cf. Modern English *ought* (= *owed*).

ending was doubtless an Indo-Germanic suffix, which became completely specialized only in the Teutonic languages.

CHAPTER IV.

ORDER OF WORDS.

20. The order of words in Old English is more like that of Modern German than of Modern English. Yet it is only the Transposed order that the student will feel to be at all un-English; and the Transposed order, even before the period of the Norman Conquest, was fast yielding place to the Normal order.

The three divisions of order are (1) Normal, (2) Inverted, and (3) Transposed.

(1) Normal order = subject + predicate. In Old English, the Normal order is found chiefly in independent clauses. The predicate is followed by its modifiers: **Sē hwæl bið micle læssa þonne ðore hwalas**, *That whale is much smaller than other whales*; **Ɔnd hē geseah twā scipu**, *And he saw two ships*.

(2) Inverted order = predicate + subject. This order occurs also in independent clauses, and is employed (a) when some modifier of the predicate precedes the predicate, the subject being thrown behind. The words most frequently causing Inversion in Old English prose are **þā then**, **þonne then**, and **þær there**: **Ɔā fōr hē**, *Then went he*; **Ɔonne ærnað hȳ ealle tōweard þæm feo**, *Then gallop they all toward the property*; **ac þær bið medo genōh**, *but there is mead enough*.

Inversion is employed (b) in interrogative sentences: **Lufast ðū mē?** *Lovest thou me?* And (c) in imperative sentences: **Cume ðīn rīce**, *Thy kingdom come*.

(3) Transposed order = subject . . . predicate. That is, the predicate comes last in the sentence, being preceded by its modifiers. This is the order observed in dependent clauses:¹ **Ɔonne cymeð sē man sē þæt swift-oste hors hafað**, *Then comes the man that has the swiftest horse* (literally, *that the swiftest horse has*); **Ne mētte hē ær nān gebūn land, siþþan hē frow his āgnum hām fōr**, *Nor did he before find any cultivated land, after he went from his own home* (literally, *after he from his own home went*).

21. Two other peculiarities in the order of words require a brief notice.

(1) Pronominal datives and accusatives usually precede the predicate: **Hē hine oferwann**, *He overcame him* (literally, *He him overcame*); **Drȳhten him andwyrde**, *The Lord answered him*. But substantival datives and accusatives, as in Modern English, follow the predicate.

The following sentence illustrates both orders: **Hȳ genāmon Ioseph, Ɔnd hine gesealdon cīpemōnnum, Ɔnd hȳ hine gesealdon in Ēgypta lōnd**, *They took Joseph, and sold him to merchants, and they sold him into Egypt* (literally, *They took Joseph, and him sold to merchants, and they him sold into Egyptians' land*).

NOTE.—The same order prevails in the case of pronominal nominatives used as predicate nouns: **Ic hit eom** *It is I* (literally, *I, it am*); **Ɔū hit eart**, *It is thou* (literally, *Thou it art*).

(2) The attributive genitive, whatever relationship it expresses, usually precedes the noun which it qualifies: **Breoton is gārsecges īgland**, *Britain is an island of the ocean* (literally, *ocean's island*); **SwiIce hit is ēac berende on węcga ðrum**, *Likewise it is also rich in ores of metals*

¹ But in the *Voyages of Othhere and Wulfstan*, in which the style is apparently more that of oral than of written discourse, the Normal is more frequent than the Transposed order in dependent clauses. In his other writings Alfred manifests a partiality for the Transposed order in dependent clauses, except in the case of substantival clauses introduced by **þæt**. Such clauses show a marked tendency to revert to their Normal *oratio recta* order. The norm thus set by the indirect affirmative clause seems to have proved an important factor in the ultimate disappearance of Transposition from dependent clauses. The influence of Norman French helped only to consummate forces that were already busily at work.

(literally *metals' ores*); **Cyninga cyning**, *King of kings* (literally, *Kings' king*); **Gē witon Godes rīces gerȳne**, *Ye know the mystery of the kingdom of God* (literally, *Ye know God's kingdom's mystery*).

A preposition governing the word modified by the genitive, precedes the genitive:¹ **On eldra manna sægenum**, *In old men's sayings*; **Æt ðǣra strǣta ęndum**, *At the ends of the streets* (literally, *At the streets' ends*); **For ealra ðīnra hālgena lufan**, *For all thy saints' love*. See, also, § 94, (5).

¹ The positions of the genitive are various. It frequently follows its noun: **þā bearn þāra Aðeniensa**, *The children of the Athenians*. It may separate an adjective and a noun: **Ān lȳtel sæs earm**, *A little arm of (the) sea*. The genitive may here be construed as an adjective, or part of a compound = *A little sea-arm*; **Mid monegum Godes gifum**, *With many God-gifts = many divine gifts*.

CHAPTER V.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

22. In the study of Old English, the student must remember that he is dealing not with a foreign or isolated language but with the earlier forms of his own mother tongue. The study will prove profitable and stimulating in proportion as close and constant comparison is made of the old with the new. The guiding principles in such a comparison are reducible chiefly to two. These are (1) the regular operation of phonetic laws, resulting especially in certain Vowel Shiftings, and (2) the alterations in form and syntax that are produced by Analogy.

(1) "The former of these is of physiological or *natural* origin, and is perfectly and inflexibly regular throughout the same period of the same language; and even though different languages show different phonetic habits and predilections, there is a strong general resemblance between the changes induced in one language and in another; many of the particular laws are true for many languages.

(2) "The other principle is psychical, or mental, or *artificial*, introducing various more or less capricious changes that are supposed to be emendations; and its operation is, to some extent, uncertain and fitful."¹

(1) Vowel-Shiftings.

23. It will prove an aid to the student in acquiring the inflections and vocabulary of Old English to note carefully at the following shiftings that have taken place in the gradual growth of the Old English vowel system into that of Modern English.

(1) As stated in § 3, the Old English inflectional vowels, which were all short and unaccented, weakened in early Middle English to *e*. This *e* in Modern English is frequently dropped:

OLD ENGLISH.	MIDDLE ENGLISH.	MODERN ENGLISH.
stān-as	ston-es	stones
sun-u	sun-e	son
sun-a	sun-e	sons
ox-an	ox-en	oxen
swift-ra	swift-er	swifter
swift-ost	swift-est	swiftest
lōc-ode	lok-edē	looked

¹ Skeat, *Principles of English Etymology*, Second Series, § 342. But Jespersen, with Collitz and others, stoutly contests "the theory of sound laws and analogy sufficing between them to explain everything in linguistic development."

- (2) The old English long vowels have shifted their phonetic values with such uniform regularity that it is possible in almost every case to infer the Modern English sound; but our spelling is so chaotic that while the student may infer the modern sound, he cannot always infer the modern symbol representing the sound.

OLD ENGLISH.	MODERN ENGLISH.	
ā	o (as in <i>no</i>) ¹	{ nā =no; stān =stone; bān =bone; rād =road; āc =oak; hāl =whole; hām =home; sāwan =to sow; gāst =ghost.
ē	e (as in <i>he</i>)	{ hē =he; wē =we; ðē =thee; mē =me; gē =ye; hēl =heel; wērig =weary; gelēfan =to believe; gēs =geese.
ī (ȳ)	i (y) (as in <i>mine</i>)	{ mīn =mine; ðīn =thine; wīr =wire; mȳs =mice; rīm =rime (wrongly spelt rhyme); lȳs =lice; bī =by; scīnan =to shine; stīg rāp =sty-rope (shortened to <i>stirrup</i> , stīgan meaning to mount).
ō	o (as in <i>do</i>)	{ dō =I do; tō =too, to; gōs =goose; tōð =tooth; mōna =moon; dōm =doom; mōd =mood; wōgian =to woo; slōh =I slew.
ū	ou (ow) (as in <i>thou</i>)	{ ðū =thou; fūl =foul; hūs =house; nū =now; hū =how; tūn =town; ūre =our; ūt =out; hlūd =loud; ðūsend =thousand.
ǣ, ēa, ēo ea (as in <i>sea</i>)		{ ǣ : sǣ =sea; mǣl =meal; dǣlan =to deal; clǣne =clean; grǣdig =greedy. ēa : ēare =ear; ēast =east; drēam =dream; gēar =year; bēatan =to beat. ēo : ðrēo =three; drēorig =dreary; sēo =she; hrēod =reed; dēop =deep.

¹ But Old English **ā** preceded by **w** sometimes gives Modern English o as in two: **twā**=two; **hwā**=who; **hwām**=whom.

(2) Analogy.

24. But more important than vowel shifting is the great law of Analogy, for Analogy shapes not only words but constructions. It belongs, therefore, to Etymology and to Syntax, since it influences both form and function. By this law, minorities tend to pass over to the side of the majorities. “The greater mass of cases exerts an assimilative influence upon the smaller.”¹ The effect of Analogy is to simplify and to regularize. “The main factor in getting rid of irregularities is group-influence, or Analogy—the influence exercised by the members of an association-group on one another. . . . Irregularity consists in partial isolation from an association-group through some formal difference.”²

Under the influence of Analogy, entire declensions and conjugations have been swept away, leaving in Modern English not a trace of their former existence. There are in Old English, for example, five plural endings for nouns, **-as**, **-a**, **-e**, **-u**, and **-an**. No one could well have predicted³ that **-as** (Middle English **-es**) would soon take the lead, and become the norm to which the other endings would eventually conform, for there were more **an**-plurals than **as**-plurals; but the **as**-plurals were doubtless more often employed in everyday speech. *Oxen* (Old English **oxan**) is the sole pure survival of the hundreds of Old English **an**-plurals. No group of feminine nouns in Old English had **-es** as the genitive singular ending; but by the close of the Middle English period all feminines formed their genitive singular in **-es** (or **-s**, Modern English **'s**) after the analogy of the Old English masculine and neuter nouns with **es**-genitives. The weak preterits in **-ode** have all been leveled under the **ed**-forms, and of the three hundred strong verbs in Old English more than two hundred have become weak.

These are not cases of derivation (as are the shifted vowels): Modern English **-s** in *sons*, for example, could not possibly be derived from Old English **-a** and **suna**, or Middle English **-e** in *sune* (§ 23, (1)). They are cases of replacement of Analogy.

A few minor examples will quicken the student's appreciation of the nature of the influence exercised by Analogy:

(a) The intrusive *l* in *could* (Chaucer always wrote *coud* or *coude*) is due to association with *would* and *should*, in each of which *l* belongs by etymological right.

(b) *He need not* (for *He needs not*) is due to the assimilative influence of the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, etc., which have never added **-s** for their third person singular (§ 137).

(c) *I am friends with him*, in which *friends* is a crystallized form on *good terms*, may be traced to the influence of such expressions as *He an I are friends*, *They are friends*, etc.

(d) Such errors as are seen in *runned*, *seed*, *gooses*, *badder*, *hissself*, *says I* (usually coupled with *says he*) are all analogical formations. Though not sanctioned by good usage, it is hardly right to call these forms the products of “false analogy.” The grammar involved is false, because unsupported by literary usages and traditions; but the analogy on which these forms are built is no more false than the law of gravitation is false when it makes a dress sit

¹ Whitney, *Life and Growth of Language*, Chap. IV.

² Sweet, *A New English Grammar*, Part I., § 535.

³ As Skeat says (§ 22, (2)), Analogy is “fitful.” It enables us to explain many linguistic phenomena, but not to anticipate them. The multiplication of books tends to check its influence by perpetuating the forms already in use. Thus Chaucer employed nine *en*-plurals, and his influence served for a time to check the further encroachment of the *es*-plurals. As soon as there is an acknowledged standard in any language, the operation of Analogy is fettered.

unconventionally.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

THE STRONG OR VOWEL DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS.
THE **a**-DECLENSION.

CHAPTER VI.

(a) **Masculine a-Stems.**

[O.E. M.E. and Mn.E. will henceforth be used for Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. Other abbreviations employed are self-explaining.]

25. The **a**-Declension, corresponding to the Second or *o*-Declension of Latin and Greek, contains only *(a)* masculine and *(b)* neuter nouns. To this declension belong most of the O.E. Masculine and neuter nouns. At a very early period, many of the nouns belonging properly to the **i**- and **u**-Declensions began to pass over to the **a**-Declension. This declension may therefore be considered the for all masculine and neuter nouns belonging to the Strong Declension.

26. Paradigms of **sē mūð**, *mouth*; **sē fiscere**, *fisherman*; **sē hwæl**, *whale*; **sē mearh**, *horse*; **sē finger**, *finger*:

<i>Sing.</i> N.A.	mūð	fiscer-e	hwæl	mearh	finger
G.	mūð-es	fiscer-es	hwæl-es	mēar-es	fingr-es
D.I.	mūð-e	fiscer-e	hwæl-e	mēar-e	fingr-e
<i>Plur.</i> N.A.	mūð-as	fiscer-as	hwal-as	mēar-as	fingr-as
G.	mūð-a	fiscer-a	hwal-a	mēar-a	fingr-a
D.I.	mūð-um	fiscer-um	hwal-um	mēar-um	fingr-um

NOTE.—For meanings of the cases, see § 12. The dative and instrumental are alike in all nouns.

27. The student will observe (1) that nouns whose nominative ends in **-e (fiscere)** drop this letter before adding the case endings; (2) that **æ** before a consonant (**hwæl**) changes to **a** in the plural;¹ (3) that **h**, preceded by **r (mearh)** or **l (seolh, seal)**, is dropped before an inflectional vowel, the stem vowel being then lengthened by way of compensation; (4) that dissyllables (**finger**) having the first syllable long, generally syncopate the vowel of the second syllable before adding the case endings.²

28. Paradigm of the Definite Article³ **sē, sēo, ðæt=the**:

¹ Adjectives usually retain **æ** in closed syllables, changing it to **a** in open syllables: **hwæt** (*active*), **glæd** (*glad*), **wær** (*wary*) have G. **hwates**, **glades**, **wares**; D. **hwatum**, **gladum**, **warum**; but A. **hwætne**, **glædne**, **wærne**. Nouns, however, change to **a** only in open syllables followed by a guttural vowel, **a** or **u**. The **æ** in the open syllables of the singular is doubtless due to the analogy of the N.A. singular, both being closed syllables.

² Cf. Mn.E. *drizz'ling*, *rememb'ring*, *abysmal* (*abysm = abiz'm*), *sick'ning*, in which the principle of syncopation is precisely the same.

³ This may mean four things: (1) *The*, (2) *That* (demonstrative), (3) *He, she, it*, (4), *Who, which, that* (relative pronoun). Mn.E. demonstrative *that* is, of course, the survival of O.E. neuter **ðæt** in its demonstrative sense. Professor Victor Henry (*Comparative Grammar of English and German*, § 160, 3) sees a survival of dative plural

	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Sing. N.	sē	sēo	ðæt
G.	ðæs	ðære	ðæs
D.	ðæm (ðām)	ðære	ðæm (ðām)
A.	ðone	ðā	ðæt
I.	ðȳ, ðon	—	ðȳ, ðon
		All Genders.	
Plur. N.A.		ðā	
G.		ðāra	
D.		ðæm (ðām)	

29.

VOCABULARY.¹

sē bōcere, scribe [bōc].	sē hierde, herdsman [shep-herd].
sē cyning, king.	oꝛd (and), and.
sē dæg, day.	sē secg, man, warrior.
sē ende, end.	sē seolh, seal.
sē engel, angel [angelus].	sē stān, stone.
sē frēodōm, freedom.	sē wealh, foreigner, Welshman
sē fugol (G. sometimes fugles), bird	[wal-nut].
[fowl].	sē weall, wall.
sē gār, spear [gore, gar-fish].	sē wīsdōm, wisdom.
sē heofon, heaven.	sē wulf, wolf.

30.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Ðāra wulfa mūðas.

2. Ðæs fisceres fingras.

3. Ðāra Wēala cyninge.

4. Ðæm englum oꝛd ðæm hierdum.

5. Ðāra daga ende.

6. Ðæm bōcerum oꝛd ðæm secgum ðæs cyninges.

7. Ðæm sēole oꝛd ðæm fuglum.

demonstrative **ðæm** in such an expression as *in them days*. It seems more probable, however, that *them* so used has followed the lead of *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*, in their double function of pronoun and adjective. There was doubtless some such evolution as, *I saw them. Them what? Them boys.*

An unquestioned survival of the dative singular feminine of the article is seen in the *-ter* of *Atterbury* (= **æt ðære byrig**, *at the town*); and **ðæm** survives in the *-ten* of *Attenborough*, the word *borough* having become an uninflected neuter. Skeat, *Principles*, First Series, § 185.

¹ The brackets contain etymological hints that may help the student to discern relationships otherwise overlooked. The genitive is given only when not perfectly regular.

8. Ðā stānas ʝnd ðā gāras.

9. Hwala ʝnd mēara.

10. Ðāra ʝngla wīsdōm.

11. Ðæs cyninges bōceres frēodōm.

12. Ðāra hierda fuglum.

13. Ðȳ stāne.

14. Ðǣm wealle.

II. 1. For the horses and seals.

2. For the Welshmen's freedom.

3. Of the king's birds.

4. By the wisdom of men and angels.

5. With the spear and the stone.

6. The herdsman's seal and the warrior's spears.

7. To the king of heaven.

8. By means of the scribe's wisdom.

9. The whale's mouth and the foreigner's spear.

10. For the bird belonging to (=of) the king's scribe.

11. Of that finger.

CHAPTER VII.

(b) Neuter a-Stems.

31. The neuter nouns of the **a**-Declension differ from the masculines only in the N.A. plural.
32. Paradigms of **ðæt hof**, *court, dwelling*; **ðæt bearn**, *child*; **ðæt bān**, *bone*; **ðæt rīce**, *kingdom*; **ðæt spere**, *spear*; **ðæt werod**, *band of men*; **ðæt tungol**, *star*:

Sing.	N.A.	hof	bearn	bān	rīc-e	sper-e	werod	tungol
	G.	hof-es	bearn-es	bān-es	rīc-es	sper-es	werod-es	tungl-es
	D.I.	hof-e	bearn-e	bān-e	rīc-e	sper-e	werod-e	tungl-e
Plur.	N.A.	hof-u	bearn	bān	rīc-u	sper-u	werod	tungl-u
	G.	hof-a	bearn-a	bān-a	rīc-a	sper-a	werod-a	tungl-a
	D.I.	hof-um	bearn-um	bān-um	rīc-um	sper-um	werod-um	tungl-um

33. The paradigms show (1) that monosyllables with short stems (**hof**) take **-u** in the N.A. plural; (2) that monosyllables with long stems (**bearn**, **bān**) do not distinguish the N.A. plural from the N.A. singular;¹ (3) that dissyllables in **-e**, whether the stem be long or short (**rīce spere**), have **-u** in the N.A. plural; (4) that dissyllables ending in a consonant and having the first syllable short² (**werod**) do not usually distinguish the N.A. plural from the N.A. singular; (5) that dissyllables ending in a consonant and having the first syllable long (**tungol**) more frequently take **-u** in the N.A. plural.

NOTE.—Syncope occurs as in the masculine **a**-stems. See § 27, (4).

34. Present and Preterit Indicative of **habban**, *to have*:

PRESENT.

- | | | |
|-------|----|--|
| Sing. | 1. | Ic hæbbe , <i>I have, or shall have.</i> ³ |
| | 2. | ðū hæfst (hafast), <i>thou hast, or wilt have.</i> |
| | 3. | hē, hēo, hit hæfð (hafað), <i>he, she, it has, or will have.</i> |
| Plur. | 1. | wē habbað , <i>we have, or shall have.</i> |
| | 2. | gē habbað , <i>ye have, or will have.</i> |
| | 3. | hīe habbað , <i>they have, or will have.</i> |

PRETERIT.

- | | | |
|-------|----|---|
| Sing. | 1. | Ic hæfde , <i>I had.</i> |
| | 2. | ðū hæfdest , <i>thou hadst.</i> |
| | 3. | hē, hēo, hit hæfde , <i>he, she, it had.</i> |
| Plur. | 1. | wē hæfdon , <i>we had.</i> |
| | 2. | gē hæfdon , <i>ye had.</i> |

¹ Note the many nouns in Mn.E. that are unchanged in the plural. These are either survivals of O.E. long stems, *swine, sheep, deer, folk*, or analogical forms, *fish, trout, mackerel, salmon, etc.*

² Dissyllables whose first syllable is a prefix are, of course, excluded. They follow the declension of their last member: **gebed**, *prayer*, **gebedu**, *prayers*; **gefoht**, *battle*, **gefoht**, *battles*.

³ See § 17, Note 1. Note that (as in **hwæl**, § 27, (2)) **æ** changes to **a** when the following syllable contains **a**: **hæbbe**, but **hafast**.

3. **hīe hæfdon**, *they had*.

NOTE.—The negative **ne**, *not*, which always precedes its verb, contracts with all the forms of **habban**. The negative loses its **e**, **habban** its **h**. **Ne + habban = nabban**; **ic ne hæbbe = ic næbbe**; **ic ne hæfde = ic næfde**, etc. The negative forms may be gotten, therefore, by simply substituting in each case **n** for **h**.

35.

VOCABULARY.

ðæt dæl, *dale*.ðæt dēor, *animal* [deer¹].ðæt dor, *door*.ðæt fæt, *vessel* [vat].ðæt fȳr, *fire*.ðæt gēar, *year*.ðæt geoc, *yoke*.ðæt geset, *habitation* [settlement].ðæt hēafod, *head*.ðæt hūs, *house*.ðæt līc, *body* [lich-gate].ðæt lim, *limb*.on (with the dat.), *in*.ðæt spor, *track*.ðæt wāpen, *weapon*.ðæt wīf, *wife, woman*.ðæt wīte, *punishment*.ðæt word, *word*.

36.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Hē hafað ðæs cyninges bearn.

2. Ðā Wēalas habbað ðā speru.

3. Ðā wīf habbað ðāra secgā wāpnu.

4. Ðū hæfst ðone fugol and ðæt hūs ðæs hierdes.

5. Hæfð² hēo ðā fatu³?

6. Hæfde hē ðæs wīfes līc on ðām hofe?

7. Hē næfde ðæs wīfes līc; hē hæfde ðæs dēores hēafod.

8. Hæfð sē cyning gesetu on ðām dæle?

¹ The old meaning survives in Shakespeare's "Rats and mice and such small deer," *King Lear*, III, 4, 144.

² See § 20, (2), (b).

³ See § 27, (2).

9. Sē bōcere hæfð ðā sēolas on ðæm hūse.

10. Gē habbað frēodōm.

II. 1. They have yokes and spears.

2. We have not the vessels in the house.

3. He had fire in the vessel.

4. Did the woman have (= Had the woman) the children?

5. The animal has the body of the woman's child.

6. I shall have the heads of wolves.

7. He and she have the king's houses.

8. Have not (= **Nabbað**) the children the warrior's weapons?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE \bar{o} -DECLENSION.

37. The \bar{o} -Declension, corresponding to the First or \bar{a} -Declension of Latin and Greek, contains only feminine nouns. Many feminine *i*-stems and *u*-stems soon passed over to this Declension. The \bar{o} -Declension may, therefore, be considered the *normal declension* for all strong feminine nouns.

38. Paradigms of **sēo giefu**, *gift*; **sēo wund**, *wound*; **sēo rōd**, *cross*; **sēo leornung**, *learning*, **sēo sāwol**, *soul*:

Sing.	N.	gief-u	wund	rōd	leornung	sāwol
	G.	gief-e	wund-e	rōd-e	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
	D.I.	gief-e	wund-e	rōd-e	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
	A.	gief-e	wund-e	rōd-e	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
Plur.	N.A.	gief-a	wund-a	rōd-a	leornung-a	sāwl-a
	G.	gief-a	wund-a	rōd-a	leornung-a	sāwl-a
	D.I.	gief-um	wund-um	rōd-um	leornung-um	sāwl-um

39. Note (1) that monosyllables with short stems (**giefu**) take **u** in the nominative singular; (2) that monosyllables with long stems (**wund**, **rōd**) present the unchanged stem in the nominative singular; (3) that dissyllables are declined as monosyllables, except that abstract nouns in **-ung** prefer **a** to **e** in the singular.

NOTE.—Syncope occurs as in masculine and neuter **a**-stems. See § 27, (4).

40. Present and Preterit Indicative of **bēon (wesān)**, *to be*:

	PRESENT (first form).		PRESENT (second form).		PRETERIT.
Sing.	1. Ic eom		1. Ic bēom		1. Ic wæs
	2. ðū eart		2. ðū bist		2. ðū wære
	3. hē is		3. hē bið		3. hē wæs
Plur.	1. wē	} sind (on), sint	1. wē	} bēoð	1. wē
	2. gē		2. gē		2. gē
	3. hīe		3. hīe		3. hīe

NOTE 1.—The forms **bēom**, **bist**, etc. are used chiefly as future tenses in O.E. They survive to-day only in dialects and in poetry. Farmer Dobson, for example, in Tennyson's *Promise of May*, uses *be* for all persons of the present indicative, both singular and plural; and *there be* is frequent in Shakespeare for *there are*. The Northern dialect employed **aron** as well as **sindon** and **sind** for the present plural; hence Mn.E. *are*.

NOTE 2.—Fusion with **ne** gives **neom** and **nis** for the present; **næs**, **nære**, **næron** for the preterit.

NOTE 3.—The verb *to be* is followed by the nominative case, as in Mn.E.; but when the predicate noun is plural, and the subject a neuter pronoun in the singular, the verb agrees in number with the predicate noun. The neuter

singular *ðæt* is frequently employed in this construction: **Ðæt wæron eall Finnas**, *They were all Fins*; **Ðæt sind englas**, *They are angels*; **Ðæt wæron engla gāstas**, *They were angels' spirits*.

Notice, too, that O.E. writers do not say *It is I, It is thou, but I it am, Thou it art*: **Ic hit eom, ðū hit eart**. See § 21, (1), Note 1.

41.

sēo brycg, *bridge*,
sēo costnung, *temptation*.
sēo cwalu, *death* [quail, quell].
sēo fōr, *journey* [faran].
sēo frōfor, *consolation, comfort*.
hwā, *who?*
hwær, *where?*
sēo lufu, *love*.
sēo mearc, *boundary* [mark, marches¹].
sēo mēd, *meed, reward*.

VOCABULARY.

sēo geoguð, *youth*.
sēo glōf, *glove*.
sēo hālignes², *holiness*.
sēo heall, *hall*.
hēr, *here*.
sēo mildheortnes, *mild-
heartedness, mercy*.
sēo stōw, *place* [stow away].
ðær, *there*.
sēo ðearf, *need*.
sēo wylf, *she wolf*.

42.

EXERCISES.

1. Hwær is ðære brycge ende?

2. Hēr sind ðāra rīca mearca.

3. Hwā hæfð þā glōfa?

4. Ðær bið ðæm cyninge frōfre ðearf.

5. Sēo wund is on ðære wylfe hēafde.

6. Wē habbað costnunga.

7. Hīe næron on ðære healle.

8. Ic hit neom.

9. Ðæt wæron Wēalās.

10. Ðæt sind ðæs wīfes bearn.

¹ All words ending in **-nes** double the **-s** before adding the case endings.

² As in *warden of the marches*.

II. 1. We shall have the women's gloves.

2. Where is the place?

3. He will be in the hall.

4. Those (**Dæt**) were not the boundaries of the kingdom.

5. It was not I.

6 Ye are not the king's scribes.

7. The shepherd's words are full (**full** + gen.) of wisdom and comfort.

8. Where are the bodies of the children?

9. The gifts are not here.

10. Who has the seals and the birds?

CHAPTER IX.

THE **i**-DECLENSION AND THE **u**-DECLENSION.THE **i**-DECLENSION.

43. The **i**-Declension, corresponding to the group of *i*-stems in the classical Third Declension, contains chiefly (a) masculine and (b) feminine nouns. The N.A. plural of these nouns ended originally in **-e** (from older *i*).

(a) **Masculine i-Stems.**

44. These stems have almost completely gone over to the **a**-Declension, so that **-as** is more common than **-e** as the N.A. plural ending, whether the stem is long or short. The short stems all have **-e** in the N.A. singular.

45. Paradigms of **sē wyrm**, *worm*; **sē wine**, *friend*.

<i>Sing.</i>	N.A.	wyrm	win-e
	G.	wyrm-es	win-es
	D.I.	wyrm-e	win-e
<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	wyrm-as	win-as (e)
	G.	wyrm-a	win-a
	D.I.	wyrm-um	win-um

Names of Peoples.

46. The only **i**-stems that regularly retain **-e** of the N.A. plural are certain names of tribes or peoples used only in the plural.

47. Paradigms of **ḏā Ʒngle**, *Angles*; **ḏā Norḏymbre**, *Northumbrians*; **ḏā lēode**, *people*:

<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	Ʒngle	Norḏymbre	lēode
	G.	Ʒngla	Norḏymbra	lēoda
	D.I.	Ʒnglum	Norḏymbrum	lēodum

(b) **Feminine i-Stems**

48. The short stems (**frēm-u**) conform entirely to the declension of short **ō**-stems; long stems (**cwēn**, **wyrt**) differ from long **ō**-stems in having no ending for the A. singular. They show, also, a preference for **-e** rather than **-a** in the N.A. plural.

49. Paradigms of **sēo frēm-u**, *benefit*; **sēo cwēn**, *woman, queen [quean]*; **sēo wyrt**, *root [wort]*:

<i>Sing.</i>	N.	frēm-u	cwēn	wyrt
	G.	frēm-e	cwēn-e	wyrt-e
	D.I.	frēm-e	cwēn-e	wyrt-e
	A.	frēm-e	cwēn	wyrt
<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	frēm-a	cwēn-e (a)	wyrt-e (a)
	G.	frēm-a	cwēn-a	wyrt-a
	D.I.	frēm-um	cwēn-um	wyrt-um

The *u*-Declension.

50. The *u*-Declension, corresponding to the group of *u*-stems in the classical Third Declension, contains no neuters, and but few (*a*) masculines and (*b*) feminines. The short-stemmed nouns of both genders (**sun-u**, **dur-u**) retain the final *u* of the N.A. singular, while the long stems (**feld**, **hōnd**) drop it. The influence of the masculine *a*-stems is most clearly seen in the long-stemmed masculines of the *u*-Declension (**feld**, **feld-es**, etc.).

NOTE.—Note the general aversion of all O.E. long stems to final *-u*: cf. N.A. plural **hof-u**, but **bearn**, **bān**; N. singular **gief-u**, but **wund**, **rōd**; N. singular **frēm-u**, but **cwēn**, **wyrt**; N.A. singular **sun-u**, **dur-u**, but **feld**, **hōnd**.

(a) Masculine *u*-Stems.

51. Paradigms of **sē sun-u**, *son*; **sē feld**, *field*:

<i>Sing.</i>	N.A.	sun-u	feld
	G.	sun-a	feld-a (es)
	D.I.	sun-a	feld-a (e)
<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	sun-a	feld-a (as)
	G.	sun-a	feld-a
	D.I.	sun-um	feld-um

(b) Feminine *u*-Stems.

52. Paradigms of **sēo dur-u**, *door*; **sēo hōnd**, *hand*:

<i>Sing.</i>	N.A.	dur-u	hōnd
	G.	dur-a	hōnd-a
	D.I.	dur-a	hōnd-a
<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	dur-a	hōnd-a

G.	dur-a	hond-a
D.I.	dur-um	hond-um

53. Paradigm of the Third Personal Pronoun, **hē, hēo, hit** = *he, she, it*:

		<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
	<i>Sing.</i>	N.	hē	hēo	hit
		G.	his	hiere	his
		D.	him	hiere	him
		A.	hine, hiene	hīe	hit
<i>All Genders.</i>					
	<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.		hīe	
i.	G.		hiera		
		D.		him	

54.

VOCABULARY.

(i-STEMS.)
sē cierr, *turn, time* [char, chare, chore].
sēo dǣd, *deed*.
sē dǣl, *part* [a great deal].
ðā Dene, *Danes*.
sē frēondscipe, *friendship*.
seō hȳd, *skin, hide*.
ðā lōndlēode, *natives*.
ðā Mierce, *Mercians*.
ðā Rōmware, *Romans*.

ðā Seaxe, *Saxons*.
sē stęde, *place* [instead of].
 (u-STEMS.)
sēo flōr, *floor*.
sēo nosu, *nose*.
se sumor (gen. sumeres, dat. sumera), *summer*.
sē winter (gen. wintres, dat. wintra), *winter*.
sē wudu, *wood, forest*.

Note.—The numerous masculine nouns ending in **-hād, -cild-hād** (*childhood*), **wīfhād** (*womanhood*),—belong to the **u**-stems historically; but they have all passed over to the **a**-Declension.

55.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Ðā Seaxe habbað ðæs dēores hȳd on ðǣm wuda.

2. Hwā hæfð ðā giefa?

3. Ðā Mierce hīe¹ habbað.

¹ See § 21, (1).

4. Hwær is ðæs Wēales fugol?

5. Ðā Dene hine habbað.

6. Hwær sindon hiera winas?

7. Hīe sindon on ðæs cyninges wuda.

8. Ðā Rōmware ʒnd ðā Seaxe hæfdon ðā gāras ʒnd ðā geocu.

9. Hēo is on ðæm hūse on wintra, ʒnd on ðæm feldum on sumera.

10. Hwær is ðæs hofes duru?

11. Heo¹ (= sēo duru) nis hēr.

II. 1. His friends have the bones of the seals and the bodies of the Danes.

2. Art thou the king's son?

3. Has she her gifts in her hands?

4. Here are the fields of the natives.

5. Who had the bird?

6. I had it.²

¹ Pronouns agree in gender with the nouns for which they stand. **Hit**, however, sometimes stands for inanimate things of both masculine and feminine genders. See Wūlfing (*l.c.*) I, § 238.

7. The child had the worm in his fingers.

8. The Mercians were here during (the) summer (**on** + dat.).

CHAPTER X.

PRESENT INDICATIVE ENDINGS OF STRONG VERBS.

56. The unchanged stem of the present indicative may always be found by dropping **-an** of the infinitive: **feall-an**, to fall; **cēos-an**, to choose; **bīd-an**, to abide.

57 The personal endings are:

<i>Sing.</i>	1.	-e	<i>Plur.</i>	1.	}	-að
	2.	-est		2.		
	3.	-eð		3.		

i-Umlaut.

58. The 2d and 3d singular endings were originally not **-est** and **-eð**, but **-is** and **-ið**; and the **i** of these older endings has left its traces upon almost every page of Early West Saxon literature. This **i**, though unaccented and soon displaced, exerted a powerful back influence upon the vowel of the preceding accented syllable. This influence, a form of regressive assimilation, is known as **i-umlaut** (pronounced *oóm-lowt*). The vowel **i** or **j** (= **y**), being itself a palatal, succeeded in palatalizing every guttural vowel that preceded it, and in imposing still more of the **i**-quality upon diphthongs that were already palatal.¹ The changes produced were these:

a	became	ę (æ):	męnn (<*manni-iz), <i>men</i> .
ā	“	æ	ænig (<*ān-ig), <i>any</i> .
u	“	y	wýllen (*wull-in), <i>woollen</i> .
ū	“	ȳ	mȳs (<*mūs-iz), <i>mice</i> .
o	“	ę	dęhter (<*dohtr-i), <i>to or for the daughter</i> .
ō	“	ē	fēt (<*fōt-iz), <i>feet</i> .
ea	“	ie	wiexð (<*weax-ið), <i>he grows</i> (weaxan = to grow).
ēa	“	īe	hīewð (<*hēaw-ið), <i>he hews</i> (hēawan = to hew).
eo	“	ie	wiercan (<*weorc-jan), <i>to work</i> .
ēo	“	īe	līehtan (<*lēoht-jan), <i>to light</i> .

¹ The *palatal* vowels and diphthongs were long or short **æ, e, i, (ie), y, ea, eo**; the *guttural* vowels were long or short **a, o, u**.

The Unchanged Present Indicative.

59. In the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects, as well as in the dialect of Late West Saxon, the 2d and 3d singular endings were usually joined to the present stem without modification either of the stem itself or of the personal endings. The complete absence of umlauted forms in the present indicative of Mn.E. is thus accounted for.

In Early West Saxon, however, such forms as the following are comparatively rare in the 2d and 3d singular:

<i>Sing.</i>	1.	Ic feall-e (<i>I fall</i>)	cēos-e (<i>I choose</i>)	bīd-e (<i>I abide</i>)	
	2.	ðū feall-est	cēos-est	bid-est	
	3.	hē feall-eð	cēos-eð	bīd-eð	
<i>Plur.</i>	1.	wē	} feall-að	} cēos-að	} bīd-að
	2.	gē			
	3.	hīe			

The Present Indicative with *i*-Umlaut and Contraction.

60. The 2d and 3d persons singular are distinguished from the other forms of the present indicative in Early West Saxon by (1) *i*-umlaut of the vowel of the stem, (2) syncope of the vowel of the ending, giving **-st** and **-ð** for **-est** and **-eð**, and (3) contraction of **-st** and **-ð** with the final consonant or consonants of the stem.

Contraction.

61. The changes produced by *i*-umlaut have been already discussed. By these changes, therefore, the stems of the 2d and 3d singular indicative of such verbs as (1) **stōndan** (=standan), *to stand*, (2) **cuman**, *to come*, (3) **grōwan**, *to grow*, (4) **brūcan**, *to enjoy*, (5) **blāwan**, *to blow*, (6) **feallan**, *to fall*, (7) **hēawan**, *to hew*, (8) **weorpan**, *to throw*, and (9) **cēosan**, *to choose*, become respectively (1) **stēnd**¹, (2) **cym**-, (3) **grēw**-, (4) **brȳc**-, (5) **blāw**-, (6) **fiell**-, (7) **hīew**-, (8) **wierp**-, and (9) **cīes**-.

If the unchanged stem contains the vowel *e*, this is changed in the 2d and 3d singular to *i*

¹ The more common form for stems with **a** is **æ** rather than **e**: **faran**, *to go*, 2d and 3d singular stem **fær**-; **sacan**, *to contend*, stem **sæc**-. Indeed, **a** changes to **e** *via* **æ** (Cosijn, *Altwestsächsische Grammatik*, I, § 32).

(ie): **cweðan** to say, stem **cwið-**; **beran** to bear, stem **bier-**. But this mutation² had taken place long before the period of O.E., and belongs to the Germanic languages in general. It is best, however, to class the change of **e** to **i** or **ie** with the changes due to umlaut, since it occurs consistently in the 2d and 3d singular stems of Early West Saxon, and outlasted almost all of the umlaut forms proper.

If, now, the syncopated endings **-st** and **-ð** are added directly to the unlauded stem, there will frequently result such a massing of consonants as almost to defy pronunciation: **cwið-st**, *thou sayest*; **stend-st**, *thou standest*, etc. Some sort of contraction, therefore, is demanded for the sake of euphony. The ear and eye will, by a little practice, become a sure guide in these contractions. The following rules, however, must be observed. They apply only to the 2d and 3d singular of the present indicative:

(1) If the stem ends in a double consonant, one of the consonants is dropped:

- | | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. feall-e (<i>I fall</i>) | 1. winn-e (<i>I fight</i>) | 1. swimm-e (<i>I swim</i>) |
| 2. fiel-st | 2. win-st | 2. swim-st |
| 3. fiel-ð | 3. win-ð | 3. swim-ð |

(2) If the stem ends in **-ð**, this is dropped:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. cweð-e (<i>I say</i>) | 1. weorð-e (<i>I become</i>) |
| 2. cwi-st | 2. wier-st |
| 3. cwi-ð | 3. wier-ð |

(3) If the stem ends in **-d**, this is changed to **-t**. The **-ð** of the ending is then also changed to **-t**, and usually absorbed. Thus the stem of the 2d singular serves as stem and ending for the 3d singular:

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------|
| 1. stōnd-e (= stand-e) (<i>I stand</i>) | 1. bind-e (<i>I bind</i>) |
| 2. stęnt-st | 2. bint-st |
| 3. stęnt | 3. bint |
| 1. bīd-e (<i>I abide</i>) | 1. rīd-e (<i>I ride</i>) |
| 2. bīt-st | 2. rīt-st |
| 3. bīt(-t) | 3. rīt (-t) |

(4) If the stem ends already in **-t**, the endings are added as in (3), **-ð** being again

² Umlaut is frequently called Mutation. Metaphony is still another name for the same phenomenon. The term Metaphony has the advantage of easy adjectival formation (metaphonic). It was proposed by Professor Victor Henry (*Comparative Grammar of English and German*, Paris, 1894), but has not been naturalized.

changed to **-t** and absorbed:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. brēot-e (<i>I break</i>) | 1. feoht-e (<i>I fight</i>) | 1. bīt-e (<i>I bite</i>) |
| 2. brīet-st | 2. fieht-st | 2. bīt-st |
| 3. brīet (-t) | 3. fieht | 3. bīt (-t) |

(5) If the stem ends in **-s**, this is dropped before **-st** (to avoid **-sst**), but is retained before **-ð**, the latter being changed to **-t**. Thus the 2d and 3d singulars are identical:¹

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. cēos-e (<i>I choose</i>) | 1. rīs-e (<i>I rise</i>) |
| 2. cīe-st | 2. rī-st |
| 3. cīes-t | 3. rīs-t |

62.

EXERCISES.

I 1. Sē cyning fielð.

2. Ðā wīf cēosað ðā giefa.

3. Ðū stęntst on ðæm hūse.

4. Hē wierpð ðæt wæpen.

5. Sē secg hīewð ðā līc.

6. Ðæt sæd grēwð ęnd wiex (*Mark iv. 27*).

7. Ic stęnde hēr, ęnd ðū stęntst ðær.

8. "Ic hit eom," cwið hē.

9. Hīe berað ðæs wulfes bān.

¹ This happens also when the infinitive stem ends in **st**:

- | | |
|----|----------------------------|
| 1. | berst-e (<i>I burst</i>) |
| 2. | bier-st |
| 3. | bierst. |

10. Hē hīe bint, ꝥnd ic hine binde.

11. Ne rītst ðū?

II.

1. We shall bind him.

2. Who chooses the child's gifts?

3. "He was not here," says she.

4. Wilt thou remain in the hall?

5. The wolves are biting (= bite) the fishermen.

6. He enjoys¹ the love of his children.

7. Do you enjoy (= Enjoyest thou) the consolation and friendship of the scribe?

8. Will he come?

9. I shall throw the spear, and thou wilt bear the weapons.

10. The king's son will become king.

11. The army (**werod**) is breaking the doors and walls of the house.

¹**Brūcan**, *to enjoy*, takes the genitive case, not the accusative. It means "to have joy of anything."

CHAPTER XI.

THE CONSONANT DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS.

The Weak or *n*-Declension.

63. The ***n***-Declension contains almost all of the **O.E.** nouns belonging to the Consonant Declensions. The stem characteristic ***n*** has been preserved in the oblique cases, so that there is no difficulty in distinguishing ***n***-stems from the preceding vowel stems.

The ***n***-Declension includes (a) masculines, (b) feminines, and (c) neuters. The masculines far outnumber the feminines, and the neuters contain only ***ēage***, *eye* and ***ēare***, *ear*. The masculines end in ***-a***, the feminines and neuters in ***-e***.

64. Paradigms of (a) ***sē hunta***, *hunter*; (b) ***sēo tunge***, *tongue*; (c) ***ðæt ēage***, *eye*:

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>N.</i>	hunt-a	tung-e	ēag-e
	<i>G.D.I.</i>	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-an
	<i>A.</i>	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-e
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-an
	<i>G.</i>	hunt-ena	tung-ena	ēag-ena
	<i>D.I.</i>	hunt-um	tung-um	ēag-um

65.

VOCABULARY.

sē adesa, *hatchet, adze*.
sē āmetta, *leisure* [empt-iness].
sē bōna (bana), *murderer* [bane].
sēo cirice, *church* [Scotch kirk].
sē cnapa (later, ***cnafa***), *boy* [knave].
sē cuma, *stranger* [comer].
ðæt ēare, *ear*.
sēo eorðe, *earth*.
sē gefēra, *companion* [co-farer].
sē guma, *man* [bride-groom¹].
sēo heorte, *heart*.
gescieppan, *to create* [shape, landscape, friend-ship].
giefan (with dat. of indirect object), *to give*.
healdan, *to hold*.

sē mōna, *moon*.
sēo nādre, *adder* [a nadder >an adder²].
sē oxa, *ox*.
sē scēowyrhta, *shoe-maker* [shoe-wright].
sēo sunne, *sun*.
sē tēona, *injury* [teen].
biddan (with dat. of person and gen. of thing³), *to request, ask for*.
cwelan, *to die* [quail].
scēððan (with dat.), *to injure* [scathe].
wiðstōndan (-standan) (with dat.), *to withstand*.

¹ The *r* is intrusive in *-groom*, as it is in *cart-r-idge*, *part-r-idge*, *vag-r-ant*, and *hoa-r-se*.

² The *n* has been appropriated by the article. Cf. *an apron* (<*a napron*), *an auger* (<*a nauger*), *an orange* (<*a norange*), and *umpire* (<*a numpire*).

³ In Mn.E. we say "I request a favor you"; but in O.E. it was "I request you (dative) of a favor" (gentive). Cf. *Cymbeline*, III, 6, 92: "We'll mannerly demand thee of thy story."

helpan (with dat.), to help.
66.

| **writan**, to write.
EXERCISES.

I. 1. Sē scēowyrthta brȳcð his æmettan.

2. Dā guman biddað ðæm cnapan ðæs adesan.

3. Hwā is sē cuma?

4. Hielpst ðū ðæm bōnan?

5. Ic him ne helpe.

6. Dā bearn scēððað ðæs bōnan ēagum and ēarum.

7. Sē cuma cwielð on ðære cirican.

8. Sē hunta wiðstent ðæm wulfum.

9. Dā oxan berað ðæs cnapan gefēran.

10. Sē mona ƿnd ðā tunglu sind on ðæm heofonum.

11. Ðā huntan healdað ðære nædran tungan.

12. Hē hiere giefð ðā giefa.

13. Ðā werod scēððað ðæs cyninges feldum.

II. 1. Who will bind the mouths of the oxen?

2. Who gives him the gifts?

3. Thou art helping him, and I am injuring him.

4. The boy's companion is dying.

5. His nephew does not enjoy his leisure.

6. The adder's tongue injures the king's companion.

7. The sun is the day's eye.

8. She asks the strangers for the spears.

9. The men's bodies are not here.

10. Is he not (**Nis hē**) the child's murderer?

11. Who creates the bodies and souls of men?

12. Thou withstandest her.

13. He is not writing.

CHAPTER XII.

REMNANTS OF OTHER CONSONANT DECLENSIONS.

67. The nouns belonging here are chiefly masculines and feminines. Their stem ended in a consonant other than **n**. The most important of them may be divided as follows: (1) The *foot* Declension, (2) **r**-Stems, and (3) **nd**-Stems. These declensions are all characterized by the prevalence, wherever possible, of **i**-umlaut in certain cases, the case ending being then dropped.

68. (1) The nouns belonging to the *foot* Declension exhibit umlaut most consistently in the N.A. plural.

Sing. N.A. sē fōt (*foot*) sē mōn (*man*) sē tōð (*tooth*) sēo cū (*cow*)

Plur. N.A. fēt mēn tēð cȳ

NOTE.—The dative singular usually has the same form as the N.A. plural. Here belong also **sēo bōc** (*book*), **sēo burg** (*borough*), **sēo gōs** (*goose*) **sēo lūs** (*louse*), and **sēo mūs** (*mouse*), all with umlauted plurals. Mn.E. preserves only six of the *foot* Declension plurals: *feet, men, teeth, geese, lice, and mice*. The *c* in the last two is an artificial spelling, intended to preserve the sound of voiceless *s*. Mn.E. *kine* (= *cy-en*) is a double plural formed after the analogy of weak stems; Burns in *The Twa Dogs* uses *kye*.

No umlaut is possible in **sēo niht** (*night*) and **sē mōnað** (*month*), plural **niht** and **mōnað** (preserved in Mn.E. *twelvemonth and fortnight*).

(2) The **r**-Stems contain nouns expressing kinship, and exhibit umlaut of the dative singular.

<i>Sing.</i>	N.A.	sē fæðer	sē brōðor	sēo mōdor	sēo dohtor	sēo swuster
		(<i>father</i>)	(<i>brother</i>)	(<i>mother</i>)	(<i>daughter</i>)	(<i>sister</i>)
	D.	fæder	brēðer	mēder	dęhter	swyster

NOTE.—The N.A. plural is usually the same as the N.A. singular. These umlaut datives are all due to the presence of a former **i**. Cf. Lat. dative singular *patri, frātri, mātri, sorori* (<**sosori*), and Greek ὄν'Υατρί.

(3) The **nd**-Stems show umlaut both in then N.A. plural and in the dative singular:

<i>Sing.</i>	N.A.	sē frēond (<i>friend</i>)	sē fēond (<i>enemy</i>)
	D.	friēnd	fīend
<i>Plur.</i>	N.A.	frīend	fīend

NOTE.—Mn.E. *friend* and *fiend* are interesting analogical spellings. When **s** had been added by analogy to the O.E. plurals **frīend** and **fīend**, thus giving the double plurals *friends* and *fiends*, a second singular was formed by dropping the **s**. Thus *friend* and *fiend* displaced the old singulars *frend* and *fend*, both of which occur in the M.E. *Ormulum*, written about the year 1200.

Summary of O.E. Declensions.

69. A brief, working summary of the O.E. system of declensions may now be made on the basis of gender.

All O.E. nouns are (1) masculine, (2) feminine, or (3) neuter.

(1) The masculines follow the declension of **mūð** (§ 26), except those ending in **-a**, which are declined like **hunta** (§ 64):

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	mūð	hunta
	<i>G.</i>	mūðes	huntan
	<i>D.I.</i>	mūðe	huntan
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	mūðas	huntan
	<i>G.</i>	mūða	huntena
	<i>D.I.</i>	mūðum	huntum

(2) The short-stemmed neuters follow the declension of **hof** (§ 32); the long-stemmed, that of **bearn** (§ 32):

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	hof	bearn
	<i>G.</i>	hofes	bearnes
	<i>D.I.</i>	hofe	bearne
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	hofu	bearn
	<i>G.</i>	hofa	bearna
	<i>D.I.</i>	hofum	bearnum

(3) The feminines follow the declensions of **giefu** and **wund** (§ 38) (the only difference being in the N. singular), except those ending in **-e**, which follow the declension of **tunge** (§ 64):

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>N.</i>	giefu	wund	tunge
	<i>G.</i>	giefe	wunde	tungan
	<i>D.I.</i>	giefe	wunde	tungan
	<i>A.</i>	giefe	wunde	tungan
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>N.A.</i>	giefa	wunda	tungan
	<i>G.</i>	giefa	wunda	tungena
	<i>D.I.</i>	giefum	wundum	tungum

70.

ac, *but*.
būtan (with dat.), *except, but, without*.
sē Crīst, *Christ*.
sē eorl, *earl, alderman, warrior*.
ðæt Englaḡnd, *England [Angles land]*.
faran, *to go [fare]*.

VOCABULARY.

findan, *to find*.
sē God, *God*.
hātan, *to call, name*.
sē hlāford, *lord [hlāf-weard]*.
mid (with dat.), *with*.
on (with acc.), *on, against, into*.
tō (with dat.), *to*.
uton (with infin.), *let us*.

NOTE.—O.E. **mōn (man)** is frequently used in an indefinite sense for *one, people, they*. It thus takes the place of a passive construction proper: **And man nam þā gebrotu þe þār belifon, twelf cýpan fulle**, *And there were taken up of fragments that remained there twelve baskets full*; but more literally, *And one (or they) took the fragments, etc*; **Ḡnd Hæstenes wif ḡnd his suna twēgen mōn brōhte tō ðām cyninge**, *And Hæsten's wife and his two sons were brought to the king*.

71.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Mōn hine hæt Ælfred.

2. Uton faran on ðæt scip.

3. God is cyninga cyning ḡnd hlāforda hlāford.

4. Sē eorl ne giefð giefa his fiend.

5. Ic næs mid his frīend.

6. Sēo mōdor færð mid hiere dehter on ðā burg.

7. Fintst ðū ðæs bōceres bēc?

8. Hē bint ealle (all) ðā dēor būtan ðām wulfum.

9. Dū eart Crīst, godes sunu.

10. "Uton bindan, ðæs bōnan fēt," cwið hē.

II. 1. Christ is the son of God.

2. Let us call him Cædmon.

3. He throws his spear against the door.

4. Thou art not the earl's brother.

5. He will go with his father to England, but I shall remain (abide) here.

6. Gifts are not given to murderers.

7. Who will find the tracks of the animals?

8. They ask their lord for his weapons. (§ 65, Note 3).

CHAPTER XIII.

PRONOUNS.

(1) **Personal Pronouns.**

72. Paradigms of **ic, I, ðū, thou**. For **hē, hēo, hit**, see §53.

Sing.	N.	ic	ðū
	G.	mīn	ðin
	D.	mē	ðē
	A.	mē	ðē
Dual	N.	wit (<i>we two</i>)	git (<i>ye two</i>)
	G.	uncer (<i>of us two</i>)	incer (<i>of you two</i>)
	D.	unc (<i>to or for us two</i>)	inc (<i>to or for you two</i>)
	A.	unc (<i>us two</i>)	inc (<i>you two</i>)
Plur.	N.	wē	gē
	G.	ūser (<i>ūre</i>)	ēower
	D.	ūs	ēow
	A.	ūs	ēow

Note 1.—The dual number was soon absorbed by the plural. No relic of it now remains. But when two and only two are referred to, the dual is consistently used in O.E. An example occurs in the case of the two blind men (*Matthew ix. 27-31*): **Gemiltsa unc, Davīdes sunu!** *Pity us, (thou) Son of David!* **Sīe inc æfter incrum gelēafan,** *Be it unto you according to your faith.*

NOTE 2.—Mn.E. *ye* (-gē), the nominative proper, is fast being displaced by *you* (-ēow), the old objective. The distinction is preserved in the King James's version of the Bible: *Ye in me, and I in you* (*John xiv, 20*); but not in Shakespeare and later writers.

(2) **Demonstrative Pronouns.**

73. Paradigm of **ðēs, ðēos, ðis, this**. For the Definite Article as a demonstrative, meaning *that*, see § 28, Note 3.

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
<i>Sing. N.</i>	ðēs	ðēos	ðis
G.	ðisses	ðisse	ðisses
D.	ðissum	ðisse	ðissum
A.	ðisne	ðās	ðis

I.	ðȳs	—	ðȳs
			<i>All Genders.</i>
Plur. N.A.		ðās	
G.		ðissa	
D.		ðissum	

(3) The Interrogative Pronoun.

74. Paradigm of **hwā**, **hwæt**, *who*, *what*?

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
Sing. N.	hwā	hwæt
G.	hwæs	hwæs
D.	hwæm	hwæm
A.	hwone	hwæt
I.	—	hwȳ

Note 1.—The derivative interrogatives, **hwæðer** (<*hwā-ðer), *which of two?* and **hwilc** (<*hwā-lic), *which?* are declined as strong adjectives (§§ 79-82).

Note 2.—The instrumental case of **hwā** survives in Mn.E. *why* = *on what account*; the instrumental of the definite article is seen in the adverbial *the*: *The sooner, the better* = *by how much sooner, by so much better*.

Note 3.—How were the Mn.E. relative pronouns, *who* and *which*, evolved from the O.E. interrogatives? The change began in early West Saxon with **hwæt** used in indirect questions (Wūlfing, *l.c.* § 310,β): **Nū ic wāt eall hwæt ðū woldest**, *Now I know all that thou desiredst*. The direct question was, **Hwæt woldest ðū?** But the presence of **eall** shows that in Alfred's mind **hwæt** was, in the indirect form, more relative than interrogative.

(4) Relative Pronouns.

75. O.E. had no relative pronoun proper. It used instead (1) the Indeclinable Particle **ðe**, *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, (2) the Definite Article (§ 28), (3) the Definite Article with the Indeclinable Particle.

The forms of the Definite Article agree, of course, in gender and number with the antecedent, the case depending upon the construction. *The bird which I have* may, therefore, be expressed in three ways:

- (1) **Sē fugol ðe ic hæbbe;**
- (2) **Sē fugol ðone ic hæbbe;**
- (3) **Sē fugol ðone ðe (= the which) ic hæbbe.**

NOTE.—O.E. **ðe** agrees closely in construction with Mn.E. relative *that*: (1) Both are indeclinable. (2) Both refer to animate or inanimate objects. (3) Both may be used with phrasal value: **ðȳ ylcan dæge ðe hī hine tō ðæm āde beran wyllað**, *On the same day that (= on which) they intend to bear him to the funeral pile.* (4) Neither can be preceded by a preposition.

(5) Possessive Pronouns.

76. The Possessive Pronouns are **mīn**, *mine*; **ðīn**, *thine*; **ūre**, *our*; **ēower**, *your*; [**sīn**, *his, her, its*]; **uncer**, *belonging to us two*; **incer**, *belonging to you two*. They are declined as strong adjectives. The genitives of the Third Personal Pronoun, **his**, *his*, **hiere**, *her*, **hiera**, *their*, are indeclinable.

(6) Indefinite Pronouns.

77. These are **ælc**, *each, every*; **ān**, *a, an, one*; **ænig** (<**ān-ig**>), *any*; **nænig** (<**ne-ænig**>), *none*; **ōðer**, *other*; **sum**, *one, a certain one*; **swilc**, *such*. They are declined as strong adjectives.

NOTE.—O.E. had three established methods of converting an interrogative pronoun into an indefinite: (1) By prefixing **ge**, (2) by prefixing **æg**, (3) by interposing the interrogative between **swā . . . swā**: (1) **gehwā**, *each*; **gehwæðer**, *either*, **gehwilc**, *each*; (2) **æghwā**, *each*; **æghwæðer**, *each*; **æghwilc**, *each*; (3) **swā hwā** *whosoever*; **swā hwæðer swā**, *whichever of two*; **swā hwilc swā**, *whosoever*.

CHAPTER XIV.

ADJECTIVES, STRONG AND WEAK.

78. The declension of adjectives conforms in general to the declension of nouns, though a few pronominal inflections have influenced certain cases. Adjectives belong either to (1) the Strong Declension or to (2) the Weak Declension. The Weak Declension is employed when the adjective is preceded by *sē* or *ðēs* *the, that, or this*; otherwise, the Strong Declension is employed: *ðā gōdan cyningas, the good kings; ðēs gōda cynig, this good king*; but *gōde, cyningas, good kings*.

Note.—The Weak Declension is also frequently used when the adjective is employed in direct address, or preceded by a possessive pronoun: *Dryhten, ælmihtiga God . . . ic bidde ðē for ðīnre miclan mildheortnesse, Lord, almighty God, I pray thee, for thy great mercy*.

(1) Strong Declension of Adjectives.

(a) Monosyllables.

79. The strong adjectives are chiefly monosyllabic with long stems: *gōd, good; eald, old; lōng, long; swift, swift*. They are declined as follows.

80. Paradigm of *gōd, good*:

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
<i>Sing. N.</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>gōdes</i>	<i>gōdre</i>	<i>gōdes</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>gōdum</i>	<i>gōdre</i>	<i>gōdum</i>
<i>A.</i>	<i>gōdne</i>	<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōd</i>
<i>I.</i>	<i>gōde</i>	—	<i>gōde</i>
<i>Plur. N.A.</i>	<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōda</i>	<i>gōd</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>gōdra</i>	<i>gōdra</i>	<i>gōdra</i>
<i>D.I.</i>	<i>gōdum</i>	<i>gōdum</i>	<i>gōdum</i>

81. If the stem is short, *-u* is retained as in *giefu* (§ 39, (1)) and *hofu* (§ 33, (1)). Thus *glæd* (§ 27, Note 1), *glad*, and *til, useful*, are inflected:

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
<i>Sing. N.</i>	{ <i>glæd</i>	<i>gladu</i>	<i>glæd</i>
	{ <i>til</i>	<i>tilu</i>	<i>til</i>
<i>Plur. N.A.</i>	{ <i>glade</i>	<i>glada</i>	<i>gladu</i>
	{ <i>tile</i>	<i>tila</i>	<i>tilu</i>

(b) Polysyllables.

82. Polysyllables follow the declension of short monosyllables. The most common terminations are **-en**, *-en*; **-fæst**, *-fast*; **-full**, *-ful*; **-lēas**, *-less*; **-līc**, *-ly*; **-ig**, *-y*: **hǣð-en** (**hǣð**=*heath*), *heathen*; **stęde-fæst** (**stęde** = *place*), *steadfast*; **sorg-full** (**sorg**= *sorrow*), *sorrowful*; **cyst-lēas** (**cyst** = *worth*), *worthless*; **eorð-līc** (**eorðe** = *earth*), *earthly*; **blōd-ig** (**blōd** = *blood*), *bloody*. The present and past participles, when inflected and not as weak adjectives, may be classed with the polysyllabic adjectives, their inflection being the same.

Syncopation occurs as in **a-stem** (§ 27, (4)). Thus **hālig**, *holy*, **blīðe**, *blithe*, **berende**, *bearing*, **geboren**, *born*, are thus inflected:

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
Sing. N.	hālig	hālgū	hālig
	blīðe	blīðu	blīðe
	berende	berendu	berende
	geboren	geborenu	geboren
Plur. N.A.	hālge	hāлга	hālgū
	blīðe	blīða	blīðu
	berende	berenda	berendu
	geborene	geborena	geborenu

(2) Weak Declension of Adjectives.

83. The Weak Declension of adjectives, whether monosyllabic or polysyllabic does not differ from the Weak Declension of nouns, except that **-ena** of the genitive plural is usually replaced by **-ra** of the strong adjectives.

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
84. Sing. N.	gōda	gōde	gōde
G.	gōdan	gōdan	gōdan
D.I.	gōdan	gōdan	gōdan
A.	gōdan	gōdan	gōde
		<i>All Genders.</i>	
Plur. N.A.		gōdan	
G.		gōdra (gōdena)	
D.I.		gōdum	

Adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case; but participles, when used predicatively, may remain uninflected (§ 138, § 140).

dēad, *dead*.

eall, *all*.

hāl¹, *whole, hale*.

heard, *hard*.

ðæt hors, *horse*.

lēof, *dear* [as *lief*].

lȳtel, *little*.

micel, *great, large*.

mōnig, *many*.

niman, *to take* [nimble, numb].

nīwe, *new*.

rīce, *rich, powerful*.

sōð, *true* [sooth-sayer].

stælwierðe,² *serviceable*
[stalwart].

swīðe, *very*.

sē tūn, *town, village*.

sē ðegn, *servant, thane, warrior*.

ðæt ðing, *thing*.

sē weg, *way*.

wīs, *wise*.

wið (with acc.), *against*, in a
hostile sense [with-stand].

sē ilca, *the same* [of that ilk].

I. 1. Ðās scipu ne sind swīðe swift, ac hīe sind swīðe stælwierðu.

2. Sēo gōde cwēn giefð ælcum ðegne mōniga giefa.

3. Dēs wīsa cyning hæfð mōnige mīcele tūnas on his rīce.

4. Nāenig mōn is wīs on eallum ðingum.

5. Ðȳ ilcan dæge (§ 98, (2)) mōn fōnd (found) ðone ðegn ðe mīnes wines bēc hæfde.

6. Ealle ðā segas ðā ðe swift hors habbað rīdað wið ðone bōnan.

¹ **Hālig**, *holy*, contains, of course, the same root. "I find," says Carlyle, "that you could not get any better definition of what 'holy' really is than 'health—completely healthy.'"

²This word has been much discussed. The older etymologists explained it as meaning *worth stealing*. A more improbable conjecture is that it means *worth a stall or place*. It is used of ships in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. As applied to men, Skeat thinks it meant *good* or *worthy at stealing*; but the etymology is still unsettled.

7. Ðīne fīend sind mīne frīend.

8. Sē micela stān ðone ðe ic on mīnum hōndam hæbbe is swīðe heard.

9. Hīe scēððað ðāem ealdum horsum.

10. Uton niman ðās tilan giefra ƿnd hīe beran tō ūrum lēofum bearnum.

II. 1. These holy men are wise and good.

2. Are the little children very dear to the servants (dat. without tō)?

3. Gifts are not given to rich men.

4. All the horses that are in the king's fields are swift.

5. These stones are very large and hard.

6. He takes the dead man's spear and fights against the large army.

7. This new house has many doors.

8. My ways are not your ways.

9. Whosoever chooses me, him I also (ēac) choose.

10. Every man has many friends that are not wise.

CHAPTER XV.

NUMERALS.

88. Numerals are either (a) Cardinal, expressing pure number, *one, two, three*; or (b) Ordinal, expressing rank or succession, *first, second, third*.

(a) Cardinals.

89. The Cardinals fall into the three following syntactic groups:

GROUP I.

1. ān
2. twēgen [twain]
3. ðrīe

These numeral are inflected adjectives. **Ān**, *one, an, a*, being a long stemmed monosyllable, is declined like **gōd** (§ 80). The weak form, **āna**, means *alone*.

Twēgen and **ðrīe**, which have no singular, are thus declined:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Plur. N.A.	twēgen	twā	twā (tū)	ðrīe	ðrēo	ðrēo
G.	twēgra	twēgra	twēgra	ðrēora	ðrēora	ðrēora
D.	{ twæm (twām)	{ twæm (twām)	{ twæm (twām)	ðrīm	ðrim	ðrīm

90.

Group II.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 4. fēower | 12. twelf |
| 5. fīf | 13. ðrēotīene |
| 6. siex | 14. fēowertīene |
| 7. seofon | 15. fīftīene |
| 8. eahta | 16. siextīene |
| 9. nigon | 17. seofontīene |
| 10. tīen | 18. eahtatīene |
| 11. ęndlefan | 19. nigontīene |

These words are used chiefly as uninflected adjectives: **on gewitscipe ðrēora oþþe fēower bisceopa**, *on testimony of three or four bishops*; **on siex dagum**, *in six days*; **ān nādre ðe hāfde nigon hēafdu**, *a serpent which had nine heads*; **æðeling eahtatīene wintra**, *a prince of eighteen winters*.

91.

Group III.

20. twēntig	80. hundeahtatig
21. ān ƿnd twēntig	90. hundnigontig
30. ƿrītig	100. hund
40. fēowertig	200. twā hund
50. fiftig	1000. ƿūsēnd
60. siextig	2000. twā ƿūsēnd
70. hundseofontig	

All these numbers are employed as neuter singular nouns, and are followed by the genitive plural: **Næfde hē þēah mā ƿonne twēntig hryðera**, and **twēntig scēapa**, and **twēntig swyňa**, *He did not have, however, more than twenty (of) cattle, and twenty (of) sheep, and twenty (of) swine*; **Hīe hæfdon hundeahtatig scipa**, *They had eighty ships*; **twā hund mīla brād**, *two hundred miles broad*; **ƿær wæron seofon hund gūðfanena genumen**, *there were seven hundred standards captured*; **ān ƿūsēnd mōnna**, *a thousand men*; **Hannibales folces wæs twā ƿūsēnd ofslagen**, *Of Hannibal's men there were two thousand slain*; **Hīe ācuron ƿndlefan ƿūsēnd mōnna**, *They chose eleven thousand men*.

NOTE 1.—Group III is rarely inflected. Almost the only inflectional endings that are added are (1) **-es**, a genitive singular termination for the numerals in **-tig**, and (2) **-e**, a dative singular for **hund**. (1) The first is confined to adjectives expressing extent of space or time, as, **eald**, *old*; **brād**, *broad*; **hēah**, *high*; and **lōng**, *long*: **ƿæt is ƿrītiges mīla lōng**, *that is thirty miles long*; **Hē wæs ƿrītiges gēara eald**, *He was thirty years old*. (2) The second is employed after **mid**: **mid twām hundē scipa**, *with two hundred ships*; **mid ƿrim hundē mōnna**, *with three hundred men*; **ƿær wearð . . . Reg-ulus gefangen mid V hundē mōnna**, *There was Regulus captured with five hundred men*.

The statement made in nearly all the grammars that **hundē** occurs as a nominative and accusative plural is without foundation.

NOTE 2.—Many numerals, otherwise indeclinable, are used in the genitive plural with the indefinite pronoun **sum**, which then means *one of* a certain number. In this peculiar construction, the numeral always precedes **sum**: **fēowera sum**, *one of four (= with three others)*; **Hē sæde þæt hē syxa sum ofslōge syxtig**, *He said that he, with five others, slew sixty (whales)*; **Hē wæs fēowertigra sum**, *He was one of forty*.

NOTE 3.—These are the most common constructions with the Cardinals. The forms in **-tig** have only recently been investigated. As study of Wūlfing's citations shows that Alfred occasionally uses the forms in **-tig** (1) as adjectives with plural inflections: **mid XXXgum cyningum**, *with thirty kings*; and (2) as nouns with plural inflections: **æfter siextigum daga**, *after sixty days*. But both constructions are rare.

(c) Ordinals.

92. The Ordinals, except the first two, are formed from the Cardinals. They are:

1. forma, āresta, fyrsta	11. ƿndlefta
2. ƿðer, æfterra	12. twēlfra
3. ƿridda	13. ƿrēotēoða
4. fēorða	14. fēowertēoða
5. fifta	15. fiftēoða etc.

6. siexta	20. twēntigoða
7. seofoda	21. ān ʝnd twēntigoða
8. eahtoða	30. ðritigoða etc.
9. nigoða	
10. tēoda	

Note.—There are no Ordinals corresponding to **hund** and **ðūsend**.

With the exception of **ōðer** (§ 77), all the Ordinals are declined as Weak Adjectives; the article, however, as in Mn.E., is frequently omitted: **Brūtus wæs sē forma consul**, *Brutus was the first consul*; **Hēr ʝndað sēo āreste bōc, ʝnd onginneð sēo oðer**, *Here the first book ends, and the second begins*; **ðy fiftan dæge**, *on the fifth day*; **on ðæm tēoðan gēare hiera gewinnes**, *on the tenth year of their strife*; **Hēo wæs twelfte**, *She was twelfth*; **Sē wæs fēorða frōm Augusto**, *He was fourth from Augustus*.

CHAPTER XVI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

Adverbs.

93. (1) Adverbs are formed by adding **-e** or **-lice** to the corresponding adjectives: **sōð**, true; **sōðe** or **sōðlice**, truly; **earmlīc**, wretched; **earmlīce**, wretchedly; **wīd**, wide; **wīde**, widely; **micel**, great; **micle (micele)**, greatly, much.

(2) The terminations **-e** and **-lice** are replaced in some adverbs by **-unga** or **-inga**: **eallunga**, entirely; **fāringa**, suddenly; **grundlunga**, from the ground, completely.

Note 1.—The **l** is intrusive in the last adverb. In Mn.E. *headlong*, originally an adverb, we have not only a similar intrusive **l**, but the only survival of O.E. **-unga**.

(3) The genitive case is frequently used adverbially: **sūðewardes**, southwards; **ealles**, altogether, entirely; **dægēs**, by day; **nihtes**, by night; **ðæs**, from that time, afterwards. Cf. **hys (=his) wegēs** in *Ðonne rīdeð ælc hys wegēs*, *Then rides each his way*.

Note 2.—The adverbial genitive is abundantly preserved in Mn.E. *Always, crossways, sideways, needs (=necessarily), sometimes*, etc., are not plurals, but old genitive singulars. The same construction is seen in *of course, of a truth, of an evening, of old, of late*, and similar phrases.

(4) Dative and instrumental plurals may be used as adverbs: **hwīlum**, at times, sometimes [whilom]; **stundum** (**stund** = period), from time to time; **miclum**, greatly. Especially common is the suffix **-mælum** (**mæ**l = time [meal]), preserved adverbially in Mn.E. *piecemeal*: **dropmælum**, drop by drop; **styccemælum** (**stycce** = piece), *piecemeal, here and there*.

(5) The suffix **-an** usually denotes motion from:

hēr, here.

hider, hither.

heonan, hence.

ðær, there.

ðider, thither.

ðonnan, thence.

hwær, where?

hwider, whither? **hwonnan**, whence?

norðan, from the north.

ēastan, from the east.

hindan, from behind.

feorran, from far.

ūtan, from without.

(6) The adverb **rihte** (**riht** = right, straight) denotes motion toward in **norðrihte**, northward, due north; **ēast rihte**, due east; **sūðrihte**, due south; **westrihte**, due west.

Prepositions

94. The nominative is the only case in O.E. that is never governed by a preposition. Of the other cases, the dative and accusative occur most frequently with prepositions.

(1) The prepositions that are most frequently found with the dative are:

æfter , <i>after</i> .	frōm (fram) , <i>from, by</i> .
æt , <i>at</i> .	mid , <i>with</i> .
be (bī) , <i>by, near, about</i> .	of , <i>of, from</i>
betwēonan (betuh) , <i>between</i> .	tō , <i>to</i> .
būtan (būton) , <i>except</i> .	tōforan , <i>before</i> .
for , <i>for</i> .	tōweard , <i>toward</i> .

(2) The following prepositions require the accusative:

geond , <i>throughout</i> .	ðurh , <i>through</i> .
ofer , <i>over, upon</i> .	ymbe , <i>about, around</i> .
oð , <i>until, up to</i> .	

(3) The preposition **on** (rarely **in**), meaning *into*, is usually followed by the accusative, but meaning *in, on, or during*, it takes the dative or instrumental. The preposition **wið** meaning *toward*, may be followed by the genitive, dative, or accusative; but meaning *against*, and implying *motion or hostility*, the accusative is more common.

(4) The following phrases are used prepositionally with the dative:

be norðan , <i>north of</i> .	tō ēacan , <i>in addition to</i> .
be ēastan , <i>east of</i> .	on emnlange (efn-lang =
	<i>evenly long), along</i> .
be sūðan , <i>south of</i> .	tō emnes , <i>along</i> .
be westan , <i>west of</i> .	

(5) Prepositions regularly precede the noun or pronoun that they introduce; but by their adverbial nature they are sometimes drawn in front of the verb: **And him wæs mycel mēnegu tō gegaderod**, *And there was gathered unto him a great multitude*. In relative clauses introduced by **ðe**, the preceding position is very common: **sēo scīr . . . ðe hē on būde**, *the district, . . . which he dwelt in (= which he in-habited)*; **Hē wæs swyðe spēdig man on ðām æhtum ðe hiera spēda on bēoð**, *He was a very rich man in those possessions which their riches consist in*; **nȳhst ðām tūne ðe sē dēada man on līð**, *nearest the town that the dead man lies in*.

Conjunctions.

95. (1) The most frequently occurring conjunctions are:

ac , <i>but</i> .	for ðȳ , <i>therefore</i> .
--------------------------	------------------------------------

ǣr, *before, ere.*
būtan, (būton), *except that, unless.*
ēac, also [eke].
for ðǣm
for ðǣm ðe,
for ðon
for ðon ðe,

because.

(2) The correlative conjunctions are:

ǣgðer ge **ge**
ǣgðer. **ōðer**
oððe **oððe**
nē **nē**
sam **sam,**

swā **swā**
ðā **ðā**
ðonne **. ðonne**

gif, *if.*
hwæðer, *whether.*
and (and), *and.*
oððe, *or.*
ðæt, *that, so that.*
ðēah, *though, however.*

both *and.*
either *or.*

neither *nor.*
whether *or.*
the *the.*

as *as.*
when *then.*

CHAPTER XVII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Adjectives.

96. (1) Adjectives are regularly compared by adding **-ra** for the comparative, and **-ost** (rarely **-est**) for the superlative:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
earm , <i>poor</i>	earmra	earmost
rīce , <i>rich</i>	rīcra	rīcost
smæl , <i>narrow</i>	smæltra	smalost
brād , <i>broad</i>	brādra (brædra)	brādest
swift , <i>swift</i>	swiftra	swiftost

(2) Forms with i-umlaut usually have superlative in **-est**:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
eald , <i>old</i>	ieldra	ieldest
lōng , <i>long</i>	lēngra	lēngest
strōng , <i>strong</i>	strengra	strengest
geong , <i>young</i>	giengra	giengest
hēah , <i>high</i>	hīerra	hīehst

(3) The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
gōd , <i>good</i>	bętra	bętst
lýtēl , <i>little, small</i>	læssa	læst
micel , <i>great, much</i>	māra	mæst
yfel , <i>bad</i>	wiersa	wierst

(4) The positive is sometimes supplied by an adverb:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
feor , <i>far</i>	fierra	fierrest
nēah , <i>near</i>	nēarra	nīehst
ǣr , <i>before</i>	ǣrra , <i>former</i>	ǣrest , <i>first</i>

(5) The comparatives all follow the Weak Declension. The superlatives, when preceded by the definite article, are weak; but when used predicatively they are frequently strong: **sē lāesta dǣl**, *the least part*; **Ðonne cymeð sē man sē ðæt swiftoste hors hafað tō ðǣm ǣrestan dǣle and tō ðǣm mæstan**, *Then comes the man that has the swiftest horse to the first part and to the largest*. But, **ðæt bȳne land is ēasteward brādest** (not **brādoste**), *the cultivated land is broadest eastward*; and (hit) **bið ealra wyrta mæst**, *and it is largest of all herbs*; **Ac hyra** (= *hiera*) **ār is mæst on ðǣm gafole ðe ðā Finnas him gyldað**, *But their income is greatest in the tribute that the Fins pay*

them.

(6) The comparative is usually followed by **ðonne** and the nominative case: **Sē hwæl bið micle læssa ðonne oðre hwalas**, *That whale is much smaller than other whales*; **Ðā wunda ðæs mōdes bēoð dīgelran ðonne ðā wunda ðæs līchaman**, *The wounds of the mind are more secret than the wounds of the body*.

But when **ðonne** is omitted, the comparative is followed by the dative: **Ūre Ālīesend, ðe māra is ƿnd mærra eallum gesceaftum**, *Our Redeemer, who is greater and more glorious than all created things*; **nē ongeat hē nō hiene selfne beþran oðrum gōdum mōnnum**, *nor did he consider himself better than other good men*.

Adverbs.

97. (1) Adverbs are regularly compared by adding **-or** for the comparative and **-ost** (rarely **-est**) for the superlative:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
georne , <i>willingly</i>	geornor	geornost
swīðe , <i>very, severely</i>	swīðor , <i>more</i>	swīðost , <i>most, chiefly</i>
æ̅r , <i>before</i>	æ̅ror , <i>formerly</i>	æ̅rest , <i>first</i>
norð , <i>northwards</i>	norðor	norðmest ¹

(3) The comparatives of a few adverbs may be found by dropping **-ra** of the corresponding adjective form:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
lōnge , <i>long</i>	lēng	lēngest
micle , <i>much</i>	mā	mæst
wel , <i>well</i>	bet	betst

Expressions of Time.

98. (1) Duration of time and extent of space are usually expressed by the accusative case: **Ealle ðā hwīle ðe ðæt līc bið inne**, *All the time that the body is within*; **twēgen dagas**, *for two days*; **ealne weg**, *all the way, always*.

(2) Time when is more often expressed by the instrumental case when no preposition is used: **ðy ilcan dæge**, *the same day*; **æ̅lce gēare**, *each year*; **ðy gēare**, *that year*; **æ̅lce dæge**, *each day*.

¹ This is really a double superlative, **m** being itself an old superlative suffix. Cf. Latin *opti-m-us*. In Mn.E. *northmost* and *hindmost*, **-m-est** has been confused with **-most**, with which etymologically it has nothing to do.

(3) Time or space within which is expressed by **on** and the dative: **on sumera**, in summer; **on wintra**, in winter; **on fif dagum**, in five days; **on fif mīlum**, in five miles; **on ðissum gēare**, in this year; **on ðāem tīman**, in those times. Sometimes by the genitive without a preceding preposition: **ðæs gēares**, in that year.

99

VOCABULARY

ðæt gefylce [folc], troop, division.

ðæt lond, (land), land.

sēo mīl, mile.

ōðer . . . oðer, the one . . . the other, the former . . . the latter.

sé sige, victory.

sige¹ habban, to win (the) victory.

sprecan, to speak.

ðæt swīn (swȳn), swine, hog.

wēste, waste.

100.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Hē hæfð ðrēo swīðe swift hors.

2. Ic hæbbe nigontiene scēap ƿnd mā ðonne twēntig swīna.

3. Sēo gōde cwēn cīest twā hund mōnna.

4. Uton feohtan wið ðā Dene mid ðrīm hunde scipa.

5. ƿnd hīe wæron on twām gefylcum²: on oðrum wæs Bāchsecg ƿnd Halfdene ðā hæðnan cuningas, ƿnd on oðrum wæron ðā eorlas.

6. Ðū spricst sōðlice.

7. Ðonne rīt ælc mōn his weg.

¹**Sige** usually, but not invariably, precedes **habban**.

²See p. 100, note on **gefeht**.

8. Æfter mōnigum dagum, hæfde Ælfred cyning¹ sige.

9. Ðis lōnd is wēste styccemælum.

10. Ðēs feld is fiftiges mīla brād.

11. Ælfred cyning hæfde mōnige frīend, for ðæm ðe hē wæs ægðer ge wīs ge gōd.

12. Ðā hwalas, ðe ðū ymbe spricst, sind micle læssan oðrum hwalum.

13. Hēo is ieldre ðonne hiere swuster, ac mīn brōðor is ieldra ðonne hēo.

14. Wē cumað tō ðæm tūne ælce gēare.

15. Ðā men ðe ðā swiftostan hors hæfdon wæron mid ðæm Denum fēower dagas.

II.

1. Our army (**werod**) was in two divisions: one was large, the other was small.

2. The richest men in the kingdom have more (**mā**) than thirty ships.

3. He was much wiser than his brother.

4. He fights against the Northumbrians with two ships.

5. After three years King Alfred gained the victory.

6. Whosoever chooses these gifts, chooses well.

7. This man's son is both wiser and better than his father.

¹The proper noun comes first in appositive expressions: **Ælfred cyning, Sidroc eorl, Hēahmund bisceop.**

8. When the king rides, then ride his thanes too.

9. The richest men are not always (**ā**) the wisest men.

CHAPTER XVIII.

STRONG VERBS: CLASS I. (See § 17.)

Syntax of Moods.

101. Of the three hundred simple verbs belonging to the O.E. Strong Conjugation, it is estimated¹ that seventy-eight have preserved their strong inflections in Mn.E., that eighty-eight have become weak, and that the remaining one hundred and thirty-four have entirely disappeared, their places being taken in most cases by verbs of Latin origin introduced through the Norman-French.

NOTE.—Only the simple or primitive verbs, not the compound forms, are here taken into consideration. The proportionate loss, therefore, is really much greater. O.E. abounded in formative prefixes. “Thus from the Anglo-Saxon **flōwan**, to flow, ten new compounds were formed by the addition of various prefixes, of which ten, only one, **oferflōwan**, to overflow, survives with us. In a similar manner, from the verb **sittan**, to sit, thirteen new verbs were formed, of which not a single one is to be found to-day.” Lounsbury, *ib.* part I, p. 107.

102. Class I: The “Drive” Conjugation.Vowel Succession: **ī, ā, i, i.**

INFINITIVE.	PRETERIT SING.	PRETERIT PLUR.	PAST PART.
Drīf-an drāf		drif-on	gedrif-en , to drive.
	Indicative.		Subjunctive.
	PRESENT.		PRESENT.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic drīf-e	<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic } drīf-e
2.	ðū drīf-st (drīf-est)	2.	ðū } drīf-e
3.	hē drif-ð (drīf-eð)	3.	hē } drīf-e
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē } drīf-að	<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē } drīf-en
2.	gē } drīf-að	2.	gē } drīf-en
3.	hīe } drīf-að	3.	hīe } drīf-en
	PRETERIT.		PRETERIT.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic drāf	<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic } drif-e
2.	ðū drif-e	2.	ðū } drif-e
3.	hē drāf	3.	hē } drif-e
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē } drif-on	<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē } drif-en
2.	gē } drif-on	2.	gē } drif-en
3.	hīe } drif-on	3.	hīe } drif-en
	Imperative.	Infinitive.	Present Participle.

¹Lounsbury, *English Language*, Part II, § 241.

<i>Sing.</i> 2.	drīf	drīf-an	drīf-ende
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	drīf-an		
2.	drīf-að	Gerund.	Past Participle.
		tō drīf-anne (-enne)	gedrif-en

Tense Formation of Strong Verbs.

103. (1) It will be seen from the conjugation of **drīfan** that the *present stem* in all strong verbs is used throughout the present indicative, the present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, the gerund, and the present participle. More than half of the endings, therefore, of the Strong Conjugation are added directly to the present stem.

(2) That the preterit singular stem is used in only two forms of the verb, the 1st and 3^d persons singular of the preterit indicative: **Ic drāf, hē drāf.**

(3) That the preterit plural stem is used in the preterit plural indicative, in the 2^d person of the preterit singular indicative, and in the singular and plural of the preterit subjunctive.

(4) That the stem of the past participle (**gedrif-**) is used for no other form.

Syntax of the Verb.

104. The Indicative Mood¹ represents the predicate *as a reality*. It is used both in independent and in dependent clauses, its function in O.E. corresponding with its function in O.E. corresponding with its function in Mn.E.

105. The Subjunctive Mood represents the predicate *as an idea*.² It is of far more frequent occurrence in O.E. than in Mn.E.

1. When used in independent clauses it denotes desire, command, or entreaty, and usually precedes its subject: **Sīe ðīn nama gehālgod**, *Hallowed be Thy name*; **Ne swerigen gē**, *Do not swear*.
2. In dependent clauses it denotes uncertainty, possibility, or mere futurity.³ Concessive clauses (introduced by **ðēah**, *though*) and temporal clauses (introduced by **ǣ**, **ǣr ðǣm ðe**, *before*) are rarely found with any other mood than the subjunctive. The subjunctive is also regularly used in Alfredian prose after verbs of saying, even when no suggestion

¹ Usage sanctions *mood*, but the better spelling would be *mode*. It is from the Lat. *modus*, whereas *mood* (= *temper*) is O.E. *mōd*.

² Gildersleeve's *Latin Grammar*, § 255.

³ Thus when Alfred writes that an event took place *before* the founding of Rome, he uses the subjunctive: **ǣr ðǣm ðe Rōmeburh getimbrod wære** = *before Rome were founded*; but, **ǣfter ðǣm ðe Rōmeburh getimbrod wæs** = *after Rome was founded*.

of doubt or discredit attaches to the narration.¹ “Whether the statement refer to a fact or not, whether the subject-matter be vouched for by the reporter, as regards its objective reality and truth, the subjunctive does not tell. It simply represents a statement as reported”² **ðēah man āsētte twēgen fātels full ealað oððe wāteres, though one set two vessels full of ale or water; ær ðām ðe hit eall forhergod wære, before it was all ravaged; Hē sāde ðæt Norðmanna land wære swyðe lang and swyðe smæl, He said that the Norwegians’ land was very long and very narrow.**

106. The Imperative is the mood of command or intercession: **Iōhannes, cum tō mē, John, come to me; And forgyf ūs ūre gyltas, And forgive us our trespasses; Ne drīf ūs fram ðē, Do not drive us from thee.**

107. (1) The Infinitive and Participles are used chiefly in verb-phrases (§§ 138-141); but apart from this function, the Infinitive, being a neuter noun, may serve as the subject or direct object of a verb. **Hātan** (to command, bid), **lāetan** (to let, permit), and **onginnan** (to begin) are regularly followed by the Infinitive: **Hine rīdan lyste, To ride pleased him; Hēt ðā bære seſtan, He bade set down the bier;**³ **Lāetað ðā lýtlingas tō mē cuman, Let the little ones come to me; ðā ongann hē spreca, then began he to speak.**

(2) The Participles may be used independently in the dative absolute construction (an imitation of the Latin ablative absolute), usually for the expression of time:⁴ **Him ðā gýt sprecedum, While he was yet speaking; gefylledum dagum, the days having been fulfilled.**

108. The Gerund, or Gerundial Infinitive, is used: (1) To express purpose: **Ūt ēode sē sāwere his sād tō sāwenne, Out went the sower his seed to sow.** (2) To expand or determine the meaning of a noun or adjective: **Sýmōn, ic hæbbe ðē tō seċgenne sum ðing, Simon, I have something to say to thee; Hit is scōndlic ymb swelc tō spreca, It is shameful to speak about such things.**

(3) After **bēon** (**wesan**) to denote duty or necessity: **Hwæt is nū mā ymbe ðis tō spreca, What more is there now to say about this? ðonne is tō geðencenne hwæt Crīst self cwæð, then it behooves to bethink what Christ himself said.**

¹ “By the time of Ælfric, however, the leveling influence of the indicative [after verbs of saying] has made considerable progress.”—Gorrell, *Indirect Discourse in Anglo-Saxon* (Dissertation, 1895), p. 101.

² Hotz, *On the Use of the Subjunctive Mood in Anglo-Saxon* (Zürich, 1882).

³ Not, *He commanded the bier to be set down.* The Mn.E. passive in such sentences is a loss both in force and directness.

⁴ Callaway, *The Absolute Participle in Anglo-Saxon* (Dissertation, 1889), p. 19.

NOTE.—The Gerund is simply the dative case of the Infinitive after *tō*. It began very early to supplant the simple Infinitive; hence the use of *to* with the Infinitive in Mn.E. As late as the Elizabethan age the Gerund sometimes replaced the Infinitive even after the auxiliary verbs:

“Some pagan shore,
Where these two Christian armies *might combine*
The blood of malice in a vein of league,
And not *to spend* it so unneighbourly.”

—*King John*, V, 2, 39.

When *to* lost the meaning of purpose and came to be considered as a merely formal prefix, *for* was used to supplement the purpose element: *What went ye out for to see?*¹

¹ This not the place to discuss the Gerund in Mn.E., the so-called “infinitive in *-ing*.” The whole subject has been befogged for the lack of an accepted nomenclature, one that shall do violence neither to grammar nor to history.

CHAPTER XIX.

STRONG VERBS: CLASSES II AND III.

109.

Class II: The “Choose” Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: **ēo, ēa, u, o.**

INFINITIVE. ¹	PRET.SING.	PRET. PLUR. ²	PAST PART. ²
cēos-an,	cēas,	cur-on, gecor-en, <i>to choose.</i>	
	Indicative.		Subjunctive.
	PRESENT.		PRESENT.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic cēos-e	<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic
2.	đū cīest (cēos-est)	2.	đū
3.	hē cīest (cēos-eđ)	3.	hē
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē	<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē
2.	gē	2.	gē
3.	hīe	3.	hīe
	PRETERIT.		PRETERIT.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic cēas	<i>Sing.</i> 1.	Ic
2.	đū cur-e	2.	đū
3.	hē cēas	3.	hē
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē	<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē
2.	gē	2.	gē
3.	hīe	3.	hīe
	Imperative.	Infinitive.	Present Participle.
<i>Sing.</i> 2.	cēos	cēos-an	cēos-ende
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	cēos-an		
2.	cēos-ađ	Gerund.	Past Participle.
		tō cēos-anne (-enne)	gecor-en

110.

Class III: The “Bind” Conjugation.

¹ A few verbs of Class II have **ū** instead of **ēo** in the infinitive:
brūcan, brēac, brucon, gebrocen, *to enjoy* [brook].
būgan, bēag, bugon, gebogen, *to bend, bow.*

² By a law known as Grammatical Change, final **đ, s,** and **h** of strong verbs generally become **d, r,** and **g,** respectively, in the preterit plural and past participle.

Vowel Succession: i u
 e , a, u, o .

The present stem ends in **m, n, l, r,** or **h,** + one or more consonants:

m:	belimp-an,	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{bel\o mp} \\ \text{belamp} \end{array} \right\}$, belump-on,	belump-en, to <i>belong</i> .
n:	bind-an,	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{b\o nd} \\ \text{band} \end{array} \right\}$, bund-on,	gebund-en, to <i>bind</i> .
l:	help-an,	healp,	hulp-on,	geholp-en, to <i>help</i> .
r:	weorð-an,	wearð,	wurd-on,	geword-en, to <i>become</i> .
h:	gefeoht-an,	gefeaht,	gefuht-on,	gefoht-en, to <i>fight</i> .

NOTE 1.—If the present stem ends in a nasal (**m, n**) + a consonant, the past participle retains the **u** of the pret. plur.; but if the present stem ends in a liquid (**l, r**) or **h,** + a consonant, the past participle has **o** instead of **u**.

NOTE 2.—Why do we not find ***halp, *warð,** and ***faht** in the pret. sing.? Because **a** before **l, r,** or **h,** + consonant, underwent “breaking” to **ea**. Breaking also changes every **e** followed by **r** or **h,** + a consonant, to **eo**: **weorðan** (<***werðan**), **feohtan** (<***fehtan**).

111.	Indicative.		Subjunctive.		
	PRESENT.		PRESENT.		
	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic bind-e	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic } bind-e	
		2. ðū bintst (bind-est)		2. ðū } bind-e	
		3. hē bint (bind-eð)		3. hē } bind-e	
	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } bind-að	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } bind-en	
		2. gē } bind-að		2. gē } bind-en	
		3. hīe } bind-að		3. hīe } bind-en	
	PRETERIT.		PRETERIT.		
	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic bōnd	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic } bund-e	
		2. ðū bund-e		2. ðū } bund-e	
		3. hē bōnd		3. hē } bund-e	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } bund-on	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } bund-en		
	2. gē } bund-on		2. gē } bund-en		
	3. hīe } bund-on		3. hīe } bund-en		
Imperative.		Infinitive.		Present Participle.	
<i>Sing.</i>	2. bind	bind-an		bind-ende	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. bind-an				
	2. bind-að	Gerund.		Past Participle.	
		to bind-anne (-enne)		gebund-en	

112.

VOCABULARY.

ðæt gefeoht, *fight, battle*.
 sēo geræcednes, *narration* [ræcan].
 ðæt gesceap, *creation* [scieppan].
 sēo heḡgung (§ 39, (3)), *harrying, plundering*
 [heḡgian].
 sē medu (medo) (§ 51), *mead*.
 sēo meolc, *milk*.
 sē middangeard, *world* [middle-yard].

sē munuc, *monk* [monachus].
 sēo mýre, *mare* [mearh].
 hē sǣde, *he said*.
 hīe sǣdon, *they said*.
 sēo spēd, *riches* [speed].
 spēdig, *rich, prosperous* [speedy].
 sēo tīd, *time* [tide].
 unspēdig, *poor*.
 sē westanwind, *west-wind*.
 ðæt wīn, *wine*.

ārīsan	ārās	ārison	ārisen	<i>to arise</i>
bīdan	bād	bidon,	gebiden	<i>to remain, expect</i> (with gen.)
drēogan ¹	drēag	drugon	gedrogen	<i>to endure, suffer</i>
drincan	drōnc	druncon	gedruncon	<i>to drink</i>
findan	fōnd	fundon	gefunden	<i>to find</i>
geswīcan	geswāc	geswicon	gegeswicen	<i>to cease, cease from</i> (with gen.)
iernan (yrnan) ḡrn	urnon	geurnen	<i>to run</i>	
onginnan	ongōnn	ongunnon	geongunnen	<i>to begin</i>
rīdan	rād	ridon	geriden	<i>to ride</i>
singan	sōng	sungon	gesungen	<i>to sing</i>
wrītan	wrāt	writon	gewriten	<i>to write</i>

113.

EXERCISES.

- I. 1. Æfter ðissum wordum, sē munuc wrāt ealle ðā geræcednesse on ānre bēc.
-
2. Ðā eorlas ridon ūp ær ðām ðe ðā Dene ðæs gefeohtes gewicen.
-
3. Cædmon sōng ærest be middangeardes gesceape.
-
4. Sē cyning ḡnd ðā rīcostan men drincað mýran meolc, ḡnd ðā unspēdigan drincað medu.
-
5. ḡnd hē ārās ḡnd sē wind geswāc.
-
6. Hīe sǣdon ðæt hīe ðær westwindes biden.
-
7. Hwæt is nū mā ymbe ðās ḡng tō sprecanne?
-

¹ Cf. the Scotch "to dree one's weird" = *to endure one's fate*.

8. Ðā seƿgas ongunnon geswīcan ðære heƿgunga.

9. Ðā bēag ðæt lōnd ðær ēastryhte, oððe sēo sē in on ðæt lōnd.

10. Ðās lōnd belimpað tō ðæm Eſglum.

11. Ðēah ðā Deƿe ealne dæg gefuhten, gīet hæfde Ælfred cyning sige.

12. Qnd ðæs (afterwards) ymbe ānne mōnað gefeaht Ælfred cyning wið ealne ðone heƿ æt Wiltūne.

II. 1. The most prosperous men drank mare's milk and wine, but the poor men drank mead.

2. I suffered many things before you began to help me (dat.).

3. About two days afterwards (**Ðæs ymbe twēgen dagas**), the plundering ceased.

4. The king said that he fought against all the army (**heƿe**).

5. Although the Danes remained one month (§ 98, (1)), they did not begin to fight.

6. These gifts belonged to my brother.

7. The earls were glad because their lord was (indicative) with them.

8. What did you find?

9. Then wrote he about (**be**) the wise man's deeds.

10. What more is there to endure?

CHAPTER XX.

STRONG VERBS: CLASSES IV, V, VI, AND VII.

CONTRACT VERBS.

[The student can now complete the conjugation for himself (§ 103). Only the principal parts will be given.]

114. Class IV: The “Bear” Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: **e, æ, ǣ, o.**

The present stem ends in **l, r** or **m**, no consonant following:

l:	hel-an	hæl,	hǣl-on,	gehol-en, <i>to conceal.</i>
r:	ber-an,	bær,	bǣr-on	gebor-en, <i>to bear.</i>

The two following verbs are slightly irregular:

m:	{	nim-an,	nōm (nam),	nōm-on (nām-on),	genum-en, <i>to take.</i>
ī		cum-an,	c(w)ōm,	c(w)ōm-on,	gecum-en, <i>to come.</i>

115. Class V: The “Give” Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: **e (ie), æ, ǣ, e.**

The present stem ends in a single consonant, never a liquid or nasal:

met-an,	mæt,	mǣton,	gemet-en, <i>to measure, mete.</i>
gief-an,	geaf,	gēaf-on,	gegief-en, <i>to give.</i>

NOTE 1.—The palatal consonants, **g, c,** and **sc,** convert a following **e** into **ie,** **æ** into **ea,** and **ǣ** into **ēa.** Hence **giefan** (<*gefān), **geaf** (<*gæf), **gēafon** (<*gǣfon), **gegiefen** (<*gegefēn). This change is known as Palatalization. See § 8.

NOTE 2.—The Infinitives of the following important verbs are only apparently exceptional:

biddan, bæd,	bǣd-on, gebed-en,	<i>to ask for [bid].</i>
licgan, læg,	lǣg-on, geleg-en,	<i>to lie, extend.</i>
sittan, sæt,	sǣt-on, geset-en,	<i>to sit.</i>

The original **e** reappears in the participial stems. It was changed to **i** in the present stems on account of a former **-jan** in the infinitive (**bid-jan**, etc.). See § 61. To the same cause is due the doubling of consonants in the infinitive. All simple consonants in O.E., with the exception of **r**, were doubled after a short vowel, when an original **j** followed.

116. Class VI: The “Shake” Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: **a, ō, ō̄, a.**

VII. **fōn** (<*fōhan), **fēng** **fēng-on**, **gefōng-en**, to seize.

[fang].

118. The Present Indicative of these verbs runs as follows (see rules of i-umlaut, § 58):

<i>Sing.</i>	1.	Ic	ḏēo	tēo	sēo	slēa	fō
	2.	ḏū	ḏīhst	tīehst	siehst	sliehst	fēhst
	3.	hē	ḏīhḏ	tīehḏ	siehḏ	sliehḏ	fēhḏ
<i>Plur.</i>	1.	wē	} ḏēoḏ	} tēoḏ	} sēoḏ	} slēaḏ	} fōḏ
	2.	gē					
	3.	hīe					

The other tenses and moods are regularly formed from the given stems.

120. VOCABULARY.

sēo **æht**, property, possession [āgan].

aweg, away [on weg].

sēo **fierd**, English army [faran].

sē **here**, Danish army [hergian].

tō **rīce fōn**, to come to the throne.¹

ḏæt wæl, slaughter, carnage (Val-halla).

sē wæslīht, slaughter, carnage.

on gehwæðre hōnd, on both sides.

sige niman (=sige habban), to win (the) victory.

sēo spræc, speech, language.

sē weall, wall, rampart.

ḏæt wildor, wild beast, reindeer.

sē wīngeard, vineyard.

ābreca²	ābræc	ābræcon	ābrocen	to break down.
cweḏan	cwæḏ	cwædon	gecweden	to say [quoth].
gesēon	geseah	gesāwon	gesewen	to see.
grōwan	grēow	grēowon	grōwen	to grow.
ofslēan	ofslōh	ofslōgon	ofslægen	to slay.
sprecan	spræc	spræcon	gesprecen	to speak.
stelan	stæl	stælon	gestolen	to steal.
stōndan	stōd	stōdon	gestōnden	to stand.
weaxan	wēox	wēoxon	geweaxen	to grow, increase [wax].

121. EXERCISES.

I. 1. Æfter ḏæm sōḏlice (indeed) ealle mēn spræcon āne (one) spræce.

2. Qnd hē cwæḏ: “ḏis is ān folc, qnd ealle hīe sprecaḏ āne spræce.”

3. On sumum stōwum wīngeardas grōwaḏ.

¹ Literally, to take to (the) kingdom. Cf. “Have you anything to take to?” (*Two Gentlemen of Verona*, IV, 1, 42).

² **Breca**n belongs properly in Class V, but it has been drawn into Class IV possibly through the influence of the **r** in the root.

4. Hē hēt ðā nǣdran ofslēan.

5. Ðā Ʒngle ābræcon ðone lŋngan weall, Ʒnd sige nāmon.

6. Ʒnd ðæt sǣd grēow Ʒnd wēox.

7. Ic ne geseah ðone mŋn sē ðe ðæs cnapan adesan stǣl.

8. Hē wæs swyðe spēdig man on ðǣm æhtum ðe hiera spēda on¹ bēoð, ðæt is, on wildrum.

9. Ʒnd ðær wearð (was) micel wǣsliht on gehwæðre hŋnd.

10. Ʒnd æfter ðissum gefeohte, cōm Ælfred cyning mid his fierde, Ʒnd gefeagt wið ealne ðone here, Ʒnd sige nam (nōm).

11. Ðēos burg hǣtte Æscesdūn (Ashdown).

12. Ðære cwēne līc læg on ðǣm hūse.

13. Ʒnd sē dǣl ðe ðær aweg cōm wæs swyðe lýtēl.

14. Ʒnd ðæs ðrēotīene dagas Æðered to rīce fēng.

II. 1. The men stood in the ships and fought against the Danes.

2. Before the thanes came, the king rode away.

3. They said (**sǣdon**) that all the men spoke one language.

4. They bore the queen's body to Wilton.

¹ See § 94, (5).

5. Alfred gave many gifts to his army (dat. without **tō**) before he went away.

6. These men are called earls.

7. God sees all things.

8. The boy held the reindeer with (**mid**) his hands.

9. About six months afterwards, Alfred gained the victory, and came to the throne.

10. He said that there was very great slaughter on both sides.

CHAPTER XXI.

WEAK VERBS (§ 18).

122. The verbs belonging to the Weak Conjugation are generally of more recent origin than the strong verbs, begin frequently formed from the roots of strong verbs. The Weak Conjugation was the growing conjugation in O.E. as it is in Mn.E. We instinctively put our newly coined or borrowed words into this conjugation (*telegraphed, boycotted*); and children, by the analogy of weak verbs, say *runned* for *ran*, *seed* for *saw*, *teared* for *tore*, *drawed* for *drew*, and *growed* for *grew*. So, for example, when Latin *dictāre* and *breviāre* came into O.E., they came as weak verbs, **dihntian** and **brēfian**.

The Three Classes of Weak Verbs.

123. There is no difficulty in telling, from the infinitive alone, to which of the three classes a weak verb belongs. Class III has been so invaded by Class II that but three important verbs remain to it: **habban**, *to have*; **libban**, *to live*; and **seċgan**, *to say*. Distinction is to be made, therefore, only between Classes II and I. Class II contains the verbs with infinitive in **-ian** not preceded by **r**. Class I contains the remaining weak verbs; that is, those with infinitive in **-r-ian** and those with infinitive in **-an** (not **-ian**).

Class I.

124. The preterit singular and past participle of Class I end in **-ede** and **-ed**, or **-de** and **-ed** respectively.

NOTE.—The infinitives of this class ended originally in **-jan** (= **-ian**). This accounts for the prevalence of *i*-umlaut in these verbs, and also for the large number of short-voweled stems ending in a double consonant (§ 115, Note 2). The weak verb is frequently the causative of the corresponding strong verb. In such cases, the root of the weak verb corresponds in form to the preterit singular of the strong verb: Mn.E. *drench* (= *to make drink*), *lay* (= *to make lie*), *rear* (= *to make rise*), and *set* (= *to make sit*), are the umlauted forms of **drōnc** (preterit singular of **drincan**), **læg** (preterit singular of **licgan**), **rās** (preterit singular of **rīsan**), and **sæt** (preterit singular of **sittan**).

Preterit and Past Participle in **-ede** and **-ed**.

125. Verbs with infinitive in **-an** preceded by **ri-** or the double consonants **mm**, **nn**, **ss**, **bb**, **cg** (= **gg**), add **-ede** for the preterit, and **-ed** for the past participle, the double consonant being always made single:

ri:	nęri-an,	nęr-ede,	genęr-ed,	<i>to save.</i>
mm:	fręmm-an,	fręm-ede,	gefřęm-ed,	<i>to perform, [frame].</i>
nn:	đęnn-an,	đęn-ede,	geđęn-ed,	<i>to extend.</i>

ss:	cnyss-an,	cnys-ede, gecnys-ed,	to beat.
bb:	swębb-an	swęf-ede, geswęf-ed,	to put to sleep.
cg:	węcg-an,	węg-ede, gewęg-ed,	to agitate.

Note.—*Lęcgan*, to lay, is the only one of these verbs that syncopates the **e**: *lęcgan*, *lęgde* (*lēde*), *gełęgd* (*gelēd*), instead of *lęgede*, *gełęged*.

Preterit and Past Participle in *-de* and *-ed*.

126. All the other verbs belonging to Class I add **-de** for the preterit and **-ed** for the past participle. This division includes, therefore, all stems long by nature:

dāel-an,	dāel-de,	gedāel-ed,	to deal out, divide [dāel].
dēm-an,	dēm-de,	gedēm-ed,	to judge [dōm].
grēt-an,	grēt-te,	gegrēt-ed,	to greet.
hīer-an,	hīer-de,	gehīer-ed,	to hear.
lāed-an,	lāed-de,	gelāed-ed,	to lead.

NOTE 1.—A preceding voiceless consonant (§ 9, Note) changes **-de** into **-te**: *grēt-de > grēt-te; *mēt-de; > mēt-te; *īec-de > īec-te. Syncope and contraction are also frequent in the participles: *gegrēt-ed* > *gegrēt-d > *gegrēt(t)*; *gelāed-ed* > *gelāed(d)*.

NOTE 2.—*Būan*, to dwell, cultivate, has an admixture of strong forms in the past participle: *būan*, *būde*, *gebūd* (*bŷn*, *gebūn*). The present participle survives in Mn.E. *husband* = house-dweller.

127. It includes, also, all stems long by position except those ending in **mm**, **nn**, **ss**, **bb**, and **cg** (§ 125):

sęnd-an,	sęnd-e,	gesęnd-ed,	to send.
sętt-an,	sęt-te,	gesęt-ed,	to set [sittan].
sigl-an,	sigl-de,	gesigl-ed,	to sail.
spęnd-an,	spęnd-e,	gespęnd-ed,	to spend.
trędd-an,	tręd-de,	getręd-ed,	to tread.

NOTE.—The participles frequently undergo syncope and contraction: *gesęnded* > *gesęnd*; *gesęted* > *gesęt(t)*; *gespęnded* > *gespęnd*; *getręded* > *getręd(d)*.

Irregular Verbs of Class I.

128. There are about twenty verbs belonging to Class I that are irregular in having no umlaut in the preterit and past participle. The preterit ends in **-de**, the past participle in **-d**; but, through the influence of a preceding voiceless consonant (§ 9, Note), **-ed** is generally unvoiced to **-te**, and **-d** to **-t**. The most important of these verbs are as follows:

bring-an,	brōh-te,	gebrōh-t,	to bring.
byc-gan,	boh-te,	geboh-t,	to buy.

sēc-an,	sōh-te,	gesōh-t,	to seek.
sēll-an,	seal-de,	geseal-d,	to give, sell.
tāc-an,	tāh-te,	getāh-t,	to teach.
tēll-an,	teal-de,	geteal-d,	to count [tell].
ðenc-an,	ðōh-te,	geðōh-t,	to think.
ðync-an,	ðūh-te,	geðūh-t,	to seem [methinks].
wyrc-an,	worh-te,	geworh-t,	to work.

NOTE.—Such of these verbs as have stems in **c** or **g** are frequently written with an inserted **e**: **bycgean**, **sēccean**, **tācean**, etc. This **e** indicates that **c** and **g** have palatal value; that is, are to be followed with a vanishing **y**-sound. In such cases, O.E. **c** usually passes into Mn.E. *ch*: **tāc(e)an** > *to teach*; **rāc(e)an** > *to reach*; **strēc(e)an** > *to stretch*. **Sēc(e)an** gives *beseech* as well as *seek*. See § 8.

Conjugation of Class I.

129. Paradigms of **nęrian**, *to save*; **fręmman**, *to perform*; **dāelan**, *to divide*:

Indicative.

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic nęrie	fręmme	dāele
	2. ðū nęrest	fręmest	dāelst
	3. hē nęreð	fręmeð	dāelð
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } 2. gē } 3. hīe }	nęriað	fręmmað
			dāelað

PRETERIT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic nęrede	fręmede	dāelde
	2. ðū nęredest	fręmedest	dāeldest
	3. hē nęreðe	fręmede	dāelde
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } 2. gē } 3. hīe }	nęredon	fręmedon
			dāeldon

Subjunctive.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic } 2. ðū } 3. hē }	nęrie	fręmme	dāele
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } 2. gē }	nęrien	fręmmen	dāelen

3. hīe

PRETERIT.

Sing.	1. Ic	}	nērede	frēmede	dǣlde
	2. ðū				
	3. hē				

Plur.	1. wē	}	nēreden	frēmeden	dǣlden
	2. gē				
	3. hīe				

Imperative.

Sing.	2. nēre	frēme	dǣl
Plur.	1. nērian	frēmman	dǣlan
	2. nēriað	frēmmað	dǣlað

Infinitive.

nērian	frēmman	dǣlan
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Gerund.

tō nērianne (-enne)	tō frēmmanne (-enne)	tō dǣlanne (-enne)
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Present Participle.

nēriende	frēmmente	dǣlande
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Past Participle.

genēred	gefremmed	gedǣled
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NOTE.—The endings of the preterit present no difficulties; in the 2d and 3d singular present, however, the student will observe (a) that double consonants in the stem are made single: **frēmest, frēmeð** (not ***frēmnest, *frēmmeð**); **ðenest, ðeneð; seṡtest (seṡst), seṡteð (seṡt)**; **fylst, fylð**, from **fyllan**, *to fill*; (b) that syncope is the rule in stems long by nature: **dǣlst (<dǣlest), dǣlð (<dǣleð)**; **dēmst (<dēmest), dēmð (<dēmeð)**; **hīerst (<hīerest), hīerð (<hīereð)**. Double consonants are also made single in the imperative 2d singular and in the past participle. Stems long by nature take no final **-e** in the imperative: **dǣl, hīer, dēm**.

Class II.

130. The infinitive of verbs belonging to this class ends in **-ian** (not **-r-ian**), the preterit singular in **-ode**, the past participle in **-od**. The preterit plural usually has **-edon**, however, instead of **-odon**:

eard-ian, **eard-ode,** **geeard-od,** *to dwell [eorðe].*

luf-ian,	luf-ode,	geluf-od,	<i>to love</i> [lufu].
rīcs-ian,	rīcs-ode,	gerīcs-od,	<i>to rule</i> [rīce].
sealf-ian,	sealf-ode,	gesealf-od,	<i>to anoint</i> [salve].
segl-ian,	segl-ode,	gesegl-od,	<i>to sail</i> [segel].

NOTE.—These verbs have no trace of original umlaut, since their **-ian** was once **-ōjan**. Hence, the vowel of the stem was shielded from the influence of the *j* (= *i*) by the interposition of *ō*.

Conjugation of Class II.

131. Paradigm of **lufian**, *to love*:

Indicative.		Subjunctive.			
PRESENT.		PRESENT.			
<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic lufie	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic } lufie		
	2. ðū lufast		2. ðū } lufie		
	3. hē lufað		3. hē } lufie		
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } lufiað	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } lufien		
	2. gē } lufiað		2. gē } lufien		
	3. hīe } lufiað		3. hīe } lufien		
PRETERIT.		PRETERIT.			
<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic lufode	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic } lufode		
	2. ðū lufodest		2. ðū } lufode		
	3. hē lufode		3. hē } lufode		
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } lufedon (-odon)	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē } lufeden (-oden)		
	2. gē } lufedon (-odon)		2. gē } lufeden (-oden)		
	3. hīe } lufedon (-odon)		3. hīe } lufeden (-oden)		
Imperative.		Infinitive.		Present Participle.	
<i>Sing.</i>	2. lufa	lufian		lufiende	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. lufian				
	2. lufiað	Gerund.		Past Participle.	
		tō lufianne (-enne)		gelufod	

NOTE. 1.—The **-ie** (**-ien**) occurring in the present must be pronounced as a dissyllable. The **-y**-sound thus interposed between the *i* and *e* is frequently indicated by the letter **g**: **lufie**, or **lufige**; **lufien**, or **lufigen**. So also for **ia**: **lufiað**, or **lufigað**; **lufian**, or **lufig(e)an**.

NOTE. 2.—In the preterit singular, **-ade**, **-ude**, and **-ede** are not infrequent for **-ode**.

Class III.

132. The few verbs belonging here show a blending of Classes I and II. Like certain verbs of Class I (§ 128), the preterit and past participle are formed by adding **-de** and **-d**; like Class II, the 2d and 3d present indicative singular end in **-ast** and **-að**, the imperative 2d singular in **-a**:

habb-an,	hæf-de	gehæf-d,	<i>to have.</i>
libb-an,	lif-de	gelif-d,	<i>to live.</i>
sęcg-an	sęd-e (sęg-de),	gesęd (gesęg-d),	<i>to say.</i>

133. Paradigms of **habban**, *to have*; **libban**, *to live*; **sęgan**, *to say*.

Indicative.

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic hæbbe	libbe	sęcge	
	2. ðū hæfst (hafast)	lifast	sęgst (sagast)	
	3. hē hæfð (hafað)	lifað	sęgð (sagað)	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	habbað	libbað	
	2. gē			sęcgað
	3. hīe			

PRETERIT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic hæfde	lifde	sęde	
	2. ðū hæfdest	lifdest	sędest	
	3. hē hæfde	lifde	sęde	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	hæfdon	lifdon	
	2. gē			sędon
	3. hīe			

Subjunctive.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic	hæbbe	libbe	sęcge
	2. ðū			
	3. hē			
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	hæbben	libben	sęcgen
	2. gē			
	3. hīe			

PRETERIT.

Sing.	1. Ic	}	hæfde	lifde	sæde
	2. ðū				
	3. hē				

Plur.	1. wē	}	hæfden	lifden	sæden
	2. gē				
	3. hīe				

Imperative.

Sing.	2. hafa	lifa	saga
Plur.	1. habban	libban	sęcgan
	2. habbað	libbað	sęgað

Infinitive.

habban	libban	sęcgan
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Gerund.

tō habbane (-enne)	tō libbane (-enne)	tō sęcganne (-enne)
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Present Participle.

hæbbende	libbende	sęgende
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Past Participle.

gehæfd	gelifd	gesæd
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CHAPTER XXII.

REMAINING VERBS; VERB-PHRASES WITH **habban**, **bēon**, AND **weorðan**.**Anomalous Verbs.** (See § 19.)

134. These are:

bēon (<i>wesan</i>),	wæs ,	wæron , —,		<i>to be.</i>
willan ,	wolde ,	woldon , —,		<i>to will, intend.</i>
dōn ,	dyde ,	dydon ,	gedōn ,	<i>to do, cause.</i>
gān ,	ēode ,	ēodon ,	gegān ,	<i>to go.</i>

NOTE.—In the original Indo-Germanic language, the first person of the present indicative singular ended in (1) **ō** or (2) **mi**. Cf. Gk. *λύ-ω, εἰ-μί*, Lat. *am-ō, su-m*. The Strong and Weak Conjugations of O.E. are survivals of the **ō**-class. The four Anomalous Verbs mentioned above are the sole remains in O.E. of the **mi**-class. Note the surviving **m** in **eom** *I am*, and **dōm** *I do* (Northumbrian form). These **mi**-verbs are sometimes called non-Thematic to distinguish them from the Thematic or **ō**-verbs.

Conjugation of Anomalous Verbs.

135. Only the present indicative and subjunctive are at all irregular:

Indicative.

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic eom (<i>bēom</i>)	wille	dō	gā	
	2. ðū eart (<i>bist</i>)	wilt	dēst	gāest	
	3. hē is (<i>bið</i>)	wille	dēð	gāð	
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	} sind (on)	willað	dōð	gāð
	2. gē				
	3. hīe				

Subjunctive.

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic	} sīe	wille	dō	gā
	2. ðū				
	3. hē				
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	} sīen	willen	dōn	gān
	2. gē				
	3. hīe				

NOTE.—The preterit subjunctive of **bēon** is formed, of course, not from **wæs**, but from **wæron**. See § 103, (3).

Preterit-Present Verbs. (See § 19.)

136. These verbs are called Preterit-Present because the present tense (indicative and subjunctive) of each of them is, in form, a strong preterit, the old present having been displaced by the new. They all have weak preterits. Most of the Mn.E. Auxiliary Verbs belong to this class.

witan,	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{wiste,} \\ \text{wisse,} \end{array} \right\}$	wiston,	gewiten,	to know [to wit, wot].
āgan,	āhte,	āhton.	āgen (adj.),	to possess [owe].
cunnan,	cūðe,	cūðon,	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{gecunnen} \\ \text{cūð (adj.),} \end{array} \right\}$	to know, can [uncouth, cunning].
durran,	dorste,	dorston,	—	to dare.
sculan,	sceolde,	sceoldon,	—	shall.
magan,	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meahte,} \\ \text{mihte,} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{meahton,} \\ \text{mihton,} \end{array} \right\}$	—	to be able, may.
mōtan,	mōste,	mōston,	—	may, must.

NOTE.—The change in meaning from preterit to present, with retention of the preterit form, is not uncommon in other languages. Several examples are found in Latin and Greek (cf. *nōvi* and *oĩða*, *I know*). Mn.E. has gone further still: **āhte** and **mōste**, which had already suffered the loss of their old preterits (**āh**, **mōt**), have been forced back again into the present (*ought*, *must*). Having exhausted, therefore, the only means of preterit formation known to Germanic, the strong and the weak, it is not likely that either *ought* or *must* will ever develop distinct preterit forms.

Conjugation of Preterit-Present Verbs.

137. The irregularities occur in the present indicative and subjunctive:

Indicative.

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i>	1.	Ic wāt	āh	cƿn (can)	dear	sceal	mæg	mōt
	2.	ðū wāst	āhst	cƿnst (canst)	dearst	scealt	meaht	mōst
	3.	hē wāt	āh	cƿn (can)	dear	sceal	mæg	mōt
<i>Plur.</i>	1.	wē	}					

2. gē witon āgon cunnon durren sculon magon mōton
 3. hīe

Subjunctive.

PRESENT.

Sing.	1. Ic	}	wite	āge	cunne	durre	scule (scyle)	mæge	mōte
	2. ðū								
	3. hē								
Plur.	1. wē	}	witen	āgen	cunnen	durren	sculen (scylen)	mægen	mōten
	2. gē								
	3. hīe								

NOTE. 1—**Willan** and **sculan** do not often connote simple futurity in Early West Saxon, yet they were fast drifting that way. The Mn.E. use of *shall* only with 1st person and *will* only with the 2d and 3d, to express simple futurity, was wholly unknown even in Shakespeare's day. The elaborate distinctions drawn between these words by modern grammarians are not only cumbersome and foreign to the genius of English, but equally lacking in psychological basis.

NOTE 2—**Sculan** originally implied the idea of (1) *duty*, or *compulsion* (=ought to, or must), and this conception lurks with more or less prominence in almost every function of **sculan** in O.E.: **Dryhten bebēad Moyses hū hē sceolde beran ðā earce**, *The Lord instructed Moses how he ought to bear the ark*; **Ælc mann sceal be his andgietes mæðe . . . sprecan ðæt he spricð, and dōn ðæt ðæt hē dēð**, *Every man must, according to the measure of his intelligence, speak what he speaks, and do what he does*. Its next most frequent use is to express (2) *custom*, the transition from the obligatory to the customary being an easy one: **Sē byrdesta sceall gyldan fiftýne mearðes fell**, *The man of highest rank pays fifteen marten skins*.

NOTE 3—**Willan** expressed originally (1) *pure volition*, and this is its most frequent use in O.E. It may occur without the infinitive: **Nylle ic ðæs synfullan dēað, ac ic wille ðæt hē gecyrre and lybbe**, *I do not desire the sinner's death, but I desire that he return and live*. The wish being father to the intention, **Willan** soon came to express (2) *purpose*: **Hē sæde ðæt hē at sumum cirre wolde fandian hū longe ðæt land norðrýhte læge**, *He said that he intended, at some time, to investigate how far that land extended northward*.

Verb-Phrases with *habban*, *bēon* (*wesan*), and *weorðan*.

Verb-Phrases in the Active Voice.

- 138.** The present and preterit of **habban**, combined with a past participle, are used in O.E., as in Mn.E., to form the present perfect and past perfect tenses:

PRESENT PERFECT.		PAST PERFECT.	
<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic hæbbe gedrifen	<i>Sing.</i>	1. Ic hæfde gedrifen
	2. ðū hæfst gedrifen		2. ðū hæfdest gedrifen
	3. hē hæfð gedrifen		3. hē hæfde gedrifen

PRESENT PERFECT.		PAST PERFECT.			
<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	} habbað gedrifen	<i>Plur.</i>	1. wē	} hæfdon gedrifen
	2. gē		2. gē		
	3. hīe		3. hīe		

The past participle is not usually inflected to agree with the direct object: **Norðymbre ƿnd Ēastęngle hæfdon ĒlfrEDE cyninge āðas geseald** (not **gesealde**, § 82), *The Northumbrians and East Anglians had given king Alfred oaths*; **ƿnd hæfdon micne dæl ðāra horsa freten** (not **fretenne**), and *(they) had devoured a large part of the horses*.

NOTE.—Many sentences might be quoted in which the participle does agree with the direct object, but there seems to be no clear line of demarcation between them and the sentences just cited. Originally, the participle expressed a *resultant state*, and belonged in sense more to the object than to **habban**; but in Early West Saxon **habban** had already, in the majority of cases, become a pure auxiliary when used with the past participle. This is conclusively proved by the use of **habban** with intransitive verbs. In such a clause, therefore, as **oð ðæt hīe hine ofslægenne hæfdon**, there is no occasion to translate *until they had him slain* (= *resultant state*); the agreement here is more probably due to the proximity of **ofslægenne** to **hine**. So also **ac hī hæfdon þā hiera stemn gesętenne**, but *they had already served out* (*sat out*) *their military term*.

139. If the verb is intransitive, and denotes a *change of condition*, a *departure or arrival*, **bēon** (**wesan**) usually replaces **habban**. The past participle, in such cases, partakes of the nature of an adjective, and generally agrees with the subject: **Mīne welan þe ic īo hæfde syndon ealle gewitene ƿnd gedrorene**, *My possessions which I once had are all departed and fallen away*; **wæron þā men uppe on londe of āgāne**, *the men had gone up ashore*; **ƿnd þā oþre wæron hungre ācwolen**, *and the others had perished of hunger*; **ƿnd ēac sē micla hęre wæs þā þær tō cumen**, *and also the large army had then arrived there*.

140. A progressive present and preterit (not always, however, with distinctively progressive meanings) are formed by combining a present participle with the present and preterit of **bēon** (**wesan**). The participle remains uninflected: **ƿnd hīe alle on ðone cyning wærun feohtende**, *and they all were fighting against the king*; **Symle hē bið lōciende, nē slæpð hē næfre**, *He is always looking, nor does He ever sleep*.

NOTE.—In most sentences of this sort, the subject is masculine (singular or plural); hence no inference can be

made as to agreement, since **-e** is the participial ending for both numbers of the nominative masculine (§ 82). By analogy, therefore, the other genders usually conform in inflection to the masculine: **wæron þā ealle þā dēoflu clypigende ānre stefne**, *then were all the devils crying with one voice*.

Verb-Phrases in the Passive Voice.

141. Passive constructions are formed by combining **bēon (wesan)** or **weorðan** with a past participle. The participle agrees regularly with the subject: **hīe wæron benumene ægðer ge þæs cēapes ge þæs cornes**, *they were deprived both of the cattle and the corn*; **hī bēoð āblēnde mid ðām þīostrum heora scylda**, *they are blinded with the darkness of their sins*; and **sē wælhreowa Domiciānus on ðām ylcan gēare wearð ācweald**, *and the murderous Domitian was killed in the same year*; **ꝥnd Æþelwulf aldormon wearð ofslægen**, *and Æthelwulf, alderman, was slain*.

NOTE 1—To express agency, Mn.E. employs *by* rarely of; M.E. *of*, rarely *by*; O.E. **frōm (fram)**, rarely **of**: **Sē ðe Godes bebodu ne gecnæwð, ne bið hē oncnāwen frōm Gode**, *He who does not recognize God's commands, will not be recognized by God*; **Betwux þām wearð ofslægen Ēadwine . . . fram Brytta cyninge**, *Meanwhile, Edwin was slain by the king of the Britons*.

NOTE 2—O.E. had no progressive forms for the passive, and could not, therefore, distinguish between *He is being wounded* and *He is wounded*. It was not until more than a hundred years after Shakespeare's death that *being* assumed this function. **Weorðan**, which originally denoted *a passage from one state to another*, was ultimately driven out by **bēon (wesan)**, and survives now only in *Woe worth (= be to)*.

142.

VOCABULARY.

ðā Beormas, *Permians*.

ðā Dēniscan, *the Danish (men), Danes*.

ðā Finnas, *Finns*.

ðæt gewald, *control [wealdan]*.

sēo sǣ, *sea*.

sēo scīr, *shire, district*.

sēo wælstōw, *battle-field*.

āgan wælstōwe gewald, *to maintain possession of the battle-field*.

sē wealdend, *ruler, wielder*

geflieman
gestaðelian
gewissian
wīcian

gefliemde
gestaðelode
gewissode
wīcode

gefliemed
gestaðelod
gewissod
gewīcod

to put to flight.
to establish restore.
to guide direct.
to dwell [wic=village].

143.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. Qnd ðær wæs micel wæl geslægen on gehwæpre hōnd, qnd Æþelwulf ealdormōn wearpre

ofslægen; qnd þā Dēniscan āhton wælstōwe gewald.

2. Qnd þæs ymb ānne mōnaþ gefeaht Ælfred cyning wiþ ealne þone hēre, and hine gefliemde.

3. Hē sæde þēah þæt þæt land sīe swīþe lang norþ þonon.

4. Þā Beormas hæfdon swīþe wel gebūd (§ 126, Note 2) hiera land.

5. Ohtere sæde þæt sēo scīr hātte Hālgoland, þe hē on (§ 94, (5)) būde.

6. Þā Finnas wīcedon be þære sǣ.

7. Dryhten, ælmyhtiga, (§ 78, Note) God, Wyrhta and Wealdend ealra gesceafta, ic bidde ðē for ðīnre miclan mildheortnese ðæt ðū mē gewissie tō ðīnum willan; and gestaðela mīn mōd tō ðīnum willan and tō mīnre sǣwle ðearfe.

8. Þā sceolde hē ðær bīdan ryht-norþanwindes, for ðæm æt land bēag þær sūðryhte, oþþe sēo sǣ

in on ðæt land, hē nysse hwæðer.

9. For ðy, mē ðyncð betre, gif ēow swā ðyncð, ðæt wē ēac ðās bēc on ðæt geðēode wenden ðe wē

ealle gecnāwan mægen.

II. 1. When the king heard that, he went (=then went he) westward with his army to Ashdown.

2. Lovest thou me more than these?

3. The men said that the shire which they lived in was called Halgoland.

4. All things were made (**wyrca**n) by God.

5. They were fighting for two days with (=against) the Danes.

6. King Alfred fought with the Danes, and gained the victory; but the Danes retained

possession of the battle-field.

7. These men dwelt in England before they came hither.

8. I have not seen the book of (**ymbe**) which speak (**spreca**n).
