

BETHEL COLLEGE HISTORICAL
LIBRARY

M North Newton, Kansas

Class No. 439.4 Date Received

Book No. 659p Donor

Accession No. 7699 Fund

This book should be returned at the end of two weeks; otherwise a fine of 2 cents a day is charged for each additional day.

*book card
in back*

-ONS ÔAMET PLAUTDIETSCH-

Ons ôamet Plautdietsch schiens haft keenen Weat
Aus mau tom Ulkse enn tom Dommheidriewe!
Daut mucht eck onse Omkes doch enriewe,
Enn wann uck keena Obacht jeft enn heat.

Daut "bätre" "Hoagdietsch" wôat je'eef, fe'eat;
Dôa seakt maun racht to råde enn to schriewe.
"Doch ôba nich biem plompen Plautdietsch bliewe!"
So sajt maun, enjebildt enn gaunz fekeat.

Uck du kunnst secha hoach erhôwe wôare,
Uck du hast maunche Weisheit ons jeleat;
Tiet es et, daut maun sick to di bekeat
Enn Busse deit enn lat daut lãaje Nôare!

Doeh ôba nich de eajne Môdasprôak feschmiete
Tom blossen Spösse enn tom Resseriete!

*

THE PHONOLOGY OF PLAUTDIETSCH,
on temporary loan to the BETHEL
COLLEGE HISTORICAL LIBRARY. Un-
less otherwise notified kindly
return to J. W. GOERZEN, BOX 10,
RILEY, ALBERTA, CANADA, by March
1952.

J. W. Goerzen, 166 Robina Ave., Toronto, Canada,
October 31st, 1950.



1 x 1 1/2

J. W. Goerzen.

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

The undersigned hereby certify that they have
read and recommend to the C o m m i t t e e on
G r a d u a t e S t u d i e s for acceptance
the following dissertation on

-THE PHONOLOGY

OF

P L A U T D I E T S C H -

submitted by J. W. Goerzen in partial fulfill-
ment of the requirements for the degree of Master
of Arts.

F. OWEN

M. H. Scargill.

Ernest W. White

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Department of Modern Languages

THE PHONOLOGY OF FLAUTDIETSCH

A Thesis submitted

to

The Committee on Graduate Studies

by

J. W. Goerzen

Edmonton, Alberta

April, 1950

-TABLE OF CONTENTS-

Introductory Remarks.....	1
I. PLAUTDIETSCH, A LOW GERMAN DIALECT	
Its Earlier Locale Around the Vistula.....	5
Settlements in Russia Prior to World War II..	6
Branch Colonization.....	7
Settlements in Canada.....	10
II. THE DIFFERENT SPEECH SOUNDS	
The Vowels.....	16
The Consonants.....	22
Peculiarities of the Palatals.....	26
The \hat{O} -sound and the Palatals.....	29
Suggested Principles of Spelling.....	32
The Semi-vowels and Shwa.....	37
III. PLAUTDIETSCH ON THE PRINTED PAGE	
Translations.....	41
Von Freaja.....	44
A Collection of Plautdietsch Poems.....	46
IV. THE GERMANIC CHARACTER OF PLAUTDIETSCH	
The State of the Explosives.....	59
The Spirants.....	66
Umlaut in the Noun.....	67
Umlaut in the Verb.....	69
Umlaut in the Adjective.....	73
The Ablaut of the Verb.....	74
V. THE MOTIONAL ASPECTS OF THE VERB	
The Basic Root of the Verb.....	83
The Significance of R, L, and a Sibilant..	84
VI. PLAUTDIETSCH IN RELATION TO ENGLISH AND GERMAN	
The Verb Forms.....	94
The Tenses.....	98
The Noun.....	105
The Pronoun.....	111-118

Introductory Remarks

I was born in the settlement of Sagraadowka, the pioneers of which had come from the Molotschna. Both of these settlements were located in the southern Ukraine, the former on the River Ingulez in the Governmental District of Kherson, the latter on the Molotschnaja in the Governmental District of Tauris. It was the second or New Colony of immigrants from the Vistula Region of Northeastern Europe, the Chortitza Settlement the first or Old Colony, having been begun in 1787; the other around the turn of the century.

The native language of the settlers was Plautdietsch, a form of Low German as it was spoken around the Vistula Region. Church services and schools were conducted in High German.

The Low German dialects of the Chortitza and Molotschna settlements were not identical, although the respective people could understand one another. The former was marked by the infinitive ending -n, and by the preservation of older Germanic remnants in words like: jeneiw: genau: particular; heiwe: haue: to mow; deiwe: daue:

to thaw; Heleiwst; Heiaufst; haying season. The -au forms were used by many of the Molotschna settlers and marked a High German influence. But this does not mean that the forms used by the Chortitza settlers were altogether absent from the speech of the Molotschna pioneers and its ~~em~~migrants.

A further difference in the two dialects was the rounding element in many of the vowels, especially before the gutturals. The Molotschna settler would say: Boak, Beaka: book, books; the Chortitza settler would round these diphthongs.

Being a native of the Sagradowka settlement I speak the Molotschna dialect; at least I did until I was eleven years old. It was then we left the Ukraine and came to Canada, moving to Tofield, Alberta, on the west shore of the Beaverhill Lake, where I grew up with Low German or Plautdietsch speaking children representing different old country localities with their respective dialectal flavors.

It was in the early forties that I began to write verses in this dialect. Through the years I developed a system of writing and collected linguistic material and occasional verses. But it was when I translated several

books of the New Testament into Plautdietsch that I began to realize the beauties of the language and devoted all my spare time to it. Around the middle forties I heard of a book in this language for the first time, and about a year later I got J. H. Janzen's one act play: De Bildung: Education. Since then I have become acquainted with the writings of Mr. A. Dyck's: Koop enn Bua op Reise, and his one act play: De Fria.

In corresponding with different people in search of data for the introductory chapter to this thesis I discovered that Dr. W. Quiring had, in 1927, submitted a doctor's thesis dealing with the Chortitza dialect to the Faculty of Philosophy of the Ludwig-Maximilian University in München. I received a copy of this book from the author on November 16th, 1949, after the linguistic part of my thesis had been completed in manuscript form.

All work in connection with the linguistic part of the thesis is strictly original, having been approached by way of the dialectal form as we speak it at home. It is to be remembered that the Sagradowka settlement was composed of emigrants from the Molotschna and that the dialect used in this thesis is therefore predominantly of

that flavor.

Since, at the time of writing of this thesis to my knowledge there was nothing in print that dealt with this subject matter, much that appears is of a descriptive nature. The topic has merely been touched upon, since a complete survey and study would be beyond the scope and limits of this thesis. For this reason I have dealt only with the salient features of this thesis, the historical approach having been limited to a few allusions in connection with ablaut and comparing certain Plautdietsch words with Anglo-Saxon.

The material for the linguistic part of this thesis was collected from about 1941 to the present by means of analytical incursions into the dialect.

I am indebted to Dr. W. Quiring for most of the data relating to the settlements in Russia. They are only suggestive and for the most part appear in condensed form.

"The motional aspects of the verb" is a descriptive phrase that I have myself coined, since this phenomenon has not been previously mentioned in philological literature, at least, not to my knowledge.

CHAPTER I

PLAUTDIETSCH, A LOW GERMAN DIALECT

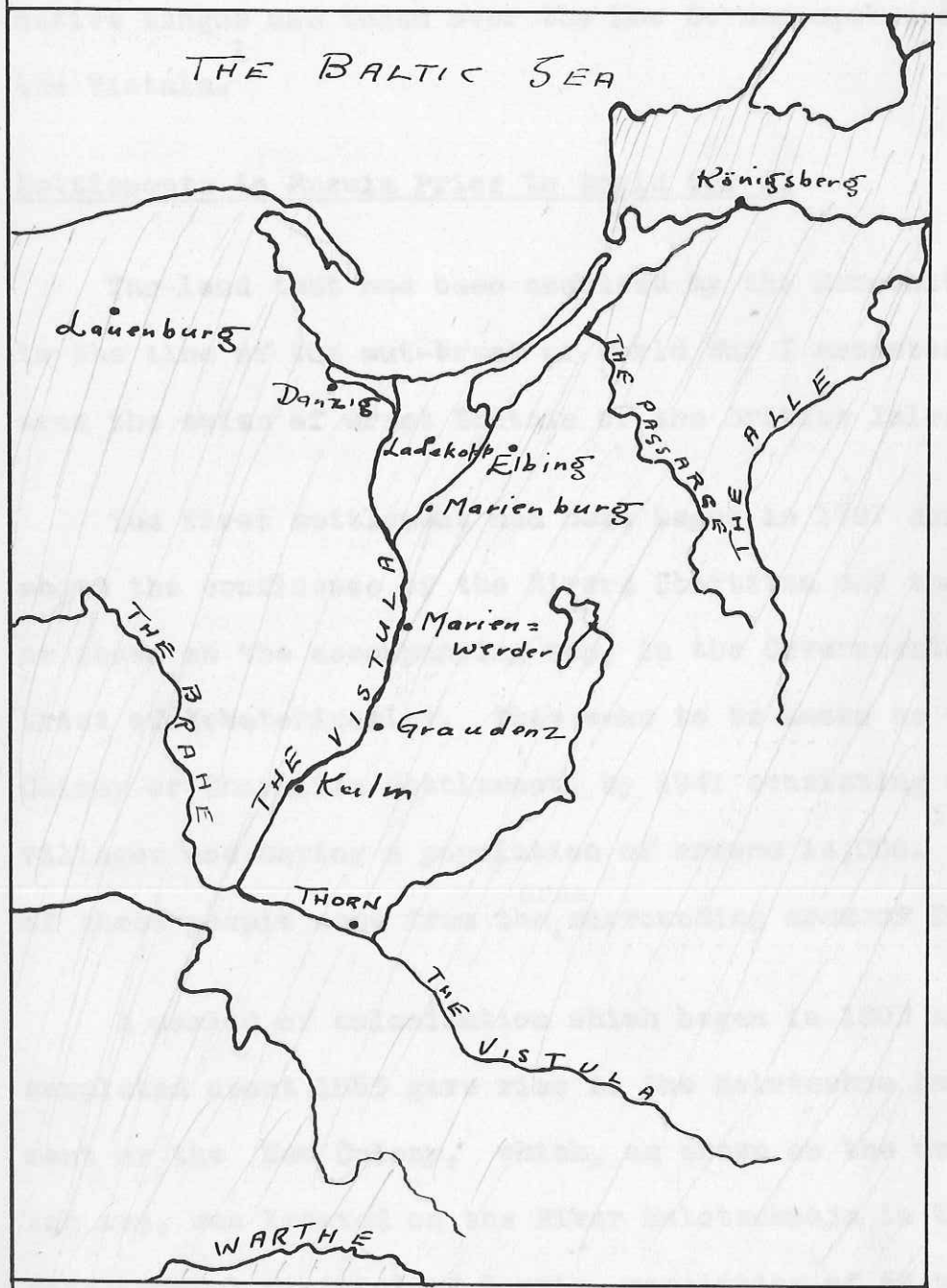
Its Earlier Locale Around the Vistula

Plautdietsch in its different forms was spoken by the people around the Vistula. The first Mennonite emigrants from here took with them a dialect form as it was spoken around Danzig to the north of the Great Werder,¹ a place name designating the land lying between a river and a non-flowing or stagnant body of water. They founded the Old Colony or Chortitza Settlement in 1787. The emigrants of 1804 and later took with them the general Low Prussian dialect as it was used in everyday intercourse.

Many of the Mennonites, descendants of the Anabaptist movement in the Low Countries during the earlier part of the sixteenth century, had moved to the Vistula under religious and political pressure. The term Mennonite appears in Prussian documents in 1572 for the first time.²

Ethnologically these people are of Flemish and Frisian descent, the former having sought refuge in Frisia because of religious persecution under the Spaniards.³

1: W. Mitzka: Grundzüge nordostdeutscher Sprachgeschichte, p. 58
 2: J. Quiring: Die Mundart von Chortitza in Südrussland, p. 3
 3: " " " " " " " " p. 42



The earlier locale of Plautdietsch

6

They had by the end of the eighteenth century lost their native tongue and taken over the Low German spoken around the Vistula.¹

Settlements in Russia Prior to World War II

The land that had been acquired by the Mennonites up to the time of the out-break of World War I amounted to an area the size of Great Britain or the British Isles.²

The first settlement had been begun in 1787 somewhat above the confluence of the Rivers Chortitza and the Dnepr, as shown on the accompanying map, in the Governmental District of Yekaterinoslav. This came to be known as the Old Colony or Chortitza Settlement, by 1941 consisting of 19 villages and having a population of around 14,000.³ Most of these people came from the ^{area} surrounding ~~area~~ Danzig.

A period of colonization which began in 1803 and was completed about 1865 gave rise to the Molotschna Settlement or the New Colony, which, as shown on the accompanying map, was located on the River Molotschnaja in the Governmental District of Tauris, consisting of 60 villages.

- 1: W. Mitzka: Grundzüge nordostd. Sprachgeschichte, p. 58
2: G. Fast: Mennonite Life, April, 1947, p. 18
3: " " " " " " p. 19

A settlement of 10 villages was begun in 1855 on the "Trakt", a great salt road from the middle Volga to Lake Elton and the mouth of the Volga; this was in the Governmental District of Samara. Old Samara, consisting of 8 villages was settled in the period from 1859-70 on the River Kondurtscha.

There are no exact data, but it is estimated that about 15 to 18 thousand speakers of Plautdietsch were settled in Russia between 1788 and 1860.¹

Branch Colonization

When the older settlements became overpopulated branches were established, being located at first in the neighboring governmental districts, but later in the Caucasus, on the Volga, in Turkestan, and finally in Siberia.

There were 55 villages established in the Ukraine as branches of the Chortitza Settlement between the years 1864-1909; a further 22 were located in Northeast Russia, of which 7 were in the Governmental District of Saratov, and 15 in Orenburg, totalling 77 branch villages.

The Molotschna gave rise to over 44 branch villages

1: W. Quiring: Die Mundart von Ch. in Südrussland, p.26

in the Ukraine, 23 in the Caucasus, and 26 in Northeast Russia. Besides these there were around a thousand families scattered in the Crimea, living in smaller groups or on Khutors or country estates.

Around 1880 and a few years later a group of people moved from the "Trakt" and Old Samara, finally arriving in Turkestan south of the city of Aulie-Ata, founding 5 villages.

The first Mennonite settlers migrated to Siberia in 1899; they consisted of a few families from the Governmental Districts of Tauris and Samara, settling in the vicinity of Omsk. In the Governmental District of Slavgorod there was a settlement of 58 villages, in 1925 totalling over 13,000 inhabitants. Pavlodar, in the Governmental District of Semipalatinsk consisted of 13 villages, 17 others being scattered in various Governmental Districts of Siberia.

According to these data the immigrants from the Vistula founded around 100 villages; these in turn upon becoming overcrowded gave rise to over 250 others.

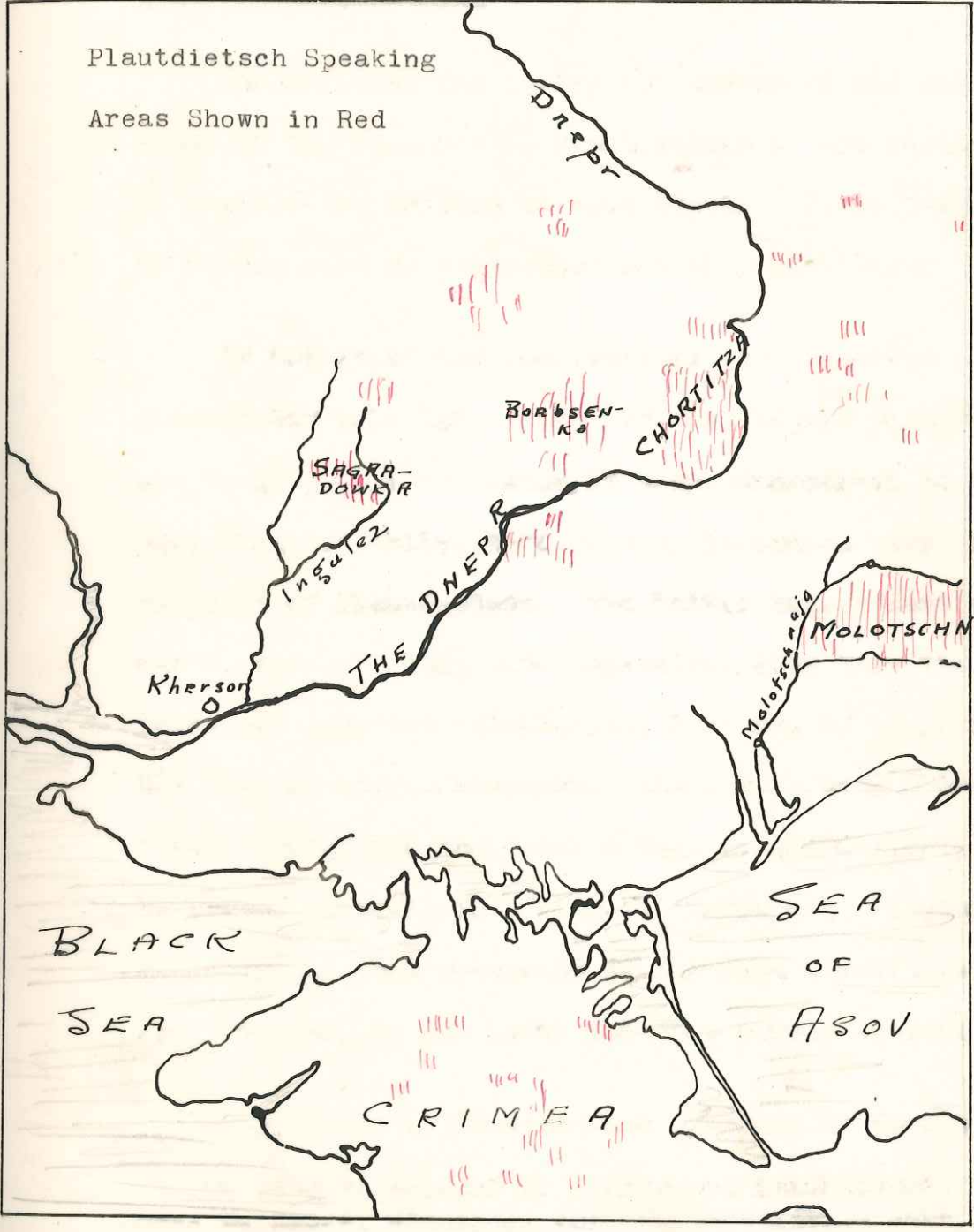
Of the branch settlements in the Ukraine Sagradowka was my native home. It was located to the west of the Ingulez and consisted of 16 villages, Nikolaifeld being my birth place and Schönau the village in which I grew up to the age of ten.

These were the speakers of Plautdietsch, many localities having their own dialectal peculiarities. It is to be noted though that the Molotschna Plautdietsch seemed to have gained the ascendancy over the other forms in the mind of the people. It was a standing joke to imitate the Chortitza dialect and to find it whimsical, although, linguistically, in many of its forms it may be more nearly related to Old Low German than the Molotschna trend which seemed to show a greater degree of High German influence.

The fate of these settlements subsequent to World War I and during World War II need not be dealt with here. Their tragedy is summed up in: Sie sind nicht mehr!

The term Mennonite is to be avoided in a linguistic study, since it is really an alternative for the epithet: Anabaptist: Taufgesinnter. It has no linguistic or ethnological significance.

There were speakers of Plautdietsch around Mariupol on the Sea of Asov who were not Mennonites. Furthermore, a great body of Mennonites in North America are of Swiss origin and have nothing in common with Low German, linguistically.



CHORTITZA, MOLOTSCHNA, and SAGRADOWKA in the Ukraine

Settlements in Canada

The material for a complete survey of the settlements of the speakers of Plautdietsch is not available at the time of writing of this thesis. It is therefore to be regarded as suggestive and not complete.

If ambiguity and confusion is to be avoided the term "Mennonite" will have to be left out of the picture. There are large groups of "Pennsylvanian" Mennonites in Canada who, linguistically, have nothing in common with the speakers of Plautdietsch. The latter have a Russian-German background, and, ethnologically, stem from the Frisian Isles and adjacent territories, that is, if we go back to the time of the Reformation. The others have a Swiss-German background and speak a High German dialect, the so-called "Pennsylvania Dutch". There are, of course, other groups that subscribe to the same nomenclature, who, however, do not speak this Low German dialect.

The number of Plautdietsch speakers in Canada*

*I wish to express my thanks and indebtedness to Rev. B. Ewert, Winnipeg, for the information here appearing in condensed form, also for the data in connection with the Plautdietsch speaking areas in Manitoba and Sask.

according to statistics recently compiled is around 88,000.* Among these there will be dialectal variations. The form used in this thesis is predominantly that of the Molotschna settlement in Southern Russia. Though the differences are considerable in some cases, they are still consistent. The Chertiza dialect, for example, ends the infinitive in -n, affixes this final n to many nouns ending in a short vowel or shwa, has differing forms for the personal pronouns, e. g.: ju for the Molotschna junt, etc. These differences, however, do not cause difficulties in understanding one another.

Speakers of Plautdietsch are to be found in Canada in the following districts: Black Creek, Vancouver Island; Vancouver, Lulu Island, Strawberry Hill, Matsqui, Mission City, Pitt Meadows, Coghlan, Abbotsford, Arnel, Yarrow, Sardis, Chilliwack, and Agassiz. With the exception of Black Creek these places are to be found in the Fraser Valley, fairly near to the coast. But there are smaller localities in the inland of B. C., such as Oliver, Renata, and Kelowna.

*These data have been compiled through different church organizations, thus figures may actually be higher.

In Alberta there is a large settlement around Coaldale. Others are located at Grassy Lake, Rosemary, Namaka, Swalwell, Acme, Sunny Slope, Didsbury, Gem, Vauxhall, Lindbrook, Toffield, Ryley, La Glace and vicinity. Of especial interest might be the settlement at Fort Vermilion which was begun in 1932. There are about sixty five families there. Information for Alberta is not complete.

The data for Saskatchewan and Manitoba are more complete. They have been supplied by Rev. B. Ewert, as already noted. Plautdietsch speaking localities are to be found at the following places: (in Saskatchewan): Knollys, Shaunavon, Frobisher, Nottingham, Carduff, Gainsboro and vicinity, Newfield, Truax, Moose Jaw; the territory lying ^{/between} Swift Current, Vanguard, and Ernfold; Gull Lake, Roseammon, Sidewood, Shackleton, Main Centre, Gouldtown, Eskbank, Demaine, Beechy, Lucky Lake, Gilroy, Central Butte, Elbow, Tugaske, Eyebrow, Regina, Balconie, Indian Head, Wolseley, Duff, Melville, Rokeby, Foam Lake, Tokomis, Venn, Watrous, Drake, Lanigan, Leroy, Watson, Guernsey, Young, Viscount, Colonsay, Davidson, Hanley, Dundurn, Saskatoon, Crystal,

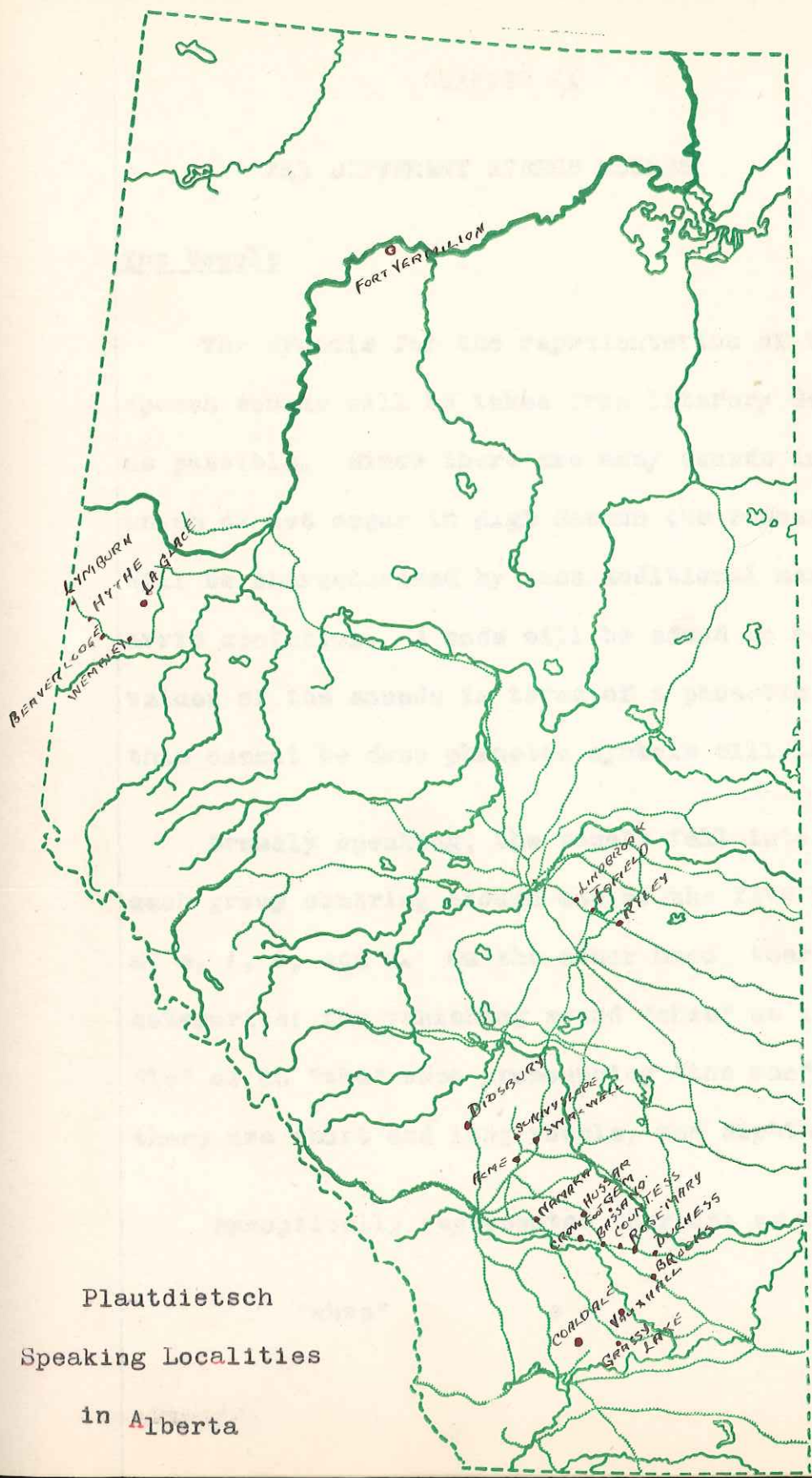
Harris, Kinhop, North Rosetown, Herschel, Kerrobert, Macklin, Wilkie, North Battleford, Meadow Lake District, Capasin, Bodmin, Madison, Borden, Langham, Warman, Dalmeny, Mennon, Hepburn, Waldheim, Laird, Cablton, Resthern, Hague, Osler, Gronlid, Carrot River, Ridgedale, Brooksby, Moose Range, and Nipawin.

In Manitoba there are the following: Swan River, Winnipegosis, Petersfield, Balmoral, Westburne, Portage La Prairie, Oakville, Elie, Alexander, Brandon, Starbuck, Springstein, Homewood, Boissevain, Arnaud, Killarney, Crystal City, Manitou, Morden, Winkler, Plum Coulee, Altona, Gretna, Rosenfeld, Morris, Niverville, St. Anne, Winnipeg, Steinbach, Grand Point, Vits, and Piney.

The data for Ontario are not complete: A few of the places to be mentioned are: Leamington, Virgil, Vineland, Kitchener, St. Catharines, Port Rowan, New Hamburg, and Hespeler.*

There are large groups of speakers of Plautdietsch in the United States, Mexico, and South America, but they will not be dealt with here.

*1946 Year Book: Mennoniten Brüdergemeinden von Nord-
/Amerika.



Plautdietsch
 Speaking Localities
 in Alberta

CHAPTER II

THE DIFFERENT SPEECH SOUNDS

The Vowels

The symbols for the representation of the different speech sounds will be taken from literary German as far as possible. Since there are many sounds in Plautdietsch which do not occur in High German the sounds to be added will be characterized by some additional mark so as to avoid confusion. A code will be added to represent the values of the sounds in terms of a phonetic alphabet; where this cannot be done phonetic symbols will be devised.

Broadly speaking, the vowels fall into five groups, each group centring around one of the five primary vowels: a, e, i, o, and u. On the other hand, there are four categories: the vanishing sound "shwa" as in the French "le" or in "the" when pronouncing "the man" rapidly. Then there are short and long vowels, and diphthongs.

Synoptically represented they are as follows:

"shwa"

e

short:	a	e	i	o	u
long:	aa	ee	ie	oo	
	a	e	i	o	u
		ä		ô	
diphthongs:	au	ei			
		ea	ia	oa	
		äa		ôa	ua

The values of the short a, e, i, o, and u correspond to those of the phonetic alphabet: (a), (é), (i), (ó), and (ú). Long a is (a:); ee is a sound that does not have an exact equivalent in either German or English. It is a slightly less open vowel than the ay in English day, pronounced with a greater laxness of the musculature. The symbol ä represents phonetic (e:); the diaereses are not to be taken as a sign of umlaut. Phonetic (i:) appears as ie and i. In words like mi, di, ji, and wi it is better not to write: mie, die, jie, and wie because, though the individual word is pronounced (mi:), et cetera, within the sentence in ordinary speech it becomes short in quantity and quite frequently also in quality. The same is true in the case of the ee-sound, and the oo-sound.

High German (e:) finds its counterpart in Plautdietsch ee, which, incidentally, is the unrounded umlaut of oo. Cf. O.E. forms: gōsi - gōsi - gēs, (unrounding of vowel).

As a word the definite article (neuter singular is daut) is (de:i), singular and plural; in normal speech however it is reduced in quantity and quality. When used as a demonstrative the vowel remains long, otherwise it is reduced to shwa. The same is true of he: he, and of se: she or they.

Words as they are written today are seldom phonetic patterns of the sounds which they are supposed to symbolize. Furthermore, there is a difference between the individual word and that same word in the context of others. This can be shown, for example, by the Plautdietsch personal pronoun he, (he:i). "Is he already here" would be:

Es hee aul hia? (spoken slowly)
 Es ha aul hia? (a bit faster)
 Es ar aul hia? (more rapidly)
 Es er aul hia? (spoken rapidly)

In phonetic script the last sentence would be: (Èsér-
 Aol hi:è?). The r has crept in through a system of liaison or crasis, a linguistic phenomenon which

This r is probably analogical. Cf. German: woran, (wo and an). The r of Plautdietsch nouns now ending in -a is appended when a vowel follows and the manner of speech is rapid: e. g.: Daut Wadda es kolt: The weather is cold. When spoken more rapidly the foregoing becomes: Daut Waddar es kolt; or even: Daut Wadder es kolt.

will be discussed later on.

The dialect is especially rich in the o-sounds. We shall have to be meticulously careful to distinguish between the different phonetic values of the o-group.

Phonetic (o:) will be represented by \acute{o} ; the oo on the other hand is akin to the English sound in no, pronounced as in some parts of England; its phonetic symbol will be: (ou:). This long sound again becomes shortened in words like to, jo, wo et cetera. Therefore it is better not to write: too, joe, woo, et cetera.

The u-sound is much like the phonetic (u:), pronounced however with greater laxness than German u-long. Low German pronunciation is on the whole more lax. It is therefore quite apparent why secondary vowels should creep in, forming diphthongs.

There is a series of diphthongs in the dialect that is composed of each of six long vowels followed by a vanishing sound or shwa. It is a short a, reduced almost to a mere opening of the glottis. The six diphthongs are:

$\acute{a}a$	ea	ia
oa	$\acute{o}a$	ua

These vanishing sounds are in reality produced by sounding the corresponding long vowels, letting the vocal chords continue to vibrate and relaxing the particular tension of the musculature that each sound requires. The secondary vowel is thus a mere emission of breath while the vocal chords continue to vibrate. It can be discovered quite easily by sounding the voiced consonants, at the same time slightly parting the teeth.

The remaining two diphthongs are so well coalesced that they almost appear as monophthongs. They are *au* and *ei*. The former is (áo), sounded in such a way as to lose all separate identity of the individual components (a) and (o). By slackening the tenseness of the German *au*, i. e., phonetic (ao), we obtain Low German (áo). In the sound diagram below we shall see that this *au*-sound takes a position between (ó) and (a), compared on the basis of acoustic value or auditory similarity.

The *ei* of this dialect is not to be confused with the German *ei* and *ai*. It is not phonetic (ae), but occupies a position between ä, (e:) and ee, (e:i) in the sound diagram.

Below is a series of vowels arranged in a sound diagram. Acoustic or auditory similarities are in juxtaposition, so that a vowel which is acoustically nearest in sound to another vowel will take a position near it in the diagram. The phonetic symbols appear below the symbols to be employed in writing.

a	ä	ei	ee	e	i
(a:)	(e:)	(éé)	(e:i)	(ê)	(i)
au					ie
(áo)					(i:)
o					u
(ó)					(ú:)
u	oo			ö	
(u)	(ou:)			(ö:)	

All other vowels, that is, diphthongs, fall in line with their corresponding long vowels. A table of values in a vertical column appears as follows:

Symbol	Phonetic Symbol	Examples	Close Equivalents
aa, a	(a:)	Staam, lat	Haar, sagt
a	(a)	wacka	dann, kann
ä	(e:)	Wäde, säd	See, zäh
ee, e	(e:i)	dree, de	ay in day
e	(ê)	benne	wenn, denn
<u>e (shwa)</u>	(ë)	de Maun	the man

The peculiar North German quality of some of the vowels is marked by the stroke ' over the vowel.

äa	(e:ë)	vääre	stairs
ea	(e:ië)	feare	(e:ië)
ie, i	(i:)	bie, mi	nie, die
i	(i)	bille	sinnen
ia	(i:ë)	fiare	dear
oo, o	(ou:)	Boom, tom	(ou:)
ô	(o:)	gône	Sohle
o	(ô)	Toll	soll
ôa	(e:ë)	rôare	roar
oa	(ou:ë)	foare	(ou:ë)
u	(û:)	du, Fru	you
ua	(û:ë)	tualeide	rule
u	(û)	bullre	full
ei	(êe)	Eiwst	(êe)
au	(âe)	aulk	Tau

This completes the survey of the Plautdietsch vowels.

Those which might be used if foreign words were employed in the dialect need not be listed since they would not be truly Plautdietsch in character.

The Consonants

These are much more easily represented. Again High German symbols will be used insofar as they closely represent corresponding Low German speech sounds.

For the sake of conciseness and clearness a table will be drawn up; the values of the sounds will be designated in terms of a phonetic alphabet.*

*This will have to be adapted to the typewriter symbols.

Plautdietsch Consonants

	Labials	Dentals	Palatals		
			front soft	back hard	back soft
Voicless Explosives	p	t	k	k	kj
Voiced Explosives	b	d	dj	g	gj
Voicless Spirants	f, v*	s, ss sch	ch	ch	chj h
Voiced Spirants	w	z zh	j	(g)	gj
Nasals	m	n	nj	ng	ngj
Labials		l	lj r		

To the table above we might add the fricative z, (ts). It really only occurs in High German loan words. There are also a number of consonants that appear to belong to the same class as the fricative (ts). But in reality this fricative has arisen from a coalescence of d or t and s to form ts; k and s have become x, k and s the soft k; b and p plus s have become ps.

In dealing with the motional aspects of the Low German verb I shall enlarge upon the sibilant s and the spirant sch in words like: hupse, schupse, klaupse, teckse, butse, kwitsche, pautsche, et cetera.

*Voiceless as in German: E. g.: vāl: much; fäl: miss.

The second sound shift in German was due to a speech habit, that of aspirating the consonants. This gave rise to the fricatives of the High German dialects of today.

The Indogermanic consonantal state can be seen in many Latin and Greek words. Latin decem appears in Gothic as taihun, (phonetic: tehun); in Plautdietsch it is tiēn, in English: ten.

The Germanic European North must at some stage have partly lost the tendency to aspirate its consonants and to speak with a tenseness of the muscles of the vocal organs. Otherwise we should expect a sound shift, which, on a comparative basis, did not occur.

We should thus expect the Low German consonants to be almost unaspirated and the manner of speech to have lost its tenseness. This is precisely the case with Plautdietsch. That is why we have so many long vowels, many of which are themselves diphthongs. It is due to this laxness in speaking that the series of diphthongs in -a has, to a certain extent arisen. Not to be forgotten is the fact that the disappearance of an originally present ^r boosted the rise of the shwa-diphthongs.

Taking up the consonants in alphabetical order we find that there are a greater number of sounds in this dialect than in High German, belonging to a class of front palatals of which the soft ch of the German ich is the only representative in the literary language. The whole series is still present in the dialect.

Following is a table of consonants and their respective phonetic symbols, together with illustrative examples:

Symbol	Phonetic Symbol	Examples	Close Equivalents
b	(b)	Bobbat	building
ch	(x)	lachrig	Buche
éh	(x̣)	láchrig	Bücher
d	(d)	dreie	French de
dj	(d̟)	lidje	d in edge
f, v	(f)	fe, ver	failing
g	(g)	Good	good
	(g̟)	Déag	voiced (x)
	(x̣)	lachrig	eifrig
ng	(ng)	sunge	singing
h	(h)	háwe	heave
j	(j)	jó, jo	jagen
k	(k)	króage	kommen
ḳ	(ḳ)	kille	soft t
l	(l)	lôte	lily
lj	(l̟)	Eelj	lucid
m	(m)	veneeme	name
n	(n)	nand	never
nj	(n̟)	sinje	new
p	(p)	Päpa	pepper
r	(r)	râtre	Scotch r
s, ss	(s)	Hus	hiss
š	(z)	em Huš	to house

sch	(sh)	Bosch	bush
zh	(zh)	buzhre	measure
t	(t)	tale	French t
w	(v)	Wilw	vagrant

The hard back palatals appear in conjunction with back vowels; frontal vowels require the soft front consonants or the soft back consonants. Both tendencies are present in the spoken language, but the former will be used in this thesis since they are more prevalent. This phenomenon is so intricate that it requires a special section dealing with its peculiarities.

Peculiarities of the Palatals

In attempting to represent the Plautdietsch speech sounds with at least a certain amount of consistency the writer will find that the palatals will offer many difficulties. The reason for this, on the one hand, is that there is an effort to represent the speech sounds in terms of the literary values. This cannot be done effectively because there is a lack of symbols in that field. On the other hand, there is a variation in the pronunciation of the different speakers.

The basic hard palatals can have their softer counterparts. This is a phenomenon well known to anyone who has studied German. The hard gutural ch-sound in German has its softer counterpart in many plurals. A few examples will suffice to illustrate the point in question:

Buch (bu:x)	Bücher (by:χ̥ər)
Bauch (baʊx)	Bäuche (boiχ̥ə)
Dach (dax)	Dächer (deχ̥ər)

Closer examination of the examples given will reveal that the vowels on the right are formed toward the front of the oral cavity, those on the left toward the back. In other words, in this case, it seems to be a principle of ease of pronunciation for the consonant and vowel to appear in juxtaposition.

Vowel modification has been called umlaut. In the foregoing example we have consonantal umlaut. Physiologically the two are parallel, although not etymologically, since umlaut, in the strict philological sense often implies an i- or a-sound which in earlier Germanic effected the modification of a preceding vowel.

In the same way the Plautdietsch palatals are conditioned by the company which they keep. Frontal vowels

go paired with softer consonants, formed either in the region of the alveoli or the soft velum; back vowels keep company with the hard sounds.

As has already been pointed out: there is an alternative for the formation of the softer counterparts of k, g, ch, and ng: either: k̄, j, čh, and nj or kj, gj, chj, and ngj. The former group will be used in this thesis as it is more common, and was also used by the speakers of Plautdietsch in the regions where I grew up and learned the language.

Following are a few examples of the palatals in the singular and plural of nouns and in a few verb forms:

Daak	Dääka	Krauns	Kraanś	Glaus	Jläsa
Roak	reaka	Kost	Kast	Loch	Lächa
Doak	Deaka	koste	kastje	Fach	Fächa
wóak	wäcke	Gauns	Jaans	Dochta	Dächta
Stóak	Stääk	Gaust	Jaast	Graus	Jräsa

This phenomenon is characteristic not only of the singular and plural of nouns, (that is incidental to the presence of umlaut in the nouns of this type) but it is also to be seen in different parts of speech derived from one common root. It is also characteristic of the degrees

of comparison in the adjective and of words derived from them. E. g.: the word for big is grot, a cognate of the English great. The three degrees would be:

grot, jrata, jratsten

The verb: to enlarge: is: vejratre; magnifying glass: Ve-jreetrinjsghaus. In the adjective we have an umlaut a, in the noun an ablaut in ee.

Thus we see that vowels like oo, oa, ôa, au, o-short, and a-short, all back vowels, appear paired with the hard palatals. The other sounds, front vowels, keep company with the softer counterparts.

It has been inevitable to use the concept of Plaut-dietsch umlaut in this connection, although it has only been briefly mentioned. A special chapter will be devoted to it later on.

The Ô-sound and the Palatals

It is well to mention here that the back o-sound will not always be followed or preceded by one of the hard palatals. This is due to the origin of this o-sound. It will be shown later that the shwa-diphthongs have arisen from an r originally present but which has now disappeared,

which, it seems, had an effect upon the palatals parallel to the frontal vowels. It may also be that, since this r was originally coupled with a front a-sound, this was only accidental. The original -ark now appears as -ôak; this is seen in the High German forms of surnames: Warkentin, appears in Plautdietsch first as Wôakentin and then through further contraction: Wôanjtin. (This is an old Franconian name: Warken, meaning: to work, and -tin or -in, a Franconian diminutive). Cf. root Warg - JWG.

But this -ark seems to have been present in relatively recent times. The word for church, now "Kôak" appears in Peter Martinovich Friesen's church history of the Mennonites in the form of "Kark", the k-sound likely being the soft kj. Here we have an example, again, of -ark becoming -ôak. But a comparison of German and English forms is a surer basis on which to account for this apparent irregularity.

Following are a few examples to illustrate the point in question:

merken	môake	mark
Werk	Wôak	work
Kirche	Kôak	church
Sarg	Sôak	

The disappearance of r before k: cf.: English: wu:k for: work, etc.

wachen	wâake	wake
Wache	Wôak	wake
Sache	Sôak	sake
Drache	Drôak	dragon

Interesting are the words in Plautdietsch which exhibit a soft and hard k and have widely different meanings, though they appear almost identical:

Stôak	Stake	Wôak	Wache
Stôak	Stärke	Wôak	Werk
hôak	hake	môak	mache
hôak	harke	môak	merke

These examples will show that spelling must be consistently phonetic so as to differentiate between almost identical forms. Boak is book; Bôak on the other hand is birch. Further examples of words that could be easily confused are those of the o-group:

woa	where	Foot	foot
wôa	true	Fôat	drive
wôa	become	foat	away
dôa	there	rot	red
Doa	gate	rôdt	guesses
Fôa	furrow	rott	eradicate
Foa	load	roodt	guessed
rôt	grasps	rôat	roars
fêat	drives	Rôt	counsel

The e-group could also give rise to ambiguity. This can be realized quite readily when we glance at the table

of vowels. There are two e-sounds and their corresponding diphthongs with shwa. A few examples will suffice:

wea	was	vea	four
wāa	who	vāa	before
hea	hear	fea	haul
hāa	hither	fe	for

If confusion and ambiguity is to be avoided, therefore, spelling must be at least consistently phonetic. The general principles of orthography, to introduce a concept into the language which does not exist, will be dealt with under a chapter to be devoted especially to it.

Suggested Principles of Spelling

To avoid confusion of words that are identical in sound.* To illustrate, the phonetic sound group (fɛlt) can mean: he falls or fills. A word like (rit) can mean: he rides, he tears; (bit): he bids or bites. The spelling suggested is therefore:

felit:	he fills	felt:	he falls
bidit:	he bids	bitt:	he bites
ridit:	he rides	ritt:	he tears

Since the infinitives of these words are: felle, faule, beede, biete, riede and riete it is quite easy to arrive

*it is best to consider the basic forms of these words and to be guided by them.

at the forms given.

In conjugating a verb the stem or root is taken and the personal endings, if any, are appended according to the following scheme, e. g.: schäle, to flow or stream:

ich	schäl	wi	schäle
du	schälst	ji	schäle
he	schält	se	schäle

It is evident that the plural and the infinitive are identical forms; in the first person we have the mere stem, in the second st is added, and in the third t is appended. This is the fundamental principle of conjugating, in the present, and does not differ except in cases where like consonants appear in juxtaposition.

The conjugations of the six verbs in the foregoing example are:

	fell	faul	biet
Singular:	fellst	felst	bitst
	fellt	felt	bitt
Plural:	felle	faule	biete
	beed	riet	ried
Singular:	bidst	ritst	ridst
	bidt	ritt	ridt
Plural:	beede	riete	riede

Due to the addition of other consonants there is a shortening of the vowels in the stem. The long *ie* becomes *i*-short. In the same way the umlaut of *au* is short *e*. In other words, the umlaut is not always the corresponding short sound of the long vowels. Umlaut has already been discussed and follows set patterns.

To get a consistent pattern of spelling, therefore, it is suggested that the stem consonant or consonants be retained and the personal endings be appended. Thus the *d*-stems will appear in patterns like: *bedde, bedst, bedt*: to beg; *scheede, scheidst, scheidt*: to separate; *weede, weedst, weedt*: to weed; *kleede, kleedst, kleedt*: to clothe; *meede, meedst, meedt*: to hire. In all cases the *d* is almost unvoiced, due to the influence of the following voiceless consonants in the personal endings.

To look at the three forms of the principal parts of the verb it might be suggested that the principle employed in the foregoing example could be used throughout. Nevertheless, unneeded consonants should be dispensed with if they must not be retained to avoid confusion or ambiguity.

The verb to guess is *rôde*; its principal parts

are: rôde, rode, jerôde or (jerôt). The question is whether or not to insert the unnecessary d of the stem since no confusion can arise. It is therefore suggested that the superfluous be eliminated and that the past participles of weak verbs especially be written without the d in the d-stems. A few examples would be:

jâwe, gauf, jejârt	rôde, rodt, jerôt
hâwe, hof, jehârt	weede, weed, jeweet
lâwe, lâwd, jelârt	reede, reed, jereet
leewe, leewd, jeleeft	bedde, baut, jebedt

The forms of the last four verbs illustrate the d-stems in the three forms of the principal parts. We may note that there is one exception: in stems of the double d there seems to be a certain voiced element in the past participle: jebedt.

The past participle is also used as an adjective and in its declined forms exhibits some of the sounds that have disappeared. A weak and a strong past participle behave as follows: (They mean: chilled and frozen):

de veikilde Maun	daut veikilde Kint
dân veikilden Maun	daut veikilde Kint
dâm veikilden Maun	dâm veikilden Kint
de veikilde Fru	de veifrôane Fru

de veifrôane Maun
 dän veifrôanen Maun
 däm veifrôanen Maun

daut veifrôane Kint
 daut veifrôane Kint
 däm veifrôanen Kint

Remnants of the strong endings might still be seen in forms without the definite article: vekillda Maun and vekilldet Kint. There are no case endings in the plural. The strong verb forms already end in shwa and exhibit the return of an originally present *n* in the infinitive and past participle. This is seen in the verb to freeze: vefreare, vefreare, vefrôare. In this case the *r* of the past participle drops out before *n*, which, itself, is again returned. The form: vefrôarna does also still occur.

The same phenomenon is to be found in the noun. A final consonant is frequently unvoiced, but when a vowel follows that same consonant becomes voiced. E. g.: de Maun es got: the man is good; but: een goda Maun: a good man. This however does not always happen. In stems like grot: great this does not follow. The voiceless *t* remains after a vowel: ne grote Baulabess: a large blunderbuss.

The matter of the singular and the plural of nouns is a very intricate affair. In many cases the consonant of the singular is voiceless, the plural being indicated

by voicing the same sound and unlaunting the vowel.

Following are a few representative examples in phonetic writing:

(Va:ʃ)	(Ve:ʃj)	Wach	Wāaj:	way
(Lét)	(Le:da)	Let	Lāda:	lid
(Le:it)	(Le:ida)	Leet	Leeda:	song
(Kórf)	(Ka:rv)	Korf	Karw:	basket
(Hā:s)	(Hi:za)	Hus	Hiesa:	house

In each case the voiceless consonant of the singular becomes voiced due to a succeeding vowel, or a vowel that has dropped off.

In summing up, therefore, it could be said that if we follow the principles laid down here the language will be consistently phonetic, ambiguity will be eliminated and unsightly forms like: kôme, tjemnt, tjeeme, et cetera, will not disturb our sense of continuity.

The Semi-vowels and Shwa

Before passing on to the next chapter on Plautdietsch On The Printed Page we shall have to look into the peculiarities of the semi-vowels: l, m, and n, and the vanishing sound shwa. In reality these sounds fall into a group by themselves. First of all, they are not true consonants,

nor are they true vowels. In the formation of all three we can notice the vibration of the vocal chords, a physiological act that depends upon the passing of breath between their tensed muscles. Thus, when we say bottle the tongue remains in the same position for t and l; there is no vowel sound in between. The tip of the tongue remains in position, a bit of breath is permitted to escape on the sides toward the back of the tongue which at the same time, for the formation or rather the position of l, touches a greater area of the palate. The vowel sound is really only a bit of escaping breath necessary for the vibration of the vocal chords. Thus the e, (e) in German words like Nebel represents what has been called shwa, a word borrowed from the Messorates who tried to preserve the pronunciation of the Hebrew in the Hebrew Scriptures. Shwa was the vanishing sound just discussed.

Speech sounds without breath are inaudible. In reality our complex pattern of sound symbols is nothing but a physiological description of the position of the vocal organs for utterance. There is no such distinction as vowels and consonants, i.e., when we eliminate breath in connection with them. All sounds without it are mere

phonetic "starting points", physiological positions of the vocal organs. Our division of vowels and consonants, and semi-vowels, for that matter, is a feeble attempt at auditory or acoustic differentiation. In the case of the vowels their symbols describe how far the teeth, the lips, the jaws are to be parted when breath escapes in the vibration of the vocal chords. Broadly speaking, the lips and the tongue are in greater activity when forming the consonants, but they certainly are not inactive, even though only positionally, in the uttering of vowels.

Plautdietsch is a very strongly stressed language, the stress usually falling on the stem or root of the word, the preceding and succeeding sounds therefore being greatly reduced.

Thus all infinitives, all nouns ending in -e or -es, all vocalic declensional endings are shwa sounds. This will give us a guide in pronunciation as well as in spelling. Short e, (é) appears only in the stem of words. Thus in benne (béně), we such a short e and shwa. In rapid speech all monosyllabic words ending in a vowel change in quantity (become shorter) and sometimes in

quality. This is especially true of the definite article, and of personal pronouns of the e-group (he, se, se), which in normal speech frequently tone down to shwa. In this way the article, which is used as a demonstrative as well, can, in the spoken language, be distinguished. (Dē Māon) is: the man; but (de:i Māon) is: that man.

M and n behave like l. "In the evening before twilight" would be: oppenôwent ver Schemma: (opēno:vēnt fēr shēma). Oppem Boddem ôdem ecĕ schlacht: (I breathe uneasily on the bottom) is: (ôpēm bôdēm o:dēm êĕ shlaĕt).

On the basis of what has been said in the foregoing section I believe that the shwa in connection with the semi-vowels is justified. There could of course be no confusion in writing: Ôdl, Buddl, godn, Kickl, weckl, and Ôdm for: Ôdel, Buddel, goden, Kickel, weckel, and Ôdem. The latter will be used in the chapter on Plautdietsch On The Printed Page.

PLAUDDIETSCH ON THE PRINTED PAGE

To admit of a familiarization with the language I shall include a few pages of material in print. Not to deviate from philological tradition and to take up a subject matter worthy of the Low German word forms, I shall begin by giving a few passages of John's Account, a passage of rustic description entitled Von Freaaja, and a few poems, some of which will be given in the adopted print as well as in the phonetic alphabet.

All written material in this chapter is my own; the passages of Scripture having been translated from the original Koine. The poems date from the early forties, the time when I first became intensely interested in my native tongue, to the present.

John 1: 1-18:

To Aunfank wea daut Woat, enn daut Woat wea
 nô Gott opto, enn Gott wea daut Woat. Dit wea
 to Aunfank nô Gott opto. Aules wort dôaderch,
 enn dôarône es uck nuscht jeworde, waut jeworde
 es. En an wea daut Lâwe, enn daut Lâwe wea de
 Mensche êa Licht. Enn daut Licht deit em Dies-
 tren erschiene, enn daut Diestre erfot et nich.

Dôa wort een Mensch, beopdrôagt von Gott; sien Nôme wea Johannes. Disa kaum tom Tichnis, daut he tieje sull äwa daut Licht, oms daut aula jleewe sulle dôaderch. Nich wea jana daut Licht, sonda daut he tieje sull äwa daut Licht. Daut wea daut wôarhaftje Licht, wont opklâare deit jiedren Mensche, de to Welt kôme deit. Enne Welt wear He, enn de Welt wort derch Am, enn de Welt kannd Am nich. Nô de Bajne kaum He, enn Siene Bajne nome Am nich aun. De wone Am ôba kreaje, dän jeft He Raht, Kinja Gottes to wôare, dän de jleewe done en Sienen Nôme, wone nich ut Jeblad, uck nich ut Fleeschswelle, uck nich ut eenes Mauns Welle, sonda ut Gott jettiejt weare.

Enn daut Woat wort Fleesch enn boodt mank onst, enn wi kicke op Siene Haarlichkeit, ne Haarlichkeit aus eenes Eensigjetiejden vom Fôda, volla Jnôd enn Wôarheit.

Johannes deit äwa Am tieje, haft jeropt enn sajt: "Disa wea, von Wone eck säd: 'De nô mi Kômenda es ver mi jeworde', denn He wea eascht, ver mi," denn ut Siene Fellsel kreaj wi aula Jnôd äwa Jnôd; denn daut Jesats wort derch Moses jefâft, de Jnôd enn Wôarheit wort derch Jesus Christus. Gott haft keena jemôls jeseene. De eensigjetiejde Gott, de aun däm Fôda sien Bossem es, de schildat Am.

John 2:1-11:

Enn dän dredden Dach wort ne Kast en Kana von Galiläa enn et wea de Môda Jesu dôa. Jekrôagt wea ôba uck Jesus enn Siene Schiela to Kast. Enn biem aun Wien Fäle sajt de Môda Jesu to Am: "Se ha nich Wien!" Enn sajt Jesus to ar: "Waut es mi oda di daut, Fru?" Noch es miene Stund nich aunjekôme." Sajt Siene Môda to de Deenasch: "Daut waut He junt saje sull, dot!"

Dôa deede ôba sass steenane Wôtatap nô de judsche Reinjung lidje, de bat bôwe twee oda dree Môt enthilde. Enn Jesus sajt to an: "Strickendig voll môakt de Wôtatap met Wôta!" Enn se moake se strickendig voll bat bôwe. Enn He sajt to an: "Schappt nu enn brinjt dâm Eppaschten vom Ätsôl!" De ôba brinje et.

Aus ôba de Eppashta vom Ätsôl schmackt daut Wien jewordne Wôta, enn nich enjeworde wea, woarhäär et wea, (de Deenasch ôba weare et enjeworde, de et jeschappt haude), ropt de Briegaum dâm Eppaschten vom Ätsôl nôda enn sajt: "Jieda Mensch deit toeascht dâm scheenen Wien hanstalle, enn wann se dun senne sulle dâm billjeren. Du ôba hast dâm scheenen jehole bat nuto."

Dit aunfangende Tâken deit Jesus en Kana von Galiläa enn ôpenbôat Siene Haarlichkeit, enn Siene Schiela jleewe aun Am.

John 21: 9-17:

Aus se dann raufastiê aunt Launt, erblecke se een aunjelajdet Kôleria enn dôaroplidjende Ätfesch enn Brot. Sajt Jesus to an: "Brinjt vonne Ätfesch, wone ji nu jriepel!" Simon Petrus dann steach op enn schlappt daut Natt aunt Launt, utjerackt von hundatdree'efertig grote Fesch. Enn optwôasch so vâl weare, wea daut Natt doch nich jerate.

Sajt Jesus to an: "Kômt nôda, vebiet junt!" Keena ôba vonne Schiela wôagd Am uttofrôage: "Wâa best Du?" Se wiste, daut et de Haar wea. Komt Jesus enn nemt daut Brot enn jeft an daut, enn de Ätfesch grôdso. Dit wear aul tom dreddenmôl, daut Jesus siene Schiela ôpenbôat wort, opperwackt ute Dodes.

Aus se sick dann vebiete, sajt Simon Petrus: "Simon, Johannes siena, deist du mi dolla leewe aus dise?" Sajta to Am: "Jô, Haar,

Du weetst, daut eck Di got si." Sajta to am: "Do miene Lamakes weide!" Sajta to am wada tom tweedennôl: "Simon, Johannes siena, deist du mi leewe?" Sajta to Am: "Jô, Haar, Du weetst, daut eck Di got si." Sajta to am: "Scheepre do miene Schôpkes!" Sajta to am: "Got best du mi?" Truarig wort Petrus, dauta to am tom dreddenôl sâd: "Got best du mi?" enn sâd to Am: "Haar, aules weetst Du, Du weetst, daut eck Di got si." Sajt Jesus to am: "Weide do miene Schôpkes!"

Von Freaja:

Op eenem jreenen Hâwel nich aultowiet auf vom Eewa aun eenem sea groten Wôta stunt een Buarehus, daut Daak beschâne, sodaut et wiet enn breet to seene wea. Unje lach de Lâacht em Diestren enn horcht noch head, waut enne drocke Klâaring vâajink. Enne Bescha schiepte hier enn dôa velleicht noch een paa wackre Schnôwels. De Sonn wea unja, de Môn kaum op, hall enn grot enn rot aus ne rodliche Meloneschnâd.

De Ôwent stunt aus een junget Lâwe, aus een junget Mâake nô Schemma, de veblefft vesefft. Wiet enn breet rommem Hus lage de vestreide Buarehâw; enn Rickt maun wieda, so sach maun Weela enn maunch eenen blanken Wôtaspeajel em mônjlansenden Schemma. De Pead grôdsde dôa noch, daut Rintree haud sick aul jelôagat enn freet, han enn wada opjeschent, sien Wâdakeiwsel. Aun Soom vom Woolt schlickte sick enjtelich enn schiâ de graue Wooltbewônasch ruta, oms em vedômenden Schemma romtoaulke enn Runderosekrauns to spâle, oms aun dêm jalstajreenen Graus to jnibble enn een vespôdet Ôwntkost to seake. Han enn wada stalld sick een Kleena Lankoa oppe Hinjabeen enn horcht, aus uck nich woa Flichte derche Loft fuchtelde. Wann deepa em Woolt ne Ul schreach, dann huschte de Klie-ne Wrauntabeen ve Schulinj, bat de Jerôa vebie wea.

So wear et jiedar Ôwent: ver Meddanacht fonk et enne diestre Wooldesschautes aun to reare enn to lãwe. Wãa dann velenjstem Wach jink, head wiet em Tweediesta von Pape enn Wiede aularhaunt Jelud.

Deep en disem Blãdadunkel wea ne Kliene Jlad, em Somma nich sultosea met Graus bewesse, wiels de derch dichtet Loof strörende Sonne-ströle dãn em Schaute lidjenden Radbodden nich erreake kunne. Dõa stunde dree Daune-beem, Daunsbeem saj eck, denn to janen Tiet wist wi noch nich dãn Unjascheet tweschen de veschiedne Daunehelta. De Nötle weare kort enn mearendeels veakauntig, daut Holt schlock-witt aus billjet Rãakenpapia. Daut sent woll Fichte jewãse, oba onst weare et Daune. Dise stunde so bie een Schrett twintig utnaunda. Eenem wea daut Weppelenj bie eenem Stornwint aufjebrãake, de aundra wea uck derch irjent eenen Onfaul tosplãt jekõme. Eena auleen stunt hoach enn stolt aus een Kennink enn Keadel dõa, de eenaje Daun enne gaunse Omjãajent, de von wieden to seene wea enn aus een haarlichet Laundestãken aule Pape- enn Wiedeweela ãwawãakt.

Dit wea uck de Meddelpunkt enn daut Hõat von janem dichten diestren Woockt. Dõa stunde hundadejãarele Wõtapape met Bork enn Baust dick aus ne Fust. Dõa wea de runtblãdaje schlock-witte Papel met de halljreene Baust, de aus met Mãldeiw befolle wea. Dõa wea de lenklich-blãdaje Wied met rodem eesswittem Holt. Dõa wea ne Sort Kliene Hausselnãt, wone de Eakhoarnkes sich tom Winta en ãare Lacha schlappete. Dõa weare mau von eenem Kriedakanna to neemende Krieda enn Jewausse, een Loof enn Blãdarickdom aussa mau op sea fruchtbãarem Bodden to finje wea.

Dit wea de eene deepe Woolt enne gaunse Omjãwinj, wea em Somma aularhaut Padafee wõnd. Dõa wea ne Ôat Muaschwaulmke, wont ãa Nast õba mau en velõtne Holthackanasta haud.

Daut Maunke oda Keadelke wea peckschwät,
 blanka aus een Rôwe; daut Fruke oda de Mumm-
 ke wea ausch oda spautsegrau enn weens een
 Tips Klанда. Dôa weare uck de Blauridjes,
 de tiedig em April oda lôt em Môats opkaume;
 daut Maunke een lichthallet Dunkelbleu aus
 de scheenste Varjôaschloft, de bleiwsta Var-
 jôaschhimmel; daut Fruke aus mank Ausch je-
 reada Fienbleiws.

Oppenôwent em Schemma

Oppenôwent jink eck stelles
 Oppe Weidstap dicht am Wôta,
 Jink em stellen doffen Schemma,
 Wann de Hôse ute Weela,
 Ute Schemmaweela kôme.
 Enn eck head de Ul em Uawoolt,
 Head de wille Tiare sula:
 Head de Wilw von wiedem jule
 Enn dän Wôshaul veschaule;
 Head dän Madhunt enne Daune,
 Woa uck aundre Vâajel schreaaje.

Enn de Dâl, de lach em Schemma,
 Lach em nâwelhaufte Dôme:
 Nôanich wear een Mensch to heare,
 (Denn de Buaschkinja schleepe),
 Enn de Aunsecht lach en Frâde,
 Grauwesstell enn deep en Frâde.
 Glupsch enn schis enn haulf vewâaje
 Kent de Kliena graua Boschhôs,
 Kenta ute Schemmawâde:
 Seakt noch Schulinj dicht em Schaute,
 Kicht enn horcht enn hâft de Oare,
 Hupst een Enjske ferchtson wieda;
 Huscht haulf krâajlich tridj en Dackinj,
 Enn veseakt et bloess noch wada.

Horch! Et ruschelt enne Blâda,
 Fangt em Struck aun dâag to lâwe:
 Hiar enn dôa kent eena ruta,
 Foljt een aundra oppe Socke;

Langsom enn met greta Vääsecht
 Kent daut Hôsefolk tom Môtfast.
 Eena staltt sick tru op Poste,
 Kickt enn horecht op framde Lude,
 Heat dôa ôba reinnuscht fleaje:
 Keene Ul met lange Flichte,
 Es Keen Hunt noch Foss noch Stapwulf,
 De sick enne Klääarinj reare.

Enn de Kliene Wooltbewôna
 Aulke rom op greene Wäse,
 Tobe rom aus Kleene Kinja,
 Natte Kinja manke Bloome:
 Jriepa spēle aule Hôse,
 Aule Hôstes ennem Schemma;
 Kastinj jeft et nu enn Leefschoft,
 Leewesspell em tiedjen Varjôa,
 Woa de Knoppes aula driewe.

Medden em Mei

Schelpelje bleaje em Gôade
 Enn dôa kent de Fleeda vda,
 De willa Wien kript aune Steena
 Enne Hecht verre Dda.

Uck de Akôtske bleaje,
 Kobloome senn vestreit,
 Wiels derchet jreene Loofwôak
 De Meiwint weiht.

Schrôts äwre Schwôatbrôak fleaje
 De Krauje tom Schultebott,
 Enn eck sett enn schriew dôarâwa
 Oppem Schaffott.

Médén em Mée (Phonetic)

Shélpéljē ble:iējē em Go:ēdē
 ĩn do:ā kēnt dē Fleēda fa:ē,
 Dē vila Vi:n kript āonē Shte:ina
 ĩnē Hēxt fēre De:ē.

Ūk dē Ako:tskē ble:iējē,
 Kou:blou:mē sēn fēshtrēet,
 Vi:ls dērkt jre:inē Lou:fvo:ēk
 Dē Mēevint vēet.

Shro:ts eivré Shvo:ētbro:ēk fle:iējē
 Dē Krāojē tou:m Shūltēbōt,
 ĩn ēk zēt ĩn shri:v do:ēre:va
 Ōpēm Shērōt.

Kesarmelāwe

Jō, Rīck eck trīdj op dīse lange Tīet,
 Woa eck von Stād nō Stād,
 Vom Māa opt Launt jefōare,
 Woa eck jeschweet,
 Woa eck em jrimjem Frost jefrōare
 Op kōle Wāaj-
 Eck saj et nich met Fliet-
 Dann plīnē eck bloos:
 Daut Lāwe es een Strīet.

Eck si em jreenen Dōl auleen jewāse,
 Vereensomt aus een Foss,
 Een schua Stapwulf oppe Hāwels,
 De flux ver Diesta noch
 De Jrense sienes Rīcks derchstrīckt.
 Dōa hab eck dann op saundje Diene
 De Tīeninj mīenes stellen Lāwens mi beseene:
 De stelle Flack, dān See em haulwen Schemma,
 De rubbelōatje Aumbōaj wīet en wīeda Farn;
 ĩnn ver mi strāckt een speajelklōaret Wōta,
 Daut wāda Schāpa noch een Kōn befōat.
 Mau han enn wada schwinjt een Fōagel sīck dōarāwa:
 Et lat ne Lomm, et lat ne Gauns sīck heare,

Wiels aul de Launtschoft sick
 Een Schemmakleet auntrackt.
 Et es so stell!
 Fleicht lôamt een Kennink-Fescha
 Aum Eewa dôa; dann jule
 Es Daunewoolt aum Aumbôaj wiet de Wilw.
 De Sonnebloom haft sick em Wast vetrocke,
 T'es Tweediesta enn Schemmastund.

Von saundje Diene
 Schrâd eck jelôte miene Kôt opto em Noade.
 Et es so stell! So stell es uck mien Lâwe,
 So ône Leew, so ône aule Fried.
 Een follet Hôat macht eck de Eene jâwe,
 De mi ut disem doden Dôl rutleid.
 Eck bang mi nô de kôle Lenda,
 Woa ons de Mân vom Himmelstenn erblickt;
 Eck bang mi nô de wiede farne Strenda,
 Woa ons de Leew en âarem Ôarm bejleckt!

Aun de Entfarnde

Et jeit een stellet Weihe
 Sacht derche Sôt;
 Eck well mi gôtlich frête,
 Ear et to lôt.

Noch bleajt een schmoeket Bloomke
 Mi hiar aum Soom,
 Noch jreent een junget Boonke
 Mi hiar aum Stroom.

Boolt kemt de Eiwst enn Arnte,
 Dann es et han;
 Ô jleckliche Entfarnte,
 Woa best du dann!

Môl wada Varjôa

Et deift aul de Schnee,
 De Krauj es wada dôa,
 Maun heat enne Bescha
 Âa Varjôaschjeblêa.

Runtom ute Weela
 Kôme de Stapwilw erut,
 Mau knaup enne Klâarinj
 Sickt de Reewa vetrut.

Aum Woolt enne Hacke
 Grôst daut wittschwansje Ree,
 Nich schis verrem Jâaja,
 Nich angst ha de.

Daut Ies knackt aum Wôada,
 Daut Wôta braakt Bôn,
 Aum Ewa em Krut
 Kreit de Hadehôn.

Enn hoach bôwre Bôajspetz
 Vekript sickt de Môn,
 Aus weara de Sonn
 Âa Unjadôn.

Mo:l va:da Fa:rjo:ë

Ët dêert ãol dë Shne:i,
 Dë Krãoj ës va:da do:ë,
 Mãon he:iët ënë Bësha
 E:ë Fa:rjo:ëshjëblo:ë.

Rãntóm ú:të Ve:ila
 Ko:më dë Shta:pvilv ërú:t,
 Mão knãop ënë Kle:ëriy
 ZiX dë Re:iva rëtrú:t.

Àom Vou:lt ënë HaKë
 Gro:st dãot vitshwansjë Re:i,
 NiX shiz vërëm Je:ëja,
 NiX Angst ha: de:i.

Dãot I:s knakt àom Vo:ëda,
 Dãot Vo:ta bra:yt Bo:n,
 Àom E:iva ëm Krú:t
 Xrëet dë Hadëho:n.

En hou:ëx bo:vrë Bo:ëxshpëts
 FëXript ziX dë Ma:n,
 Àos ve:iëra dë Zón
 E:ë Úyãdo:n.

Aun ne Kliene Schlang

Du ôamet Schlangte,
 Eck sull di schôde,
 Son ôamet Tiake
 Aun sonem Dach!

Eck sull di klunje,
 Wiels di verôde,
 Wiels eck di krupe
 Enn lidje sach?

Hast du nich Lâwe
 Enn stelle Freide,
 Hast du nich Godet
 Grôdso aus eck?

Enn eck sull rôse
 Enn di vesteare
 Enn di vewirke
 Dien Klient Jleek!

Nâ! Krup mau langsam
 Dôa enne Halma
 Enn schwamm em Wôta
 Enn jriep ne Fleaj!

Du best uck Gott sien
 Erschauftet Wâsen,
 Enn hast uck Plôage
 Enn maunche Meaj.

Kesarmeleet

Ons Lôaga's enne Lâachte,
 Ons Tus aune Rie;
 Dôa schält enn bruscht daut Wôta
 So lostig webie!
 Dôa schleit de Klinja tiedig
 Biem funkelnden Dau,
 Enn wieda enne Hollinj
 Dôa dôagt et aul grau.

Eruta nu, ji Keadels!
 Daut Fôatig's verre Dda:
 Nu jeit et enne Weela,
 Nu jeit et nôm Maa!
 Dôa tick eck enne Hechte
 So wiet ävve See,
 Woa hoach enne Bôaj ligt
 Enn blenkat de Schnee.

Enn horch, de Weela sinje,
 De Vâajelkes wo scheen!
 De Hacke de lâwe,
 Daut Loof es so jreen;
 Dôa schauf wi uch wo schaftig,
 Woll so bie säwen Stund;
 So jeit et fro enn kraftig
 Emma enne Rund.

Wi ha hia keene Elre,
 Wi ha nich ne Brut;
 So jeit et emma wieda
 Jôaren enn jôarut:
 Ons Lôaga's enne Lâachte,
 Ons Tus aune Rie,
 Dôa schält enn bruscht daut Wôta
 So lostig webie!

Oppenôwent ver Schemma

Scheen es de Ôwent, wann de Dach beschwient
 Enn ruhig schlapt em stellen Woolt enn Lâacht;
 Wann uck de Aunsecht lieselkes bestient
 Von blaussen Nâwel sich em Droom bewâajt;
 Wann maun vleicht eenen Vôagel schiepre heat
 Aul haulf em Droom, so macklich ennem Nast,
 Enn wann sich dôa em Bosch een Hôste reat,
 Woa sachelkes de Loft pust derche Ast;
 Wann uck daut Fee sich entlich lôagre deit
 Enn gauns tofrâd sien Wadakeiwsel frat,
 Woa wiets vleicht noch een eensja Klingja schleit
 Enn aules stell, tofrâd enn ruhig lat!
 Vom Buarehus heat maun von wiets een Leet;
 De Fôda last, enn dann wôat dôlje kneet.

Wann eck draun denk

Wann eck draun denk, daut eck aul nâajen Jôa
 Op Englisch enn op Hoagdietsch ha jedicht
 Enn daut eck eascht ver eenem si jeflicht
 No miene Môdasproak, dann wôat mi't schwôa!
 En diene Weada kleedt mau blooss de Nôa
 Sien Ulks enn stalt di en een faulschet Licht;
 Et schient aus keena feelt sich di veflicht,
 Maun meent, daut Plautdietsch doagt mau tom Basôa.
 Eck finj en di, waut keene Sprôak mi jeft:
 Aus wann een Vôagel, de em Klôtke seet
 Enn meajson mau sien bettret Koarnke freet,
 So feeld eck mi. Doch Lied! Eck wea veflefft:
 De Kliene Luck eck opjelôte fungk,
 Eck burrd erut em Woolt enn sungk enn sungk.

Hôafstôning

Hôafstloft enn stellet Bange ôdme,
 Hôafstloft, enn Reen Jelut,
 Woa schlocke Hâwels äare Schleiasch frôdme,
 Hôafstloft, woa aules ruht;
 Een stellet Weihe derche Blâda,
 Een Ruschle enn een Dreppe Blot,
 Een Schwôarem Krauje äwre Stâda-
 Daut kann eck got!

Hôafstleet

Eck well nich vetwiewle,
 Wann Schwôaka kôme,
 Jespansta opdôme
 Aun jiedat Sied.
 Daut Lâwe fleida,
 De Stocde heida
 Met sone Tied'!

De Hôafst's jekôme,
 De Blâda faule,
 Met Jâlloof dwaule
 En Eiwst endôl;
 De Krauje fleaje,
 De Rôwes schreaje
 Tom latsten Mâl.

Wo es de Sonna
 Met siene Freide,
 Wo es de Jôarestiet nu
 Vom Lâwe han!
 De Hôafst's em Waule,
 De Westwind dwaule
 Met Waundawolke
 Aun Himmel dann!

Varjôascherwôake

Daut Varjôa es hia!
 De Ôpbôas's jekôme,
 En Wooltweppel krôme
 De weihende Wind.
 Dôa horch! Enne Weela
 Schrië de Krauje,
 Saumle aul Splauje
 Met äare Frind.

Jreenende Wäse
 Senn aul to seene,
 Lostig romsprinje
 Sitst du daut Ree;
 De Vääjel enn Senja
 Tsemme nich lenja,
 Schiepre enn sinje,
 Schaftig send de.

Daut Varjôa es hia
 Met aul siene Freide,
 De Hôafstdôag mau seide
 Een woll riepjet Koarn.
 Dann sient uck nich lenja:
 Stôt op tom Lâwe!
 Wi dâawe't erlâwe-
 Dôa blôst aul daut Hoarn.

Wo schiepre enn piepre
Vondôag de Weela,
Sijnt enn schewietat
Mi jieda Boom!
Een jieda Vôagel
Haft hia een Leette
Een jieda Bleachsel
Een nie'et Kleetke,
Een jralle Blâda
Ne jiedre Bloom.

Du Kliena Amma
Hoach enne Asta,
Wo best du schaftig,
Tofräd enn fro!
Eck weet, daut Varjôa
Es enne Lefte,
Denn enne Weela
Senn Bloomederte:
Du schiepst enn piepascht
Een sijnt dôato.

Du schnorrja Hacka
Dôar ennem Weppel,
Best du dann vondôag
Gauns buta di?
Du kloppascht lostig
Aun dreaje Asta,
Du meenst, se heat et,
Du meenst, du hast a',
Een jibbascht wieda
So aus noch nie.

Du Klienet Schwaulem
Dôa hoach, hoach bôwe,
Du flijst so schaftig
Boolt han, boolt hâa;
Du machst em Weihe
Met ar helleie:
Eck see et dietlich,
Du deist di freie
Een schwäfst eraufa
Nôm klauen Mäa.

Twee Krauje fuchtle aum Himmel,
De Sonn es aul op,
De Pape stöne aum Häwel
Enne Drenk äwa Kopp;
Biem Nôba op janem Aumbôaj
Däwat ne Flint,
Enn wieda oppe Launtschoft
Brellt een Rint.

Tve:i Kraojsë fúxtlë áom Himël,
Dë Zôn ës áol óp,
Dë Paplë shto:në áom He:vël
Ënë Dréñk e:va kóp;
Bi:m No:ba óp ja:nëm Áombo:ëj
De:vat nē Flint,
Ën vi:da ópē Láontshóft
Brëlt e:in Rint.

Leew

De Leew, de môakt daut Läwe seet,
Leew jeft Mot tom Stôawe,
Leew plaunt noch een Paradies
Ën Onjleck enn Vedôawe.

Leew es tsôatkes, Leew es nat,
Leew jeft jearn een Haujke;
Leew sit schwôate Rôwes angst,
Sajt, et es een Kraujke.

CHAPTER IV

THE GERMANIC CHARACTER OF PLAUTDIETSCH

Outside of the bare reference to the position of Plautdietsch in the dialect picture of Low German it is not the purpose of this thesis to investigate the language in regard to its Franconian and Saxon character. Suffice it to say, as Dr. J. Heyse points out in his *DEUTSCHE GRAMMATIK*, that the dialects spoken to the north of the so-called Benrather Linie are Low German.

The State of the Explosives

The consonantal relationship between Low German and High German is such that the consonants in the former appear in the latter shifted according to a definite linguistic law or pattern. Of these the explosives p, t, and k are really the most characteristic. Furthermore, the voided spirant (v) as found in earlier Germanic appears as (b) in High German. This (v) is found in the middle of words, it may also be final. Initial (b) remains the same in Low German and High German. The other Germanic spirants do not concern us here.

The explosives p, t, and k appear as (pf), (ts), and (kx) when initial in a syllable. The (kx) sound is found only in the Alemannic dialects and consequently drops out of the picture; since initial k remains in German. When final these consonants shift according to a different pattern: Germanic (Low German) p, t, and k in German become (f), (s), and (x).

But there is another possibility: Germanic verbs in -jan, e. g., Gothic *satjan* appears in English as *sett-*, (*setting*). In such a case we have the j-umlaut, a j-sound modifying the preceding vowel. Plautdietsch cognates have a double consonant in such cases if we follow the spelling rule: a double consonant after a short vowel.

In such a case there are two consonants, one final and one initial, that is, within the syllables of the same word; so that in a word like *sette*: to sit the shift would be quite regular: *set-* to: *sess-*, and the t of the next syllable to: *ts*. The resulting combination becomes *setz-* (*sets*), since the other would be difficult to pronounce.

Thus there are three possible shifts for the explosives.
/sives.

	(geminated)		
	Initial	Medial Doubles	Final or Medial After Vowel
Low German:	p, t, k	pp, tt, ck	p, t, k
High German:	pf, z, k	pf, tz, ck	f, s, ch

In the following pages we shall see that Plautdietsch p, t, and k bear a relation to the German consonants according to the law exemplified by the table above. Nouns, verbs, and adjective will be used; the English etymological equivalents will appear on the extreme right.

The following set of examples deals with the explosives when in the initial position of the syllable:

Plautdietsch	German	English
Pål	Prühl	pillow
Pól	Prahl	pole
Punt	Pfund	pound
Päpa	Pfeffer	pepper
Plum	Pfleume	plum
Floach	Pflug	plow
Paun	Pfanne	pan
Pôp	Pfaffe	pope
Plôsta	Pflaster	plaster
Plaunt	Pflanze	plant
Poat	Pforte	port
Post	Pfosten	post
Piep	Pfeife	pipe
Tân	Zahn	tooth
Tee	Zeh	tee

Taupe	Zapfen	tap
Tun	Zaun	town
Tiende	Zehnte	tenth
Täfen	Zeichen	token
Tiede	Zeiten	tides
Tiedinj	Zeitung	tieding
Tenn	Zinn	tän
Tippel	Zipfel	tip
Tett	Zitze	tit

The k-sound need not be dealt with here because, in the initial position in the syllable, it does not shift in German but is restricted to some of the Swiss dialects.

In literary German Germanic p, t, and k appear as their corresponding spirants, when in the final position of the syllable. K, in this case, does take part in the shift.

Schlöp	Schlaf	sleep
Schöp	Schar	sheep
Scheepa	Schäfer	shepherd
Schep	Schiff	ship
Piep	Pfeife	pipe
Koop	Kauf	cheap
Loop	Lauf	loop
Deep	Tiefe	deep
Riep	Reif	ripe
Jröp	Greif	grip

Schlut	Schluss	slot
Schlett	Schloss	nut
Nät	Nuss	sweat
Schweet	Schweiss	flood ¹
Flootke	Fluss	bit
Bät	Bisschen	foot
Foot	Fuss	

1: *plotus

Boak	Buch	book
Dick	Teich	dike
Malk	Milch	milk
Ear, Oak	Eiche	oak
Speak	Speiche	spoke
WaaK	Woche	week
Rick	Reich	-ric

From the foregoing examples it is evident that the explosives in question bear a Germanic relationship to High German. The Plautdietsch word-list shows that it did not go through the second sound shift as did High German, but consonantally, remained at a stage parallel to English in Anglo-Saxon words. A comparison of the left and right hand columns illustrates the close relationship of the two corresponding languages. The words are frequently almost identical. Apart from the softening of the gutturals when in juxtaposition to frontal vowels (a phenomenon characteristically Plautdietsch), the state of the explosives of English and Plautdietsch are identical. In other words, phrasing it in terms of an introductory note to the AMERICAN DICTIONARY of the English Language, we conclude:

The English language- the offspring of the Anglo-Saxon- is one of the Low German dialects which form part of the Teutonic branch of the Indo-European or Aryan languages.

The problem, now, is to deal with those verbs in Plautdietsch which have a double consonant following a short vowel, have a causative significance and in High German appear as fricatives instead of spirants as we might expect. It has already been mentioned that the German fricatives in a medial position often go back to a primitive Germanic verb having the suffix *-jan*, sign of the causative. This *j*-sound effected a modification of a preceding vowel and was later assimilated to the preceding consonant. This aspect of the causatives of verbs has been preserved in Plautdietsch. If the words are divided into syllables it is readily seen how the fricatives arose in the second sound shift. A few examples of the infinitives of double consonants follow:

Plautdietsch	German	English
satte	setzen	set
hette	(heizen)	heat
watte	wetzen	whet
natte	netzen	
stette	stützen	
tuppe	tupfen	tap
kneppe	knöpfen	
dreppe	tropfen	drip
koppe	köpfen	cup
stoppe	stopfen	stop

In the case of the medial *k* a close affinity to Gothic

exists even yet. A word like Gothic *wakjan* appears in Plautdietsch as *wakje* or *wacke*. The first form is of frequent occurrence, although the latter is more prevalent. Phonetically they would be: (vakj^h) and (vak^h). Thus the Germanic causative can still be detected in the (j) and the double (k).

The difference of two words that have arisen from a verb and its causative is seen in words like the following:

father	<i>Wâke</i>	thing	<i>wachen</i>	to be awake
mother	<i>wacke</i>	to rouse	<i>wecken</i>	to rouse

In the pure k-stems the consonants have shifted according to the law governing it; in the double k there are two syllables, the consonant being final and initial. The intermediate result in the second sound shift would be: *wak*: *wach*, and *ken*: *ken*, remaining unchanged. The form *wechken* (the a-sound has been modified by the original j-sound) is not easily pronounced, therefore appears as *wecken*. The causative meaning however is retained.

The same is true of other words of like characteristics. To stick or to pierce is *stâke* in Plautdietsch;

in German it is stechen. A medial k has shifted to a corresponding spirant, as is to be expected. But in its causative sticken: to embroider or cause to stick, the double consonant occurs.

The Spirants

Following are a few words involving the th-sound of English:

father	Fôda	thing	Dink	thick	dick
heather	Had-	think	denk	this	dis
weather	Wada	thwart	dwaa	thumb	Dume
Mother	Môda	thistle	Distel	the	de

It is evident that the Plautdietsch consonant did not remain on the primitive Germanic level as did English, the voiced and unvoiced th-sound appear as d in Plautdietsch as in High German.

The g-sound in Plautdietsch is the hard guttural explosive in syllables when initial in juxtaposition to a back vowel; some speakers still retain the older voiced spirant; in the syllable when final it is the spirant (g) which is voiced (x). A few examples follow:

Gôade	(go:êdê)	Dôag	(do:êg)
gône	(go:nê)	Drôag	(dro:êg)

In the words: garden and to go, the g-sounds are explosives; in: days and chassis they are voiced spirants.

Of the voiced spirants there is none as prominent as the (v) appearing in Plautdietsch words like:

bliewe	bleiben	remain	schriewe	schreiben	write
driewe	treiben	drive	eewe	üben	practise
gauwe	gaben	gave	håwe	heben	heave
Daw	Taube	dove	stêawe	sterben	die
leeve	lieben	love	Leew	Liebe	love
såwen	sieben	seven	schuwe	schieben	shove

In all the cases above the corresponding German word has a b; Anglo-Saxon cognates have (v) like Plautdietsch. It is therefore primitive Germanic, predominantly. Both languages are dialects which root in the German North of- in the Low German spoken there today.

Umlaut in the Noun

In looking at English words like mouse and mice, man and men, we find that number is indicated by means of vowel modification. This phenomenon is of much more frequent occurrence in Plautdietsch than in English. Umlaut forms definite patterns.

(and new)
^

There are two ways in which plurals are formed: by appending certain endings like e, s, es, sch to the singular, and by modifying the vowel of the stem. It sometime happens that we have a double plural: by suffix and by umlaut. E. g., Stool, Steela: * stool, stools.

The umlaut pattern in the noun is as follows:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
aa, a	āa	ô	ā
au	aa, e, ā	oo	ee
ea	ee	(ô)	a
oa	ea, ā	ôa	āa
e	ē	u	ie
i	ie		

Following are a few examples of umlaut in the Plautdietsch noun:

Wach	Wāaj	Drôt	Drād
Daak	Dāaka		
		Droom	Dreem
Baul	Baala	Boom	Beem
Kaum	Kaam	Stool	Steela
Laum	Laama	Woolt	Weela
Faul	Faal	Koo	Keaj
Baulch	Baalj		
		Korf	Karw
Baunt	Benja	Borch	Barj
Launt	Lenda	Kopp	Keap
		Topp	Taap
Raut	Rāda	Loch	LaCha
Blaut	Blāda	Foss	Faas
Faut	Fād	Dochta	Dächta

*This is not a weak plural but an analogical form of the type: Wald, Wālder; cf. German: Stuhl, Stühle.

Han	Heena	Nôagel	Nâajel
Hoarn	Heana	Vôagel	Vâajel
Koarn	Kâana	Zôagel	Zâajel
Let	Lâda	Hus	Hieša
Jlet	Jlâda	Mus	Mieš
Ɔričh	Ɔriej	Rum	Riema
Stiçh	Stiej	Tun	Tiena
		Mul	Miela
		Lus	Lieš

Umlaut in the Verb

The verb exhibits two kinds of modification of vowels: one appearing in the principle parts of the verb belonging to vowel gradation, (Ablaut and Abtönung), pertaining to the tenses; the other being a modification of vowels in the different persons of the conjugations, referring to the vowel state (Lautstand) of verb forms corresponding to the personal pronouns. It is the latter that is concerned with umlaut.

The personal endings are appended to the stem or root of the verb. In many cases two or more consonants are added to stems ending in a consonant; the result is a modification of the stem or root vowel, a phenomenon following a definite pattern.

A general outline of verb umlaut can be visualized

by taking the infinitive, formed by adding shwa to the root, (which in pure stems is identical to the first person singular present), and giving the forms for the second and third person singular. These are the only forms that differ. An example of a verb conjugated in the present would be:

ec̄t scheid	wi scheede
du scheidst	ji scheede
he scheidt	se scheede

The only consonantal endings in the foregoing example are -st and -t; all persons of the plural are like the infinitive, and the first singular drops the short e. ~~of the infinitive~~

Therefore, to examine umlaut in the verb we need only be concerned with the second and third person singular and the infinitive to show how the vowels of these forms differ from the root vowel. Following are a number of examples:

give	staal	eat	feed
jāwe	stāle	āte	frāte
jefst	staist	atst	fratst
jeft	stait	at	frat

break	stick	fall	bleed
brake	stake	faule	bleede
braakst	staakst	felst	bladst
braakt	staakt	felt	blatt
thrust	bid	buy	cry
steete	beede	keepe	schrie'e
statst	bidst	karst	schrichst
statt	bidt	kart	schricht
ride	tear	suffer	write
riede	riete	liede	schriewe
ridst	ritst	lidst	schrifst
ridt	ritt	lidt	schrift
catch	throw	bite	get
jriepe	schmiete	biete	erie'e
jripst	schmitst	bitst	erichst
jript	schmitt	bitt	ericht
go	hit	stand	hold
gone	schlone	stone	hole
jeist	schleist	steist	helst
jeit	schleit	steit	helt
screw	schuw	slough	creep
schruwe	schuwe	schluwe	krupe
schrifst	schifst	schlifst	kript
schrift	schift	schlift	kript

The modal auxiliaries do not form according to the pattern given in the foregoing examples. As to type they are like the past, in that the first and third person singular are identical. In this case the bare stem does not always form the singular, first person. The six modal auxiliaries are:

däawe	käne	määje	säle	welle
(derwe)	(kēne)	motte	(selle)	

The forms in parentheses are alternative or optional forms. The long ä-sound appears in an alternative form: (ê). This umlaut phenomenon is also to be found in the noun; teakne, Teaken have alternative forms in: tākne, Tāken, to mark, token. This is also true of some plurals:

Hoarn	Heana or Hāna
Koarn	Keana or Kāna

All modal auxiliaries except welle and motte: will and must have modified vowels:

	dürfen	können	mögen	sollen
1:	dôaf	kaun	mach	saul
2:	dôafst	kaunst	machst	saulst
3:	dôaf	kaun	mach	saul
1:	derwe	kēne	määje	selle
	däawe	kāne		säle

In the verb then, again, there is a definite pattern of umlaut corresponding to the table dealing with the umlaut pattern. Comparison with the noun will show that the "stem-vowel: umlaut" pattern is here reversed. A table will visualize this:

<u>Stem Vowel</u>	<u>Umlaut</u>	<u>Stem Vowel</u>	<u>Umlaut</u>
a	e	ee	i
ä	a	ie	i
aa	aa	ô	ei
au	e	o	e
oo	a	u	i

The modal auxiliaries fall into the same pattern; this is also true of the word families as we shall see later on.

Umlaut in the Adjective

The three degrees of comparison of the adjective often have umlaut. The following examples are only suggestive and do not deal fully with the subject of adjectival umlaut. Again we have an example of the law of umlaut correspondence:

short:	kort	karta	kartsten
long:	langk	lenja	lenjsten
big:	grot	jrata	jraststen
small:	kleen	klanda	klandsten
heavy:	schwôa	schwanda	schwandsten
high:	hoach	hecha	hechststen
late:	lôt	lôta	latsten
good:	(got)	bâta	baststen

Umlaut pairs that we have not met in the verb and the noun are: A: e; ie: a; * ô: a; oa: e; ô: a.

* An alternative form for "kleen" is "klien".

These examples of umlaut in the verb, the noun, and the adjective will show that they are characteristically Germanic, and, as will be shown later, they bear a definite relationship to German.

The Ablaut of the Verb

"Jakob Grimm bezeichnet (mit dem Ablaut) den Vokalwechsel im Stamme gewisser Verben, die mittels (dessens) verschiedene Zeitformen bilden." 1)

A truly Germanic characteristic of Plautdietsch is the presence, in certain of its verbs, of a vowel gradation or ablaut indicative of the tenses. As has already been shown, umlaut is frequently characteristic of the different persons of the verb; ablaut, as will be seen, is often peculiar to the tenses.

According to a philological tradition the so-called strong verbs in German have been grouped into ablaut series, each having a characteristic vowel pattern. The same series are present in Plautdietsch, but in many cases with an earlier state of Germanic vowels.

We have already seen that the consonantal state

1: George Nordmeyer: Werden und wesen der deutschen Sprache, /p. 34

(Lautstand) of Plautdietsch is characteristically primitive Germanic or Low German, as is also Anglo-Saxon. The state of the vowels in the ablaut-series of the verb is much closer to earlier Germanic than is German. In many cases it is very close to Gothic.

Represented in phonetic sounds the vowels of the first ablaut-series of Gothic, present singular, past singular and plural, and past participle, were: (i:), (ae), (e) or (i), (e) or (i):

beita	bait	bitum	bitans
-teiha	-taih	-taihum	-taihans

It seems that the Plautdietsch vowel pattern follows the second example more closely than the first. The Gothic *beita* in the four corresponding forms is: *biete*, *beet*, *beete*, *jebāte*. The two forms in the past have become analogous, the vowel of the past participle has been lengthened. The present stem is identical with Plautdietsch. The first ablaut series is:

cry:	schrie'e	schreaħ	schreaje	-schrāaje
get:	krie'e	kreaħ	kreaje	krāaje
step:	stie'e	steaħ	steaje	stāaje
ride:	riede	reedħ	reede	rāde

cut:	schniede	schneedt	schneede	schnāde
suffer:	liede	leedt	leede	lāde
quarrel:	striede	streedt	streede	strāde
drive:	driewe	dreef	dreewe	drāwe
remain:	bliewe	bleef	bleewe	blāwe
tear:	riete	reet	reete	rāte
throw:	schmiete	schmæet	schmeete	schmāte
appear:	schiene	scheen	scheene	schāne
spit:	spie'e	speach	speaje	spāaje

The foregoing examples give ample evidence of the Germanic primitive character of Plautdietsch. The second and third column of Low German verb forms have the same vowels, the plural following the analogy of the singular. The shwa diphthong ea consistently appears in juxtaposition to a palatal.

In the second series we have the Indogermanic forms: *bheudh-, *bhoudh-, *bhudh-, *bhudh-; from which Plautdietsch vowels are not very far removed:

bid:	beede	boodt	boode	-bāde
pour:	jeete	goot	goote	gāte
shoot:	scheete	schoot	schoote	schāte
fly:	fleaje	floach	floage	flōage
lie:	leaje	loach	loage	lōage
freeze:	freare	froa	froare	frōare
lose:	veleare	veloa	veloare	velōare
shove:	schuwe	schoof	schoowe	schōwe
creep:	krupe	koop	kroope	krōpe

In Gothic this series had the vowels: iu, au, u, and

and u. In Eld High German this au appears as ou.

This is precisely the case with the Plautdietsch forms of the past; the oo-sound being phonetic (ou:).

The infinitive is not always in ee, but sometimes has u as in the case of schuwe. Other forms like it are: supe, krupe, sugē: sip, creep, suck.¹ It is from this vowel series that we might draw evidence of the Franconian character of Plautdietsch. Only in the Franconian did the shift from Gothic iu, before labials or palatals, to io take place in the present. Upper German retained the Gothic iu as is exemplified in words like biugan and liugan.² Plautdietsch has ea which in many cases is pronounced as ia in the dialect. E. g., alternative forms for: Peat, Pead; Ead, Weada are: Piat, Pbad; Iad, Wiada. This might be a point in favor of the assumption that the disappearance of the final n in nouns and in the infinitive are truly Franconian traits.

The third series, in Gothic, exhibited the following vowels: i, a, ^{au}u, and ^{au}u, before double nasals like m and n, and a nasal combination like -nt, et cetera. The verbal forms in Plautdietsch still bear great similarity

1: Usual explanation: reduced diphthong; cf.: leipein, li-

2: Heyse: Deutsche Grammatik: p. 325 /pein.

to the Gothic forms. There is however a new phenomenon, seemingly a characteristic strictly Plautdietsch, that of the -ung, unj, unjk combinations where in English and German we have: -und, -nt, and -nd. Examples of this shift can be found in the series below:

bind:	binje	bungk	bunge	-bunge
urge:	drinje	drungk	drunge	drunge
sway:	schwinje	schwungk	schwunge	schwunge
drink:	drinke	drunk	drunke	drunke
stink:	stinke	stunk	stunke	stunke
force:	dwinje	dwungk	dwunge	dwunge
spin:	spenne	sponn	sponne	sponne
swim:	schwamme	schwomp	schomme	schwonne
win:	wenne	wonn	wonne	wonne
milk:	malke	molk	molke	molke
scold:	schelle	schult	schulle	schulle
swell:	schwalle	schwoll	schwolle	schwolle
become:	woare	wort	worde	worde
help:	halpe	help	holpe	holpe

Of especial interest to us, and to High German philologists as well, is the second Plautdietsch column. It is formed according to the analogy of the plural^{*}, whereas in German words like binden we have: band, banden. In Plautdietsch the tendency was to assimilate the singular to the plural; the singular forms corresponding to the Gothic singular have dropped out altogether.

The fourth series had the vowels i, a, ū, and u.

* Since the 2nd person singular of bintan in OHG was bundi the Plautdietsch past singulars may have their origin in a corresponding form.

These Gothic vowels correspond to the following forms in the dialect:

take:	nāme	naum	naume	-nōme
thresh:	drasche	drosch	drosche	drosche
come:	kōme	kaum	kaume	kōme
ferment:	jāare	goa	goare	gōare
speak:	sprāate	sproak	sproake	sprōake
pull:	tracke	trock	trocke	trocke
hit:	traffe	troff	troffe	troffe
braid:	flächte	flocht	flechte	flochte

The fifth series of the Gothic verb had the following vowels: i, a, ē, and i. In Old High German they were: i and ē; a; ē; ē. Plautdietsch vowels correspond very closely. The short a has become (áo) in relatively recent times, and is characteristic of this dialect.

give:	jāwe	gauf	gauwe	(-jārt)
forget:	vejāte	vegaut	vegaute	jāte
feed:	frāte	fraut	fraute	frāte
eat:	āte	aut	aute	jāte
read:	lāse	laus	lauše	lāse
measure:	māte	maut	maute	māte
tread:	trāde	traudt	traude	trāde
lie:	lidje	lach	lage	lāaje
beg:	bedde	baudt	baude	(bedt)

In the case of lidje and bedde there are older forms in -jan due to which the Indogermanic ē has not been retained, being shifted to i. In the word bedde we have a short e instead of a short i.

In the sixth series Gothic \bar{a} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} , and \bar{a} become a , uo , uo , and a in High German. Plautdietsch examples are:

dig:	gr ^o we	growe	growe	(-gr ^o ft)
draw:	m ^o le	mol	mole	m ^o le
hit:	schl ^o ne	schleach	schloage	schl ^o age
carry:	dr ^o age	droach	droage	(dr ^o agt)
drive:	fo ^a re	foa	foare	fo ^a re
wash:	wausche	wosch	wosche	wosche
grow:	wausse	woss	wossee	wosse
lift:	h ^a we	hof	howe	h ^o we
swear:	schweare	schwea	schw ^o are	schw ^o are
stand:	st ^o ne	stunt	stunde	st ^o ne

A few of the forms are irregular due to the influence of succeeding consonants. The last verb is especially irregular.

Besides these six series there are other irregular verb forms which have sometimes been grouped under a seventh. There are fundamental differences even here. Salient features will be kept distinct:

hold:	hole	hilt	hilde	-hole
fall:	faule	foll	folle	folle
hang:	henje	hongk	honge	honge
salt:	solte	solt	solte	solte
go:	g ^o ne	jinjk	jinje	g ^o ne
sleeps	schl ^o pe	schleep	schleepe	schl ^o pe
fry:	br ^o de	brodt	brode	br ^o de
let:	l ^o te	leet	leete	l ^o te
guess:	r ^o de	rodt	rode	r ^o de

call:	heete	heet	heete	-heete
heat:	hette	hett	hette	(hett)
separate:	scheede	scheid	scheede	schäde
thrust:	steete	stad	stade	(-stat)

Some of the other examples which we might expect to find under this division do not occur because according to present day conventions the verb is weak and does not show unlaute or ablaut. E. g., *repe*, *repte*, *jeropt* is weak and does not have the ablaut forms in *reep*, *reepe* in the past as we might expect. It does, however, occur in "Hamburger Platt."

This completes the survey of the ablaut series in Plautdietsch. It has been shown, that on the whole, the language belongs to the older form of Germanic. Its vowels are quite frequently close to Gothic, and sometimes identical with Old High German vowels.

Ablaut, however, is not limited to the strong verbs but can be found in the different forms of the verbs of motion and in the members of a word family.

THE MOTIONAL ASPECTS OF THE VERB

In the section dealing with the verb and the formation of tenses it was shown that there are really only three forms in the different persons that differ from the infinitive: the first three persons singular. The first person is the mere stem, the second and third add -st and -t. To conjugate a given verb we must know the three principle^a parts: the infinitive, the first person singular in the past, and the past participle. These are the criteria which inform us as to person and tense. Should we find any other sound in the verb we must expect to find therein additional information in regard to it. There are of course so-called irregularities, but these can be accounted for by philological laws.

By a process of elimination it can be shown that the verb expresses not only time and person, but an aspect of motion as well. This phenomenon does not seem to have been discovered so far, since, in most cases these forms, indicative of motion, are more rare in German and far more so in English. In Plautdietsch however they are so

frequent that they cannot but attract attention.

Primitive Germanic forms will not be considered in an attempt at discovering the first beginnings of this phenomenon. This is to be only a concise statement of the basic ideas underlying the concept suggested by the title of this chapter.

The Basic Root of the Verb

Many verbs suggest a basic idea, consonants and vowels sometimes being added or changed to suggest a new relation to that basic concept. In the word *drinke* we have such a basic root; it means to ingest fluid. This is a verb type the action of which is performed by the subject of the sentence. *Eck drink* means: I drink. But *drenke* means: to give to drink, to cause to drink. The action of the verb is caused by the subject of the sentence, without specifically going into the action. *Eck drenk daut Peat*: I water the horse. The horse does the drinking, but the subject of the sentence has something to do with the possibility of it doing so.

These types of verbs are earlier Germanic -jan or

causative forms. In Plautdietsch the vowel of the active form is unlauded in the causative. The same phenomenon appears in wôake: to wake or keep vigil, and in wacke: to cause to wake or to rouse. This form is to be compared with Gothic wakjan.

In these examples a basic verb changes its vowel in order to express a new relationship between the action and the subject or object of that action. The causative has been formed. In the same way a basic root can by the addition of characteristic consonants show different types of motions.

The Significance of L, R and a Sibilant

The Plautdietsch word for the German zücken: to draw or pull suddenly, (likely a cognate of tuck), is: tecke. The word for; to pull or draw is: tracke. Tecke has the further implication of forced suddenness. This verb exemplifies a characteristic basic word. There are two explosives, an intervening vowel, and an appended shwa to indicate the infinitive.

To the word family tecke, though, belong three

other verbs that differ only by an inserted consonant: teck-l-e, teck-r-e, and teck-s-e. Since there are many other verbs that follow this pattern there must be a definite meaning to each of these consonants. They have nothing to do with the formation of tenses or persons since they can themselves be individually conjugated:

eck	teck	teckel	tecka(r)	tecks
du	teckst	teckelst	tecka(r)st	tecks(s)t
he	teckt	teckelt	tecka(r)t	teckst
wi	tecke	teckle	teckre	teckse

The forms in the third column are only schematic; the original connecting vowel of teckre was short e; before final r it was lengthened to a and the combination -erst and -ert took on the forms: -ascht and -at. Therefore the actual forms today are: tecka, teckascht, teckat, teckre. In the fourth column the s before the ending -st coalesces with the succeeding s so that the form is teckst, identical to the basic form teckst. The connecting vowel is still present in the second verb; it always remains before final l, but disappears when shwa follows.

As to meaning the basic root suggests continuous

pulling or drawing, unrepeated, a short spatial interval. The verb in the second column means the same thing, done mildly and deftly; the third: to do this repeatedly or iteratively; the fourth: to perform this motion once, suddenly and forcibly. These are the motional aspects of the Plautdietsch verb. To recapitulate: column one and four suggest motions that occur once and are not repeated; the *s* adds the further concept of force or suddenness to the basic idea. Columns two and three are iteratives or frequentives: the action of the motion is repeated in both; in the former it is mildly and deftly repeated, in the latter- suddenly and iteratively.

To introduce a new concept into Germanic philology the three deviating forms could be called the first, the second, and the third aspect of motion of the verb, in the respective order of: *l*, *r*, and *s* (or any other sibilant). The *l*-form is the mild iterative, the *r*-form the sudden one; the *s*-form is an intensive, a motion occurring but once, a concept identical with the basic form plus the added information of suddenness.

In the strictest sense these are not always aspects

of motion, but sometimes also of action; this is especially true of verbs which imply very little spatial motion. In many cases it is an abstract mental relationship. To yank is a slang term for sudden pulling or jerking. The Plautdietsch cognate which should be janke is not in general use any longer; it is however to be found in the Hamburg dialect. Now the word for strong, repeated attraction or desire is: jankre. It is an iterative of the second degree; its emotional picture is described by the iterative r.

Before compiling a list of these verbs it might be added that in these verb aspects there is a strong argument for the onomatopoeic origin of speech. What is so mild and languid as l? Is the rolled r not the only iterative sound in languages so far known? What is more suggestive of a sudden whisking motion than s or a sibilant? Each consonant appears in its true individual character, conforming to its inherent physiological nature.

It frequently happens that a basic form will have only one or more of these aspects in current use; this is due to the incompatibility of the motion implied in the

root and that supplied by the consonant inserted.

Following is a suggestive list of these verbs:

schuwe		to shove or push
schibble	l	to wobble or be unstable
schuwre	r	to work with a Dutch hoe
schupse	s	to push suddenly
piepe		to whistle or to pipe
pieple	l	to whistle laconically
piepre	r	to whistle continually
piepse	s	to whistle shrilly
håake		to hook
håakle	l	to crochet
håakre	r	to mix by hooking motions
hakse	s	to hook forcibly
stucke		to jolt vertically
stuckle	l	to do this mildly
stuckre	r	to jolt repeatedly
stuckse	s	to jolt suddenly
jleppe		to slip or slide
.....		
jleppre	r	to slip to and fro
jlepse	s	to slip suddenly
steete		to but or knock
.....		
stottre	r	to stutter
stutse	s	to start in astonishment
bewåaje		to move out of position
waggle		to move to and fro
jeete		to pour
kietre	r	to splutter

hāwe		to heave or lift
hawle	l	to lift deftly: plane
habbre	r	to move with impediment
hupse	s	to lift forcibly: jump
weihe		to blow mildly
bewähle	l	to dry off blowing lightly
wiehre	r	to whinner
klaupe		to clap
klaupre	r	to clatter
klaupse	s	close suddenly

The foregoing examples have been suggestive enough to gain the general idea conveyed by the three consonants characteristic of the aspects of motion or action. In the following list there are further examples with their English equivalents:

lache:	to laugh
lachre:	to laugh repeatedly, seem ridiculous
leçhle:	to laugh mildly: to smile
schlôpe:	to sleep
schleepre:	to long for sleep
ducke:	to duck
duckre:	to seesaw rapidly
schlône:	to hit
schlackre:	to move loosely
schlackse:	to throw forcibly
scheede:	to separate
scheedle:	to sort
schitse:	to close of a chute
Klacke:	to leak, drop, drip
Klackre:	to dribble
Klackse:	to splutter
Kwiddre:	to spill repeatedly
Kwitsche:	to soak forcibly
gnuppe:	to slip over a knob

gnupse:	to slip over a knob forcibly
scholkre:	to shake fluid in a closed vessel
scholkse:	to do the foregoing once
schulpe:	to rush like an oncoming wave
schulpse:	to do the foregoing suddenly
holle:	to hollow
holpre:	to move unevenly, jolt
holkre:	to make hollow with force
steewe:	to sift like dust or mist
steewre:	to do this iteratively
schniede:	to cut
schnippre:	to cut continually
schnipse:	to snip, cut deftly
kniepe:	to pinch
knipse:	to snap
fleite:	to flit, flow
flautre:	to flutter
fleidre:	to flutter noisily
flitse:	to flit very suddenly
chape:	to grapple, grab
chapse:	to grab forcibly, snatch
haupe:	to take a bite
haupse:	to take a sudden bite
keepe:	to buy
kauble:	to bandy words
kupple:	to barter
riewe:	to rub
rubble:	to rub on a wash board
schnuwe:	to blow the nose
schneffle:	to snuff about
schnuppre:	to sniff about noisily
gnôage:	to gnaw
gnaubre:	to nibble noisily
jnibble:	to nibble
stricke:	to stroke
strickle:	to stroke lightly
kleewe:	to stick, paste
klesse:	to paste lavishly
klietre:	to throw continually
klâtre:	to make a continual noise of rattling

jriepe:	to catch
jriipse:	to snatch
stääte:	to pierce, prick
steckle:	to bolt with a stick
stôakre:	to poke about, to stoke
tuppe:	to touch with the fingers
tuppre:	to do this repeatedly
tupse:	to do this deftly, lightly
luppre:	to employ the lips noisily
lebbre:	to move the lips noisily
klaue:	to claw
klautre:	to clatter or climb
klautsche:	to clap noisily
wesche:	to whisk, mop
weschle:	to mop lightly
wutsche:	to whisk away deftly
stelpe:	to tip
stolpre:	to stagger
puffe:	to puff
puffre:	to puff repeatedly
flaume:	to flame
flemre:	to flicker
flitse:	to flit
keiwe:	to chew
jeiwere:	to slaver
knäde:	to knead
knêddre:	to crunch
knutsche:	to crumple
knee'e:	to kneel
kneckse:	to bow the knee deftly, courtsy
locke:	to allure
lockre:	to make loose
luckse:	to entice cunningly
poake:	to poke
peake:	to ride fast, due to poking
puckre:	to poke repeatedly
poakse:	to poke suddenly
wrecke:	to bend suddenly
wridjle:	to wriggle
wreckse:	to bend suddenly and quickly
krôage:	to invite, call
krâajle:	to tease

There is a further onomatopoeic characteristic of these verbs: the vowel is often suggestive of the sound of possible resulting wave motions. Baulre is the sound of repeated throwing of a ball against a wall; bullre, on the other hand, is such a noise of much lower pitch, suggested by the short u. The same is true for example of the two words: belebbre and beluppre. They both mean to pluck away with the lips by means of iterative action. Sometimes the sound is high-pitched; this is belebbre; sometimes it is a dull sound: this is beluppre. (Anyone having handled horses will be acquainted with the two distinct sounds.) There are many other examples of this.

This same phenomenon is present in the German and the English verb of Anglo-Saxon origin, although it is not as well developed. In English the l-forms have often taken on a causative meaning, e. g., suck, suckle; where, in German we have the old causative forms: saugen, säugen: suge, seaje.

These verbs give rise to corresponding nouns: Tups, Tuppel; Klaup, Klaups, Klaupa; Teck, Tecka, Tecks. In

the last three words Teck means a sudden pull;
 Tecka is an instrument of pull to and fro: a pitman;
 and the last term simply means a forced jerk or pull.
 Other parts of speech derived from these words fall into
 the same pattern.

It is evident from the examples given that the stem
 consonants frequently vary. A bit of reflection might
 suggest an explanation. E. g., hawe, hawle, hubbre, hup-
 se have three different consonants: w, b, and p. Since
 Indogermanic bh later shifted to b or (v), it is quite
 possible that an r in juxtaposition to bh might have pre-
 vented this shift. In hupse it is a simple matter of
 assimilation, since it ^{is} frequently difficult to pronounce
 a voiced sound before an unvoiced one.

A wealth of new forms have been discovered, giving
 to the Plautdietsch verb shades of meaning which in
 other languages might require a lot of circumscription.
 In this respect its verb forms are more numerous than
 German and English. The frequentive in r is well de-
 veloped in the latter, but the other two aspects are far
 less numerous.

CHAPTER VI

PLAUTDIETSCH IN RELATION TO ENGLISH AND GERMAN

It is not without significance that reference is made to the two related languages in the given order. English, or at least the Anglo-Saxon element of it, is a sister language of Plautdietsch, whereas German might be called a cousin to the two. This will be shown by comparing Plautdietsch with the other two.

The Verb Forms

The essential Low German character of English and Plautdietsch is seen in the conjugations of the so-called weak verbs in that the explosives frequently become involved. Thus we can see the state of these consonants before the second sound shift (English and Plautdietsch) and after it (German). This can be easily seen in comparing the forms of a verb like: leewe, to love, lieben:

eck leew	I love	ich liebe
du leefst	thou lovest	du liebst
he leeft	he loves	er liebt
wi leewe	we love	wir lieben
eck leewd	I loved	ich liebte

du leewsd	thou lovedest	du liebtest
he leewd	he loved	er liebte
wi leewde	we loved	wir liebten
jelieft	loved	geliebt
jelieude	beloved	geliebte

In the table above the present and past of the verb, the past participle, and the participle when used adjectivally are given. In this way it is possible to observe the behavior of the spirant (v) in relation to the explosive (b), and the voiced explosive (d) in relation to (t). At the same time the personal endings -st and -t cause a voiced sound to become voiceless.

In conjugating the verb to do the behavior of the characteristic explosive becomes apparent. Some philologists have suggested that the past tense of weak verbs in German and regular verbs in English has evolved from an older form of the verb to do. This might well be the case since Plautdietsch weak verbs seem to point in the same direction.

eck do	I do	ich tue
du deist	thou doest	du tust
he deit	he does	er tut
wi done	we do	wir tun

ec̄k deed	I did	ich tat
du deedst	thou didst	du tatst
he deed	he did	er tat
wi deede	we did	wir taten
jedône	done	getan
Jedône	done	getane

In examining the forms given we can see that the state of the Germanic consonants prior to and after the second sound shift is exemplified by Plautdietsch and English, and by German respectively. When a voiced consonant becomes voiceless due to other voiceless sounds in an adjacent position, the same thing happens in the forms corresponding to the second sound shift. E. g.: *leeft* and *liebt*. In English the corresponding form retains the voiced sound because of its position between two vowels: *lovest*. The same is true of the German obsolescent form: *du liebest*.

A number of weak verbs follow to show that the foregoing is a general rule. Only the principle parts are required:

tale	tald	talde	jetalt	jetalde
tell	told	told	told	
zählen	zählte	zählten	gezählt	gezählte

saje	säd	säde	jessajt	jesajde
say	said	said	said	
sagen	sagte	sagten	gesagt	gesagte
hiele	hield	hiede	jehielt	jehiede
howl	howled	howled	howled	
heulen	heulte	heulten	geheult	geheulte
frie'e	fried	friede	jefriet	jefriede
free	freed	freed	freed	
freien	freite	freiten	gefriet	gefrieite
felle	feld	felde	jefellt	jefelde
fill	filled	filled	filled	
füllen	füllte	füllten	gefüllt	gefüllte
feele	feeld	feelde	jefeelt	jefeelde
feel	felt	felt	felt	
fühlen	fühlte	fühlten	geföhlt	geföhlte

I

In these examples we can readily see that Plautdietsch and English behave in an almost identical way in regard to the d-sound which is indicative of the past. In German the shift has been from d to t. In Plautdietsch as soon as the past participle is used as an adjective the t stands between two voiced sounds and becomes voiced itself, e. g.: *daut jetalde Jelt*: the counted money.

In some of the strong Plautdietsch and irregular English verbs we can see the great similarity of the two languages, especially in regard to the k-sound:

bräake	broak	broake	jebrôake
break	broke	broke	broken
brechen	brach	brachen	gebrochen
stäake	stoak	stoake	jestôake
stick	stuck	stuck	stuck
stechen	stach	stachen	gestochen
beseake	besecht	besechte	besecht
beseech	beseught	beseught	beseught
besuchen	besuchte	besuchten	besucht

In these examples we can see that English and Plautdietsch are very similar, consonantly. The final n of the past participle appears when used as an adjective: *daut jebroakne Launt*: the broken land. The silent gh-sound in English is pronounced in Plautdietsch.

But not only in the verb forms is there a great similarity, the tenses and their use are also quite similar to English:

The Tenses

The different tenses of a verb like *liken* show the great likeness of the two West Germanic dialects:

Present: *eck licken* I *liken* ich *gleiche*
 du lickenst thou *likenst* gleichst
 he licken he *likens* er *gleich*

	wi lickne	we liken	wir gleichen
	ji lickne	ye liken	ihr gleicht
	se lickne	they liken	sie gleichen
Past:	eck lickend	I likened	ich gleichte
	du lickensd	thou likensed	du gleichtest
	he lickend	he likened	er gleichte
	wi lickende	we likened	wir gleichten
	ji lickende	ye likened	ihr gleichtet
	se lickende	they likened	sie gleichten

The k-sound of Plautdietsch of course is not the hard k of English, but a k which has appeared due to a phenomenon that might be called vowel-consonant harmony. Frontal vowels require frontal consonants, back consonants go paired with vowels formed in the same region. For this reason the k-sound in liken: lickne is: (k̟), the frontal counterpart of the harder back k-sound.

The do-forms of English are in current use in Plautdietsch; but they are not used in the sense of emphatic forms, (that is true when the do-form is emphatically stressed), but as progressive forms. In other words, they correspond to the English present and past progressive in the forms of the verb to be plus the present participle. The following examples will illustrate this:

Present	eck do malke	I do milk
progressive:	du deist malke	thou doest milk
	he deit malke	he does milk
	wi done malke	we do milk
	ji done malke	ye do milk
	se done malke	they do milk
Past	eck deed malke	I did milk
progressive:	du deedst malke	thou didst milk
	he deed malke	he did milk
	wi deede malke	we did milk
	ji deede malke	ye did milk
	se deede malke	they did milk

According to Plautdietsch idiom the progressive or emphatic form is used only of the progressive act and is usually amplified by an adverbial particle, e. g.: Se deit grôds Breef schriewe: She is writing a letter at the moment. There is, of course, an alternative for these forms which correspond to the High German idiom: Eck si grôds biem Breefschriewe: Ich bin gerade beim Briefeschreiben.

On the whole there is a tendency in Plautdietsch as in German to speak in terms of facts rather than of acts. That is why the so-called simple present of English (which is really an aorist, a tense without a horizon, so to speak, a form which really does not denote tense but

the aspect of the verb) finds a greater correspondence in Plautdietsch than the progressive forms. Things are are spoken of in the realm of facts rather than acts.

The grammars of today of course do not clarify the real significance of the English present.¹ When used in a context of past time the grammarians say it is the "historical present". This is just another way of saying that the simple present does not indicate tense. Close examination of the contexts in which idiomatic speakers use it will show that facts are under consideration without reference to time. The English "simple present" and the corresponding Plautdietsch form of the verb are really "aorists" in the true sense of the word. They deal with facts and are indefinite as to time.

It is only in this way that the progressive and the indefinites appear in their true character. When we say: "I write letters: Eck schriew Breew." we know immediately that a fact is under consideration. It would be the answer to a question something like this: "What do you usually do on Sunday afternoons?" The answer might be: "Oh, well. I write letter, go out for a stroll, and study

1: Sacred Scriptures, Concordant Version, p.23: A. E. Knoch.

for an hour or so." Facts have been stated.

The answer to a question like: "What are you doing?" would be: "I am writing a letter.", "Eck do Breef schrie-we." It refers to an act that is in progress. In this respect Plautdietsch is like English.

The term aorist is here used in the sense of indefinite, of the Greek forms that show the characteristic sign of the future and the past (or their equivalent), e. g.: agapo: I am loving, eck do leewe; but egapesa: I love, eck leew; the aorist being a past-future or indefinite.

The use of the English and Plautdietsch indefinite is parallel with the further tendency in the latter to appear in cases where English idiom requires the progressive. The past is used like the English, even in disconnected statements in past time where German idiom requires the perfect. "I went to town yesterday: Eck foa jistre nô Staudt." would in German become: "Ich bin gestern in die Stadt gefahren."

The perfect tense would be formed in the following

Present Perfect

eck ha(b) jelic Kent	I have likened
du hast jelic Kent	thou hast likened
he haft jelic Kent	they have likened
wi ha(be) jelic Kent	we have likened
ji ha(be) jelic Kent	ye have likened
se ha(be) jelic Kent	they have likened

Past Perfect

eck haud jelic Kent	I had likened
du haudst jelic Kent	thou hadst likened
he haud jelic Kent	he had likened
wi haude jelic Kent	we had likened
ji haude jelic Kent	ye had likened
se haude jelic Kent	they had likened

Future Perfect

eck wôa jelic Kent ha(be)
du wôascht jelic Kent ha(be)
he wôat jelic Kent ha(be)
wi wôare jelic Kent ha(be)
ji wôare jelic Kent ha(be)
se wôare jelic Kent ha(be)

The Molotschna dialect, to which the one used in this thesis almost identically corresponds, sometimes shows a greater degree of High German influence than the Chortitza or Old Colony form. In it the auxiliary haben appears in its true Low German form: hawe. Even in the

Molotschaa dialect there is one truly Low German

form: haft, the voiced w (v) becoming voiceless before an unvoiced personal ending. The ending -we or -be frequently drops off.

Plautdietsch uses woare: to become, instead of wel-
le: to will, as an auxiliary in the formation of the fu-
ture tense. It is:

eck wôa lickne	I shall liken
du wôascht lickne	thou wilt liken
he wôat lickne	he will liken
wi wôare lickne	we shall liken
ji wôare lickne	ye will liken
se wôare lickne	they will liken

Plautdietsch idiom corresponds to the High German:
it states a future act factually, using the indefinite
instead of the future. An adverbial particle specifies
the time element: Eck fôa morje nô Staudt: I shall go to
town tomorrow or I am going to town tomorrow.

These examples will be sufficient to show that there
is a fairly close correspondence between the English and
Plautdietsch verb forms and tenses. It is unnecessary
to go into the passive and reflexive forms which show the
same characteristics.

In the following examples appear verbs of cognate origin; the German equivalent or meaning will help to elucidate the series:

pule	pullian	pull	zupfen
pusche	(L.pulso)	push	schieben
plecke	pluccian	pluck	pflücken
gône	gan	go	gehen
jäwe	gifan	give	geben
gauwe		gave	gaben
gnôage	gnagan	gnaw	nagen
sôage	sagan	saw	sâgen
drôage	dragan	dray	tragen
wrecke	wrecan	wreck	wrieken
dreaje	dryge	dry	trocknen
glôare	gloer	glare	stark leuchten
jleaje	glowan	glow	glûhen
blôare	bloesan	blare	plerren
blôse	bloesan	blow	blasen
schuwe	sçufan	shove	schieben
driewe	drifan	drive	treiben
sâwe	siftan	sift	sieben
deuwe	thawan	thaw	tauen
daue			tauen
lôte	loetan	let	lassen
mâaje	mugan	may	mûgen

These few examples will show how closely Anglo-Saxon English and Plautdietsch are related and how German differs from these. In blôare and blôse, incidentally, we have a phenomenon of frequent occurrence in Germanic languages: r and s-voiced appear in words of cognate origin, sometimes in the different parts of speech or principal parts of the verb.

The same similarity is to be found in other parts of speech, especially in the noun. The pronoun, in many cases, is almost identical, if not in spelling then in pronunciation.

The Noun

The noun is no longer fully declined. It does not show the full declensions like German but has a greater number of declined forms than the nouns in the English of today. The masculine and feminine article is identical; the neuter or indefinite differs:

de Maun	the man	de Maana	the men
de Hoot	the hat	de Heed	the hats
de Kopp	the head	de Kaap	the heads
de Haunt	the hand	de Henj	the hands
de Fru	the woman	de Frues	the women
de Lepp	the lip	de Leppe	the lips
de Kenn	the chin	de Kenne	the chins
de Näs	the nose	de Näse	the noses
daut Kint	the child	de Kinja	the children
daut Doak	the shawl	de Deaka	the shawls
daut Kleet	the dress	de Kleeda	the dresses
daut Hooft	the hoof	de Heefta	the hooves

Most of these nouns have umlaut. The plural article is the same as masculine and feminine singular. Many nouns form their plurals in -s or -es:

de Boll	the bull	de Bolles	the bulls
de Bolte	the bolt	de Boltes	the bolts
de Tun	the fence	de Tuns	the fences
de Hôn	the rooster	de Hôns	the roosters

Many of the original plurals in -s now appear in -sch; the combination -ers was contracted to -asch:

de Leara	the teacher	de Learasch
de Vadda	the cousin	de Vaddasch
de Tôta	the whip	de Tôtasch
de Kôta	the tom-cat	de Kôtasch

There are also many nouns which simply add -s as the sign of the plural:

daut Teiw	the single-tree	de Teiws
daut Toch	the double-tree	de Tochs
de Hôwe	the harbor	de Hôwes
de Rôwe	the raven	de Rôwes
daut Bleachsel	blossom	de Bleachsels
daut Schôpke	the lambkin	de Schôpkes

What has been said in the foregoing paragraphs has to do with the nominative only. Although the noun is not as fully declined as in German, there are many instances of the survival of the declined genitive and other older genitival relics. Ordinarily the genitive or really the possessive is formed by using his, hers, and its and what is left of a dative case. The adjectival pronoun

agrees with the noun it modifies. Only the masculine and neuter or indefinite have a dative form:

dām Maun	to the man
dām Kint	to the child

The interrogative whose in Plautdietsbh is: wāms which no doubt is a contracted form of wām sien. The latter is also still in current use. There is also a demonstrative his: dāms or dām sien. The older genitival forms now appear mostly in compound words: Dāgeslicht: daylight; Maunsmensch: a male human being; Darpsschulte: village reeve; Wooldesscoen: edge of the wood; Meddachs-moltiet: midday meal, dinner; Peatskopp: horse's head.

The genitive form of the definite article is not in current use any longer; when used as a demonstrative there is still a remnant in the feminine: Eck wea dāa Meeninj: Ich war der Meinung. The genitive is sometimes, though rarely, used like the English possessive:

Framda Lieds Kinja	strange people's children
aunda Lieds Sache	other people's things

The noun Lied: people is a plural and yet we have the

-s of the genitive or possessive. This never happens in German.

There are some adverbial phrases which have retained a genitival form:

opp stelles	quietly	opp knees	kneeling
opp ludes	audibly	äwa ludes	audibly

The second element in these cases are genitives of older nouns; opp and äwa in these cases require the genitive. The nouns involved are: Stell: stillness; Lut: sound; Knee: knee. There is an alternative form for the last two phrases: opp lud and äwa lud.

There other genitives or possessives that have arisen from an older ending -ers:

Fôdasch Kint	father's child
Môdasch Kint	mother's child
Learasch Sän	a teacher's son
Malasch Sän	a miller's son
Prädjasch Dohta	a minister's daughter

The article is not used in such constructions. When in accompaniment with an adjective the genitive is more frequent:

eenes scheenen Dôages	eines schönen Tages
mearen Deels	for the most part
eenes "	of the one hand

There is an interjectory exclamation in this dialect: Hargoms Kinjal! Hargoms Lied! in which we may have the Germanic word for gentleman. Haar is: lord, sir, gentleman; the ending -gom is an older Germanic word for man (L. homo), still to be detected in: brideg(r)oom and the Plautdietsch equivalent: Briedegaum or Briegom: Brautmann: "bride-man". Briedegom has become Briegom by assimilation.

The dative-possessive in Plautdietsch denotes possession, following a pattern as follows:

däm Maun sien Hoot	the man's hat
de Fru äa Maun:	the woman's husband
däm Maun siene Fru:	the man's wife
däm Maun sien Kint:	the man's child

If the thing possessed is put into the plural the modifying adjective agrees with the noun:

däm Maun siene Heed	the man's hats
däm Maun siene Frues	the man's wives
däm Maun siene Kinja	the man's children

The thing possessed is indicated by the proper form of the possessive pronoun; the case of the possessor is the same as the nominative with the exception of the

masculine and neuter singular, in which cases the dative is used.*

A list of Plautdietsch nouns will show how they differ from the English:

Knief	knife	Malk	milk
Wief	wife	Wadaross	withers
Hoof	hoof	Bät	bit
Boom	boom	Biet	bite
Boak	book	Klaup	clap
Flecht	flight	Staup	step
Tips	tip	Supp	soup
Tett	tit	Drunk	drink
Filt	felt	Drief	drive
Breed (pl)	bread	Bräakinj	breaking
Deach	dough	Mus	mouse
Mies	nice	Koo	cow
Kaulf	calf	Kalwa	calves
Halft	half	Solt	salt

The nouns above are not all equivalents in meaning, they are etymological equivalents. The ordinary word for knife is Massa; Knief is a derogative term for knife. The same is true of Wief; the ordinary word for wife is Fru. Wief means something like hag, schrew.

*The dialect uses the preposition von: of, from in many cases where we should find the genitive in classical literature; especially when source or origin is indicated. E. g.: the kingdom of the heavens: daut Rick vonne Himmel; the Son of Mankind: de Sän vom Mensche; the twitter of the birds: daut Schewietre vonne Fäajel; de Glauns vonne Sonn: the brightness of the sun. In such cases the dialect corresponds to English. Greek: (h)e basileia ton ouranon, etc.

The Pronoun

The personal pronouns are as follows:

nominative:	eck	I	ich
genitive:	miena	of me	meiner
dative:	mi	to me	mir
accusative:	mi	me	mich

nominative:	wi	we	wir
genitive:	onsa	of us	unser
dative:	ons	to us	uns
accusative:	ons	us	uns

nominative:	du	thou	du
genitive:	diena	of thee	deiner
dative:	di	to thee	dir
accusative:	di	thee	dich

nominative:	ji	ye, you	ihr
genitive:	juna	of you	euer
dative:	junt	to you	euch
accusative:	junt	you	euch

nominative:	he	he	er
genitive:	siena	of him	seiner
dative:	am	to him	ihm
accusative:	am	him	ihn

nominative:	se	she	sie
genitive:	ãara	of her	ihrer
dative:	ar	to her	ihr
accusative:	se	she	sie

nominative:	et	it	es
genitive:	siena	of it	seiner
dative:	am	to it	ihm
accusative:	et	it	es

nominative:	se	they	sie
genitive:	ãara	of them	ihrer
dative:	an	to them	ihnen
accusative:	se	them	sie

It is to be noted that the e of et is shwa: (ē); it is pronounced (ēt) and not (ét). The same is true of the accusative form of se, whether the feminine singular or the third person plural; it is always (zē) in the accusative. The nominative on the other hand fluctuates from a full (ze:i) to (zē), depending upon stress and the rapidity of speech. There is frequently a tendency to use the dative form for the accusative. The genitive is rarely used, although it does occur in and current speech:

Wi weare onsa fiew
 Se weare āara dree
 Miēna Meēninj
 Diēna Meēning

There were five of us
 There were three of them
 According to my idea
 According to your idea

The definite article is really a demonstrative; when used in the former sense the long ee becomes shortened to shwa, since it does not have the tone as in the latter case, not being paired with a noun. As a demonstrative the e in de is always long, although it does not always have three mores but only two. It is declined as follows:

nominative:	de	de	daut	de
genitive:	dāms	dāa āa	dāms	dān āa
dative:	dām	dāa	dām	dān
accusative	dān	de	daut	de

The speakers of Plautdietsch do not distinguish too well between the dative and the accusative, although the latter is still in use. Apparently *dāms* is a contraction of *dām sien*, an alternative construction for the former. The interrogative *wā* which has no plural is formed like the demonstrative just discussed:

nominative:	wā	who	wer
genitive:	wāms	whose	wessen
dative:	wām	whom	wem
accusative:	wān	whom	wen

The relative pronoun which, German: *welcher* also occurs, but its form is more like the Anglo-Saxon: *hwone*, which was an accusative. Not that Plautdietsch does not have the etymological equivalent of *welcher*; but it is used in a different sense, being a relative in the literary language but an adjective in the dialect. It means *some* and is used interchangeably with *atliche*: *several*.
Walke Schiela kaume to lot: Some students were too late.
 The relative *wona* is declined as follows:

nominative:	wona	wone	wont	wone
genitive:	wones	wona	wones	wona
dative:	wonem	wone	wonem	wone
accusative:	wonen	wone	wont	wone

The four columns are masculine, feminine, neuter, and plural respectively. The genitive is rarely used, possession is usually indicated by the dative-possessive, the dative plus the proper form of the possessive adjective. The genitive is used with the prepositions: om... haulwe: because of, and om... welle: for the sake of. There will be occasion to refer to this latter in connection with the pronominal adjectives.

It is not to be forgotten that the relative pronoun can be used as a pronominal adjective. Only the masculine and neuter or indefinite change. Wona becomes won, wont (vou:nt) does the same thing in the nominative and the accusative:

Won Maun wea daut?	Which man was it?
Won Kaulf wea daut?	Which calf was it?
Won Kaulf sachst du?	Which calf did you see?

The possessive adjectives can be used either attributively or predicatively:

Mien Maun es hia.	My man is here.
Dit es miens.	This is mine.
Mien Holt es doa.	My wood is there.
Daut Holt es mient.	That wood is mine.

The possessive adjective used with a feminine noun or any plural noun does not change whether used predicatively or attributively. The following behave in the same way:

mien	my	dien	thy
ons	our	jun	your
sien	his	ða	her
sien	its	ða	their

The third person singular feminine and the plural for all three genders correspond. The only thing to be noted is the original root ending in -r; whenever a vowel follows the r creeps in again and we get forms like: ðare Ellre: her or their parents.

As already mentioned, the preposition om... haulwe: for the sake of takes the genitive:

om franda Lieds haulwe	because of strange people
om mienes Wats haulwe	because of my word
om onsaret haulwe	because of us

In the last example we have the full form which is quite frequently shortened down as in German. A shortened form would be: om onsat haulwe. These pronominal genitives can have alternative forms: they may show the genitive

ending in -t or -s:

miens	diens	siens	juns
mienes	dienes	sienes	junes
mient	dient	sient	junt
mienet	dienet	sienet	junet

These are the n-stems and have the alternative genitive in -s or -t, and can be written with the connecting vowel or without it. The other forms usually are:

ons: onsaret or onsat
 aa: aaret, aat, aats

This genitival phenomenon appears in a number of contracted adverbial phrases and directive words. This reminds us of the Greek way of expressing motion from by means of the genitive and the characteristic prepositions: ek and apo. In this case it is motion away, expressed by a genitival contraction:

hiarenthan:	here, in this direction
hiarentwach:	here, in this way
dortenthan:	there, in that direction
dortentwach:	there, that way
janenthan:	that, in that direction
janentwach:	in that way
wonenthan:	which, in which direction
wonentwach:	in or which way
sonenthan:	such, in such a direction
sonentwach:	such a way

dôarenthan:	same as: dortenthan
dôarentwâch:	same as: dortentwâch
woarenthan:	whereto
woarentwâch:	whither

Although forms like wonenthan and woarenthan are almost the same in meaning, yet they are not identical; the same is true of wonentwâch and woarentwâch. The precise force of the term is unequivocal when we consider the meaning of the adjective or adverb component. In the former we have the genitive of won, an interrogative adjective modifying the masculine noun: wâch: way. The stress is upon which; in the other word the first component is an adverb of place: where? The stress is not upon the way itself, but upon the matter of place: whereto, wither.

These adverbial genitives, no doubt, are formed after the pattern of the adjectives; since adverbs are usually not declined. The adverbial genitives in the foregoing list are derived from their respective adverbs: hia, dort, dôa, and woa.

This chapter could be greatly expanded, the field is so vast; but for the scope of this thesis the material adduced to show the relationship of the three Teutonic

languages will be sufficient. English and Plautdietsch are close parallels. They are older forms of the Westgermanic dialects, not taking part in the second sound shift which gave rise to the High German dialects of today.

Linguistically, the speakers of Plautdietsch came into their own upon coming to this continent; they had to relearn an earlier Westgermanic language much like their own. For centuries they had been in quest of religious freedom; they came from the steppes of the Ukraine and other parts of the vast Russian Empire, having emigrated from Prussian territories around the Vistula at the beginning of the nineteenth century. They were not Prussians in the truest sense of the word, but were refugees from the northwest, from the Frisian isles and the adjacent territories. Under the pressure of the Spanish occupation they had left their homeland for freedom in the northeast, there losing their native tongue, a Low German dialect, and adopting another, the Low German spoken around the Vistula. This had been the official language of the Hanseatic League up to the time of the spread of the Lutheran Bible. It has great affinities with English; any English speaking person understands the sound group: (Briá mi: help.)