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## **The Native Speech of Gloucestershire**

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## THE NATIVE SPEECH OF GLOUCESTERSHIRE

by LIEUT.-COLONEL C. H. LEMMON, D.S.O.

IT has been well said that among common errors still persisting in the minds of educated people, one error which dies very hard is the theory that a dialect is an arbitrary distortion of the mother tongue, a wilful mispronunciation of sounds, and disregard of the syntax of the standard language.

The error lies, perhaps, in inability to distinguish between a speech which in its pronunciation and grammar gives proof of a definite structure of historic origin, and one which is carelessly pronounced on no definite plan, ungrammatical, and interlarded with vulgarisms and slang. The fact that a large part of the population today speaks neither correct standard English nor a historic dialect has obscured the fact that other communities, chiefly in rural districts, preserve much of the original structure and pronunciation of the speech of their ancestors. In Gloucestershire we are particularly fortunate in possessing a dialect with great historical traditions, for it is the modern development of the Wessex or West-Saxon tongue, former literary language of England.

Since Archaeology has been defined as the science which deduces a knowledge of past times from the study of their existing remains, no apology is needed for the examination in the pages of these 'Transactions' of remains which require no spade to reveal them, remains which fall from the lips of the dwellers on the land, and may be picked up by anyone who cares to listen. 'The whole world is open, as it were, to the student of language', said Max Muller, 'there is virgin soil close to our door. We may select a small village in our neighbourhood to pick up

dialectic varieties, and to collect phrases proverbs and stories which will disclose fragments—almost ground to dust it is true, yet undeniably fragments—of the earliest formations of Saxon speech and Saxon thought'.

There is a tendency when examining a dialect to represent it as a variety of the standard speech and to point out the differences, chiefly of pronunciation. This is not a true picture of a dialect which has had a separate and parallel existence with the standard language for fifteen hundred years or even longer, however crowded it may have become with standard words, influenced by standard pronunciation, or grammatically changed by the adoption of standard grammar. It is not strictly correct, for instance, to say that *stwun* is the Gloucestershire pronunciation of *stone*, but rather that the Anglo-Saxon word *stān* became *stone* in standard English, and *stwun* in the modern development of the West Saxon dialect which is spoken today in Gloucestershire. Similarly *ax* is not the Gloucestershire pronunciation of *ask*, but the unchanged stem of *acsian*, while *ask* shows a different development which has transposed the sounds of *c* and *s*.

Real dialects, therefore, have an individuality; they have not slavishly followed the standard language; some words and grammatical forms have been retained where their cognates in the standard language have been discarded, and *vice versa*; some words have been borrowed, where it seemed good, from assimilated populations who formerly spoke another language, and others from external sources. It is perhaps from the two latter classes of words that something of historical interest may be learnt.

At the time of the Saxon Heptarchy several dialects of Anglo-Saxon were spoken in this country, their differences being mainly due to the diverse localities in Germany and Scandinavia from which the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes had emigrated. Four main dialects are usually distinguished—Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, and Wessex. Of these, Northumbrian at first took the lead as the

literary language, to be succeeded from the reign of Alfred the Great by the Wessex. A comparison of these four ancient dialects is interesting, and the following passages show their state of development in the thirteenth century.

**NORTHUMBRIAN** : a poetical version of part of the 18th Psalm (13th century).

He sent his armes, and skatered tha ;  
 Felefelded levening, and drevod them swa.  
 And schewed welles of watres ware ;  
 And groundes of ertheli werld unhiled are,  
 For thi snibbing, Laverd myne ;  
 For onesprute of gast of wreth thine.

**MERCIAN** : part of a proclamation of Henry III (18 October 1258).

Henri, thurgh Godes fultume King on Engleneloande, Lloaverd on Yrloande, Duk on Normandi on Aquitaine and Eorl on Aniw send igretinge to alle hise holde ilaerde and ileawede on Hunten-doneschire ; thaet witen ye wel alle, thaet we willen and unnen thaet, thaet ure raedesmen alle other the moare dael of heom, thaet beoth ichosen thurgh us and thurgh thaet loandes folk on ure kuneriche.

**KENTISH** : part of the second chapter of St. Matthew (1250).

Tho kinges hem wenten and hi seghen tho starre thet yede before hem alwat hi cam over tho huse war ure Loverd was, and alswo hi hedden i-fonden ure Loverd swo hin an-urede, and him offrede hire offrendes, gold and storr and mirre. Tho nicht efter thet aprede an ongel of hevne in here slepe ine metinga, and hem seide and het, thet hi ne solde ayen be Herodes, ac be an other weye wende into hire loandes.

**WESSEX** : a moral ode (1250).

The narewe way is godes heste. that forth fareth wel fawe  
 That beoth theo. the heom schedeth wel. with vych vnthewe.  
 Theos goth vnnethe ayeyn the cleo. ayeyn the heye hulle.  
 Theos leteth awei al heore wil. for godes hestes to fulle.  
 Go we alle thene wei. for he vs wile brynge.  
 Mid the fewe feyre men by-uoren heouene kinge.

The removal of the seat of government from Winchester to London, and the growing importance of the Home Counties where Mercian was spoken caused that dialect enriched, one might almost say amalgamated, with Norman-French to develop in the course of time into Modern English. Wessex, but little affected by Norman-French, and containing elements from Celtic, and possibly pre-Celtic sources, which had never been borrowed by Mercian, continued to be spoken within the old boundaries of the kingdom of Wessex. Even from the short passages quoted it is apparent that the differentiation of the dialect which was destined to become Modern English had begun, for the Wessex retains more of the older word order and construction.

The works of Robert of Gloucester, who lived in the reign of Henry III, are usually considered to have been written in language which represented the Gloucestershire speech of his day, and are therefore interesting as an example of the dialect at that time.

The following is from the opening words of his *History of England* :—

Engelond ys a wel god lond, ich wene of eche lond best  
 Y set in the ende of the world, as al in the West  
 The see goth hym al a bout, he stont as an yle.  
 Here fon heo durre the lasse doute, but hit be thorw gyle  
 Or fol of the selve lond, as me hath y seye wyle  
 From South to North he ys long eighth hondred myle.

If the spelling gives an indication of the pronunciation, the words *lond al durre* and *doute* are recognizable in Gloucestershire speech today.

The Wessex dialect, ancient official language of England, in fact survives after centuries of attrition ; what remains of it may still be heard in West Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Wiltshire, North Somersetshire, and Gloucestershire. The manner in which it is spoken varies from county to county, from district to district ; the extent to which it is used varies from house to house, and even from individual to

individual. In Gloucestershire, and more particularly in the Cotswolds, the characteristics of Wessex speech are more marked than in other districts and can be considered as a separate dialect, which is classified by A. J. Ellis in *English dialects, their sounds and homes* as variety 1 of District 4 of the Southern Division.

The area of the dialect is bounded roughly on the north by the 53rd parallel of latitude just north of Tewkesbury, which separates it from the Midland Division; and on the west by the river Wye, which separates it from the Western Division. On the east the area runs into Oxfordshire in the neighbourhood of Woodstock and Witney, and on the south into Wiltshire as far as Swindon and Chippenham. Over this area the pronunciation is fairly uniform, except that the belt, which extends right across England, in which *u* is pronounced in two different ways crosses the area; so that both the northern and southern varieties of this vowel are in use.

The grammatical rules, idioms, and glossary which follow do not pretend to represent the speech either of the whole county, or of any part of it; rather are they a collection, necessarily incomplete, from all parts and various sources, put together and treated as a homogeneous dialect such as might be spoken by a person who used all the dialect words and forms he could collect in Gloucestershire.

#### TONE

The tone in which the Gloucestershire dialect is spoken has been described as harsh, with a rapid utterance. The retention of the West-Saxon practice of pronouncing consecutive vowels separately instead of blending them in a diphthong, the hollow resonance of the reverted *r*, the unusual number of syllables which are given prominence, and the sudden rises and falls of pitch, certainly present a listener to whom they are unfamiliar with strange sounds; and when to these are added contractions

which have almost lost the form of the words they represent, unfamiliar idioms, and a copious use of West-Saxon words which have long dropped out of use in standard English, it is not surprising that a conversation between natives can be almost unintelligible to a stranger. The harshness, if harshness there be, is probably due to the rapidity with which the prominent syllables follow each other.

Prominence is produced by a very intimate combination of vowel length, sonority which is imparted by a large oral cavity, stress given by using more breath, and pitch which is altered by varying the vibration of the vocal chords. Now the vowels which are most frequently used in the dialect are long and sonorous, the vowel A as in *father*, possibly the most frequently used, being the longest and most sonorous of all. It is difficult, therefore, for a dialect speaker to impart special prominence to a syllable unless the other factors, stress and pitch, are brought into play. As may easily be heard when listening to a dialect conversation it is a change in pitch which is generally employed to give extra prominence, and rises and falls in pitch are therefore large and sudden. These considerations have probably given rise to the charge of harshness, which may or may not be deserved.

#### VOCABULARY

The vocabulary of the Gloucestershire dialect is derived, generally speaking, from the same sources as that of the standard language; but the vocabulary of pure dialect, that is to say those words which are either not found, or exist in a different form in the standard language, shows a great difference in the proportion of words derived from each source. Thus in the dialect 61 per cent. of words show derivation from Anglo-Saxon or Low-German sources against 31 per cent. in the standard language. In the dialect Celtic sources come second with 15 per cent. against only 4 per cent. in the standard language. Of this

15 per cent., 12 per cent. appear to be Brythonic, and 3 per cent. Goidelic. Norman-French which together with Latin-through-French and Celtic-through-French forms 38 per cent. of the standard language is represented by only 13 per cent. in pure dialect. Latin words, forming 21 per cent. of standard English are represented by a meagre 3 per cent., and such as do exist appear to have survived rather from the Roman occupation than from a later introduction by scholars. The proportion of Scandinavian words, which forms 6 per cent. of the standard language, is almost negligible. The balance of dialect words is made up of 3 per cent. of non-indigenous borrowed words, and 2 per cent. which are non-Aryan, and suggest a possible aboriginal source.

The vocabulary of the 'pure' dialect may conveniently be divided into three classes of words: (1) those which do not appear to have entered the standard language at all, such as *daddocky hox* and *lizzen*; (2) those which have developed differently from their cognates in the standard language, such as *winder*, *spurtle*, and *ax*; (3) those which have dropped out of the standard language, such as *rath*, *frum*, and *pargiter*.

Added to the pure dialect words are two other classes: (1) standard English words, which are mostly pronounced in the local manner, such as *speek*, *purty*, and *cruds*—these naturally form the bulk of the whole vocabulary in the present day; (2) words which may be described as 'malaprops', which having been heard at school or from outside sources, have been given local pronunciation and are used in a mistaken manner. Such are *jommetry*, *zoopervossat*, and *comical*.

#### SPEECH SOUNDS AND SPELLING

The spelling of a dialect presents difficulties. English is not phonetically spelt, so there is no standard method of spelling an English dialect in ordinary Roman characters, while the dialect, not being a literary language, has

no fixed spelling of its own. If a phonetic script is employed, the text appears like that of a foreign language, and unintelligible to those not conversant with the script. A compromise is therefore inevitable. In the following pages normal English spelling will be used when it gives a fair idea of the pronunciation and is not ambiguous. When a closer indication is called for, and this occurs especially with the vowels, certain letters and accents will be used, and these are intended to be pronounced in one way only.

Without proceeding to extreme differentiation, the speech sounds of the Gloucestershire dialect may be said to number 39, 22 being consonants, 4 semi-vowels, and 13 vowels.

#### CONSONANTS

Eleven of the consonantal sounds are identical in the dialect and the standard language: they are B, CH, F, J, K, M, NG, P, SH, V and Z. D, N, and T are palato-alveolars, and not post-dentals; that is to say, the contact is made slightly farther back than in the standard language. L is always 'dark'; rather more markedly so than in *well*. TH is always 'voiced' as in *then*, and not 'unvoiced' as in *thistle*. S is only unvoiced before another consonant, and becomes the voiced z before a vowel.

The sound of s in *pleasure* will be represented by ZH. The sound of G in *get* will be represented by G, and that in *gem* by J. H is nearly always voiced. This sound is unusual in the standard language; it can be heard approximately in the interjection *aha!* There are two RS. The first, which will be represented by R is that known as the 'one tap R', which occurs in *through*. The other, which will be represented by r, is known as the reverted R or R 8. This is a most noticeable and distinctive feature of Gloucestershire speech, which it is difficult for a stranger to acquire without some practice. It is a palato-alveolar consonant formed by turning up the

tongue until the under side of the tip either makes loose contact with the roof of the mouth, or actually points towards the throat. It may be trilled, but this does not always occur. The large cavity formed behind the tongue produces a peculiar hollow effect.

### SEMI-VOWELS

w, y, and wh are pronounced as in the standard language, but the latter is seldom used. The sound of a fourth semi-vowel survives in a few words as a relic of the Anglo-Saxon palatal g. It is a voiceless y, formed a little farther back than the normal y, and is pronounced similarly to the g in the German word *tag*. It will be represented by *g*.

### VOWELS

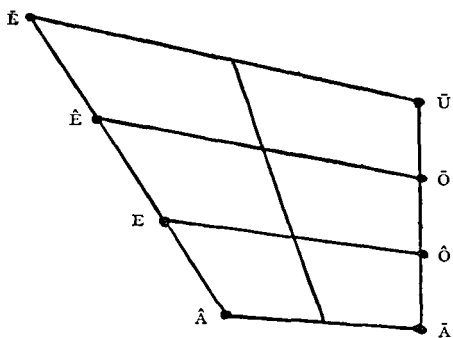
The identification of vowel sounds in all languages and dialects presents difficulties, because, apart from a phonographic record, there is no absolute method of recording them, or 'yard stick' by which to measure them. Professor Daniel Jones, however, has devised a diagram, the four corners of which represent the four extreme possible positions of the highest part of the tongue, the intervals between these positions being equally divided to show four intermediate positions. The vowels sounded when the tongue is in these eight positions he calls cardinal vowels.

In order to avoid the use of a phonetic alphabet, these cardinal vowels are represented on the following diagram as under :

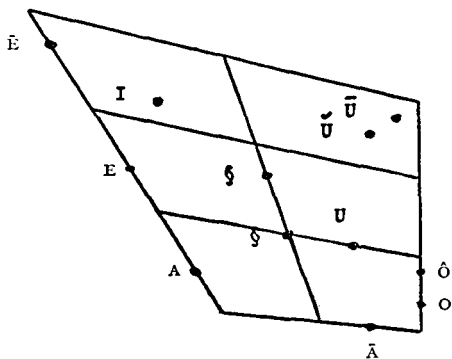
Ē	as <i>ee</i> in <i>feel</i> .	Ū	as <i>oo</i> in <i>fool</i> .
Ê	as <i>e</i> in the French <i>fête</i> .	Ō	as the first <i>o</i> in <i>photo</i> .
E	as in <i>fell</i> .	Ô	as the <i>a</i> in <i>fall</i> .
Ā	as in the German <i>Mann</i> .	Ā	as in <i>father</i> .

Standard English employs Ē, Ū, E, Ô, and Ā, but their position of formation, as shown in the second diagram,

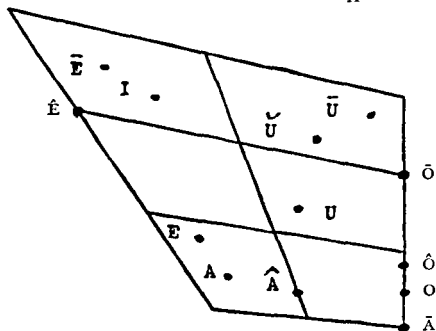
Cardinal vowels



Standard English vowels



Gloucestershire  
Dialect vowels



differs slightly from the cardinal positions. In addition the following vowels are employed :

ɪ as in *fin*, ʌ as in *fat*, ʊ as in *full*, ʊ as in *fun*, o as in *fop*.

also two indeterminate vowels, represented by § on the diagram, which are pronounced like *i* in *bird* and the first *a* in *a/ar* respectively. The thirteen vowels of the Gloucestershire dialect compare with those of standard English as follows :

- ʌ slightly more retracted.
- ā in the cardinal position, slightly more retracted.
- â not employed in standard English; is intermediate in position between ʌ and o.
- ē more open and retracted.
- ê in the cardinal position, not employed in standard English as a pure vowel.
- ẽ slightly more retracted.
- ɪ, o, ô formed in the same position.
- ō in the cardinal position, not employed in standard English as a pure vowel.
- ʊ closer and more forward.
- ũ, ũ formed in very nearly the same position.

The vowels marked § on the diagram are not employed, their place being taken by ʊ.

#### DIPHTHONGS AND DOUBLE VOWELS

True diphthongs, that is to say sounds which are produced by a single level emission of the breath while the tongue glides from one vowel position to another, hardly find a place in the dialect. The diphthong *oi* possibly forms an exception. The West-Saxon practice of pronouncing consecutive vowels separately is retained. Diphthongs are avoided frequently by substituting simple vowels; thus the diphthong heard in *fate* is replaced by the simple vowel ê and that heard in *foe* by the simple vowel ô. The diphthongs heard in *poor*, *fair*, and *fear* contain elements which are not employed in the dialect, and are therefore adjusted in pronunciation

to *pôre*, *fêür* and *fëür*. The diphthong heard in *foul* is an unpopular sound which is avoided by various means.

Avoidance of diphthongs, however, does not mean avoidance of double and even triple vowels, of which there is a large range. They are pronounced separately with the stress usually on the first, or in the case of triple vowels on the second, the principal combinations being :

IE	as in fin	+fell	e.g. giëd (gave).
ĀE	father	+fell	āël (all).
ĒA	fell	+fat	ëäst (east).
EĀ	fell	+father	te-ärt (tart).
ĀE	father	+fell	lāërk (lark).
ÊE	fête	+fell	lëër (lair)
ÊU	fête	+fun	bëünt (is not).
ŌA	photo	+fat	stōät (stoat).
ŪU	fool	+fun	stūun (stone) usually written <i>stun</i> .
AĀ	fat	+father	a-äter (after).
EA	fell	+fat	geät (gate).
ËU	feel	+fun	vëür (fear).
ĒA	feel	+fat	bëät (beat).

The most frequent triple vowel is UOA, usually written WOA, which occurs in *gwōäst*, *pwōäst* and *gwōä* (ghost, post and go).

#### ASPIRATES

It has been asserted that the speakers of the Gloucestershire dialect are uncertain in the use of their aitches, sometimes inserting them in the wrong places, and sometimes dropping them altogether. On examination, however, a certain method appears to be observed. In pronouncing any vowel, the glottis must first be opened. If a consonant precedes, the glottis is opened by it, but at the beginning of a word it is necessary to open it by some other means. The standard language employs either the fricative glottal consonant H in its unvoiced form, or the glottal stop, which can be heard as a faint click when pronouncing a vowel at the beginning of a word. Speakers of some dialects employ the glottal stop only, and are said to drop their aitches.

In the Gloucestershire dialect the voiceless *h* is not used, and the use of the glottal stop is restricted to words which begin with *ŭ* and sometimes *ā*, while to open the glottis in words beginning with back vowels, the semi-vowels *w* and *wh* are employed, and *y* is prefixed to front vowels for the same reason. If these means of opening the glottis are not employed, the voiced *h* is used.

The operation of these rules, which must be regarded only as approximate is illustrated in the following words :

HĀFNET (hornet) ; HĀL (haul) ; HÔRFUL (awful) ; YUR (here)  
 YĒL (ale) ; WŮTZ (oats) ; WHŮP (hope) ; WHŮM (home) ; ĀT  
 (aught) ; ŪNT (mole) ; ŮD (wood) ; ŮMAN (woman).

*ŭman* is generally pronounced *yŭman*, presumably to distinguish human from woman.

#### VOWEL CHANGE

Many words which are the same in the dialect and the standard language, especially monosyllables, have developed in the one a different vowel from that developed in the other. It is unnecessary to discuss here the phonetic changes which have brought this about, and the result can be summarized by the following sequence :—

Ā - Ō - Ő      Â - A - E - I <  $\begin{matrix} \text{U} \\ \text{Ë} \end{matrix}$  Ů

As a rough rule it may be said that where any given vowel in the above sequence has developed in the dialect, the next in order has developed in the standard language. Examples :—

Ā - Ō WĀLL (wall) ; LĀ (law) ; DĀTER (daughter).  
 Ō - Ő SNŌ (snow) ; BLŌ (blow) ; MŌ (mow).

Here a break occurs, because the vowel *â* does not occur in the standard language, but proceeding, we get :—

Â - A LĀND (land) ; MĀN (man) ; HĀND (hand).  
 A - E PAG (peg) ; KAG (keg) ; STAM (stem).  
 E - I ZENG (sing) ; DRENK (drink) ; BRENG (bring).  
 I - U ZICH (such).  
 I - Ë SHIP (sheep) ; CRIP (creep) ; BIN (been).  
 U - Ů BUK (book) ; LUK (look) ; BRUK (brook).

## VARIATIONS OF CONSONANTS

There is a marked preference for voiced over unvoiced consonants. The unvoiced forms of H and TH, as in *hair* and *thistle* are never used. G, V, B, Z and GZ are used very frequently instead of C (K) F, P, S and X (KS). Examples—

GRAB (crab); GÜCKOO (cuckoo); GRISTIN (Christian);

VAMOUS (famous); VOR (for); VRUNT (front).

BRIVET (privet).

ZOG (soak); ZÖ (so); ZEE (see).

EGZACKLY (exactly); EGZAMINE (examine); EGZTRU (extra).

T and TH before R are replaced by D. Examples:—

DRŪ (through); DREE (tree); DREE (three); DRACK (track).

Combinations of consonants which require an effort to pronounce are avoided by metathesis, dropping, or changing. The combinations so treated are usually FT, SP, PT, MPT, CT and NG. Examples:—

Metathesis HAPS (hasp); CLAPS (clasp); WĀPS (wasp).

Dropping CRĀT (croft); EGZACKLY (exactly).

Changing ENTY (empty); PÜDDEN (pudding).

NG in the middle of a word is pronounced as in German, that is to say without the addition of another G. Thus *finger* is pronounced *fing-er* and not *fing-ger*.

Mention has been made of the reverted *r*; when followed by T, D, L or N, these consonants are pronounced before the tongue has completely unrolled from its reverted position and their quality is thereby affected. Other consonants present too great a difficulty after a reverted *r*, as also do front vowels both before and after the *r*. As a result, the *r* is often transposed, or omitted. Examples:—

GURT (great); CRUDS (curds); PASSON (parson); PURTY (pretty).

## GRAMMAR

*Gender of nouns.* Names of animals are considered as masculine or feminine according to the sex of the animal designated. The names of individual objects possessing

a definite shape, such as a tool or a tree are very frequently masculine and less frequently feminine ; unformed objects such as water and dust are invariably neuter. Evidence is lacking, however, that nouns have preserved their Saxon genders.

*Plural of nouns.* Nouns ending in -ST form their plural by adding -EZ, which is sometimes reduplicated. Examples :—

PWÖÄST (post), PWÖÄSTEZ ; GUEST GUESTEZ ; GWÖÄST (ghost).  
GWÖÄSTEZ or GWÖÄSTEZEZ ; BĒÄST, BĒÄSTEZ or BĒÄSTEZEZ.

The Saxon plural in -EN has been retained in many nouns, and adopted for some modern words. Examples :—

PEA PEAZEN ; WENCH WENCHEN ; PLACE PLĒZEN ; ELM ELMEN ;  
MÄÜS (mouse) ; MÄÜZEN ; ASH ASHEN ; PRIMROSE PRIMROSEN.

*Chicken* has CHICK or CHICKEN for the singular and CHICKEN for the plural ; *house* has HÄÜS or HÄÜZEN for the singular and HÄÜZEN for the plural.

There is a trace of a dual as well as a plural in nouns which represent double objects. Examples :—

HAME, HAMES, HAMEZEZ ; BELLERS (bellows), BELLERZEZ.

*Cases of nouns.* The genitive termination in s is preferred to the use of the preposition *of* ; and where there is a clause qualifying the noun, the genitival termination is placed at the end of it. Example :—

THOMPSON THE MILLUR'S KYART. (The cart of Thompson the miller).

*The Articles.* The definite article THU or TH' is omitted before titles or vocational designations, its place being taken by a personal pronoun before the verb. Example :—

PASSON Ā ZED. (The parson said).

It is also omitted before the word *same* and certain other words of a similar kind. Example :—

ZAME AS I ZED. (The same as I said).

The indefinite article AN often suffers separation, the N being prefixed to the following noun. Example :—A NAPPLE. This sometimes produces the curious result of

removing the N from the plural of a noun beginning with N. Example :—A NETTLE, plural ETTLES. A similar process is observable in the standard language which has removed the N from *nápron*, while the dialect word NAPERN retains it. The indefinite article is expressed with adjectives of quantity when used as nouns. Examples :—

A MANY. A PLENTY.

*Demonstrative adjectives and pronouns.* While there are but two demonstrative adjectives with their plurals which also have to serve as demonstrative pronouns in the standard language, the dialect presents a choice of no less than four demonstrative adjectives and three demonstrative pronouns, all with their plurals.

THICK YUR (this near me), plural	THÈSE YUR (these near me).
THICK (this near us)	THÈSE (these near us).
THUCK (that)	THEM (those).
THUCK THÈR (that near you)	THEM THÈR (those near you).
THISSUM (this one near me)	THÈSE YERIMY (these near me).
THICKY (this one near us)	THÈSUM OR THÈSAMY (these near us).
THILK (that one)	THEMMEN (those).

*Adjectives.* Adjectives can be formed from nouns by adding the suffix -EN. Example :—TINNEN POTS. The comparative and superlative are generally formed by the suffixes -ER and -EST.

Double and even triple comparatives and superlatives are not infrequent. Examples :—

MORE BETTER, MORE WORSE, MORE BETTERER, MORE WORSER,  
MOST WORST, MOST WORSTEST.

The occurrence of *Most Highest* in the prayer book proves that these forms are historical. The superlative absolute is formed by modifying the adjective by one of many adverbs, thereby giving a range of expression.

Where it is desired to appreciate the adjective, NATION and TARNATION (abbreviations for Incarnation) are usually used ; the depreciatory adverbs may be DISMAL, DESPERT

(desperate), MORTAL, DEADLY, GALLUS (fit for the gallows), or others. Examples :—

NATION VINE, DISMAL BAD, DESPERT ILL, MORTAL VĒRD (afraid), DEADLY ZORE, GALLUS BAD.

*Adverbs.* The adverbial termination -LY is seldom used, the adjectival form being used as in German. Examples :—

YU MED EASY VĀLL (you might easily fall).

Ā WUŕ DRESSED ŪP ĀĒL VUNNY LIKE (he was strangely dressed)

The adverbs LIKE and SMĀŕTISH form an emphatic comment on what has been said before; the following examples showing the use of the latter.

ET FRUZ LĀS NIGHT, SMĀŕTISH (there was a sharp frost last night)

(Question) KŪM RAIN ? (is it raining ?).

(Answer) Ā-Ē, SMĀŕTISH. (Yes, fast).

*Conjunctions.* Few conjunctions are used, the sentences being usually short and of simple construction. Apart from EN (and) VORWHY (because) clauses are usually joined by WHICH, and can take the place of almost any conjunction. Examples :—

I BID THU WENCH SHUD HÔLD ÔPEN THU gĒĀT, WHICH ER SLAMMED UN TO AND LĀŕFED IN MUV VĒĀSS. (I asked the girl to open the gate, but she slammed it and laughed in my face).

Ā TUK ES WÔĀTH AS I LAYED THU DRAP, WHICH I DID NŌĀ ZICH A THENG. (He took his oath that I laid the trap, yet I did no such thing).

*Numerals.* The Saxon practice of putting units before tens is retained. Example :—

FŌWER EN TWENTY. (Twenty four).

*Personal pronouns :—*

	<i>First person</i>		<i>Second person</i>	
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nom.	Ā-Ē or U (I)	WE (we)	THEE (thou)	YE-Ū or YŪ (you)
Nom. emp.	do.	US (we)	do.	do.
Accus.	MĒ (me)	US (us)	Ē (thee)	do.
Accus. emp.	Ā-Ē or I (me)	WE (us)	THEE (thee)	do.
Gen.	MU (my)	OWER (our)	THA (thy)	YUR (your)
Dat.	US (me)	US (us)	Ē (thee)	YE-Ū or YŪ (you)

	<i>Third Person</i>			
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nom.	Ā (he)	HER OR ER (she)	ET (it)	THĀ (they)
Nom. emp.	HĒ (he)	do.	do.	THEY (they)
Accus.	UN (him)	do.	ET OR YIT (it)	ŪM (them)
Acc. emp.	HĒ (him)	HĒ (her)	HĒ (it)	THEY (them)
Gen.	ĒS (his)	HER OR ER (her)	ĒS (its)	THĀr (their)
Dat.	UN (him)	do.	ET OR YIT (it)	ŪM (them)

It will be observed that the emphatic form of the accusative is in most cases the same as the nominative of the standard language ; HE (a relic of the Saxon HEO taking the place of SHE, which is seldom used). The second person singular is used to address superiors as well as equals, the Gloucestershire dialect being almost unique in this respect. Usage varies considerably, and the above can be considered only as a guide to the use of the personal pronouns.

*Possessive adjectives.* These are the same as the genitive case of the personal pronouns. The possessive adjective MU (my) attracts the first letter of the noun it governs. Example :—

MUV VĒĀSS (my face). MUD DÔG (my dag).

*Possessive Pronouns*

<i>First person</i>		<i>Second person</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
MINE (mine)	WĒZUN OR OWERN (ours)	THĀrN (thine)	YOURN (yours)

*Third Person*

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Plural</i>
HISN (his)	SHĒZN OR HERN (hers)	HISN (its)	THĒrN (theirs)

*Reflective Pronouns*

<i>First person</i>		<i>Second Person</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
MESELF (myself)	USSELVES (ourselves)	THEESELF (thyself)	YURSELVES (yourselves)

*Third person*

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Plural</i>
HISSELF (himself)	ERSELF (herself)	HISSELF (itself)	THEIRSELVES (themselves)

The suffix *-SEN* occasionally takes the place of *-SELF*.

*Relative Pronouns.* The only relative pronoun in general use is *AS*, which takes the place of *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. *Whose* is expressed by *AS*, followed by a possessive adjective. Examples:—

THU MÂN AS COMED LĀS WIK (the man who came last week).

THU MÂN AS I ZEED (the man whom I saw).

Ā DID AS I AXED UN TO (he did what I asked him).

THAT'S A CHAP AS ĒS UNCLE WUZ ANGED (that is a man whose uncle was hanged).

*Disjunctive Personal Pronouns.* The accusative case, instead of the nominative as in the standard language, is used when personal pronouns are used disjunctively. Examples:—

OO'S THUR? ME. HIM AS WUZUKS AT THU MILL.

*Verbs.* Several verbs which are of the strong conjugation in the standard language are of the weak conjugation in the dialect.

COME, COME(D), COME(D), (COME). NĀ-Ō, NĀ-ŌD, NĀ-ŌD (know).  
ZEE, ZEED OR ZID, ZEED OR ZID (see). GĒ, GĒD, GIVED OR GID  
(give).

CATCH, CATCHED, CATCHED (catch). GRŌ, GRŌD, GRŌD (grow).

GWŌĀ, GADE, GŌDE OR YŌDE, WENT (go). YUR, YEERED,  
YEERED (hear).

HURT, HURTED, HURTED (hurt). DRĀ, DRĀĒD, DRĀĒD (draw).

Other verbs of the weak conjugation in the standard language are of the strong conjugation in the dialect.

REACH, RAUGHT, RAUGHT (reach). HIT, HUT, HITTEN (hit).

VETCH, VŌT, VŌT (fetch). YELP, HOLP, HOLPEN (help).

SQUIZ, SCRŪZ, SCRŪZ (squeeze)

The verb *grind* keeps its Saxon preterite—GRIND, GRĀND, GRŪND.

The present participle is formed by adding *-EN* to the root; a relic of the Saxon present participles in *-ENDE* and *-IENDA*.

*U* is occasionally prefixed to the past participle; a relic of the Saxon *GE-*.

The auxiliary verb HAVE is omitted before strong past participles. Example :—

I DONE ET (I have done it).

*Auxiliary verbs.* The verb *to be* is conjugated as follows :—

<i>Present tense</i>		<i>Preterite</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I BE	WE BE	I WUZ OR WUR	WE WUR OR WUZ
THEE BIST OR AT	YE-Û BE	THEE WUR T	YE-Û WUZ OR WUR
Ā, ER OR ET BE	THĀ BE	Ā, ER, OR ET WUR	THĀ WUR
present participle : BĒĒN.		past participle : BIN.	

The auxiliary verbs *shall*, *will*, *can*, *may*, and *do*, give rise to a number of abbreviations, especially in the second person singular when used interrogatively and negatively, of which the following are typical examples :—

SHALL.	SHĀT (thou shalt) ; SHĀTUNT (thou shalt not). I, Ā, ER, THĀ SHÛDDEN (I, he, she, they should not).
WILL.	WÛLT (wilt thou) ; ŪLL (he, she, they will). ŪTST (wouldst thou ?) ŪSNT (thou wouldst not). ŪSUNT (wouldst thou not).
CAN.	CĀT OR CAST (canst thou ?) CÛST (couldst thou ?) CÛSNT (couldst thou not ?)
MED. (may)	MED (he might) ; MEDNT Ā ? (might he not ?)
DO.	DWEE ? (do ye ?) DWUNTY ? (do ye not ?)

The verb *to do* is largely used for emphasis. Examples :—

Ā KÛM EN DID ĀĒLL MANNER, Ā DID. (He certainly came and created a disturbance).

THEE DIDN'T ĀGHT TU ZAY THET, THEE DIDN'T ĀGHT. (You really ought not to say that).

Do is also used with the impersonal pronoun Ā instead of using a passive construction. Example :—

Ā DO ZAY. (It is said).

*Syntax.* Word order in the Gloucestershire dialect is the same as in the standard language. The Saxon practice in negative sentences is adhered to. Instead of negation being expressed by a single word, the verb is not only rendered negative by the words *no* or *not*, but

every other word capable of being so employed, takes a negative prefix. This extends to any reported speech (*oratio obliqua*) within the sentence. Examples:—

I DIDN'T ZEE NUTHEN NOWHERE.

NO END OF MONEY NEITHER. (A deal of money also). From 'A Gloucestershire courtship'.

NAT WUN WENT BACK TO TELL THE WIMMIN THET THE BRICK-MAKERS HED NAT CHAWED THĀ HUSBANDS UP. From 'Zayins an maxims of Zoloman the Rantur'.

*Oratio obliqua* is usually introduced by the words AS or AS HOW. Example:—

A ZED AS A WU'NT LATE.

After verbs of commanding, the auxiliary verb SHALL is employed. Example:—

I BID THU WENCH SHŪD HŌLD ŌPEN THU gĒĀT.

When a question is asked which refers to something just said, the auxiliary verb is repeated in the third person singular with the neuter pronoun. Example:—

WE'D BEST BE GWŌĒN, HADN'T ET? (We had better be going, hadn't we?)

#### IDIOMS

ĀTER	Āter a bit.	A little later on.
ALONE	Let alone.	Apart from.
AMINDED	Tŭl kŭm when tis aminded.	It will come some day.
AV	I'll av mwō . . .	I must get myself . . .
	mwō is pronounced like the French <i>moi</i> and the construction is analogous to the French 'Faire avoir quelquechōse à quelqu'un')	
AWAY	I can't away with et.	I cannot endure it.
BE	How bist? I be. How's	How are you? Very well.
	Ye-ū?	How are you?
BEAR	Play the bear.	To harass or annoy.
CLEM	Clemmed wi' thu cāld	Stiff with cold.
CŪM	Cŭm rain.	It has begun to rain.
	Cŭm nex Michaelmas.	At next Michaelmas.
DRAP	Drap it! Drap it!	Stop saying (or doing) that.
	Ā drapped off lās Tŭsday.	He died last Tuesday.
FĀLL	Fāllen wethur.	Threatening weather.

GWO	We do av et tu gwō.	There is a good deal going on.
	Ā wants tu gwō zolid.	He ought to go on steadily.
	I wunt gwō vor to zay.	I will not go as far as to say.
GRAMPUS	Blō like a grampus.	To puff and blow or be out of breath (grampus is a whale).
GUESS	A guess zort o' mân.	A man who is probably not what he seems to be.
GRIFFIN	Āël I want is a straight griffin.	I only want a clear statement.
HĀND	Hând over yed With a high hand.	In haste or confusion. Successfully or triumphant.
KIN	Nex o' kin to	Similar to.
LIKKUTS	Āël to likkuts	All to pieces.
MANNER	A kûm en did āël manner.	He came and created a disturbance.
MEET	Ye-ū'll meet with et.	You will be punished.
MONTH	A month's mind.	A weak resolution. (Actually a minor funeral ceremony formerly performed a month after burial).
NATCHRAL	Thu peg wur a wopper, which Jāрге en vārmer hefted un ūp en putt un thu kyart quite natchral.	The pig was a large one, but George and the farmer easily lifted it up into the cart.
NONE	T'wurnt none zo zhēarp.	It was not very sharp.
ODDS	Et mākks no odds.	It makes no difference.
OFF	I can't be off et.	I must do it.
ONE	Āël's one vor thet	Notwithstanding your objection, the case remains the same.
PIDGIN	A pidgin pair.	Two children, a boy and a girl.
PRIDE	Mārnens pride.	A morning mist which will probably clear later.
PUGGLE	Puggled up.	Distracted.
ROAD	Any road.	In any case.
SO	She is so.	She expects to become a mother.
	So straight as a gun.	As straight as a line.

SNACKS	To gwō snacks	To share.
TŪ	Tū en agen.	Backwards and forwards
TURN	They be turned in.	They are ready to pick (of vegetables).
VALLY	I gwōēd thu vally o' fāive māil.	I went about five miles.
VARJEZ	Zour'z vārgez.	As sour as verjuice.
WHAT	I'll tell ee what.	I will give you an un- answerable argument.
WHATEVER	Ā ūdunt elp hissself what- ever.	He would not help him- self at all.
	I ūdunt do et whatever.	On no account would I do it.

### THE DIALECT IN PROSE AND VERSE

The literature of the Gloucestershire dialect is not extensive. The following specimens are taken from *Legends, Tales and Songs in the Dialect of the Peasantry of Gloucestershire*, compiled by Adin Williams, sometime master of Kempsford and Lechlade National Schools, and published in 1876. The first piece is described as one of the 'Zayins and Maxims o' Zolomun th' Rantur', the origin of which is not given. It illustrates many of the words, vowel changes, and grammatical peculiarities of the Dialect. A few changes in spelling from the original have been made in the interests of consistency.

#### JOSEF THU KARN MARCHANT

Josef wur a dabster ov a karn marchunt. He kep th' kay o' thu karn krib yur t' yur, tel a wuz chock vull, an' th' karn never got fousty. He never mooched vrom ees bizness, an' karn trade wuz never zlack; an' vur zeven yur he scrabbled arter karn an' then vur another zeven yur, wat between th' dumbledores an' th' wethur thur wuz noa craps tu 'arvest, an' Josef fot out ees karn weout badgerin, an' let th' peepil o' Egipt hev karn tu grind in thur houzen an' fur thur cattle. No dout zum ov um lookt glum as tha zold thurzelves vur karn, as nat a lugg

o' groun ud breng a handvull, but thu aith yur thur wuz such a jorum thur wuz enuf vur aall.

#### DAVID THU ZHEPURD

Belike David wuz thu best zhepurd ov ees day. He wur no gawky, fur wen he knowed ees zhip wur vetchted away he watched vrom th' dream 'oles 'o thu barn an' zeed a lion an' a burr cumin on th' vlocks to gwo snacks, an' weeout a dawg he clouted um tell tha coudn roor, an' arter thet thu vlock wur left aall right.

The following poem was printed in *Wiltshire Tales*, by John Yonge Akerman (1853), which contained many examples of the dialect of Gloucestershire. It was written by an informant from the dictation of an elderly Chippenham lady. Chippenham, in Wiltshire, as was mentioned earlier, marks the approximate southern boundary of Gloucestershire speech. Akerman's spelling has been changed in places to bring it into line with the other examples.

#### THU HĀRNET EN THU BITTLE

A hārnēt zet in a hollur dree  
 A praaper zpiteful twoad wur ee  
 En a merrily zung while ee did zet  
 Ees steng as zhēārp as a bagganet  
 ' Oh 'oo zo vine en bould as I  
 I vears not bee, not waps, nor vly ! '

A bittle up thuck dree did clim  
 En skornvully did look at him ;  
 Zays ee, ' Zur hārnēt, ' oo gived thee  
 A right to zet in thuck theer dree ?  
 Vor aëll you zengs zo nation vine,  
 I tell ee tis a house 'o mine '.

Thu hārnēt's conscience velt a twinge,  
 But grawen bould wi' hes long stinge,  
 Zays ee, ' Possession's thu best laa  
 Zo hēēr th' sha'sn't put a claa !  
 Be off, an leave thu dree to me,  
 Thu mixen's good enuf vor thee ! '

Jus then a yuckle passen by  
 Was axed by they thu cause to try ;  
 ' Ha ! Ha ! I zee 'ow 'tis ' zays ee  
 They'll mǎik a vamous munch vor me  
 Ees bill wur zhěarp, ees stomach lair,  
 Zo ūp a znapped thu caddlen pair !

Moral

Aëll you as be to laa inclined  
 This leetle stwory bear in mind ;  
 Vor ef to laa you aims to gwo  
 You'll vind they'll allus zar' ee zo  
 You'll meet thu vate o' these yur two  
 They'll take yur cwōät en carcass too !

There is a certain amount of poetical licence in this poem. A dialect speaker would hardly say ' vears not ' and ' stinge ' ; ' bêünt aveered ' and ' steng ' would be more correct. It is also doubtful whether a word like ' twinge ' would be used at all.

Mr G. Edmund Hall, of Chalford Hill, was one of the few writers who have been able to transcribe faithfully the native speech of Gloucestershire ; and his collection of conversations entitled *Willum Wurkman's Wit and Wisdom* (1910) is probably the best piece of literature in the Dialect. Here is an example of William's Vernacular taken from a sketch on ' Biblical matters ', which records the conversion of Cobbler Bill.

' Well ', Cobbler zed, ' Tell th' wot tiz, Billy ; thee bist a darned old vool to believe aëll th' parsons do tell th' about th' Cross ; thur never wuz no zich theng ; I 'ood as soon believe in thuk thur Cross as thee doozt zeng about as I 'ood believe as thur's a cross in this yur bit o' 'ood ! And he held up a chunk o' 'ood as he wuz just againg to put in th' zaw. Billy didn't zay notheng, and the zaw vlashd drew like lightening and Cobbler picked up a piece and wuz gwoing to vlang it on th' hip. ' Woz th' matter, Cobbler ? ' shouts Billy, sudden like—' vos th' matter, mon ? '—Cobbler wuz astanden we' ees eyes sturring out o' ees yed lukiug at the chump o' 'ood in his hand. Billy went auver to'n and zo did th' tuthers. An' thur, just as zif 'tad bin drawed by a human hand wuz a cross right in the middle o' the bit o' 'ood. Twuz zum minnits avoor work went on agyen in the shop, and Cobbler vrom thuk day wuz a diffрут mon '.

It is always a good thing to see ourselves as others see us, so the following poem contained in Williams' collection of songs may not be out of place ; as it records the impression produced on a local inhabitant by a visit of the Bristol and Gloucestershire Archaeological Society to his village in the mid-Victorian era.

## THU HARKYHOLLURGISTS

Zum cwōāches druv to village church  
 In rare an' spankin style,  
 Wi' smokin' hosses vower in han'  
 Vrom Cizeter dree mile.

Twur genelmen wi' boxers on  
 An' drest loik parsons āēll  
 Wi' cwōāts zo black and chokers wite  
 An' zum wur short an' tāll.

Tha gethered roun' thu Churchyard Cross  
 An' pulled out āēll thur books,  
 Tha ax'd ees age, an' nun could tell ;  
 Vive hunerd yer ee looks.

At las' a tall chap hollurs out  
 Lets march into thu chิร์ch,  
 Thur's more in thur to tauk about  
 Vor which we are in zurch.

I vollerd thā to zee thu game  
 Th' lot wur gwain to plai ;  
 I thowt as how thu old passon  
 Wi' thā wur gwain to prai.

Thā lookt at āēl thu anshunt tooms  
 An' cherrybims, ya zee,  
 An' wun ole fogy spoke an' zed  
 'Twuz harky-ol-o-gee.

Thā zoon wur up an' off agen,  
 Rit droo th' village street ;  
 Ta zee thu haunted Manur house  
 In ruins thā did meet.

The examples so far given have been taken from books. The following letter, which appeared in the *Stroud News*, gives a good idea of the modern conversational style.

Zur,—It be like this yur. Aater aell thic thur howdidoo bout Zunday Zinimars us ayent got um yut. Oi spose us byents like vowk in other parts ; us loikes to stap in th' cold on Zunday noits. Wat be that thur Yurban Kownzil gwain to do? Was they in th' roit wun they did zay as us musnt gwo to Zinimar on Zundays? Be they th' bosses of Strowad or byent they? Theese naw, thur be zum vunny vowk in Strowad. Thur be zum as do zay Zinimars be gwood vur they thur Sawgers, but they be bad vur th' Waar Wukkers. Oi be a Waar Wukker, I be on th' varm and oi ud loike to gwo to th' Picters on Zundays. Thur be zum as do zay, it be Ho Kay vur thee to sup dree pints ef thee can vind th' back dower awpen, but they thur Picters be bad vur thee. Thee wait til aater th' Waar, wun us do leckshuns agyen ! Oi be gwain to zay zum-mat then !

Yurs trooley,

#### CONCLUSION

Are there any indications in the speech of Gloucestershire from which deductions may be made? There are perhaps a few. Owing to the small influence which Norman-French has had on the vocabulary it would be fair to assume that it had an equally small influence on the pronunciation, which may therefore give a good indication of that of West-Saxon. The words of Norman-French origin are nearly all connected in some way with building and construction—digging, levering, weighing, architectural features, and payment. This seems to suggest that the principal contact with the Normans was while supplying labour for the erection of Norman buildings.

The Celtic element, as has been remarked, is larger than in the standard language ; it also presents this notable difference that whereas the few words in the latter are all concerned with household matters such as would be the concern of menials, those in the dialect mostly concern husbandry and the open country, while others speak of general matters, and some are humorous. From this it may be inferred that the Britons remained on the land as free men and not as menials in Saxon households.

Remembering that Cornishmen, whose ancestors of not many generations back spoke Cornish, now speak an English dialect which does not contain a very large proportion of Cornish words, a large admixture of British blood in Gloucestershire seems to be indicated.

Relics of prehistoric speech are difficult to identify. In the English language there are undoubtedly many words which the largest etymological dictionaries cannot trace to any Aryan root, and it may be surmised that they are relics of languages spoken in these isles before the arrival of the Celts. A few of these words are to be found in the Gloucestershire dialect, such as *puck*, *purl*, *ingle*, *dudgeon*, *welt*, *mort*, *pedd*, *bucking*, *limber* and *lizzen*. It is thought that the language of the Iberian race in Britain is represented today by Basque, with which the last three words certainly show some affinity. *Glos. Bucking*, Basque *bokata*=washing. *Glos. limber*=pliant or flagging. Basque *limber*=a rag. *Glos. lizzen* a fissure or natural drain. Basque *lizun* wet or mouldy. As Professors Hubert and Rhys both considered that the Iberian element must have been considerable in the composition of the Celtic peoples, it is interesting to trace what may possibly be a few fragments of Iberian speech in the Gloucestershire Dialect.

In the preparation of this article the following are the principal works consulted :—

A. J. Ellis. Early English pronunciation.

— English dialects, their sounds and homes.

G. E. Hall. Willum Wurkman's wit and wisdom (1910).

Hubert. Rise of the Celts.

R. W. Huntley. Glossary of the Cotswold (Gloucestershire) dialect (1868).

J. Rhys. Celtic Britain.

W. W. Skeat. English dialects.

— Etymological dictionary of the English language.

Smythe Palmer and E. M. Wright. English dialect grammar.

- H. Sweet. History of English sounds from the earliest period.
- Isaac Taylor. Words and places.
- Aidin Williams. Legends, tales, and songs in the dialect of the peasantry of Gloucestershire (1876).
- E. M. Wright. Dictionary of obsolete and provincial English.
- Rustic speech and folk-lore.

[The following publications relating to Gloucestershire dialect may be added to the works mentioned above.—EDITOR].

- Sir G. C. Lewis. Glossary of provincial words used in Herefordshire and adjoining counties (1839).
- Glossary of provincial words used in Gloucestershire (1851).
- Samuel Lysons. Our vulgar tongue . . . with a few words on Gloucestershire in particular (1868).
- F. G. Baylis. 220 illustrations of Gloucestershire dialect (1870).
- Reprinted glossaries. Edited by W. W. Skeat [Provincialisms of the Vale of Gloucester, pp. 55-60], reprinted from Marshall's *Rural economy of Gloucestershire*, vol. 1, pp. 323-32. And *Gloucester Notes and Queries*, II, 585-90.
- J. D. Robertson. Glossary of dialect and archaic words used in the county of Gloucester. Edited by Lord Morton. English Dialect Society (1890).
- Gray. The language of the ploughman of northeast Gloucestershire. *Evesham Notes and Queries*, 1911, II, 212-14.
- C. H. Hale. 'George Ridler's Oven', arranged for the pianoforte.

#### GLOSSARY

The Glossary has been compiled from existing Glossaries, augmented by personal collection from dialect speakers. Except in a few cases standard English words

pronounced in the local manner have not been included. Where a Saxon or Norman word is given in brackets, the dialect word may reasonably be supposed to be derived from it: words of other languages are cognates only, and are given to indicate the language group from which the word is probably derived. The abbreviations used are:—S= Saxon, including Old Saxon, and all dialects of Anglo-Saxon; NF=Norman French or Anglo-Norman; F=Modern French; W=Welsh; G=Modern German; ME=Middle English; Dan=Danish; SW=Swedish; Icel=Icelandic.

Ā	He. A differentiation which in German has produced <i>ER</i> .
ABIDE	Endure. (S. abiddan).
ADRY	Thirsty. (S. adrgan)
ĀĒ	Yes. (W. ie).
ĀĒL	All.
AFAEARED	Frightened. (S. afaeran).
AFORE	Before. (S. atforan).
AGEN	Near to (S. agen).
ANNEAL	Molify (S. on =in, ele =oil).
ANNEARST	Near. Resembling.
ANUNST	Opposite to.
Āʳ	An appreciative comment, ' I think I agree with you '.
ĀʳZY-VĀʳZY	Upside down, topsy-turvy. NF. Arse versé (?)
ARTISHREW	Shrew mouse.
ĀTER	After.
ATHERT	Athwart, across.
AT- or ATH-	Prefix. Away from. (S. Oth; G. Ent)-.
ATHOUT	Without
ATTERMATH	Grass after mowing. (S. aefter =after; mathan =to mow).
AX	Ask. (S. axian).
AXEN	Ashes (S. asce).
BACKSIDE	Back.
BAD	To beat (husks, etc.). (F. Battre).
BAG	The udder of a cow. (Gaelic, Balg.)
BAGGANET	Bayonet.
BALDRIB	Rib devoid of fat when cutting up a carcass. (bald = white or shining; its older meaning)

BANDORE	Violoncello or bassoon. (Italian, Pandura).
BANGE	To bask in the sun.
BANNUT	Walnut. Origin of BAN doubtful, may be connected with F. banne = tilt of a waggon, a word of Gaulish origin, or Gaelic ban = white.
BÄYKEN OR BARTON	Homestead. (S. bere tun = barley enclosure).
BÄYM	Yeast. (S. Beorm).
BARROWPIG	Hog. = barren pig.
BASS OR BAST	Grass thongs or matting. (S. Baest = a lime tree). (Originally made from the inner bark of the lime).
BASTE	To beat. (NF. Bastre).
BATBIRDING OR	
BATFOWLING	Taking birds by night in hand nets.
BAWLK	A bank or ridge. (W. Balc.)
BEAST	A horned animal
BEHOLDEN	Indebted to. (Old p.p. of <i>behold</i> with old meaning).
BELIKE	Most likely.
BELLUCK	To bellow. (S. Bellan).
BELLY	To swell.
BENNET OR BENT	Dry standing grass. (S. beonet). Meaning unknown.
BETEEM	To spare, allow, offer, or surrender. (Teem of obscure origin).
BEZOM	(1) A birch broom; (2) An old hag. (S. Besem. = broom), origin of (2) unknown.
BIDE	To stay or dwell. (S. Bidan).
BIN	Because (contraction of <i>it being</i> ).
BITTLE	(1) Beetle; (2) A rammer or heavy mallet. (S. bietel).
BLATHER	To talk indistinctly. (Old Norse Blethr).
BLINDWORM	Slow worm or small snake.
BLOWTHE	Blossom. (W. Blawd).
BODY	An individual. One.
BOOT	Help, defence. (S. Bot).
BOTTOM	Valley.
BRAKE	A small coppice. (W. Brwg).
BRASH	Light stony soil. (possibly NF. F. Brèche = gap).
BRAVE	Healthy, strong in appearance.
BRAY	Hay spread out in parallels. (F. Braie = embankment).

BREEDS	The brim of a hat. (S. Broed = laid out flat).
BRIT FULL	Brimfull.
BRITTLE	To burst out like ripe corn from the ear.
BRIZZ	Gadfly. (S. Briosia).
BROOK	To endure. (S. Brucan).
BROW	Brittle. (W. Brau).
BUCKING	Washing, Linen during the process of being washed. (Basque Bokata = washing. Irish Buac = washing powder).
BUDGE	To move a very short distance. (F. Bouger)
BUFF	To stammer (Appears as BOFFYING in Robert of Gloucester; connected with NF. <i>Bouffer</i> ).
BUGGAN	The Devil. (W. Bwgan = Bogey or ghost).
BUNT	To butt or dunch. A combination of a push and a knock (of Celtic origin. Breton Bounta).
BURNE OR BURDEN	A truss of hay or straw. (W. Bwrn = burden).
BURR	A sweetbread (origin obscure). (F. Bourre = pad).
BURROW	Shelter. (S. Beorg.)
BUTTY	Comrade, mate. (S. Bot.)
BY 'M BY	Later.
CADDLE	(1) To busy with trifles; (2) To rest insecurely or rock on its supports. (NF. Caddler).
CADDLEMENT	(1) Confusion, vexation; (2) A trifling occupation.
CANDER	Yonder. (S. Geonda).
CANDER LUKS	Look there!
CANDLEMAS BELLS	Snowdrops.
CANDLE TINNING	Evening. (S. Tinan = to light).
CANT	To toss lightly. (Of remote Celtic origin).
CĀPK	Care. (W. carc).
CHAM	To chew (abbreviation of <i>champ</i> . Sanskrit. Jambha = jaw).
CHĀP	Task or job. (Whence Charwoman. S. Cyrr = labour).
CHARM	Noise, clamour. (S. Cyrm).
CHATS	(1) Chips of wood; (2) Small potatoes.
CHAUDRON	(1) Entrails of a calf; (2) Stuffing.
CHAW	To chew. (W. cnoi).
CHAWN	To gape or open.

CHILVER	A ewe lamb. (S. Cilfer).
CHISSOM	To bud forth (of first shoots of a newly cut coppice) (connected with <i>Chit</i> = shoot or sprout. S. Cith).
CHOCKFULL	Full to choking point.
CHOUSE	To cheat. (Hindi, Chauth = a fourth part). The name given to a blackmail of one fourth of the revenue exacted by Mahrattas in return for immunity from plunder).
CHRISTIAN	Noun, a human being, a white man; adj. right, proper.
CHUNTER	To chatter in a subdued manner. (imitative).
CHUŪK	The udder of a cow.
CLAMMY	Adhesive, sticky.
CLAVEY	A chimney piece. (NF. Clavel = lintel or arch).
CLAY-RAG	A composite stone found in claypits.
CLEAT	A small wedge, usually of wood.
CLEAVE	To cling to. (S. clifian).
CLEM	To pinch. (Dutch, Klemmen).
CLITE	Burdock or Goose-grass.
CLOUT	Noun, a heavy blow; verb, to strike a heavy blow.
CLYP	To embrace. (S. Clippan).
COLLY	(1) Dirt; (2) a blackbird. Adj. black or dark; verb, to defile (probably NF. Spanish, Hollin = soot.)
COLT	A landslip.
COMICAL	Unwell, out of sorts.
CONCEIT	Noun, a strong mental impression; verb, to believe.
COOM	A valley with one inlet. (W. cwm.)
COOTER	The note of a wood pigeon (imitative).
COUNT	To consider or suppose. (F. compter).
COURT HOUSE	Manor house.
CRAMP	A pile of turnips, etc., covered with earth.
CRANK	A dead branch of a tree. (Dutch, krank = sick).
CRAZY	A plant ( <i>Ranunculus acris</i> ).
CRINCH	Noun, a morsel. (Sanskrit, crunch = to diminish).
CROWNED	Covered with bark (said of the stump of a pollard).
CROWNER	Coroner.

CUCKOLD	The seed pod of a burdock.
CULL	A small fish, the miller's thumb. (Sanskrit, callan, a small fish).
DĀĀK	To dig up weeds. (NF. Daque).
DABCHICK	The lesser Grebe.
DABSTER	An expert.
DADDLES	Hands. (German, Tatze = paw).
DADDOCKY	Rotten. (W. dadfeilio = to decay).
DAP	To sink and rebound. (S. dappetan).
DAYWOMAN	Dairymaid.
DEAD	Faint or unconscious.
DEADLY	Extremely (in a depreciative sense).
DESIGHT	A blemish.
DHONG	A painful pulsation.
DISANNUL	To destroy.
DISMAL	Excessively bad.
DOFF	To take off clothes (do off).
DOLLOP	A lump or mass of anything.
DOMMEL	A fool. (German, dumm = stupid).
DON	To put on clothing (do on).
DORMOUSE	(1) Dormouse ; (2) Bat.
DOUT	To extinguish a light (do out).
DOWLE	The down on a feather. (NF. doulle = soft or tender).
DRAVE	(1) A drove of animals ; (2) A truss of straw.
DREAM HOLES	The small slits in the wall of a barn (dream = vision).
DREE	Three
DREEVE	To drive
DRINK	Beer.
DRIVE	To thrive.
DROXY	Decayed. (S. drogenic).
DRUNGE	To embarrass or perplex by numbers. (Late Latin, drungus = a body of soldiers).
DUDDLE	To stun with noise.
DUDGEON	Ill temper (origin unknown).
DULKIN	A little dell.
DUMBLEDORE	A humble bee. (S. dora = an insect which flies with a humming noise. Origin unknown).
DUNCH, DUNNY	Deaf. Defective in some faculty. (S. dunnian = to make dingy).
DUP	To exalt (do up).
DURGAN	A stocky undersized horse. (S. dwerg = dwarf).

DWAAL	To ramble in the mind. (W. gwallgof = insane).
DWAM	To faint away. (W. gwan = weak, feeble).
DYNT	The impression of a heavy blow.
EIRY	A tall sapling.
ELVER	A small eel. (S. el).
ENTENNY	The front door of a house (probably a variation of <i>entry</i> ).
ETTLLES	The plural of <i>nettle</i> .
EYAS	A young hawk. (N. has been dropped, as in <i>apron</i> , F. niais = simple, literally taken out of the nest. A falconry term).
EYE	A brood of pheasants. (NF. ny = nest. The N has been dropped, as in EYAS).
EYE	Egg. (G. ei).
FAGGOT	(1) A fried rissole of pig's fry, etc.; (2) A term of derogation applied to an old woman. (The meaning in both cases is 'bundle'. F. fagot = faggot. Faite comme un fagot = malformed).
FAKINS	Faith.
FALL	Autumn.
FLAT	A low concave surface in a field. A level piece of road.
FLĒĀK	A hurdle. (Dutch, vlaak).
FLETHER	To flatter, wheedle, faun, or beguile.
FLICK	(1) A cuff or smack; (2) The fat between the bowels of a slaughtered animal; (3) The fur of a hare or rabbit.
FLOWSE	Flowing. Flaunting.
FLUMP	A heavy fall.
FLUSH	Fledged.
FOG	Grass which has grown long again after mowing.
FORE-RIGHT	Opposite to.
FORWHY	Because.
FOUSTY	Musty, decayed.
FRARD	A block of wood.
FRITH	Young whitethorn.
FROMWARD	The antonym of toward.
FROR	Frozen.
FRUITLESS	Childless.
FRŪM	Full, abundant, flourishing, prime. (Gothic, Fruma).
GAITLE	To wander idly.

GAITLING	An idler.
GALLOW	To alarm or frighten. (S. agaelwan = to alarm).
GALLOWS OR GALLUS	Exceedingly, in a depreciatory sense (fit for the gallows),
GALORE	In abundance. (Gaelic, gulori).
GAMUT	Sport. (S. gamen).
GAULY	Sour marsh land.
GAYN	Advantageous.
GEAR	Harness, apparel.
gĒĀT	Gate.
GIMMELS	Hinges. (Late Latin, gemelli).
GLOUR	To stare moodily
GLOUT	To look surly or sulky.
GLUM GLUMP	Gloomy.
GRAMPUS	A whale. (NF. grandpisce = large fish).
GRIFFIN	Something that can be easily understood, a clear statement (G. greifen = to grasp).
GRIP	An open drain.
GRIT	Sandy or stony land.
GROANING	Parturition.
GROUNDS	Fields
GROUTS GRITS	Oatmeal.
GULCH	A fat glutton. (W. glwth).
GULLY	A deep narrow ravine. (F. goulet = neck of a bottle).
GUMPTION	Spirit, sense, quick observation.
GURGINS	Coarse wheat flour (that which needs crunching). (F. gruger = to crunch).
GUZZLE	To eat or drink to excess. (NF. gueuse = throat).
GWŌAST	Ghost.
HAAL	To haul, forcibly conduct.
HACKLE	To interlace the hind legs of game for carrying.
HAINÉ	To lay up a meadow for hay.
HALLANTIDE	The season of All Saints. (S. Halgena tid).
HANDY	(1) Near, convenient; (2) Clever.
HANK	A skein of rope or thread.
HARBOUR	To abide in or frequent. (S. herebeorgan).
HĀSLET	The main entrails of a hog.
HATCH	A door which only half fills the doorway.
HAULM	Dead stalks.
HAUNCHED	Gored by the horns of cattle.
HAYSUCK	Hedge-sparrow. (S. Heggesugge).

HAYWARD	A warden of the common lands.
HAZEN	To chide. (NF. Haser = irritate or annoy).
HEATHER	The top binding of a hedge. (S. Heder).
HEEL	The lower part of the hand, as well as of the foot.
HEFT	Noun, Weight, burden; verb, (1) to lift; (2) to weigh. (S. Hoeftan).
HELE	To hide. (S. Helan). Also, to roof.
HELIAR	A thatcher.
HIGHST	To lift up (possibly a verb formed from <i>high</i> , and not the local pronunciation of <i>hoist</i> ).
HILLARD	Towards the hill or hills.
HINGE	The liver, lungs and heart of a sheep attached to the head as hung up in a butcher's shop.
HIVE	To cherish, or cover up as a hen covers chickens.
HISTERDA	Yesterday. (Latin, <i>Histernus dies</i> ).
HIT	To strike (of a clock).
HOG	A yearling sheep.
HOLT	A wood or copse, usually on a hill.
HOOP	A bullfinch.
HOPE	A blind enclosed valley on the upper part of a hill.
HOWSOMEDEVER	However.
HOX	To cut in an unseemly manner (real meaning = hamstring).
HUZZIV	Housewife.
INGLE	Noun, a foundling or favourite; verb, to fondle or cherish. (origin unknown).
INNARDS	Intestines.
INNIN OR INNION	An onion.
INTO	Except (contraction of <i>even to</i> ).
JETTY	To protrude or jut out. (NF. <i>Jetée</i> ).
JIGGER	To afflict, put out of joint, or render unusable. The passive is used as a mild imprecation. (The word is supposed to be a corruption of <i>CHIGOE</i> , the West Indian penetrating flea, with which the natives are afflicted).
JOGGET	A small load of hay.
JOMETRY	That which is mysterious (contraction of geometry).

JORUM	A large quantity (a figurative meaning. Original meaning a large drinking bowl. Possibly a Biblical allusion to 'Joram,' who brought with him vessels of silver).
JOWL	Jawbone.
JUNKETS	Sweetmeats.
KALLENGE	Challenge.
KECK	To heave at the stomach.
KEECH	A lump of congealed fat.
KEER LÜCKS	Look here !
KERFE	A cutting from a haystack. (S. Ceorfan = to cut).
KEX	The hollow stalk of a plant. Plural <i>hecksees</i> . (W. Cecys.)
KINCH	The young fry of fish. (G. Kindchen = little child).
KIND	Prosperous, healthy. (S. Cynne).
KING-CROWN	The wild rose.
KITTLE	Anything requiring nice management. A ticklish business. (KITTLE is a form of <i>tickle</i> ).
LAGGER	A long strip of land. (Gothic, Laggs = long).
LAIK	To idle or play truant (a variant of Lack with a former meaning).
LAM	To beat (literally, to lame).
LANDAM	To abuse with rancour (abbrev. for damn through the land).
LÄRN	To teach. (S. Laeran).
LARRUP	To beat or flog (possibly lee-rope, referring to chastisement with a rope's end).
LATTERMATH	Grass after mowing. (See <i>attermath</i> ).
LAYTER	A clutch of eggs.
LAZARUS	A dish consisting of pig's backbone.
LEE or LEW	Shelter from wind or rain. (S. Hleo).
LEECH	A cow-doctor. (S. Laece).
LEER	Empty, hungry. (G. Leer).
LEES	Gleanings. (F. lie = sediment. Of Celtic origin).
LEEZE	To draw straw from damp pile as a preliminary to thatching. (S. Liesan = to set free).
LENNER or LENOW	To soften or assuage. (L. Lenis = soft).
LIBBET	A shred or tatter. (Old D. Lubben = to maim).
LIEVER	Rather, more inclined to. (S. Leof = dear).
LIGHTING STOCK	A mounting block.

LIKE	A qualifying suffix used in words such as deadlike or prettylike.
LIKKUTS	Fragments (possibly a variation of S. Stycce = piece).
LIMBER	Weak, pliant. (Basque Limber = a rag).
LINCH	A small precipice. (S. Hline).
LINNET	Dressed flax. (S. Linet).
LISSOME	Active, nimble (contracted variant of <i>lithesome</i> ).
LITHER	Light, active, sinewy (variant of <i>lithe</i> ).
LIZZEN	A crack or chasm between rocks. (Basque Lizun = wet or mouldy).
LIZZORY	A wild pear tree.
LOKE	A shut or locked up place, a pen. (S. Loca).
LOWCE	To let or allow (contracted variant of <i>allow</i> ).
LUG	(1) A long pole; (2) A perch of land.
MAIN	To an excessive degree. (NF. Magne = great).
MAKE	Mate, companion, lover. (S. Maca).
MAMMOCK	Noun, a shred or tatter; verb, to tear up. (Diminutive of MAMM, a word of unknown meaning).
MAUNDER	To mutter, grumble, speak uncertainly, or ramble in the mind. (F. Maudire = to curse).
MAZZARD	A wild cherry (original meaning a cup or bowl).
MEBBE	Perhaps (may be).
MERE	A strip of grass left as a boundary in open fields. (S. Mearc also maere = a boundary).
MILT	The spleen. (S. Milte).
MIND	To remember. (S. Munan).
MIRE	To wonder or admire. (L. Mirari).
MIRSHET	Twilight. (S. Mirce).
MIXEN	A dungheap. (S. Meoxe = dung).
MIZZOMAR	Midsummer (contraction).
MOIL	To labour or toil. (NF. Moillier = to wet or moisten. Refers possibly to the sweat induced).
MOOCH	To idle. To loiter about to no good purpose. (NF. Muchier = to hide or skulk).
MOOR	A marsh. (W. Morfa).
MOORHEN	A water-hen.
MORE	The root of a plant. (S. idem).
MORING-AXE	A pickaxe (an axe for digging up roots).
MORT	A vast quantity (origin obscure, possibly Norse).

MORTAL	Excessively, extremely.
MOTHERING SUNDAY	Mid-lent Sunday. (Refers to ancient custom of visiting parents on that day).
MOUND	A fence or boundary. (S. Mund).
MOYTHER	To worry or tease (of obscure origin).
MUN	An interjection. Man!
MUNCH	A snack or meal.
MUST	Crushed apples in a cider press. (NF. Moust).
NALE	An ale house.
NARON	None. (Ne'er a one).
NATCHRAL	Easily, as a matter of course.
NATION	Very (abbrev. of <i>tarnation</i> , which is abbrev. of <i>Incarnation</i> ).
NEEVE	Hand. (Danish Naeve).
NËPERN	Apron. (F. Napperon from L. Mappa).
NESH	Weak, tender. (S. Nesc.)
NUNCHEON	Luncheon. (The older form. S. Non scenc = noon draught).
ODDS	Difference.
ON	Of. In addition to its usual meaning.
OODLE	Nightingale. (Wood wail).
OONT	Mole. (S. Wand.)
OR	Before, ere.
ORTS	Chaff, or any worthless matter (probably Noughts).
ÔVERLÛK	} To bewitch.
ÔVERZEE	
PACE	To raise with a lever. (F. Peser).
PAG	Peg.
PARGITER	A plasterer. (OF. Parjeter = to throw or cast over a surface).
PAUNCH	To disembowel game. (NF. Panche).
PECK	To fall forward, stumble (probably of Celtic origin).
PEG	Pig. (W. pig = spike or beak).
PEDD	A large shallow basket in which goods are carried to market and exposed for sale. (The origin of this word, from which PEDLAR is presumably derived, is unknown, and may possibly be aboriginal).
PELT	(1) To throw stones; (2) To move at a rapid pace. (Possibly two separate words, both of obscure origin).
PEN	To depend (contraction).
PICK OR PIKE	A hayfork. (W. pig = point or spike).

PIDDLE	To trifle, or do light work (origin obscure).
PILL	A pool caused by the junction of two streams. (W. Pwll).
PIP	To burst. Of a bud or an eggshell at hatching.
PIRGY	Quarrelsome, cross-grained.
PITCH	To fall down heavily, cast away a burden.
PITH OF PETH	A crumb of bread.
PLASH	A small pool .
PLEECH	To intertwine, to lay a hedge. (OF. Plechier).
PLIM	To swell with moisture.
PLY	To bend. A bead or turn. (NF. Ploy).
POLLARDS, POLTS	A mixed crop of peas and beans.
POSSY	A great number. (L. Posse comitatus).
POTCH	To poke (apparently both of Teut. and Celtic origin). (Dutch Pook, Cornish Poc).
POVEY	An owl.
POWER	Any vast accumulation.
POZY	A bunch of flowers (connected with NF. Poesie).
PRĀPER	(Proper) ; adj. really good ; adv. really.
PRIZE	To weigh. (F. Priser = to value).
PRONG	A large hayfork.
PUCK	A pile of corn sheaves, taller than a stook, used in wet weather (origin uncertain).
PUCK-FOUST	A fungus or puff-ball.
PUCK-LEDDEN	Deceived. (Led by Puck).
PUE	The udder of a cow. (W. Piw).
PUGGLE	Stupid, demented. (Hindi. Pagal = mad. Possibly introduced by the gypsies).
PUGGLED UP	Distracted.
PURE	In good health.
PURGATORY	A receptacle for ashes under a grate.
PURL	To throw with violence (original meaning = to twist. Etymology uncertain).
PURLER	A heavy fall.
QUÂR	A stone quarry.
QUARREL	A square pane of glass. (NF. Quarel = square).
QUICK, QUICKSET	Whitethorn.
QUILT	To swallow or gulp (of unknown origin).
QUIST	Wood-pigeon. (S. Cuscote).
QUITCH	Couch grass. (S. Cwice).
QUOB OR QUOP	To tremble, quail or palpitate (imitative word).

QUOMP	To subdue. (S. Cwealm).
RACK	A path, chiefly applied to a hare's run. (Dutch, Racke).
RAG	To chide or abuse.
RAMES	Dead stalks. A skeleton. (G. Rahmen = frame).
RAMSHACKLE	Loose, disjointed, in bad repair (possibly connected with Rannsake or Ransack. ON. Rannsaka = to harm a house).
RAMSONS	Broad leaved garlic.
RANGLE	To entwine or embarrass by entwining. Met. To argue.
RĀTHE	Speedy, quick, soon, early. (The lost positive of rather).
RAVEL	To entangle. (The lost antonym of unravel).
RAVELMENT	Entanglement.
RAVES	The rails with which the body of a waggon is surrounded.
RAZZLE	To spread like a creeper over a house.
REASTY	Rancid.
REED	Counsel. (S. Roed).
REEN	A small stream. (W. Rhin).
REERMOUSE	A bat. (S. Hrerc mus).
RENEAGE	To renounce or deny. Fail to follow suit at cards. (F. Renier).
RETCH	To strain before sickness.
RIDE	(1) A rootstock in coppice; (2) Track cut through coppice.
RIME	Hoar frost. (S. Hrim).
RIVE	To split asunder.
ROLLER	A quantity of hay rolled up preparatory to loading.
ROUN	To whisper. (S. Runian).
ROUNDS	An accustomed circuit.
RUGGLE	Vb. To struggle. Sb. A sheep bell or child's rattle.
SCANTLINGS	The outside planks when a tree is sawn up.
SCORT	Footmarks of animals.
SCRABBLE	To scratch like a fowl.
SCRABBLE ĀTER	To collect with difficulty.
SCREECH	A bird—the Swift.
SCREECH-DROSSEL	The missel thrush. (G. Drossel = thrush).
SCRUB	Small bushes; a thicket. (S. Scrob).
SCUBBIN	The fore-quarter of a lamb, without the shoulder.
SEWENT	Successive or continuous. (F. Suivant).

SHACKLES	Soup.
SHATTERS	The pieces into which a fragile object is shattered.
SHIDE	A small piece of wood split off from timber.
SHOT, SHOT OF	To be rid of. (S. Shittan = to cast away).
SHRIM	To shiver or shrink up with cold. (S. Scrimman).
SHROUD	To lop a pollard tree.
SKAG	A rent, such as would be made by a stump. Also <i>skeg</i> .
SKAIL	A skimming dish. (O. Ir. Scailim = to disperse, scatter).
SKEATH	Damage. (S. Sceathe).
SKEEL	A shallow tub. (Icel. Skjola = a pail).
SKELM	A long pole.
SKILLING	A cowshed (of obscure origin).
SKOLLARD	Scholar (possibly an older form).
SKRAWLING	Used in the expression <i>skrawling frost</i> = a slight frost which produces scrawling marks on walls, etc.
SKRIKE	To shriek. (Sw. Skrika).
SKURRY	A flock in confused flight. (Icel. Skare).
SLABS	The outside planks when a tree is sawn up. (W. Yslab).
SLAM	To beat (var. of <i>lam</i> ).
SLAMMERKIN	A slut, a slovenly dressed woman. (Of obscure origin).
SLAT	A crack or slit (probably a var. of <i>slit</i> ).
SLEEZE	The separation of texture in badly woven cloth.
SLEIGHTS	Downland used only for pasture.
SLICK	Slippery.
SLICKUTS	Curds and whey.
SLINGE	To steal in small quantities, to pilfer.
SLIVER	Sb. A slice. Vb. To slice or whittle.
SMÅTISH	Adj. Considerable. Adv. Considerably.
SNACK	A share or portion
SNARL	To curl or contort.
SNEAD	The handle of a scythe. (S. Snaed).
SNITE	To blow the nose. (S. Snytan).
SNOUL	A lump, of bread-cheese, etc.
SNUGGLE	To lie close together.
SPAUL	The broad wound caused when a large branch is cut off a tree (originally, to be injured in the shoulder. OF. Espauler).
SPAY-SPEED	Humour discharged from the eyes.

SPEAR	A spit. (W. Ysbur).
SPEEK	A thin sharp stake used in thatching.
SPEW	A spongy piece of ground.
SPIT	A spade. The depth of a spade.
SPRACK	Lively, vigorous. (Sw. Spraeg).
SPREATHE	To roughen by frost. Applied to face and hands.
SPURTLE	To sprinkle.
SQUAIL	Sb. A short heavy stick for throwing. Vb. To pelt with sticks or stones (said to be of Hebrew origin).
SQUAT	Sb. An indentation. Vb. To sit close.
SQUISH	To quash.
SQUISH-QUASH	To walk through mud or water.
STAG	A young ox, a male turkey.
STANK	A dam, or a pool caused by damming. (W. Stanc).
STIVE (UP)	To stifle with heat.
STOGGLE	A pollard tree.
STÖL	The stump of cut undergrowth.
STOOK	A heap of hay or pile of corn sheaves. (S. Stycce).
STORMCOCK	A Missel thrush.
STRAIGHTWAYS	Immediately.
STUMMER	To confuse.
SWAG OR SWAGGLE	To sway to and fro.
SWALE	To burn or waste away. (S. Swelan = to burn).
SWICH OR ZICH	Such.
SWIG	To drink till the receptacle is empty (Icel. Swiga).
SWILL	To wash away or cleanse with much water. (S. Swelan).
SWOP	To barter or exchange. (Gael. Suaip).
TABLING	The coping on a wall.
TACK	Food, grazing for cattle.
TALLOW	Stalactite found in oolitic rocks in the Cotteswolds.
TALLUT	A hayloft. (W. Taflod).
TÄŦK	Talk.
TED	To spread out new mown grass in hay-making. (S. Teadan).
TEEM	To empty a utensil. (S. Tieman = to bring forth).
TEG	A year old lamb (of uncertain origin).
TERRIFY	To annoy or vex.

TESTER	A sixpenny piece (from NF. Teste = head, i.e. the king's head upon it).
TÊTUR or TÊTUR	Potato.
THEEVE	A second year ewe (i.e. a grown ewe, from the obsolete verb <i>thee</i> = to grow).
THIK	This.
THILK	The like. (S. Thillic).
THUK	That.
THUK THEER	That, near you (cf. F. celui-là).
TICE	To entice. (Aphetic form).
TID	Playful, frolicsome.
TIDDLE	To rear delicately.
TIDY	(1) Neat, frugal ; (2) A fairly large quantity.
TIKEL	Uncertain in temper.
TILE OPEN	To fix a gate open with a stone.
TILLER	The shaft horse in a waggon.
TILT	To overthrow.
TINE	Sb. The prong or tooth of a rake, fork or seed drill. Vb. To kindle. (M.E. Tind).
TITTY	A wren.
TRIG	Neat, quick, ready. (Dan. Tryg).
TUD	An apple dumpling
TŪMP	A tumulus, a heap of earth. (W. Twmp).
TUN	The projecting portion of a chimney.
TURN IN	To be ready for eating (of vegetables).
TUSSOCK	A thick tuft of grass. (W. Tusw = a whip or bunch).
TWAITE	A fish of the shad kind.
TWICH	To touch.
TWICHILD	Second childhood.
TWINK	A chaffinch. (W. Gwinc).
TWISSLE	To turn about rapidly.
TYNING	An enclosure from part of the common land.
ŮD	Wood.
ŮDSPITE	The green woodpecker
ŮLL	Wool.
ŮM	Them.
UN	Him. (S. Hync).
ŮNDERMENT	Anything not understood. (Wonderment).
UNKARD	Uncouth. (S. Unceid).
ŮNT	A mole. (S. Wand).
ŮNTWRIGGLE	A molehill.
UPSHOT	A result, a sum total.
VAITHUR	Father.
VALLY	Amount, total, variation of value.
VAMOUS	Wonderful, excellent.

VARJUZ	Verjuice, the juice of green fruit. (F. Verjus).
VÄLLEN	Threatening (used in connection with the weather).
VĒÄSS	Face.
VELLET	Sb. The fall of the leaf. Vb. To fell.
VENTERZUM	Heedless, daring.
VINNY	Mildewed, mouldy. (S. Finig).
VLAKE	A wattled hurdle. (S. Vlaeck).
VOZZLE	To entangle.
WAG	To move, to go away.
WAIL	Wheal, mark left by a whip.
WAINCOCK	A haycock consisting of an entire waggon (wain) load.
WAMBLE, WABBLE	To move awkwardly to and fro.
WÄND	To assure or make certain.
WÄP	To cast young prematurely. (S. Weorpan = to throw).
WATTLE AND DÄB	Lath and plaster.
WEETHY	Soft, pliant, flexible. (S. Withthe).
WELT	To strengthen with metallic bands. (of obscure origin).
WET	Rain.
WHELM	To overthrow
WHIFFLE	To move lightly; to trifle. (W. Gwibl).
WHŪM	Home.
WHŪP	Hope.
WICKER	To neigh. (D. Whitchelen).
WILL-GILL	An effeminate person, a hermaphrodite. (Formed from the names William and Gillian).
WIMMIN VOLK	Women.
WINCHWELL	A whirlpool. (S. Wince).
WINDE	To take a zigzag course up a steep hill.
WINDER, WINDORE	Window. (Wind + door). Window is from Norse Windr = wind + auga = eye).
WITE	Blame. (S. Wite = punishment).
WITHWIND	Bindweed, <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> . Also applied to other climbing plants, Dodder, Traveller's joy, etc. (S. within = a flexible twig + windan = to wind).
WITWALL	The large black and white woodpecker. (There are similar names in several Teutonic languages).
WIZEN	To wither with age or disuse. (S. Wisnian).

WÖLD	Open forest land. (Frisian Wold. G. Wald).
WOLLOP	To beat. (NF. Walop = to gallop. An onomatopoeic extension of original meaning).
WOP	To beat (contraction of <i>wallop</i> ).
WOPPER	An object of unusual size. (One which 'beats' others).
WOPPERED	Fatigued, beaten, overcome.
WUÐLED	World.
WUZZEN	To make worse.
WÜTZ	Oats.
YAIR	Hair
YAPPERN	Apron.
YÄRB	Herb.
YÄRL	Earl. (Norse. Jarl).
YAWNY	A simpleton.
YËÄL	Ale.
YEÄLTH	Health.
YEÄRTH	Earth.
YED	Head.
YELT	A young sow (variety of gilt).
YEMATH	Grass which has grown since mowing. (S. Mathan = to mow).
YËÔ	Ewe.
YIN	In.
YOPPET	To give tongue (of hounds).
YOWL	Howl.
YUCKLE	The green woodpecker.
ZANGFOY	Sanfoin. (Holy hay, An allusion to the legend that this hay was in the manger at the Nativity).
ZAWNY	Adj. Imbecile.
ZEDDS	An annual crop of clover or other grass.
ZEG	Urine, when used in the preparation of cloth.
ZEGS	Sedges, reeds.
ZENG	To sing.
ZENNERS	Sinews.
ZIGHT	A vast number.
ZINO	To my knowledge (as I know).
ZOG	To soak.
ZOLID	Steady, continuous.
ZUMMUT	Something.
ZWAIthe	A row of fallen grass after it has been cut with a scythe. (Danish Zwad).