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An Analysis of Personal Pronouns in Middle English Literary Texts (TITLE)

BY

Melissa Jill Bennett

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

Master of Arts

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1995 YEAR

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE GRADUATE DEGREE CITED ABOVE

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Abstract

This thesis examines the evolution of personal pronouns from the tenth to the fourteenth centuries, with a particular focus upon the southern literary dialects that era. The baseline text for this analysis is the Anglo-Saxon poem The Dream of the Rood, although Bright's paradigm of Anglo-Saxon pronouns is also employed. The Owl and the Nightingale (circa 1200), The Fox and the Wolf (circa 1275), Piers Plowman (circa 1375), and Parliament of <u>Fowls</u> (circa 1375) are used to illustrate the changes the forms of the pronouns over four centuries, Chaucer's <u>Parliament</u> serving to represent the emerging London standard. The results of this line-by-line analysis are presented in paradigms supported by narrative commentary which notes significant changes in pronoun forms from text to text.

Texts from the southwestern dialect from 1200 to 1375 were chosen because of the geographic and linguistic correspondence between them and the standard literary dialect of the Anglo-Saxon period, West Saxon. What we see in the analysis of the pronouns from these texts is a continuum of some aspects of the West Saxon dialect: the continual use of the dual case through 1200 (The Owl and the Nightingale), the use of the h- form third person pronouns through 1375 (Parliament of Fowls), and the use of the yogh and the thorn consistently into 1200 (The Owl and the Nightingale), the yogh even being seen in some words as

late as <u>Piers Plowman</u>, though intrestingly not in the personal pronouns.

At the same time we are beginning to see variations in the pronoun forms anticipating the London standard. The changes in pronouns serve as a microcosm of the larger changes in the language which eventually result in the formulation of the London standard. While a number of the forms remain fairly constant, changing primarily in terms of simplification of spelling and reductions in the number of forms for a given pronoun, these changes illustrate the evolution of the language toward the London standard.

The changes in pronouns demonstrate the tendency of the language toward simplification. For example, the number of pronoun forms have decreased from fifty-three in Bright's paradigm to some thirty-four used in Chaucer's Moreover, the dual case still in Parliament of Fowls. evidence in The Owl and the Nightingale (circa 1200) has disappeared by Chaucer's time. By the late fourteenth century, the years of Langland and Chaucer, the secon person plural pronouns forms have been reduced to the y-(yow). In the same era, the first person nominative forms pronoun has largely been simplified to \underline{I} , although Chaucer occasionally uses the southern <u>ich</u> for emphasis or, as the Reeve's Tale, ik for characterization (Fisher 964), both exceptions, however, noteworthy in that they represent conscious variations from the standard. This movement

toward simplification and reduction of forms indicates the movement toward a standard dialect.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to Tim Shonk. Tim, I owe you much. By teaching me Old and Middle English, you made this project possible. Thank you for all of your help, support, and patience. Most of all, thank you for inspiring my love of this language with all of its beauty and complexity.

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank Dr. John Simpson, Dr. Rosemary Buck, and Dr. Robert Funk for their help on this project. Your comments and suggestions were most helpful. I also wish to thank my family for their support and understanding of my work.

Introduction

During the Anglo-Saxon period, England was divided into seven kingdoms. While each kingdom had its own distinct dialect, West Saxon eventually became the standard literary dialect in part because Wessex became the center of power in England. While Northumbria and Mercia both had been centers of power at one time, they did not exert their influence over the whole Anglo-Saxon nation. However, beginning with Egbert in the early ninth century, the West Saxon kings began extending their influence throughout all of England. By 830, all of the English kings and the chieftains of Wales recognized Egbert's rule (Baugh and Cable 48).

West Saxon also became recognized as the standard dialect during the Anglo-Saxon period because of the large amount of literature that came out of this region. When Alfred the Great ascended to the throne in the late ninth century, he realized that the state of the nation's learning had decayed (Baugh and Cable 69). Alfred then decided to try to restore learning in England to the level it was before in the days of Bede and Alcuin. To achieve this goal, Alfred translated or had others translate for him many Latin texts into the vernacular. Alfred also founded public schools, "creating a literate audience for the literature as well as an educated class able to

administer the growing bureaucracy of a growing state" (Williams 59). In addition, Alfred decided to compile a historical document, the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (Baugh and Cable 70).

If West Saxon was the standard literary dialect during the Old English period, why then did the London dialect become the standard during the Middle English period? While no one reason accounts for the change, several factors contribute to the rise of London English. One reason is geographic location. The London dialect, a variety of the East Midlands dialect in the Middle Ages, provides a middle ground between the conservative Southern dialect and the radical Northern dialects (Baugh and Cable 187). It tends to blend characteristics of both extremes. For example, the London dialect incorporates northern th forms of pronouns as well as the southern third person singular verb forms (Francis 85). It also uses the southern <u>ch</u> forms of words like <u>cherch</u> as opposed to the Map I). In addition, the northern form, kirk (Jones London dialect incorporates the southern form of present participle (Pyles and Algeo 163) as well as the northern tendency to leave initial \underline{f} 's unvoiced, a feature expressed in the orthography of words like fader and fox instead of the southern forms, vader and vox (Jordan xv).

In addition to being centrally located, London also became a melting pot for English dialects for economic

reasons. Because land surrounding London was more valuable agriculturally than land in the north and west, population in London increased, making it the largest city in England (Baugh and Cable 188). In addition, London became the most important commercial city in the nation by the end of the 11th century (Williams 63). Because of its prosperity, people from all over England came to London, bringing their regional dialects with them (Williams 86). This migration to London by people from different regions probably accounts for the way London English incorporated features of other Middle English dialects (Baugh and Cable 189).

Another factor that helps explain the rise of the London standard is the presence of the court. As we saw in the Old English period, the West Saxon dialect became the dialect of prestige when the court was located at But when William the Conqueror became king of Winchester. England in 1066, he built his residence at Westminster, two miles away from London, transforming the city into the political, as well as the commercial center of England (Williams 63). Because the court was located there, the London dialect became the prestige dialect, even though the language spoken by the nobility at the time was French. Since the court was located in London, the laws of the land and official documents were issued from there as well. According to Baugh and Cable, after the use of French gave to English, the language found in these documents

became the basis for Standard English (189). In addition, because the court was in London, the court poets, such as Chaucer, also wrote in London English. While Standard English is not based upon Chaucer's works, his texts were read throughout England and may be responsible for spreading the influence of the London dialect (Baugh and Cable 189).

Although it was not introduced to England until 1476, the printing press plays perhaps the most influential role in making the London dialect the national standard. When Caxton brought the printing press to England, he set up the press in London and translated texts into the current speech of London (Baugh and Cable 190). According to Myers and Hoffman, printing helped eliminate the dialectical diversity that existed between copies of texts (166). Because London became the center of the printing industry, it "reinforced the prestige of London English throughout the country" (166).

In order to study how English changed during the Middle English period, I analyze the use of personal pronouns in the Middle English works The Owl and the Nightingale, The Fox and the Wolf, and Piers Plowman. These three texts come from the Southwestern part of England. I specifically pick texts from this area because it corresponds to the area in which the West Saxon dialect was used, the standard literary dialect during the Anglo-

Saxon period. (See Appendix) In addition, examining Southwestern texts from different centuries throughout the Middle English period allows me to trace the shift in the "standard" English dialect from the West Saxon dialect in the Anglo-Saxon period to the London dialect, the dialect of prestige during the Middle Ages. I also examine Chaucer's Parliament of Fowls, which was written between 1373 and 1378, to see how close the London and Southwestern dialects are at this time. My baseline text is the Anglo-Saxon poem The Dream of the Rood. I also use Bright's paradigm of Old English pronouns as an additional baseline text to cover pronoun cases not present in The Dream of the Rood.

Methodology

The following paradigm for Anglo-Saxon prounouns is set forth in $\underline{\text{Bright's Old English Grammar and Reader}}$ (23).

First Person Pronouns

	Singular Dual		Plural
Nominative	ic, I wit		we
Genitive	mīn uncer ūs		ūser, ūre
Dative	mē	unc	นิธ
Accusative	mec, me	uncit, unc	ūsic, ūs

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nominative	ðū	git	ge
Genitive	ðīn	incer	ēower
Dative	ðē	inc	ēow
Accusative	đēc, đē	incit, inc	ēowic, ēow

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	he	hit	heo, hīe	hēo, hīe
Genitive	his	his	hire	hira
Dative	him	him	hire	him, heom
Accusative	hine	hit	hēo, hīe	heo, hie

The Dream of the Rood, taken from the Vercelli Book written in the second half of the tenth century, serves as the baseline text for this linguistic analysis. The first person pronouns in The Dream of the Rood closely follow the paradigm set forth in Bright's Old English Grammar and Reader.

The word <u>ic</u> is used exclusively for the nominative pronoun. The first occurrence of this pronoun is in line 1 of the poem: "Hw&t, <u>ic</u> swefna cyst secgan wylle."

Although The Dream of the Rood does not contain any occurrences of the dual first person nominative pronoun, it does contain one instance of the first person plural nominative \underline{we} : "`Hw&\delta ere \underline{we} \delta &r greatende g\delta ehw\left[left] st\delta don on sta\delta ole sy\delta an stefn \text{up gew\delta f} hilderinca'" (11. 70-72).

For the first person genitive case, <u>The Dream of the Rood</u> contains only the singular pronoun, <u>min</u>. It appears,

for example, in lines 130-31: " $\underline{m}\underline{\tilde{l}}\underline{n}$ mundbyrd is/ geriht to $\rho \, \overline{\mathcal{R}}$ re rode."

For the both dative and accusative cases, \underline{me} is used throughout the poem, as in lines 83-84: "On \underline{me} Bearn Godes p rowode hwile.'"

In <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, <u>us</u> is used for both the first person plural accusative and dative, as the following line illustrates: "he <u>us</u> onlysde ond <u>us</u> līf forgeaf" (1. 147).

This poem also displays one of the dual case forms, the accusative <u>unc</u>. This pronoun refers to just the dreamer and the rood: "`Bysmeredon hie <u>unc</u> būtū &tg&dere'" (1. 48).

The Dream of the Rood contains few second person pronouns. It does contain some second person singular pronouns, but no dual or plural second person pronouns. For the singular pronouns, the scribe uses $p \in p$ for the accusative and $p \in p$ for the nominative. Examples of these pronouns can be found in lines 95-96: "Nu ic $p \in p$ hate, have led min se leofa, $p \in p \in p$ as gesynde secge mannum.'"

The poem displays several third person pronouns, but none of them are feminine. For the masculine nominative, the scribe uses <u>he</u> throughout the poem. Likewise, <u>his</u> is used for the genitive case, as in the following lines:

"`Dēa δ <u>hē</u> p \propto r byrigde; hw \approx δ ere eft Dryhten ārās/ mid

his miclan mihte mannum to helpe'" (11. 101-02). Him is used for the dative case: "'Ongunnon him pa moldern wyrcan/ beornas on banan gesyhöe'" (65-66). In lines 60-61 there is an example of hine used as the masculine accusative: "'Genamon hie par almihtigne God,/ ahöfon hine of am hefian wite.'"

For the third person neuter nominative, the scribe uses the pronoun $\underline{\text{hit}}$. It is found, for instance, in the following passage:

Hwædre ic purh pæt gold ongytan meahte earmra ærgewin, pæt hit ærest ongan swætan on på swætan healfe. (18-20)

For the plural nominative, the scribe usually uses the pronoun <u>hie</u>, as in line 63: "Aledon <u>hīe</u> pær limwērigne, gestodon him æt his līce hēafdum.'" However, in one line he uses <u>hi</u> for the same purpose: "Purhdrifan <u>hī</u> mē mid deorcan næglum" (46).

In <u>The Dream of the Rood</u> there are two pronouns used for the third person plural genitive case: <u>heora</u> and <u>hira</u>. In lines 30-31 the scribe writes, "`strange feondas,/ . . . heton me <u>heora</u> wergas habban.'" The other form, <u>hira</u>, appears in line 47: "`Ne dorste ic <u>hira</u> ** nigum sce $\partial \tilde{\partial}$ an.'"

Although Old English did not have any reflexive pronouns such as myself or herself, writers did convey reflexive meanings by using other pronouns. For example,

in lines 44-45 we find "'Rod w&s ic aræred; ahof ic rīcne Cyning,/ heofona Hlāford; hyldan me ne dorste.'" In this sentence, the scribe has used the first person accusative pronoun me as a reflexive. In line 39 an accusative pronoun, this time the third person masculine hine, is used in the reflexive function: "'Ongyrede hine pa geong Hæleð -- pat wæs God ælmihtig.'" In one line, the scribe also uses the third person dative plural pronoun him as a reflexive: "'Genaman me pær strange feondas,/ geworhton him pær to wæfersýne'" (30-31). On one occasion, the scribe of The Dream of the Rood comes close to using what looks like a modern reflexive pronoun:

Hwæt, mē pā geweor ode wuldres Ealdor ofer holtwudu, heofonrīces Weard, swylce swā hē his modor eac, Mārian sylfe, ælmihtig God for ealle menn geweor ode ofer eall wifa cynn. (90-94)

The pronoun paradigm for <u>The Dream of the Rood</u> is illustrated by the following charts.

First Person Pronouns

	Singular Dual		Plural
Nominative	ic		we
Genitive	mīn		
Dative	mē		ūs
Accusative	me	unc	ūs
Reflexive	mē		

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nominative	ðũ		
Genitive			
Dative	ρē		
Accusative			

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	hē	hit		hīe, hī
Genitive	his			heora, hira
Dative	him			him
Accusative	hine			
Reflexive	hine		sylfe	him

Analysis of Pronouns in Middle English Literature

The Southwestern Dialect

The Owl and the Nightingale

In order to analyze pronoun changes during the Middle English period, I examine four Middle English texts and compare the pronouns to the baseline text. The first Middle English piece, The Owl and the Nightingale, is one of the first vernacular poems to appear after the Norman conquest (Atkins xii) and consequently shows a remarkable blend of the Old and Middle English features. It survives in two manuscripts, the MS Cotton Caligula A ix, written in the early thirteenth century, and the MS Jesus College, Oxford, 29, written in the fourteenth century. exemplar, however, dates back to the period 1190-1210 (Atkins xxxv). Scholars consider the Cotton MS reliable than the Jesus text because the Cotton MS fewer scribal errors, though both are copied from the same intermediate text. I base my analysis on the Cotton MS although I include significant variants from the Jesus MS.

Although this work is considered to be a Middle English poem, the scribe of The Owl and the Nightingale still uses many Anglo-Saxon pronouns, or slight modifications of them, especially for the nominative

pronouns. In the first line of the poem, "Ich was in one sumere dale," we see that the scribe is using an Anglo-Saxon first person nominative pronoun, <a>Ich. Although the spelled ic in Anglo-Saxon, the word is pronounced the same in Middle English, [Ic]. The scribe of The Owl continues to use this pronoun throughout almost all of the poem for the first person nominative. There is, however, one occurrence of the Anglo-Saxon pronoun ic in the Cotton MS: Enes p u sunge, <u>ic</u> wo[t] wel ware" (1. 1049).The scribe of the Jesus MS uses <u>ic</u> much more frequently than the Cotton scribe. Although the Jesus scribe uses <u>ich</u> almost exclusively through the first part of the poem, after line 750 ic appears with increasing

For the first person plural nominative case, the scribe uses \underline{we} , an Anglo-Saxon pronoun that the language has retained up through Modern English.

frequency. Atkins suggests that this phenomenon is due to

the intermediate text's being copied by two different

scribes (xxvi).

When using the first person singular genitive case, the scribe of the Cotton MS uses two other pronouns in addition to min, the form found in The Dream of the Rood: mine and mi. In fact, he uses all three of these pronouns within one sentence:

Iwis for Pine [vu]le lete,
wel [oft ich] mine song forlete;

 $\underline{\min}$ horte atfli $\gamma \mathcal{A}$ falt $\underline{\min}$ tonge,

wonne fu art [to me] i frunge. (35-38)

In the same sentence, however, the scribe of the Jesus MS chooses to use a different pronoun:

Iwis for fine [vu]le lete
Wel ofte ich my songe furlete;
Min heorte atflyh 7 7 falt my tunge

Hwenne pu art to me i p runge. (35-38)

Here it appears that the Jesus scribe uses the pronoun \min in front of words that begin with a vowel sound, but uses the pronoun \min in front of words beginning with a consonant sound.

For the first person plural genitive case, the scribe of the Cotton MS again uses different pronouns for the same case: the Anglo-Saxon form <u>ure</u> and a variant of it, <u>hure</u>. In line 118 we read of the birds replying to the falcon, "`Iwis it was <u>ure</u> o ger bro per.'" However, in lines 185-86 the nightingale says to the owl, "`7 mai <u>hure</u> eiper wat h[e] wile/ mid riz te segge mid sckile.'"

One quite interesting genitive pronoun in The Owl is found in lines 991-4:

We per is betere of twe[n]e twom:

Pat mon bo blipe, oper grom?

So bo hit euer in unker sipe

Pat pu bo sori ich blipe.

In this passage we see that the writer of The Owl and the

<u>Nightingale</u> uses a form of the Anglo-Saxon first person dual case possessive, <u>uncer</u>, even though the dual case had almost disappeared from the language by this time. The writer of <u>The Owl</u> consistently uses the dual case genitive in the poem when referring to just two people.

In <u>The Owl</u> we see <u>me</u> used as both the first person singular dative and accusative pronouns, as is done in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>. At times the scribe also uses the pronoun <u>me</u> in impersonal constructions. For example, in line 39 the nightingale says, "'<u>Me</u> luste bet speten pan singe/ Of Pine fule 303 elinge.'" In addition, <u>me</u> is also used in reflexive constructions, as in the following lines:

7 if ich me loki wit pe bare,
7 me schilde wit pe blete,

ne reche ich no 3 t of p ine p rete. (56-58)

Similarly, as in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, <u>us</u> is used for both the plural dative and the plural accusative cases. An unusual dative case appears, though, in line 1733 in both the Cotton and Jesus manuscripts: "<u>Hunke</u> schal itide harm schonde.'" Here again the text has retained an Anglo-Saxon dual case. Atkins argues that <u>hunke</u> derived from the Anglo-Saxon first person dual dative <u>unc</u> (147).

When the Cotton scribe writes the second person singular nominative pronoun, he always uses the Anglo-Saxon pronoun $\mathcal{L}u$. Occasionally this pronoun is contracted with

other words, as in line 95: "`Vel wostu pat hi dop
parinne.'"

Just as with the first person genitive pronouns, the scribe uses three different forms for the second person singular genitive case. Line 58 reads, "`ne reche ich no 3 t of <u>pine</u> Prete.'" In lines 73-74, though, two other forms of the pronoun appear: "`Pi bodi is short, <u>Pi</u> swore is smal,/ grettere is <u>Pin</u> heued Pan Pu al.'"

The scribe uses the Anglo-Saxon form $\underline{p}e$ for both the second person singular dative and accusative case, as the Anglo-Saxon writers do.

For the second person plural nominative pronoun, both scribes use a modification of the Anglo-Saxon pronoun \underline{qe} . Line 116 of the Cotton MS reads, "`Segge[$\mathcal P$] me 2 if 2 e hit wiste,'" while the Jesus MS reads, "`Segge $\mathcal P$ me if \underline{ye} hit wiste'" for the same line.

The Owl and the Nightingale also contains an example of the second person plural genitive pronoun:

Schille ich an utest uppen ow grede, ich shl swo stronge ferde lede,

 \mathcal{F} at <u>ower pr[u]</u>de schal aualle. (1683-85) Although the scribe has dropped the initial <u>e</u>, this pronoun is still quite similar to the Anglo-Saxon form <u>ẽower</u>.

In the dative case of the second person plural pronouns, the scribe uses three different forms: ow, eu, or ov. For instance, lines 114-115 in the Cotton MS reads,

"'Ov nas neuer icunde parto:/ hit was idon ov a lop[e] [cu]ste.'" However, the same lines in the Jesus MS read,
"Eu nas neuer icunde perto:/ Hit wes idon eu a lope
custe.'" In line 1683 of the Cotton MS, however, the
scribe writes, "'Schille ich an utest uppen ow grede.'"
The Jesus MS again has the form eu in this line. These
pronouns appear to be forms of the Anglo-Saxon dative case
eow, exhibiting a weakening of the eo diphthong.

The third person nominative pronouns in <u>The Owl</u> also show similarities to Anglo-Saxon pronouns. For example, the masculine nominative pronoun is the Anglo-Saxon $\underline{h}\underline{\tilde{e}}$, the same pronoun we use in Modern English. The pronoun appears, for example, in lines 191-92: "`Maister Nichole of Guldeforde,/ $\underline{h}\underline{e}$ is wis an war of worde.'"

The <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u> also retains the Anglo-Saxon third person neuter nominative pronoun, <u>hit</u>. The pronoun <u>hit</u> first appears in line 28: "<u>hit</u> was pare hule earding-stowe." The pronoun here appears exactly as it does in Anglo-Saxon texts. However, there is one instance in which the Cotton scribe uses the modern form of the pronoun. In line 118 he writes, "`Iwis <u>it</u> was ure o ger bro per.'" The scribe of the Jesus manuscript uses <u>hit</u> in this line, though.

One interesting feature found in $\underline{\text{The Owl}}$ is the use of the third person masculine nominative $\underline{\text{he}}$ in place of the neuter $\underline{\text{hit}}$. The first instance of this feature appears in

lines 21-24:

[B]et puz ht the dreim pat he were Of harpe 7 pipe, pan he nere;

Bet puz t pat he were i-shote

Of harpe 7 pipe pan of prote.

While the antecedent to the pronoun he, dreim, is a word that derives from an Anglo-Saxon masculine noun, dream (Kurath 1297), the scribe does not retain the Anglo-Saxon grammatical gender of nouns because, in line 136, he also uses the pronoun he to refer to trowe, a word that derives from an Anglo-Saxon neuter noun, treow (Cassidy and Ringler 475). An analysis of other lines containing the pronoun he for the neuter nominative reveals its use is not limited to subordinate clauses as it is in the above lines either. However, although not always the case, he is most often used with action verbs, while hit is used mostly with be verbs.

For the third person feminine nominative pronoun, the scribe uses three different forms: heo, <a

Pos word a z af pe ni z tingale,

T after pare longe tale

he song so lude T so scharpe,

rig t so me grulde schille harpe. (139-42).

The use of <u>he</u> as a feminine pronoun appears to be a scribal error, though, because in the Jesus MS the scribe supplies the correct form <u>heo</u> in line 141. The last feminine pronoun appears in line 19 which reads, "<u>Ho</u> was <u>Pe</u> gladur uor <u>Pe</u> rise." According to Mosse, the use of <u>ho</u> for the third person feminine nominative pronoun is taken from the Anglo-Saxon <u>heo</u> (56). He argues that <u>heo</u> started being pronounced as [ho] even though writers were still spelling it <u>heo</u>. He suggests that the pronoun eventually became written as <u>ho</u> because people were writing the word as they pronounced it (56).

Other nominative pronouns we find in <u>The Owl</u> that retain some of their Anglo-Saxon characteristics are the third person plural pronouns. <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u> contains two different nominative plural pronouns: <u>ho</u> and <u>hi</u>. In lines 75-76 we see the first form of the pronoun:

"'Pin egene bop col-blake g brode, / rigt swo ho weren ipeint mid wode.'" Occasionally, though, the scribe uses heo, which is used for the plural nominative as well as the feminine nominative pronoun in Anglo-Saxon literature. An example of this pronoun appears in the following passage:

pu seist pat ich am manne [loð], an euereuch man is wið me wroð, an me mid stone q lugge pretep, an me tobu[r]ste q tobetep,

an hwanne he hab[b]ep me ofslahe,

heo hongep me on heore hahe,

par ich aschewele pie an crowe

fro[m] pan pe par is isowe. (1607-14)

Line 12, however, gives us an example of another nominative plural pronoun: "hi holde plaiding su pe stronge." It appears that the plural pronoun used here is closer to the Anglo-Saxon pronoun hie than it is to the northern form of the pronoun used in London. According to Mossé, the spelling of this pronoun changed from hie to hi in much the same way that heo changed to ho. Since the final vowel in hie became weakened, people started pronouncing it [hi] and as a result, began to spell it that way as well (58).

In <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u>, the pronoun <u>his</u> is used for both the masculine and the neuter genitive cases. For example, in line 111 we see the masculine case: "Pe faucun was wrop wit <u>his</u> bridde." However, in lines 231-32 we see the same pronoun used for the neuter case: "Teurich ping pat is lof misdede, hit lune puster to <u>his</u> dede.'"

For the feminine genitive case, the scribe uses <u>hire</u>. This pronoun appears, for example, in the following passage:

 \mathcal{P} at wel neg <u>hire</u> fnast atschet, \mathcal{P} awarp a word \mathcal{P} ar-after longe. (41-45)

The Owl and the Nightingale contains several forms of the third person plural genitive pronoun. The form that seems the closest to the Anglo-Saxon pronoun is hoere, as in line 1612: "`heo honge p me on heore hahe.'" Another plural genitive form of the pronoun appears in the following passage:

Herof pe lauedies to me menep, an wel sore me ahwenep: wel neh min heorte wule tochine, hwon ich biholde <u>hire</u> pine. (1563-66)

The form of the plural pronoun that occurs most often is $\underline{\text{hore}}$. One example of this form occurs in line 588: " \mathcal{P} ar men go p oft to $\underline{\text{hore}}$ node.'" Mossé notes that this last form of the pronoun is found only in the Southern and Kentish dialects (59).

For the third person masculine dative case, the scribe uses the pronoun <u>him</u>. One example occurs in the following passage:

Maister Nichole of Guldeforde,
he is wis an war of worde:
he is of dome supe gleu,
Y him is lop eurich unpeu. (191-94)

 $\underline{\text{Him}}$ is also used for the masculine accusative case. One example appears in lines 121-22: "`Worp hit ut mid \mathcal{P} e

For the third person neuter accusative case, the scribe of <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u> uses the same pronoun as is used in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>: <u>hit</u>. For example, lines 95-96 read, "'Vel wostu pat hi dop Parinne, hi fule pair to pe chinne.'"

The accusative case of the third person feminine pronoun used in <u>The Owl</u> is quite similar to the Anglo-Saxon pronoun <u>hīe</u>. It displays, though, the weakening of the final vowel as many other pronouns do. Examples of this pronoun appear in lines 29-31:

[P]e niztingale hi isez,

 $\frac{7}{1}$ hi bihod $\frac{7}{7}$ ouerse $\frac{3}{7}$,

7 puz te wel [vu]l of pare hule.

This same pronoun is also used in relexive constructions, as in lines 199-200: "`Po hule one wile \underline{hi} bipogte,/7 after Pan Pis word upbrogte.'"

Both the dative and the accusative third person plural pronouns show similarities to Anglo-Saxon pronouns, too. While Anglo-Saxon writers use heom for the dative case, the scribe of The Owl uses hom:

Ich wisse men mid min[e] songe,

 \mathcal{F} at hi ne sunegi nowiht longe: I bidde <u>hom</u> \mathcal{F} at heo iswike,

 \mathcal{P} at [heo] heom seolue ne biswike. (927-30)

In this passage the Anglo-Saxon dative also appears as part of a reflexive construction, <u>heom seolue</u>. In addition, the accusative plural pronoun used in <u>The Owl</u>, <u>hi</u>, is also much like its Anglo-Saxon predecessor, <u>hīe</u>. One example of this form appears in lines 107-08: "`ho bro z te his briddes mete,/ bihold his neste, ise $\frac{hi}{2}$ ete.'"

The pronoun paradigm for <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u> is summed up by the following charts.

First Person Pronouns

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nominative	ich, ic		we
Genitive	mine, min, mi	unker	hure, ure
Dative	me	hunke	us
Accusative	me		us
Reflexive	me		

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	Pu	3e, ye
Genitive	Pine, Pin, Pi	ower
Dative	Pe	ow, eu, ov
Accusative		

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	he	he, hit,	ho, he,	hi, ho
		it	heo	
Genitive	his	his	hire	hore,
				heore,
				hire
Dative	him			hom
Accusative	him, hine	hit, hine	hi	hi
Reflexive			hi	heom
				seolve

The Fox and the Wolf

Written between 1275 and 1300 (Dunn and Byrnes 166), in The Fox and the Wolf two different pronouns are used for the first person singular nominative. Line 36 reads, "Be stille, Ich hote, a Godes nome!'" Here the scribe has retained the Anglo-Saxon pronoun, but the c no longer represents the sound [c] by itself. Instead, the language now requires a ch to produce the same sound. Yet in line 40 we see that the [c] sound is disappearing from the first person nominative by this time, for here the scribe writes, "I have leten Pine hennen blod.'" Both forms of the pronoun appear throughout the poem, with the Ich form appearing slightly more frequently. In addition, though it is an orthographical rather than linguistic development, in this poem the first person singular nominative pronouns are always capitalized.

Used only once in the poem, we is the first person plural nominative pronoun. The only occurrence appears in line 64: " \mathcal{T} ene we weren wel awreke!'"

As in <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u>, there are three different pronouns for the first person singular genitive case in <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u>: <u>mine</u>, <u>min</u>, and <u>mi</u>. The form of the pronoun used most often is <u>mine</u>, as in line 100:

"`Nedde lust iben of <u>mine</u> mou pe.'" The pronoun <u>mi</u> is used occasionally, as in line 193: "`For Cristes loue, be <u>mi</u>

prest!'" Min, the form used in The Dream of the Rood, occurs in only one line: " \mathcal{P} ou hauest ben ofte min ifere" (185).

In <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u>, there are just two occurrences of the first person plural genitive pronoun, <u>houre</u>. One occurrence is in line 35: "'<u>Houre</u> hennen Pou dest ofte shome.'" It appears again in line 59: "'Ac weste hit <u>houre</u> cellerer.'"

Although there are no occurrences of the first person plural dative pronoun in this poem, the first person singular dative pronoun does appear. For this case, the scribe always uses \underline{me} , as in line 219: "`And \mathcal{P} erfore \mathcal{P} ou were \underline{me} lo \mathcal{P} .'"

 $\underline{\text{Me}}$ is also used for the first person singular accusative case. For example, line 174 reads, "`Let $\underline{\text{me}}$ adoun to \mathcal{T} e kome.'" However, no first person plural accusative pronouns appear in this poem.

In <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u>, the scribe uses <u>fou</u> for the second person singular nominative pronoun. For example, line 139 reads, "Quod fe vox: <u>fou</u> art ounwiis!'" In addition, the scribe occasionally contracts this pronoun with other words when forming questions, as in line 196: "<u>Woltou</u>, quod the vox, srift ounderfonge?'"

Once more, as in <u>The Owl and the Nightingale</u>, the scribe uses three different second person singular genitive pronouns. p ine is the form used most often. For example,

it appears in line 63: "`All <u>pine</u> bones he wold tobreke.'"

The pronoun <u>pi</u> also appears frequently, as in line 133:

"`Ich am Reneuard, <u>pi</u> frend.'" The form <u>pin</u>, though,

appears only in line 189: "`Neltou?' quod the wolf, `<u>pin</u>

ore!'"

In <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u>, the scribe uses the same pronoun, <u>pe</u>, for both the second person singular dative and accusative cases. One occurrence of the dative case appears in line 34: "Crist <u>pe</u> zeue kare.'" An example of the accusative case, on the other hand, appears in line 225: "Ich <u>pe</u> for zeue at <u>pisse nede.'"</u>

Similarly, the scribe uses the pronoun <u>ou</u> for both the second person plural dative and accusative cases. One passage we contains examples of both of these cases:

Men seide \mathcal{P} at \mathcal{P} ou on \mathcal{P} ine liue Misferdest mid mine wiue.

Ich pe aperseiude one stounde,

And in bedde togedere ou founde:

Ich was ofte ou ful ney

And in bedde togedere ou sey. (211-16)

For the third person masculine pronouns, the scribe of The Fox and the Wolf uses the same forms as are used in The Dream of the Rood, with the exception of the accusative case. For the accusative case, the scribe most often uses him instead of hine, as in lines 70-71: "On auenture, his wiit him brohute/ To one putte wes water inne." This

pronoun is also used in reflexive constructions, as in line 83: "Inou he gon $\underline{\text{him}}$ bi p enche." However, in one line the scribe uses the same form found in $\underline{\text{The Dream of the Rood}}$:

" \mathcal{J} e vox <u>hine</u> ikneu wel for his kun" (123).

The scribe of <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u> also uses Anglo-Saxon pronouns for both the nominative and the accusative third person neuter cases. An example of the nominative case appears in line 128: "'Ich wene <u>hit</u> is Sigrim pat Ich here.'" The accusative case occurs in the following lines:

Ac weste hit houre cellerer

Tat You were icomen her,

He wolde sone after Pe 3 onge

Mid pikes and stones and staues stronge. (59-62)

All of the third person plural pronouns used in <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u> also show similarities to Anglo-Saxon pronouns. For instance, one of the nominative pronouns used in <u>The Fox</u> is <u>hy</u>, which appears to be an alternate spelling for the pronoun used in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, <u>hi</u>. One example of this pronoun occurs in lines 283-84: "To pe putte <u>hy</u> gonnen gon,/ All mid pikes and staues and ston--."

The other nominative plural form that appears in <u>The Fox</u> is <u>hoe</u>, which appears in the following lines:

 \mathcal{P} er freren woneden, swi \mathcal{P} e stey,

 \mathcal{P} o \mathcal{P} at hit com to \mathcal{P} e time

 ${\mathcal F}$ at <u>hoe</u> shulden arisen ine,

Forto suggen here houssong. (262-65)

The previous passage also contains an example of the third person genitive plural pronoun, <u>here</u>. The scribe of <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u> also uses the pronoun <u>hoere</u> for the genitive case, as in the following lines: "Pis ilke frere heyte Ailmer--/ He wes <u>hoere</u> maister curtiler" (271-72). This pronoun exibits a change in the diphthong of the pronoun used in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, <u>heora</u>.

For the third person dative and accusative plural pronouns, the scribe of <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u> uses the same form, which indicates a leveling of inflections. An example of the dative case appears in line 45: "Ich haue hem [hennen] leten eddre-blod.'" An occurrence of the accusative case is found in lines 266-67: "O frere Per wes among/ Of here [freren] slep hem shulde awecche." This pronoun appears to come from the Anglo-Saxon pronoun hem shulde as we che." This displaying a simplification of the diphthong.

In addition, this text has one occurrence of a modern reflexive pronoun:

Pe vox hine ikneu wel for his kun,

And Po eroust knom wiit to him;

For he Poute, mid sommne ginne,

Himself houpbringe, Pene wolf Perinne.

(123-26)

The following charts illustrate the pronoun paradigm for $\underline{\text{The Fox and the Wolf}}$.

First Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	Ich, I	we
Genitive	mine, min, mi	houre
Dative	me	
Accusative	me	

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	Pou	
Genitive	Pine, Pin, Pi	
Dative	Рe	ou
Accusative	Рe	ou

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	he	hit		hy, hoe
Genitive	his			here, hoere
Dative	him			hem
Accusative	him, hine	hit		hem
Reflexive	him, himself			

<u>Piers Plowman</u>

Although Langland is officially considered a speaker of the West Midlands dialect, his home was not far north of the boundary modern linguists distinguish as the limits of the Southwestern dialect, and so his language exhibits many characteristics of southern speech. However, even the pronouns in the Southwestern dialect were, by this time, beginning to look more like Modern English than Anglo-Saxon. In addition, since Langland spent part of his life in London, an examination of Piers Plowman, which was written between 1377 and 1379, provides the opportunity to examine how the London dialect was exerting its influence upon writers with other native dialects at this time.

Langland uses <u>I</u> exclusively as the first person nominative pronoun throughout <u>Piers Plowman</u>. In line 2 of the prologue Langland writes, "<u>I</u> shoop me into [a] shrou[d] as <u>I</u> a sheep weere." According to Mosse, the use of <u>I</u> instead of <u>ich</u> or <u>ik</u> became common during the 14th century, although <u>ich</u> was still used south of the Thames (55). Since Southwestern writers still commonly used <u>ich</u> during the 14th century, the use of <u>I</u> in <u>Piers Plowman</u> could be a conscious effort on Langland's part to imitate the London dialect.

For the first person singular genitive case, Langland uses just one form: my. One occurrence of this pronoun can

be found in line 193 of the prologue: "`For I herde my sire seyn, seuen yeer ypassed.'"

As the scribe of <u>The Dream of the Rood</u> does, Langland uses the pronoun <u>me</u> for the first person singular accusative and dative cases. In addition, he also uses it in reflexive constructions, as in line 7 of the prologue:

"I was wery forwandred and wente <u>me</u> to reste."

While Langland uses the same pronoun as earlier writers did for the first person plural nominative case, we, the forms he uses for the plural genitive, dative, and accusative are slightly different. For the genitive case he uses oure, as in line 32 of the prologue: "it seme? to oure size that swiche men fryue?." This pronoun is quite similar to the one used in The Fox and the Wolf, but Langland has dropped the initial \underline{h} . For the accusative and dative plural cases, Langland uses \underline{vs} . Both cases are present in the following lines from the prologue:

if we grucche of his gamen he wol greuen \underline{vs} alle, Cracchen \underline{vs} or clawen \underline{vs} , and in hise clouches holde

That \underline{vs} lofely per lifer he late \underline{vs} passe." (154-55).

As Bolton explains, the letter \underline{v} is often used as a positional variant of \underline{u} , especially in the initial position (144).

For the second person singular pronouns, Langland uses what are essentially the same pronouns as found in The Dream of the Rood, although they do exibit some change. For example, Langland uses pow for the nominative case, as in line 26 of Passus I: " pow worfe pe wers whan pow werche sholdest.'" Even though the word does not look the same as the Anglo-Saxon pronoun pu, the words are still pronounced the same. Occasionally, though, Langland replaces the thorn in the pronoun with a th. An example of this form appears in line 215 of the prologue: "Thow my test bettre meete myst on Maluerne hilles."

Langland does use the Anglo-Saxon pronoun ρ in for the second person singular genitive case. However, sometimes he drops the final \underline{n} from the pronoun. Examples of both of these forms appear in lines 40-41 of Passus I: "For ρ e fend and ρ if flessh folwen togidere,/ And that [shende ρ] ρ is soule; [set] it in ρ in herte.'"

For the accusative case, Langland uses a form quite similar to the one found in The Dream of the Rood. One occurrence of this pronoun is found in line 125 of the prologue: "Crist kepe Pee sire kyng.'"

Although it is spelled differently, the pronoun Langland uses for the second person plural nominative case, ye, is pronounced the same as the Anglo-Saxon pronoun ge. One occurrence of this pronoun is found in line 13 of Passus I: "`wolde pat ye wrouz te as his word teche .'"

For the second person plural genitive, dative, and accusative cases, Langland uses what are essentially modern pronouns. Youre, the genitive pronoun, appears in line 43 of Passus I: "`[A] madame, mercy', quod I, `me like? wel youre wordes.'" Langland uses the pronoun yow for both the accusative and dative cases. Both of these cases are found in the following lines from Passus I:

For he is fader of feip, and formed yow alle Bope with fel and with face, and yaf yow fyue wittes

For to worshipe hym p erwip while ye ben here. (14-16)

In addition, Langland uses <u>yow</u> as part of a reflexive construction, which appears in line 201 of the prologue:
"`For hadde ye rattes youre [raik] ye kou e no t rule yowselue.'"

Instead of using an Anglo-Saxon form for the third person feminine nominative pronoun in Piers Plowman, Langland uses she. In line 75 of Passus I he writes, "'Holi chirche I am,' quod she; 'ow ou test me to knowe.'" Mosse remarks that the form she was used almost exclusively in the East Midlands dialect (56). Therefore, Langland's use of this pronoun may indicate an imitation of the London dialect. However, M. L. Samuels argues that both heo and she existed in Langland's own dialect (243).

For the third person feminine genitive case, though, Langland uses the same pronoun as is used by Anglo-Saxon writers,
<a href="http

By the time Langland wrote <u>Piers Plowman</u>, the <u>h</u> had been dropped from the third person neuter nominative case, resulting in our modern pronoun, <u>it</u>. Langland writes, "I slombered in a slepyng, <u>it</u> sweyed so murye" (Prologue,

1. 10). Langland also uses this form for the neuter accusative case, as in lines 167-69 of the prologue:"`Reson me shewe p / To bugge a belle of bras or of bri z t siluer/ And knytten it on a coler for oure commune profit.'" Mosse says the dropping of the h occurred because it was weakened in its unstressed position (56). After the 14th century, it permanently replaced hit as the neuter nominative pronoun in literature (Mossé 56).

In <u>Piers Plowman</u> the pronoun used for the third person plural nominative is p ei. Line 31 of the prologue reads, "And somme chosen [hem] chaffare; p ei cheueden p e bettre." The use of the <u>th</u> form of the pronoun reveals the Scandinavian influence on the language. According to Baugh and Cable, <u>hi</u> would have been the normal development of the Anglo-Saxon pronoun, but the influence of the Scandinavians caused <u>hie</u> to be replaced with p ei, which comes from the Old Norse p eir (158).

For the third person plural genitive, Langland uses hire. For example, lines 28-30 of the prologue read, "As Ancres and heremites pat holden hem in hire selles, Coueiten no 3 t in contree to [cairen] aboute/ For no likerous liflode hire likame to plese."

Langland uses <u>hem</u> for both the third person plural dative and accusative cases, as does the scribe of <u>The Fox and the Wolf</u>. In addition, this pronoun is also used reflexively, as in line 20 of the prologue: "Some putten <u>hem</u> to plou 7, pleiden ful selde."

In <u>Piers Plowman</u> Langland uses <u>hym</u> for the masculine accusative and dative cases. This pronoun appears, for example, in lines 172-3 of the prologue: "`And if <u>hym</u> list for to laike penne loke we mowen,/ And peeren in his presence pe while <u>hym</u> pleye like.'"

Langland use the Anglo-Saxon pronouns he and his for the third person masculine nominative and genitive cases. However, sometimes he uses another form for the genitive case. One occurrence of this pronoun is in lines 78-79 of the prologue: "Were fe Bisshop yblessed and worf boff e hise eris/ His seel sholde no to be sent to decyue fe peple."

The following charts illustrate the pronoun paradigm for Piers Plowman.

First Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	I	we
Genitive	my	oure
Dative	me	vs
Accusative	me	vs
Reflexive	me	

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	Pow, thow	уе
Genitive	Pi, Pin	youre
Dative		yow
Accusative	Рее	yow
Reflexive		yowselue

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	he	it	she	Pei
Genitive	his, hise	his	hire	hire, hir
Dative	hym			hem
Accusative	hym	it		hem
Reflexive	hymself	·		hem

Parliament of Fowls

Chaucer's <u>Parliament of Fowls</u> serves as an example of the London dialect at roughly the same time that Langland wrote <u>Piers Plowman</u>. Analyzing a text representative of the London dialect allows me to compare the London dialect to the Southwestern dialect to determine how similar the two dialects are at this point. By the time Chaucer wrote <u>Parliament of Fowls</u> (1373-1378), the pronouns used in the London dialect had changed considerably from the pronouns used in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>. However, Chaucer still retains some Anglo-Saxon pronouns in addition to the ones that still survive in the language today.

Chaucer's third person pronouns show the most similarities to the pronouns used in The Dream of the Rood. For example, Chaucer uses the Anglo-Saxon third person neuter nominative pronoun in addition to the modern form. In lines 27-8 he writes, "To rede forth https://doi.org/10.1001/j.com/hit/ gan me so delite/ That all that day me thoughte but a lyte." Chaucer usually uses it, though, as in lines 18-19: "Agon it happede me for to behold/ Upon a bok, was write with letteres olde." Although he sometimes uses hit for the nominative pronoun, Chaucer uses the modern form it in the accusative case.

Like the Anglo-Saxon writers, Chaucer uses <u>his</u> for the third person neuter genitive pronoun. One occurrence of this form appears in the following lines:

For overal where that I myn eyen caste

Were trees clad with leves that ay shal laste,

Eche in <u>his</u> kynde, of colour fresh and greene

As emeroude, that joye was to seene. (172-74)

Chaucer also uses some Ango-Saxon forms for the third person feminine pronouns. For example, he uses <u>hire</u> for the genitive pronoun: "And in a prive corner in desport/ Fond I Venus and <u>hire</u> proter Richesse" (11. 260-61). He also uses an alternate spelling of this pronoun, <u>hyre</u>: "Hyre gilte heres with a goldene thred/ Ibounden were, untressed as she lay" (11. 267-68).

In addition, Chaucer uses the Anglo-Saxon pronoun <u>hire</u> for the feminine dative case. For example, in line 275 he writes, "And Bachus, god of wyn, sat <u>hire</u> besyde."

Chaucer uses slightly different forms of the Anglo-Saxon feminine accusative pronoun too. In line 270, for example, he uses hir, "But thus I let hir [Venus] lie."

This pronoun is just slightly different from the Anglo-Saxon pronoun hire, showing a reduction of the final e.

Chaucer uses another form in which he substitutes a y for the i used in the Anglo-Saxon pronoun: "Men myght hyre
[Venus] sen--and sothly for to say" (1. 270).

However, for the third person feminine nominative pronoun, Chaucer uses <u>she</u> as Langland does. One example of this pronoun appears in line 216: "<u>She</u> couchede hem after as they shulde serve."

Chaucer does not use an Anglo-Saxon pronoun for the third person nominative plural case. Instead, he always uses the Scandinavian pronoun they. This pronoun appears, for example, in lines 55-56: "And rightful folk shul gon after they deye/ To hevene."

In <u>Parliament of Fowls</u>, Chaucer uses two different forms for the third person genitive plural case. One form, <u>here</u>, appears in lines 39-40: "Thanne telleth it <u>here</u> speche and al the blysse/ That was betwix hem til the day gan mysse." An occurrence of the other form, <u>her</u>, can be found in lines 8-9: "For al be that I knowe nat Love in dede,/ Ne wot how that he quiteth Folk <u>her</u> hyre."

Chaucer uses the pronouns found in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, the same ones used today, for the third person masculine nominative and genitive cases: <u>he</u> and <u>his</u>. However, Chaucer uses <u>hym</u> for both the dative and accusative cases, once again indicating the leveling of inflections that occurred during the Middle English period. This pronoun is an orthographical variant of the pronoun used in <u>The Dream of the Rood</u>, <u>him</u>.

For the first person singular nominative case in Parliament of Fowls, Chaucer always uses \underline{I} . For example, in lines 6-7 Chaucer wrote, "So sore, iwis, that whan \underline{I} on hym thynke,/ Nat wot \underline{I} well wher that \underline{I} flete or synke." Similarly, for the first person plural nominative case, Chaucer uses only \underline{we} .

Like the previous authors, Chaucer uses more than one form for the first person singular genitive case. One form that he uses is myn, a variant of the pronoun used in The Dream of the Rood, min. It appears, for example, in line 169: "With that myn hand he tok in his anon." However, Chaucer also uses the modern form of the pronoun, as in the following lines: "All this mene I be Love that my felynge/ Astonyeth with his wondyrful werkynge" (4-5).

For the first person plural genitive case, Chaucer uses a form that exhibits a transition between the Anglo-Saxon pronoun <u>ure</u> and the Modern English form <u>our</u>. It appears in line 53-54: "`And that <u>oure</u> present worldes

lyves space/ Nys but a maner deth, what wey we trace.'"

Like Langland, Chaucer uses <u>thow</u> for the second person singular nominative case. This pronoun is found in line 116 which reads, "Be <u>thow</u> myn helpe in this, for <u>thow</u> mayst best!"

For the second person dative cases, Chaucer uses the for the singular pronoun and yow for the plural. The dative singular case appears in lines 157-58: "`But dred the not to come into this place,/ For this writyng nys nothyng ment bi the.'" One example of the plural pronoun is found in line 16: "On bokes rede I ofte, as I yow tolde." Chaucer also uses yow for the accusative plural pronoun, as in line 138: "`This strem yow ledeth to the sorweful were.'"

The pronoun paradigm for <u>Parliament of Fowls</u> can be summed up by the following charts.

First Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	I	we
Genitive	my, myn	oure
Dative	me	
Accusative	me	

Second Person Pronouns

	Singular	Plural	
Nominative	thow		
Genitive	thy, thyn		
Dative	the	yow	
Accusative		yow	
Reflexive	thyself		

Third Person Pronouns

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	he	it, hit	she	they
Genitive	his	his	hire, hyre	her, here
Dative	hym		hire	hem
Accusative	hym	it	hyre, hir	hem
Reflexive				hemself

Conclusion

Though all four of the texts I analyze are written in Middle English, we can see that Middle English was really a language in transition. Indeed, as Chaucer himself notes in the prohemium of Book II of <u>Troilus and Criseyde</u>, "Ye knowe ek that in forme of speche is chaunge" (22). Although I found many other differences between the texts in terms of syntax, verb conjugations, and vocabulary, to name a few, the differences in the pronouns alone demonstrate that the language is not static at this time -- nor at any other time for that matter.

The changes in pronouns serve as a microcosm of the larger changes in the language which eventually result in the formulation of the London standard. Because they are so frequently used, it would seem that pronouns would be the least likely to change. One might think that the constant use of such a limited set of words as pronouns in daily discourse and continual copying of texts would tend to preserve their forms. And yet, as this study demonstrates, the pronouns illustrate the evolution of the language toward the London standard.

The changes in pronouns demonstrate the tendency of the language toward simplification. For example, the number of pronoun forms have decreased from fifty-three in Bright's paradigm to some thirty-four used in Chaucer's Parliament of Fowls. Moreover, the dual case still in evidence in The Owl and the Nightingale (circa 1200) has disappeared by Chaucer's time. By the late fourteenth century, the years of Langland and Chaucer, the secon person plural pronouns forms have been reduced to the y-forms (yow). In the same era, the first person nominative pronoun has largely been simplified to I, although Chaucer occasionally uses the southern ich for emphasis or, as in the Reeve's Tale, ik for characterization (Fisher 964), both exceptions, however, noteworthy in that they represent conscious variations from the standard. This movement toward simplification and reduction of forms indicates the movement toward a standard dialect.

The London standard becomes the dominant dialect, certainly by the late fourteenth century, a dominance evidenced by the evolution of the pronouns. The language Piers Plowman, for example, shows that the London dialect has had an impact upon the writers in the southwest by 1375. While the London dialect may not have become the standard dialect by this time, the language was certainly moving in that direction. Norman Blake sums up the situation well when he writes,

"In the medieval period change in language is a constant theme, particularly towards the end of the period when men were beginning to understand what advantages might accrue from having a

standard language, for a standard was then beginning to emerge" (41).

For writers such as Langland, these advantages would be the cachet of acceptance by the larger urban audience, the imprimatur of the more elite literate classes.

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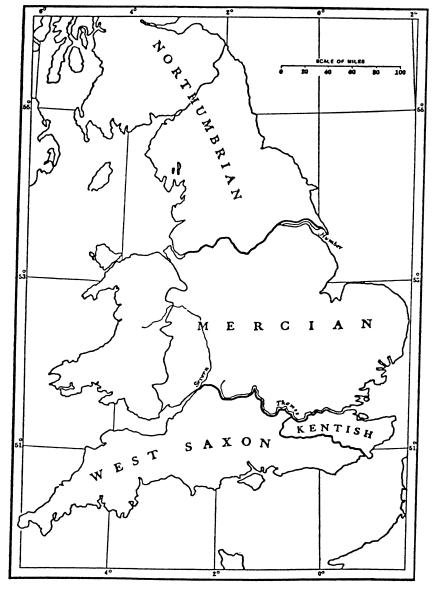
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Appendix

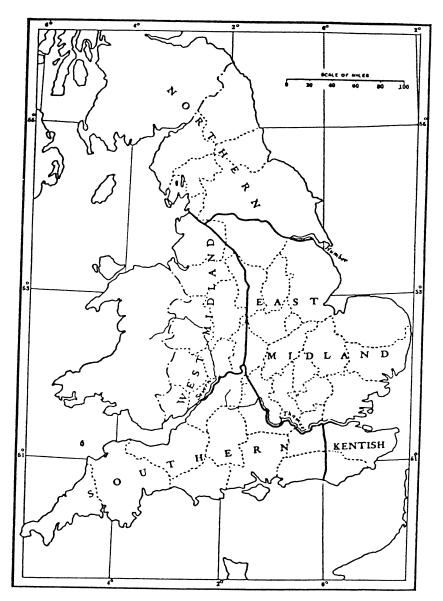
Map of Old English Dialect



THE DIALECTS OF OLD ENGLISH

Note. Only the major dialect areas are indicated. That the Saxon settlements north of the Thames (see § 34) had their own dialect features is apparent in Middle English.

Map of Middle English Dialects



THE DIALECTS OF MIDDLE ENGLISH