STRESS ASSIGNMENT RULES FOR OLD ENGLISH
(Poetry)*

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The present paper presents a grid-based analysis of Old English stress rules for Old English poetry, based on metrical evidence. It addresses conflicting theories of and lack of uniformity in scansion, arising from lack of rule-governed word stress principles to be based upon. Therefore, for correct and uniform scansion of a given half-line word stress rules should be determined first and then applied to the words constituting the half-line, and finally, the resulting linguistic stress pattern should be matched to a verse type.

A line of an Old English poem consists of two verses (i.e. half-lines), united by alliteration. A verse in turn consists of two feet, and a foot in turn consists of a ‘long’ syllable bearing primary stress and a varying number of syllables bearing weak stress, with or without a secondary stress on another ‘long’ syllable.

A metrical strong stress, whether primary (′), called the ‘lift’, ‘ictus’, or ‘arsis’, or secondary (″), occurs on a two-mora unit, i.e. a heavy syllable or the resolved equivalent of a sequence of two ‘light’ syllables, of which the first is necessarily a short stressed root-initial syllable and the second an unstressed syllable which is usually short but may be long; on the other hand, weak stress, called the ‘thesis’, may occur on a long or short syllable. A strong stress over a sequence of two such ‘light’ syllables is called a

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resolved stress, indicated either as $\circlearrowleft_x$ or simply as $\circlearrowleft$ for the resolved primary stress and $\circlearrowleft_x$ or simply $\circlearrowleft$ for the resolved secondary stress on the second member of a compound word, as in (1–2), where (a) exhibits the linguistic stress pattern of a verse and (b) its metrical stress pattern, with the slash mark (/) representing foot division.

(1) a. feorh gênerêde $\rightarrow$ b. feorh gênerêde
   (Brunnanburh 36), an A-type verse

(2) a. càldùm cyle-gicelum $\rightarrow$ b. càldùm/cyle-gicelum
   (Phoenix 59), a D_1-type verse

However, a strong stress may occur on a short syllable alone, indicated as $\circlearrowleft$ or $\circlearrowright$, when it is immediately preceded by a long stressed syllable (primary or secondary) in the preceding word in a compound (3b) or a phrase (3a, c, d).

(3) a. ofer déop/wåter (Genesis 2875), a C-type verse
    b. in gêar-dågùm (Wanderer 44), a C-type verse
    c. wît/éft cúmå (Genesis 2881), a D_1-type verse
    d. æólêng/mánig (Beowulf 1112), an A-type verse

Of the lexical words, nouns and adjectives nearly always bear a metrical strong stress, and verbs and adverbs may or may not, while function words are seldom stressed except on metrical demands.

Traditionally, on OE verse has been scanned so as to fit one of Sievers’

1 A short syllable bearing primary stress normally undergoes resolution, especially if it is alliterating and is the first stressed syllable of the half-line. On the other hand, a short syllable bearing primary stress occurring towards the end of the half-line often stands unresolved, as in water (3a), where resolution is suspended as it would result in fewer than the minimum number of four metrical positions per half-line. Thus, resolution occurs more often on stressed alliterating syllables than on stressed non-alliterating syllables. Hence, the positions of obligatory resolution are the strongest metrical positions in the half-line, since when two constituents containing stressed alliterating positions appear within the same metrical domain, the first constituent is strong and the second constituent weak (Russom, 1987:115). Also it is to be noted that secondary stress within a word is never resolved unless it results from stress sub-ordination in a compound word as in cyle-gicelum (2a).
five basic verse types (4), some with a number of variants, of which types B (iambic) is a mirror image of type A (trochaic), and type C is a combination of types A and B, i.e. trocho-iambic, and type E is a mirror image of type D.

(4) A: \(x/\) (stíðum wordum) (Genesis 2848)
   \(x/x\) (glæd-mōd gyrneð) (Phoenix 462)
   \(x/x\) (bord and brād swurd) (Maldon 15)
   \(x/x\) (guā-rinc gold-wlanc) (Beowulf 1881)

B: \(x/x\) (pīn āgen beārn) (Genesis 2851)

C: \(x/x\) (on flot fēran) (Maldon 41)

D, E: \(x/x\) (eald inwitta) (Brunnanburh 46)


D: \(x/x\) (grētað gliw-stafum) (Wanderer 52)

D, E: \(x/x\) (flet innanweard) (Brunnanburh 1977)


E, E: \(x/x\) (andlangne dāg) (ibid. 21)

E, E: \(x/x\) (fifelcynnes eard) (ibid. 104)

E, E: \(x/x\) (morðor-bed strēd) (ibid. 2437)

It is to be noted from (4) that of the verse types that contain a foot beginning with a stressed syllable (A, C, D, E), secondary stress is obligatory for the types D and E but optional for the types A and C in lieu of weak stress.

The verse (= metrical) stress pattern of a half-line may or may not agree with its prose (= linguistic) stress pattern, in both Old and Middle English. However, there is one major difference between ME poetry and OE poetry. In Middle English, a poem, long or short, would exhibit the same underlying verse pattern throughout, as for “The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales”, whose underlying verse meter is uniformly iambic pentameter; therefore, it is easy to discover the divergencies between the prose stress pattern (i.e. linguistic units) and its verse stress pattern (i.e. metrical units) of a line from an ME poem. However, it is not so in Old English, where a poem, long or short, may accommodate all five different metric patterns (i.e. types); therefore, some verse line can be scanned ambiguously as of more than one type, giving rise to a great controversy in scansion. The conflicting ‘theories’ of, and the lack of uniformity, in scansion, I believe, are due to scansion of a given half-line by having it fit one of the five types (4), somewhat arbitrarily, with no rule-governed word stress principles upon which to base its scansion. Therefore, one should first determine word stress rules
and then apply these rules to the words that constitute a given half-line, and finally match the resulting linguistic stress pattern of a half-line so arrived at against the Sievers' five verse types to determine the correct verse type for it. In this way, one can correctly, hence uniformly, scan a given half-line.

The present paper will therefore consists of two parts: in Part I are given traditional accounts from handbooks of word stress patterns (based on metrical evidence), and in Part II their grid-based analysis of Old English stress rules.

I

The main sources of information on OE word stress described in this paper are Campbell (1959), supplemented by Huguenin (1901) for secondary stress and Pogatscher (1888) for loan words.

1.1 Stress Patterns for Native Words (Campbell §§71-92)

According to traditional accounts of Old English stress patterns, primary stress falls on the root initial syllable of simple words (5) and also of the first member of a 'phonological' compound word (6) and secondary stress on the second member of a phonological compound word (6) and also on the heavy (9ai) or light (9a)ii) medial syllable of a multisyllabic word after two moras — a heavy syllable (9a) or a sequence of two light syllables (9b); consequently, secondary stress is not available on the final heavy syllable of a simple word (7), except on metrical demands (11) (also (81)) (Campbell §91 fn. 1; Cable 1974: 61), since the secondary stress of "second elements which did not retain their original semantic force fully...tends to be reduced" (7a), nor on a heavy medial (8a) or light medial (8b) syllable after a stressed light syllable except when preceded by a phonological word of a stressed heavy syllable in compounds or phrases (10). On the other hand, the 'half-stress' that fell on a 'light' medial 'derivative' syllable (exp.-od-) (12a) or on a heavy medial syllable (12b) can be neglected on metrical

2Some final syllables are capable of secondary stress but are usually unstressed (Sievers §78).
3A medial syllable after a stressed light syllable in a phonological word, however, acquires "a half stress" when it occurs in the "second elements of compounds with accented first elements" (Campbell §91).
demands in verse (Campbell, ibid.).

(5) (mono- or disyllabic) simple words
word ‘word’, stán-as ‘stones’, lēoht-e ‘to the light’, lēorn-ere ‘learner’

(6) ‘phonological’ compounds
a. words with stressed prefixes (see §2.2.3 below): ún-nýtt ‘useless’, án-súnd ‘sound’ (Phoenix 20), éd-gēong ‘becoming young again’, ánd-giēt ‘sense’, ánd-wyrde ‘answer’
b. normal compound words: sīg-fēt ‘journey’, gól-d-wlānc ‘proud with
gold’, hláf-wērd ‘loaf-keeper, lord’

(7) disyllabic words with closed final syllable
a. hláford ‘lord’ (<hláf-wērd)(6b), fūluhnt ‘baptism’(<fūl-wīht), fūltum ‘help’(<fūl-tēam)(see (84))
b. Bēowulf, Hrōgpār, Hēngest; āeþeling ‘prince’, cýning ‘king’
c. ìnwiht ‘evil’, Ȝper ‘other’

(8) trisyllabic words with light initial syllable
a. cýninges (gen. sg. of cýning ‘king’)(Beowulf 3093), wēsende (pres. ppl. of wēsan ‘to be’)
b. wūnode (past sg. of wúniān ‘to dwell’), fāroþe (dat. sg. of fārōp ‘shore’), (and)swārode (past sg. of (and)swāriān ‘to answer’), wēríge ‘accursed’

(9) multisyllabic simple words, including the derived (i.e. suffixed) forms of (7)
a. with heavy initial syllable
i. with secondary stress on a heavy medial syllable: Bēowulfes (gen.sg. of Bēowulf), hláfôrdes, Hrōpgâres, Hēngestes; ìnwidda ‘adversary’; sînḡênde (pres. ppl. of sîngan ‘to sing’), pûsênde (dat.sg. of pûsend ‘thousand’)(Maldon 65); Ȝpērne (M.acc.sg. of Ȝper), hālīnge (<hālig ‘holy’)(Hymns 10.41a1), āgēnne (<Āgen ‘own’)(Phoenix 264)
ii. with secondary stress on a light medial syllable: wîsôde (past sg. of wîsian ‘to guide’)(Maldon 141), sèalfôde (<sèalfian ‘to anoint’), èndôde (<èndiān ‘to end’), wôrîās (3 pl. of wôrian ‘to move’)(Wanderer 78); hûntôpe (dat.sg. of hûntop ‘hunting’)(Campbell §89), wînsumē (<wînsum ‘pleasant’)(Be Manna Lease 41)
b. with light initial syllable (with resolved stress)(cf. (1-2)): æpelinge
(dat.sg. of æpeling)(Beowulf 982), gædelinges (gen.sg. of gædeling
‘kinsman’(ibid. 2617); lífiënde (pres.ppl. of lífian ‘to live’);
(ge)fêterôde (past sg. of ge-fêterian ‘to fetter’)(Genesis 2902),
háfenôde (<háfenian ‘to hold’)(Maldon 309), stáðelôde (<
stáðelian ‘to fix’)(Phoenix 130)

(10) in compounds or phrases, with (8a) as a second member
a. þeod-cýninges (gen.sg. of þeod-cýning ‘monarch’)(Beowulf 1039),
cnîht-wésënde ‘being (~ as) a youth’ (ibid. 372, 535)
b. fécôrh cýninges ‘life of the king’ (ibid. 1210), fýll cýninges ‘death of
the king’ (ibid. 2912)

(11) (cf. 7)
a. Hrûnting námana (Beowulf 1457), an A-type verse
æpeling máning (ibid. 1112, 343), an A-type verse
b. Béowulf ge-pâh (ibid. 1024), an E1-type verse

(12) a. éndonôde (9aii) → éndonôde
b. Béowulfes (9ai) → Béowulfes

1.2 Stress Patterns for Loan-Words—Mostly Classical (Latin) or Biblical
(Campbell §§548-558)

Loan-words followed the stress patterns of native words. Therefore, when
the chief stress was not already on the root-initial syllable, it was then
transferred to the initial syllable, with simultaneous lengthening of the syl-
lable if originally short, as in mágister (13a) from Latin magister (see (24a)),
and a ‘strong half-stress’ remained on the previous syllable which had borne
the main stress in Latin, as in (13)(Campbell §548; Pogatscher §24).

(13) (= 9a)
a. 3-syllable words: mágîr ‘master’ (<L. magister), Sêptêmbris
‘September’, cêllêndre ‘coriander’, álôno (dat.sg. of L. álôñus)
(The Fates of the Apostles 45), élmêsse ‘alms’; Ægôstus, Òmûrûs;
áspide ‘asp’(<L. áspidem)
b. 4-syllable words
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i. Águstínum (The Menologium 97), Cónstantínus, Hélisèus, Çyriácus, lúlíána, Filístína (< L. Filístína), ʿAbimèlech, Bénédíctus

ii. (Pogatscher §§23, 30): Grégórius (The Menologium 39, 101), Làurèntius (ibid. 146), Ássyria (Judith 232), Bóétius (The Metres of Boethius 1.75, 52), cómmédia (Juliana 21)

c. 5-syllable words: Bárttholomèus (The Fates of the Apostles 44, the Menologium 155), Mácedônia (Solomon and Saturn 199), Mármedônia (ibid.), Càppodôcia (ibid. 200)

d. 6-syllable words (see Pogatscher §§24, 59): Nàbochodonòssor, Mésopotâmiae (< L. Mesopotâmie)(Solomon and Saturn 199)

On the other hand, if original chief Latin stress fell on the light initial syllable, then there would naturally be no half-stress on the following light medial syllable in multisyllabic words (14b) in conformity with the native stress system (Campbell §550; so Luick §314, but see Bliss p.115 fn.1). However, their inflected forms (15b), including those forms (15a) from (14a), would have secondary stress on the following light medial syllable.

(14) a. (= 7c) Ádam, Iácob, Sòdom
    b. (= 8b) Bábilon, Élene, Lúcifer, Sáломon; Lòbia, Sýria (Solomon and Saturn 196)

(15) a. (= 9aii) Ádàmes (gen.sg.), Iácobès, Sòdomès, Càînes (Genesis 124)
    b. (= 9b) Bábilònes (gen.sg.), Lúcifères

The ‘half-stress’ so developed in the environment (15) is called “light” (Campbell §549 and fn.1), in distinction from the “strong” half-stress on the syllable that earlier had borne the original chief Latin stress (13), which is therefore said to be neglectable in verse (16) just as in native words (12) on metrical demands.

(16) (= 12) Iácôbes → Iácobès (Psalms 93.7)

However, by synizesis (i.e. syllable reduction due to hiatus (see §2.3.4 below)), multisyllabic words are often reduced by one syllable, with shift of stress, where possible, to the immediately preceding syllable (Campbell §§554-557).
(17) a. (from original 3-syllable words)
   Cāines (15a) → Cāînes; Iōhānnis → Iōhannis
b. (from original 4-syllable words)
   i. Bērsabēa (gen.pl.) → Bērsabēa; Mālālēhel → Mālālēhel
   ii. Grēgōrius → Grēgōrius; Ītālia → Ītālia;
      Iūlīāna (13b) → Iūlīāna; Ąssūriā → Ąssūriā
c. (from original 5-syllable words)
   Bārtholomēus (13c) → Bārtholomeus

II

The following grid-based stress rules of Old English are formulated on the basis of the foregoing (and the following additional) traditional metrical accounts.

Stress, according to Prince, is the result of three kinds of universal beat assignment rules: the quantity-sensitive rule (QS) (§2.1.2.1), the end rules (ER) (§2.1.2.3), and the perfect grid construction rule (PG) (§2.1.2.2). Of these three basic beat assignment rules, QS is mora sensitive, PG rhythm sensitive, and ER Position sensitive. And for any phonological word, a minimum of three metrical levels is assumed—the first being the level for demibeat (DB) to use Selkirk's term, the second for QS, PG, and ER I, and the third for ER II, and BA (beat addition) (§2.1.2.4) if applicable, of which QS and ER I feed PG, and they together with ER II in turn feed BA.

Of the many word-level stress rules posited in this paper for Old English, the majority are universal, some language specific with different parameters, and only a few verse specific to be applied on metrical demands. In the present paper, I will first describe in Section One the six aforementioned beat assignment rules, and in Section Two some analytical assumptions that underlie the analysis, viz. mora projection, extrametricality, and the phonological word, and finally state in Section Three the stress adjustment rules for Old English that modify the stress patterns of words generated by the core beat assignment rules.

2.1 Core Beat Assignment Rules

In Old English, all suffixes, being Germanic, are stress neutral; therefore, word stress rules for Old English are simple and straightforward as far as
primary stress is concerned, since it invariably falls on the root-initial syllable of a phonological word by ER I and II. Therefore, our main concern will be with placement of subsidiary stresses, which were formerly derived via the Stress Subordination Convention as in the SPE type analysis but in the present paper assigned by various beat assignment rules.

2.1.1 Level I Beat Assignment Rule

(18) the Demibeat Rule (DB)
Assign a beat to every mora of a construction on the first metrical (i.e. syllable) level.

Since Old English words are analyzed in the present paper on mora projection (§2.2.1), a light syllable is marked with one beat and a heavy syllable with two beats shown joined together in the present analysis on the first metrical level. Consequently, a sequence of two light syllables are equated with one heavy syllable as they bear two moras.

2.1.2 Level II and III Beat Assignment Rules

A beat on the second metrical level is assigned either inherently on heavy syllables by the Quantity-Sensitivity rule or rhythmically on alternating moras by the Perfect Grid construction rule, except for the initial syllable of a phonological word whose second metrical level beat is assigned by the End Rule I regardless of its quantity. In a construction where both QS and PG are employed, QS takes priority over PG in grid construction as heavy syllables intrinsically attract stress; hence, PG is fed by either QS or ER I.

2.1.2.1 The Quantity Sensitivity Rule (QS)

(19) Assign a beat on the second metrical level on the left mora of a branching rime (R).

\[
x \rightarrow \overline{x} \sqrt{x}
\]

2.1.2.2 The Perfect Grid Construction Rule (PG)

(20) Assign a beat on the second metrical level on alternating moras, right
to left, through first.

\[ x \rightarrow \overline{x} / \overline{x} x \_ x \]

In Modern English, the Main Stress Rule (MSR) applies in level I phonology in the lexicon. Hence, PG, being part of MSR, applies within the domain of a ‘root’ (not ‘word’), which is defined as a root alone or a root plus a (level I) stress-shifting suffix; therefore, it applies to (21a) but not to (21b) (Selkirk p. 108).

(21) a. [[mississippi]$_r$] [[[[sensation]$_r$ al]$_r$ ity]$_r$

b. [[[[color]$_w$ less]$_w$ ness]$_w$

However, Old English suffixes differ from Modern English suffixes in that even though the former, being all stress neutral, are not subject to ER’s, yet they are subject to QS and PG alike since they form part of a phonological word (§2.2.3) on which core grid assignment rules apply.

2.1.2.3 The End Rules

There are two End of Domain rules, both of which are initial in Old English—one adding a beat on the second metrical level (ER I)(22) and the other on the third metrical level (and above)(ER II)(23), where \( m \) for mot encloses a phonological word. In Modern English, on the other hand, ER I is initial while ER II is final (see (21)).

(22) ER I: \( x \rightarrow \overline{x} / (_\ldots)_m \)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\end{array}
\]

(23) ER II: \( x \rightarrow \overline{x} / (_\ldots)_m \)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\otimes & \otimes & \otimes \\
\end{array}
\]

The following (24) illustrates the foregoing five core beat assignment rules, excluding the third-level Beat Addition, for which see §2.1.2.4.
(24) a. Bēowulf(e)(gen.sg. of Bēowulf)(9ai)(DB, em) → \text{xx x x (QS)} → \text{x x x x (QS)} → \text{x x x x (ER II)}; likewise, (loan-word) māgister ‘master’ (13a)\(^4\)

The reason for lengthening the original light initial syllable in māgister (<L. magister)(24a), I believe, is associated with the principle of clash avoidance; had the light initial syllable of magister not been lengthened, its stressed light syllable would then clash with the following secondary stressed syllable, hence to be wrongfully destressed (see (75b)), resulting in the ill-formed *māgister:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{x x x x} & \quad \text{magiste(r)(DB, em)} \rightarrow \text{x x x} \; \text{(QS)} \rightarrow \text{x x x x (ER I)} \rightarrow \\
\text{x x x x} & \quad \text{x x x x (ER II)} \rightarrow \text{x x x x (DS I)}.
\end{align*}
\]

b. hafenia(n)(9b)(DB, em) → \text{x x x x (ER I)} → \text{x x x x (PG)} → \text{x x x x (ER II)}; likewise (loan-word) Bābīlōnes (15b)

c. wīsode (9aii)(DB) → \text{x x x x (QS)} → \text{x x x x (PG)} → \text{x x x x (ER II)}; wōria(s) (9aii)(DB, em) → \text{x x x x (QS)} → \text{x x x x (ER II)}; likewise (loan-word) ālβâno, āspide (13a)

d. æpelinge (9b)(DB) → \text{x x x x (QS)} → \text{x x x x (ER I)} → \text{x x x x (ER II)}

e. fultu(m) (7a)(DB, em) → \text{x x x (QS)} → \text{x x x (ER II)}; likewise, (loan-word) Ādam (14a)

\(^4\)And on final consonant extrametricality (em), see §2.2.1 below.
2.1.2.4 The Beat Addition Rule

Beat Addition (BA)(25) is right dominant in Old English as its word-level ER II is initial, adding a beat on the thirdmetrical level over the rightmost second-level heavy syllable in case more than one secondary stress has been generated in the course of derivation, as illustrated in (26-29).

\[
(25) \ x_i \rightarrow \ x / x \ \ldots \ \ldots \m
\]

where \( x_i \) is the rightmost heavy syllable

Thus, by (25) secondary stress lodges correctly on the penultimate syllable for (26) as analyzed in (27) but on the antepenultimate syllable for (28) as analyzed in (29).

(26) \( \text{Águstínus (13b), Nábochodonosso(r (13d)} \)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{x x x} \\
\text{x x x x}
\end{array}
\]

(27) a. \( \text{Águstinu(s) (DB, em)} \rightarrow x x x x x (QS) \rightarrow x x x x x (ER II) \rightarrow \)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{x} \\
\text{x x x x x (BA)} \rightarrow x x x x x (ER II)
\end{array}
\]

b. \( \text{Nábochodonosso(r) (DB, em)} \rightarrow x x x x x (QS) \rightarrow \)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{x} \\
\text{x x x x x (PG)} \rightarrow x x x x x (ER II) \rightarrow \)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{x} \\
\text{x x x x x (BA)} \rightarrow x x x x x (ER II)
\end{array}
\]

(28) a. \( (=13\text{bii}) \text{Grégôrius, Itâlia, commêdia, Pamphília (Solomon and Saturn 198), Assýria (Judith 232)(<L. Assýria)} \)
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b. (= 13c) Mâcëdônìa, Mësopotámìe, Marmëdônìa

(29) a. Grëgorìiu(s) (DB, em) → \( xx xx xx \) (QS) → \( xx xx xx xx \) (PG) →

\[
x x x x x (ER \ II) \rightarrow xx xx xx xx (BA) \rightarrow xx xx xx xx (ER \ II)
\]

b. marmëdônìa (DB) → \( xx xx xx xx \) (QS) → \( xx xx xx xx xx \) (PG) →

\[
x x x x x (ER \ II) \rightarrow xx xx xx xx xx (BA) \rightarrow xx xx xx xx xx (ER \ II)
\]

On the other hand, BA in Modern English is left-dominant since its word level ER II is final, as shown in the following analysis (30-31) on syllable projection.\(^5\)

(30) a. Tìconderòga (DB, em(\( \sigma \))) → b. \( xx xx xx \) (QS) →

\[
x x x x x (ER \ II) \rightarrow d. xx xx xx (BA) \rightarrow e. xx xx xx (ER \ II) \rightarrow
\]

\[
f. xx xx xx xx (output) (Tìconderòga)
\]

But there is also an alternate pronunciation of the word, for which secondary stress optionally lodges on the second heavy syllable.

(31) a. Tìconderòga (\( = 30c \)) → b. \( xx xx xx \) (alternate BA) →

\[
x x x x x (ER \ II) \rightarrow d. xx xx xx xx (output) (Tìconderòga)
\]

\(^5\)For Modern English, BA may not be a basic grid assignment rule but a 'grid euphony' rule as its application is optional on the word as well as on the phrase level (see Selkirk 1984, pp. 101, 103, 180); however, in Old English it is one of the obligatory, core grid construction rules.
Granted that both stress patterns given in (30-31) are correct for Ticonderoga, then one may conclude that in Modern English BA may optionally apply on the adjacent syllable only if it is heavy. (Note that in (30-31) the first two syllables are both heavy, i.e. assigned a second-level beat by QS, not PG.)

Now if the same situation is assumed to prevail in Old English with respect to BA, then the two words in (32) could be stressed either 1324 with secondary stress on the penultimate syllable (33)—hence to be scanned as an A-type verse (’x /
\* x) or 1234 with secondary stress on the preceding antepenultimate syllable (34), in spite of the resulting stress clash on the third metrical level, just as in Modern English (31)—hence to be scanned as a D1-type verse (’/ \* x), since both syllables in question are heavy.

(32) rightwislīce ‘righteously’, rihtwīnesse ‘righteousness’ (the Meters of Boethius 22/45 and 59)

\[a. \overline{x x x x x x} \quad (DB, QS, ER II) \rightarrow b. \overline{x x x x x x} \quad (BA)\]

\[\rightarrow c. \overline{x x x x x x} \quad (ER II)\]

(33) rightwīslīce → a. xx xx xx x (DB, QS, ER II) → b. xx xx xx x (BA)

(34) rithwīslīce → a. xx xx xx x (=34a) → b. xx xx xx x (alternate BA) →

\[c. xx xx xx xx \quad (ER II)\]

But the question is whether the loan-word Agustinus (13bi, 27a), for example, with the same syllable structure, i.e. two adjacent heavy syllables, could be scanned likewise. The answer is in the negative, in view of the lack of metrical evidence in support of it, since only the syllable—in this case, the penultimate syllable—that had borne the chief stress in Latin could bear a secondary stress after it had been transferred to the root-initial syllable (see (13)). Therefore, the correct scansion for (32) would in all probability be (33) by (25).

The BA rule, as formulated in (25), therefore, correctly accounts for the secondary stress on the antepenultimate, not penultimate, syllable for the multisyllabic loan-words of the type (28) whose last two syllables (in hiatus) are short, preceded by a medial syllable which is invariably long since it is the syllable which had borne the original Latin stress and which is leng-
thened if originally short after the original stress had been transferred to the root-initial syllable (see Pogatscher §27). Thus the Old English BA (25) correctly accounts for the original Latin primary stress now being preserved as a secondary stress in Old English loan-words (Campbell §548; also see Huguenin §34).

On the other hand, a derivation of the OE stress pattern Grêgôrîus from the Latin Gregórius in a non-grid fashion would require additional Latin Stress Rule (LSR) (see O'Neil 1973) together with the Stress Retraction Rule (SRR) that shifts the chief stress assigned by LSR to the root-initial syllable by the Germanic Stress Rule (GSR = ER II) with the concomitant Stress Subordination Convention (SSC)(see Halle and Keyser 1971). However, the optimal grammar of Old English would not need these additional rules posited solely for foreign words if their stress patterns could be accounted for by the same native stress assignment rules as proposed in the present analysis.\

2.2 Analytical Assumptions

In addition to the above six beat addition rules, the present analysis operates on the following analytical assumptions: mora projection, extrametricality, and the phonological word.

2.2.1 Mora Projection

The analysis of the following native as well as loan words on mora projection (35A) would correctly yield secondary stress for (35a) by PG and for (35b) by QS but not for (35c) on account of stress clash; hence, (35a) is correctly differentiated from (35c) by an analysis on mora projection but not on syllable projection as the latter would wrongfully treat (35a) and (35c) on a par, with no secondary stress for (35a)—hence, the correctness of the analysis on rime projection for Old English.

(35) A (on mora projection)  B (on syllable projection)
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\textit{x}} & \quad \text{(DB, QS, PG, ER II);} \\
\text{\textit{x}} & \quad \text{x} \\
\text{\textit{xx}} & \quad \text{x} \\
\text{\textit{x}} & \quad \text{x}
\end{align*}
\]

a. sealfode (9a)(DB, QS, PG, ER II);  \quad \text{x} \quad \text{x} \quad \text{x}

6The resulting stress clashes on the third metrical level for native words in (34) as well as for loan-words in (29), however, stay put since the Rhythm Rule is optional in Old English, just as in Modern English (31), as elaborated in detail in §2.3.5 below.
similarly (loan-word) *aspide* (13a)

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{x} & \text{x} & \text{x} \\
\text{x} & \text{x} & \text{x} & \text{x} \\
\end{array}
\]

b. *æpelinge* (9b)(DB, QS, ER I, ER II);

similarly (loan-word) *Luciferes* (15b)

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{x} & \text{x} \\
\text{x} & \text{x} & \text{x} \\
\end{array}
\]

c. *wunode* (8b)(DB, ER I, ER II);

similarly (loan-word) *Babilon* (14b)

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{x} & \text{x} & \text{x} \\
\end{array}
\]

In Modern English, on the other hand, a stress clash that arises on the second level by PG is permitted because of the Anti-lapse Filter (see (36) below), which forbids a sequence of two unstressed syllables creating a ternary foot within the domain of a ‘root’, except when such a rhythmic lapse arises through extrametricality, destressing, or by the ‘Abracadabra’ rule (see Selkirk pp. 84, 109, 117), as in the following derivations of *vanilla* and *abracadabra* analyzed on syllable projection.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{(36) a. vanilla (DB)} \rightarrow \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{(ER I)} \rightarrow \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{(PG)} \rightarrow \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{(ER II)} \\
\rightarrow \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{(Initial Destressing)} \\
\text{b. abracadabra (DB)} \rightarrow \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{x} \text{
2.2.2 Extrametrical Segments and Morphemes

2.2.2.1 Extrametrical Segments

The last consonant of a phonological word is analyzed extrametrical (em) by rule (38) to derive correct stress patterns for such words as (39).

(38) $C \rightarrow \text{em/} \ldots \_)_m$

(39) a. Babilone(s)(15b)(DB and em) $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (ER I) $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (PG)
   $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (ER II) (Bābīlōnes)
* b. Babilones (DB) $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (OS) $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (ER I) $\rightarrow \hat{x} \ x \ x \ x$ (ER II) (Bābīlōnes)

Hence, the correct stress pattern of the word Babilones is (39a) with the last consonant analyzed extrametrical, not (39b) whose last consonant has not been analyzed extrametrical. Likewise, the final consonant of the stressed prefix (under-) of (under)m (cyning)m has to be analyzed extrametrical for its last syllable not to be incorrectly accorded secondary stress.

However, since the stress pattern of a monosyllabic word would not be affected by (38) as it is invariably stressed by ER I, the rule (38) will by convention refer only to a phonological word of more than one syllable. Thus the final syllable of a disyllabic word ending in two consonants (7a, b), for example, will be first stressed by QS (40a)(since the bimoricity of the final heavy syllable (-VCC) of the word would remain unaffected even if its last consonant was analyzed extrametrical) before it gets to be destressed (40b)(see §2.3.2.2)(cf. cómmo(n), devélo(p) but tormén(t) in Modern-English).

(40) a. hlāfor(d) $\rightarrow$ b. xx xx

Even in verse, a word final syllable consisting of a short vowel with a single consonant (-VC) is never accorded secondary stress, except on metrical demands as in (41), in which case the extrametrical rule (38) is overridden metrically.
(41) a. lábel nōmā (Genesis 1078), an A-type verse

b. ānig nē wēarō (ibid. 2215), an E₁-type verse (see Huguenin §78)

The possibility of positing syllable extrametricality (em(σ)) for Old English, which has been extended to nouns and suffixed adjectives and suffixed verbs in Modern English, cannot be entertained, since, if it did, it would wrongly deprive such words as (39) of their rightful secondary stress on the penultimate syllable, as shown in (42).

(42) Babilo(nes)(DB, em(σ)) → x x x (ER I) → x x x (ER II) → x
   x x x (output) (*Bābilones)

2.2.2.2 Extrametrical Morphemes (see Campbell §§72-74, 82; Wright §12)

The prefixes ge-, for-, be- are lexically marked [−stress] (43), while verbal and adverbial prefixes are structurally marked [−stress] (44); hence, they are bracketed differently from stressed substantival (i.e. nominal and adjectival) prefixes, since the latter are phonological words (§2.2.3) while the former are not.

(43) X → em / [ _ [Y] ] α

where $X = \begin{cases} 
  \text{ge-} \\
  \text{for-} \\
  \text{be-} 
\end{cases}$, $Y$ = the root, $\alpha$ = a lexical category

a. verbs of the $[X[Y]]_V$ type: ge-stándan ‘to stand’, for-wrécan ‘to banish’, be-gán ‘to go’


(44) \( X \rightarrow em / [\_ [Y]](v.\, adv) \)

where \( X = \) any prefix, \( Y = \) the root

a. verbs of the \( [X[\hat{Y}]]_V \) type: a-þéncan 'to devise', on-sácan 'to deny', op-gánn 'to escape'

b. adverbs of the \( [X[\hat{Y}]]_\text{Adv} \) type: on-wég 'away', be-fóran 'before', wip-útan 'without', tó-dáeg 'today', tó-gédere 'together'

Therefore, the stress doublets (45a) with stressed prefixes be- and for- are exceptional, being reanalyzed forms, which hence are to be bracketed as (45b).

(45) a. bé-bód 'command', bé-hát 'promise', fór-wyrð 'ruin'

b. \([\text{be}] [\text{bod}]_N, [\text{be}] [\text{hát}]_N, [\text{for}] [\text{wyrd}]_N\)

2.2.3 The Phonological Word

In the traditional SPE type analysis of Old English stress patterns, Stress Retraction Rule (SRR) and Compound Word Stress Rule (CSR) have been posited along with the concomitant Stress Subordination Convention (SSC) that automatically reduces primary stress to secondary stress, in order to derive the following forms—with SSR applied to (46) and CSR to (47).

(46) prefixed substantives (= 6a)

a. prefixed nouns: ánd-wéáld 'power' (and-wéald → ánd-wéáld)

b. prefixed adjectives: án-súnð 'sound' (an-súnð → án-súnð)

(47) compound words (=6b)

péod-cýning 'monarch' (péod-cýning → péod-cýning)

However, simple words, along with prefixed substantives and compound words, are analyzed in this paper as (48) and (49) respectively with the introduction of the prosodic category of the phonological word, which is defined as a constituent bearing a beat on the third metrical level by the word-level End Rule II, with the result of both the SRR and SSC being done away with since they are no longer necessary in the present analysis.

(48) simple words of the ( )\(_m\) or (( )\(_m\))\(_m\) type

a. (unprefixed) simple words, with or without suffixes:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fæder}_N & \rightarrow (\text{fæde}(r))_m \\
\end{align*}
\]
[far-aδ]v 'they go' → (far(a(δ))m

b. words with unstressed prefixes (and suffixes):

[be[far-aδ]v]v 'they go' → (be(far(a(δ))m)m

(49) 'phonological' compounds of the (( )m( )m)m type

a. words with stressed prefixes:

([[and] [weald]N]N 'power' → ((xx)m(xx)m)m → (xx xx)m →
xx xx (flattening); [[an] [sund]A]A 'sound' →
xx xx (flattening);

((x)m(xx)m)m → (x xx)m → (x xx)m → (x xx)m → (flattening)

b. compound words:

[[pêod]N [cyning]N]N 'monarch' → ((xx)m(xx)m)m →
xx xx (flattening)

It is to be noted from the above analysis that a stressed prefix such as and- and an- in (46) is now analyzed as a phonological word on a par with a simple word (48a)(also see McCarthy 1986; Halle and Vergnaud 1987), as shown in (49a), even though a stressed prefix is a morpheme from a morphological point of view, and consequently, a word with a stressed prefix (49a) is now bracketed and analyzed prosodically on a par with a (morphological) compound word (49b); that is to say, they are identical prosodically, differing only morphologically. Therefore, the major difference between a simple word like (48a) and a stressed prefix (49a), for example, is that a stressed prefix is an uncategorized phonological word, whereas a simple word is a categorized word (N, V, A); similarly, the major difference between a simple word and a stress-prefixed word or a compound word is that the word-level ER II may apply once to a 'simple' word as for (48) but at least twice to a phonological compound (49). In the present analysis, square brackets are used to enclose morphological structure, and parentheses pro-
sodic structure; however, where morphological bracketings do not differ crucially from their prosodic bracketings, the latter will be suppressed for ease of exposition.

Even in Modern English, stressed prefixes have the status of phonological words, as evidenced by syllabification, nasal assimilation, and comparative formation (see Booij and Rubach 1984, pp. 13ff.)

1. The domain of syllabification is the phonological word, with the morphological boundary coinciding with a syllable boundary; hence, syllabification is blocked in (50a) by phonological word junctures, and the maximal onset principle is consequently not observed, as in compound words, unlike the words with unstressed prefixes or the suffixed words in (50b).

   (50) a. \( ((\mathrm{un})_m(\mathrm{err})_m)_\sigma \) \( (*\mathrm{un}\mathrm{-err}) \); also \( ((\mathrm{un})_m(\mathrm{al})_m)_\sigma \)
      \( (\mathrm{dis})_m(\mathrm{adv})_m \)
      \( (\mathrm{un})_m(\mathrm{able})_m \) (grammatical-ity)_m

2. Nasal Assimilation applies obligatorily within phonological words (51a) but optionally across phonological words in phonological compound words (\( m' \)) or phrases (p)(51b).

   (51) a. \( (\mathrm{finger})_m \) \( (\mathrm{Lincoln})_m \) \( (\mathrm{inform})_m \) \( (\mathrm{i}l\mathrm{-legal})_m \) \( (<(\mathrm{i}n\mathrm{-legal}))_m \)
      b. \( ((\mathrm{un})_m(\mathrm{gram})_m)_m \) \( (\mathrm{rain})_m(\mathrm{glass})_m \)
      \( (\mathrm{in})(\mathrm{fix})_m \) \( (\mathrm{in})_m(\mathrm{Korea})_m \)

3. Comparative suffix -er is added to a phonological word of two syllables or less; hence, (52a) is well-formed but (52b) ill-formed.

   (52) a. \( (\mathrm{happy})_m \rightarrow (\mathrm{happier})_m \); hence, \( \mathrm{unhappier} \), which is bracketed 
      \( [[\mathrm{un}][\mathrm{happy}]_A]_A \) morphologically, is bracketed \( ((\mathrm{un})_m \)
      \( ((\mathrm{happy})_m\mathrm{er})_m \) \( \mathrm{phonologically} \) (see (56a)), to result in \( ((\mathrm{un})_m \)
      \( (\mathrm{hap})_m \)
      b. \( (\mathrm{excellent})_m \rightarrow *(\mathrm{excellenter})_m \)

However, Modern English stressed prefixes differ from the Old English equivalents, in that while the former are weak sisters (53a) (with the exception of \( \mathrm{in}\)-finite, \( \mathrm{in}\)-famous etc.), the latter are strong sisters (53b).
(53) a. \((\text{un})_{\text{m}} \ (\text{grammatical})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'}
   b. \((\text{un})_{\text{m}} \ (\text{synnig})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'}

Henceforth, the input for (54) for stress assignment rules will be phonological words (56), not morphological words (55), since suffixes syllabify with the preceding syllables (see (56a(ii))). It is apparent then that morphological and phonological bracketings need not be isomorphic.

(54) a. and-swarode ‘(he) answered’
   b. un-sōðfaestnes ‘injustice’ (Psalms 54.9)
   c. pēod-cyninges ‘monarch’ (gen. sg.)

(55) a. \([[[\text{and}] \ [\text{swar}] \ [\text{ode}]]_V\)
   b. \([[[\text{un}] \ [[\text{sōð}]_{\text{N}} \text{faest}]_{\text{A}}]_{\text{anes}}]_N\)
   c. \([[\text{pēod}]_{\text{N}} \ [\text{cyning}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{anes}}]_N\)

(56) a. i. \((\text{and})_{\text{m}}(\text{swarode})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'} \rightarrow \((\text{xx})_{\text{m}}(\text{x x x})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'} (DB) \rightarrow
   
   \((\text{xx})_{\text{m}}(\text{x x x})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'} (QS, ER I) \rightarrow \((\text{xx})_{\text{m}}(\text{x x x})_{\text{m}}\)_{\text{m}'}
   
   \((\text{ER II)} \rightarrow (\text{xx} x x x)_{\text{m}'} (\text{ER II}) \rightarrow (\text{xx} x x x)_{\text{m}'} (\text{SA})(\text{see} (85))
   
   ii.
   
   \[
   \begin{align*}
   &\text{m'} \\
   &\text{m}_s \\
   &\text{m}_w \\
   &\text{Fs} \\
   &\text{Fw} \\
   &\text{s} \\
   &\text{w} \\
   &\sigma \\
   &\sigma_s \\
   &\sigma_w \\
   \end{align*}
   
   and swaro de
   
   \[
   \begin{align*}
   &\text{b.} \ ((\text{un})_{\text{m}}(\text{sōðfaestnes})_{\text{m}})_{\text{m}'} \rightarrow ((\text{x})_{\text{m}}(\text{xx} x x)_{\text{m}})_{\text{m}'} (DB, \text{em})
   \rightarrow ((\text{x})_{\text{m}}(\text{xx} x x)_{\text{m}})_{\text{m}'} (QS, \text{ER I}) \rightarrow ((\text{x})_{\text{m}}(\text{xx} x x)_{\text{m}})_{\text{m}'} (\text{ER II})
   \rightarrow (\text{x} x x)_{\text{m}'} (\text{ER II})
   \rightarrow (\text{x} x x y)_{\text{m}'} (DB, \text{em})
   \end{align*}
   \]
Thus, stress assignment rules operate on phonological words for derivation of correct stress patterns for Old English. For a similar analysis, this time, however, for reduplication, involving the attachment of a morpheme skeleton to some stem morpheme at phonological (not morphological) structure, see Marantz and McIntyre (1987).

2.3 Stress Adjustment Rules

Having sketched in the preceding sections the six core beat addition rules, I will explain in this section some Old English stress adjustment rules applying on their outputs,

2.3.1 On the so-called Stress Retraction Rule

Of the various non-compound derived words—denominative verbs (57a), deverbal adjectives (57b) and their derived nouns (57c), and prefixed deverbal substantives (57d), only the last type (57d) undergoes stress retraction, all the others (57a-c) retaining their underlying chief stress.

(57) a. denominative verbs (Campbell §77; Wright §14) of the \([[[X][Y]][Z]_A\) or \([[[X][Y]][Z]_A\) type: őrettan ‘to fight’ (‘őret ‘fight’), fúltumian ‘to support’ (‘fúltum ‘support’); ánd-wýrdan ‘to answer’ (‘ánd-wýrde ‘answer’), ánd-swarian ‘to answer’ (‘ánd-swáru ‘answer’)(54a)

b. deverbal adjectives (Campbell §81) of the \([[[X][Y]][Z]_A\) type, where Z is an adjective forming past or present ppl. suffix: under-péoded ‘subjected’ (<under-péodan ‘to subject’), wiper-winniende ‘revolting’ (<wiper-wínnian ‘to revolt’)

c. nouns from deverbal adjectives (57b)(Campbell §77; Wright §11) of the \([[[X][Y]][Z]_A\) type, where Z is an adjective forming participial suffix: on-gíten-ness ‘understanding’ (<on-gíten ‘to understand’), á-lífed-ness ‘permission’ (< á-lífed < á-lífan ‘to permit’), for-lóren-ness ‘destruction’ (<for-lóren <
for-leósan ‘to destroy’), on-fángen-ness ‘reception’ (< on-fángen < on-fón ‘to take’); for-gif-en-ness ~ for-gif-ness ‘forgiveness’ (< for-giefen < for-giefan ‘to forgive’) (His forgifnesse / gumum to helpe (Christ 427)): the word in the cited verse, however, is really a shortened form of forgifeness according to OED since -nes(s) is a noun-forming suffix added to the participial adjective form forgifen.

d. prefixed deverbal substantives (Campbell §73) of the [X[Ŷ]]_V → [([X] [Ŷ])_(N, A)] type:
i. nouns: [on[gí]tan]_V → [([ónd] [git])_N]: ónd-git ‘understanding’ (<on-gítan ‘to understand’), bi-gènga ‘inhabitant’ (<be-găn ‘to occupy’), án-ginn ‘beginning’ (<on-gínnan ‘to begin’ (Genesis 578, Maldon 242), áe-wielm ‘fountain’ (<a-wéallan ‘to well up’), wiper-sác-a ‘adversary’ (<wiper-sác-an ‘to refuse’)

ii. adjectives: [op[ga]n]_V (op-gán ‘to escape’) → [([úp] [gènge])_A (úp-gènge ‘evanescent’)

Prefixes deverbal substantives (57d) could thus be explained as being derived from the underlying root-stressed verbs by Stress Retraction Rule (58), which retracts the primary stress on the root to the prefix, together with the Gaps-filling Convention (59) (see Halle and Vergnaud p.52), as shown in (60), where the beat so supplied is symbolized by the circle around the x.

(58) Stress Retraction Rule (SRR)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if } & x_i \neq \text{ge-, for-, be-} \\
\text{then } & x_i \text{ is the root morpheme, with zero derivational suffix (see fn. 7(a)).}
\end{align*}
\]

7The difference between deverbal nouns (V → N)(57d) and denominative verbs (N → V)(57a) in Old English is somewhat analogous to the difference between (a) and (b) in the following Modern English examples where the former is generated at level 1 (stress shifting) and the latter at level 2 (stress neutral)(see Kiparsky 1982).

a. (level 1): [allý]_V → [([állý])_V]_N
b. (level 2): [páttärn]_N → [([páttärn])_N]_V
(59) Gaps-filling Convention
When the topmost beat generated by ER II moves by SRR (58) from the root to the preceding morpheme, then the gaps in the latter's column are automatically filled in.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
& \overline{X} & \overline{X} & \overline{X} \\
\hline
\text{[on[git]]}_V & \rightarrow & \text{[[ond] [git]]}_N
\end{array}
\]

Therefore, SRR (58) applies to (57d) but neither to (61) by the first condition \((x_i)\) nor to (57b, c) by the second condition \((x_j)\) of the rule.

(61) (see (43))
\begin{itemize}
  \item a. be-böd `command' \(<\text{be-bödan `to command'}\), be-hát `vow' \(<\text{be-hátan `to promise'}\), be-láf `remainder' \(<\text{be-lífan `to keep'}\), be-gáng `practice' \(<\text{be-gángan `to practice'}\)
  \item b. for-böd `prohibition' \(<\text{for-bödan `to forbid'}\), for-wýrd `ruin' \(<\text{for-wýrdan `to ruin'}\)
  \item c. ge-féoht `fight' \(<\text{ge-féohtan `to fight'}\)
\end{itemize}

Therefore, the following stress doublets with SRR applied (62a, c) where it should not and not applied (62b) where it should are best analyzed as exceptions, having been reanalyzed analogically—as compound verbs in the case of (62c) (see Halle and Keyser p. 95).

(62) a. be-hát `vow', for-wýrd `ruin' (45)
  \item b. on-gfnn `beginning' (cf. (57e))(Wright §11)
  \item c. ýnder-pèoded, ‘wýper-hýcegende (cf. (57b))(Wright §81)

Phonetically, stressed prefixes retain their full (strong) forms, and unstressed prefixes their reduced (weak) forms (Campbell §73), as shown below in (63), where the prefixes in the left column are the stressed ones, being affixed to substantives, and those in the right column are the unstressed ones, being affixed to verbs.

(63) \([-\text{stress}]\) \hfill \([-\text{stress}]
\begin{align*}
\text{æ- (ā-wielm `fountain')} & \sim \text{a- (a-wéallan `to well up')} \\
\text{and- (ând-sácə `apostate')} & \sim \text{on- (on-sácən `to deny')} \\
\text{bī- (bī-gënga `inhabitant')} & \sim \text{be- (bē-gān `to occupy')} \\
\end{align*}
Thus *bī-gāng* ‘practice’, for example, shows the stressed prefix with a lengthened vowel from the underlying verb *be-gāngan* ‘to practice’. Similarly, an originally short vowel is lengthened under stress, giving rise to the following alternating forms: *pū* ‘thou’ (OE) ~ *pv* (Gothic), *mē* ‘me’ (OE) ~ *me* (Gothic), *sē* (demonstrative pronoun) ~ *se* (relative pronoun), etc., just as in Modern English, as in *rē-fill* (N) vs. *re-fill* (V), and *rē-rūn* (N) vs. *re-rūn* (V).

The forms given in (64) on the one hand and those given in (65) and (66) on the other are all verbs; nevertheless, the former are stressed on the roots since the pre-root elements are affixes while the latter are stressed on the pre-root elements—on the first pre-root elements in the case of (66)—since they are prepositional adverbs (PAdv). Hence, those in (64) are simple verbs and those in (65) and (66) compound verbs. It is to be noted that verbs with two pre-root elements are always stressed on the first as the second are invariably unstressed prefixes just like those in (67) (Campbell §80; Huguenin §§19, 30; Wright §14).

(64) of the *[X][Ý]v* type:


(65) of the *[X]PAdv[Ý]v* type:


*In Modern English, the Level II prefixes *dē-, prē-, rē-* as in *rē-design, rē-analysis*, etc. are pronounced with a long vowel, while the Level I prefixes like *bē-, rē-* in *rē-commend, rē-duce*, etc. are pronounced with a short vowel.*
(66) of the \([X]\)P_{Adv} \([Y[Z]v]\) type:
fôrge-scrifan \(([[\text{fore}]\ P_{Adv} [\text{ge} \text{[scrifan]}]v]v)\) ‘to ordain’, ôf-adriffan ‘to drive away’, án-for-lætan ‘to abandon’

(67) phonological compound words of the \([X] \beta [Y[Z]a]a\) type, where \(a\) is a lexical category, and \(\beta\) may be (67b) or may not be (67a) a lexical category:
a. stress-prefixed words
   nouns: mís-ge-hygd \(([[\text{mis}]\ \text{ge} \text{[hygd]} N]N)\) ‘evil thought’;
   adjectives: ún-for-cûð \(([[\text{un}]\ \text{for} \text{[cûð]} A] A)\) ‘not wicked; noble’; on the other hand, un-be-fôhtene ‘unopposed’ (Maldon 570) is exceptional since the prefix un- is always stressed (Campbell §75); adverbs: ún-for-cûðlice ‘nobly’, ún-ge-wênendlice ‘unhoped for’
b. compound words: mód-ge-þylðig \(([[\text{mód}]\ \text{ge} \text{[þylðig]} A] A)\) ‘patient’, ærend-ge-writ ‘written message’, éð-be-gête ‘easily acquired’

Now certain prefixes (i.e. (prepositional) adverbs) (68a) are said to occur always stressed \((+\text{stress})\) and other prefixes (68b) unstressed \((-\text{stress})\), while some (68c) are identical in both stressed and unstressed forms \((\pm \text{stress})\) (Campbell §§73, 79-80); moreover, those in (68b) including some from (68c) appear only as bound forms.

(68) a. \((+\text{stress})\): æfter-, fore-, from-, mid-, ongæn-, æt-, bi-
b. \((-\text{stress})\): be-, ge-, for-, geond-, op-, ë- (\(\sim\)a-)
c. \((\pm\text{stress})\): for-, of-, offer-, on-, tô, þurh-, under-, wip-, ymb(e)-

Those stressed prefixes in (68a) and some from (68c) have been called ‘separable prefixes’ (i.e. free morphemes as they are (prepositional) adverbs), hence, cyclical, being treated on a par with simple words as lexical items, and those unstressed ones in (68b) and some from (68c) ‘inseparable prefixes’ (i.e. bound morphemes), hence, noncyclical like unstressed suffixes; hence, the former can be compared to the separable verbal prefixes in German (70a) and also in Dutch as they occur optionally as separate words in ‘loose syntactic combination’ before verbs (69a) as well as after verbs (69b)(Campbell §§78-79; Harrison 1892), with prepositional adverbs more
strongly stressed than the verbs themselves.⁹ (In the following Old English examples (69), the ‘two-word’ verbs are italicized and their object pronouns gothicized).

(69) a. i. him bī stōdon ‘they stood by him’ (Beowulf 3047)
   hēt ąa in beran ‘(he) ordered to carry in’ (ibid. 2152)
   þe þe mid wunian ‘who dwelt with thee’ (Andreas 101)
   niht æfter cymeō ‘night comes after (i.e. follows)’ (Order of the World 72)

   ii. þe him rǣðe ąás æfter cōm ‘who followed him quickly’ (Orosius 86/25)
   him Pompeius æfter fōr ‘Pompey followed him’ (ibid. 240/26)

   b. i. þā cōm æfter niht ‘then followed night’ (Genesis 2450)
   ii. ąā fōr he him æfter ‘then he followed him’ (Orosius 240/31)

(70) a. verbs with separable prefixes (i.e. (prepositional) adverbs): zū-
machen ‘to close’, ū-ge-mācht (ppl.) ‘closed’, machen die Bücher zu ‘close the books’; auf-gēben ‘to give up’, auf-gē-gēben (ppl.) ‘given up’, geben sie auf ‘give up’; áus-lāchen ‘to laugh out’, aus-ge-lacht (ppl.) ‘laughed out’, er lacht ihn aus ‘he laughed at him’. In German, only the prefixes that precede inflectional ge-
are separable, with the exception of those with an unstressed prefix ver-, as in ver-ge-wissern ‘to confirm’, etc.

   b. verbs with inseparable prefixes: er-blicken ‘to see’, ver-stēhen ‘to understand’, etc.

The verbs with separable prefixes in question in (69) are bī-standan, in-
beran, mid-wunian, æfter-cuman, æfter-faran respectively, consisting of a
prepositional adverb (i.e. particle = P) plus a verb (V), forming a verbal
unit (V’),¹⁰ as analyzed in (71), with an optional preverbal movement of

—

⁹ Since their initial segments alliterate (in (69bi) and the first three verses in (69ai)), and the primary metrical stress (i.e. the ictus) on an alliterating syllable is stronger than the one on a non-alliterating syllable. (The last verse in (69ai) has the ictus on ‘niht’, and Osorius is a prose work.)

¹⁰ However, according to Allen (1980), the so-called separable prefix is not a prepositional adverb that forms a verbal unit with a following verb as shown analyzed in (71) but a preposi-
tion that forms a prepositional phrase (PP) with a following NP, as shown analyzed in (71’) which optionally becomes (69ai) by Preposition Shift and then (69bii) by additional Preposition Split when NP is [+Pro].
predicate NP (69a) or postverbal movement of P (69b).

(71) he æfter cóm mē `he came after (i.e. followed) me`

Now in Modern English zero-derived words, whether deverbal nouns (72a) or denominal verbs (72b) are formed at Level II.

(72) a. [exháust]$_V$ → [exháust]$_N$, (result, return etc.)
   b. [pátttern]$_N$ → [pátttern]$_N$

On the other hand, if those nouns (73b) with “stress retraction” are interpreted as to have idiosyncratic meaning different from those verbs (73a), then each of the pair is to be listed separately in the lexicon since neither is derived from the other; consequently, each is assigned stress independently at Level I, with the verbs (73a) being stressed on the second syllable by segment extrametricality and the nouns (73b) on the first syllable by syllable extrametricality (see Kiparasky 1983).

(73) a. [recórd]$_V$       b. [récord]$_N$
   permit
   convért
   producé

(71')

Hence, (71) is said to be ‘derived’ from (71') by Preposition Shift. However, such a movement rule is not called for in the present analysis (71).
If the so-called Old English deverbal substantives (57d) are interpreted in the same vein, then [on[git-an]]\textsubscript{V} is to be assigned stress like be-fär-an (48b) and [[on] [git]]\textsubscript{N} like and-wèald (49a). If this alternative analysis is accepted, then prosodic restructuring rules, i.e. Stress Retraction (58) and its concomitant Stress Subordination Convention that figure prominently in a non-linear analysis, along with the Gaps-filling convention (59), can be dispensed with, resulting in the simplification of the grammar, since of the two analyses the latter is simpler, hence more highly valued in terms of grammatical description.

2.3.2 Destressing Rules

There are two destressing rules (DS), both applying postcyclically on the second metrical level at the end of derivation—one (74) destressing a clashing syllable and the other (79) destressing any final heavy (-VCC or -VV(C)) syllable of a phonological word (m) of more than one syllable. It is to be noted parenthetically that, in the case of (75a), it is subject to either (74) or (79).

2.3.2.1 Destressing, Due to a Clash (DS I)

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
\text{(74)} & \quad \frac{x}{x} \rightarrow x / \frac{x}{x} \underline{Y}_m \\
& \text{where } Y \text{ may be null}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

(75) a. finally: cýning → cýning (7b)

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
x &
\frac{x}{x} \rightarrow cynin(g) \text{ (DB, em, QS, ER II)} \rightarrow \frac{x}{x} xx \text{ (DS I)}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

b. medially: cýninges → cýninges (8a)

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
x &
\frac{x}{x} \rightarrow \text{cyninge(s) (DB, em, QS, ER II)} \rightarrow \frac{x}{x} xx \text{ (DS I)}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

Hence, the following stress patterns (76) are not attested in OE verse (see Cable p. 70).

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
\star (76) & \quad (\text{tô}) \text{ cýningê}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}
However, DS I (74) is blocked when a phonological word of the type (75b) is preceded by another stressed bimoric phonological word within a larger phonological unit (see Campbell §71)—a compound word (77a) or a phrase (77b), making the resulting forms eligible for D-type verses (x / x)x (linguistically: x / x)x (see §2.3.6) (cf. §2.3.3 below).11

(77) a. compound words (10a)
   i. þeod-cýninges ‘of the monarch’, sæ-cýninga ‘of the sea-kings’ (Beowulf 2382), éorð-cýninges ‘of the earth-king’ (ibid. 1155), wúldor-cýninges ‘of the King of Glory’ (Genesis 111), wórd-cýninga ‘of the world-kings (Beowulf 1684)
   ii. cníht-wésende, sáwl-bérèndra ‘of human beings’ (Beowulf 1004), úmbor-wésende ‘being (~as) a child’ (ibid. 46)
   b. noun phrases (10b)
      féorh cýninges, féll cýninges

Hence, DS I (74) will be blocked from application to a larger phonological units, i.e. a phonological compound or phrase, as shown analyzed in (78).

(78) (cynin(g))m (cyninge(s))m ((éorð)m(cyninge(s)))m

   m-level
   stressing x-x (x xx)m
       x-x (x xx x)m
       x-x (xx m(x xx x)m

11Thus in the present analysis wúldor-cýninges and (its equivalent verse) wórdor-cýninga (77a) are both uniformly scanned as D1-type verses, as shown below in (a); however, Huguenin (§24) would arbitrarily scan the first verse as an A-type verse with a ‘resolved’ stress over the first two syllables of cýninges but the second verse as a D1-type verse since, had it been scanned like the first verse, it would be unmetrical with only 3 (instead of a minimum of 4) stresses, as shown in (b):

(a) wúldor-cýninges (D1)

   wórdor-cýninga (D1)

(b) wúldor-cýninges (A)

   *wórdor-cýninga
The final -VC syllable of a phonological word of more than one syllable in Old English is stressless since its final C is extrametrical, except where it counts on metrical demands for 'proper' scansion (see (41)). On the other hand, final heavy syllables of a long vowel (-VV(C)) or a short vowel followed by more than one consonant (-VCC) are capable of stress by QS (see Sievers §78); however, such final heavy syllables are normally destressed in verse (80) by Final Destressing (79), since they are not utilized in meter for any of the five types except where they count on metrical demands for proper scansion (11), which is repeated here in (81)(see Huguenin §§31, 36). Thus by (79), the final heavy syllable (not a sequence of two light syllables) of a phonological word is destressed.

(79) Final Destressing (DS II)

\[
\begin{align*}
(x x) m & \rightarrow (x x) \quad (x x)_{m} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(y x) x x & \rightarrow (y x x) \quad (y x x)_{m} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Bêowulf (DB, em, QS, ER II) (Bêówulf) \( \rightarrow \) (DS II) (Bêowulf)

(80) (see (7))

Bêowulf (Beowulf 405), hláforn, āðeling (Genesis 2884), (ge)rædest (Maldon 36), þéowdóm ‘slavery’ (Elene 201), fëasceart ‘destitute’ (Beowulf 2285)

\[12\text{In Modern English, however, final -CCV(C) syllable is not subject to destressing (see Selkirk p. 129).}\]
(81) a. (see Campbell §90 fn.1, §549, fn.1)
   *Hrûnting nàmà*
   *éðeling mûnìg*

b. *Bèowulf géòph*
   *Hèngèst ñà gîyt* (Beowulf 1127)

c. *Scìppènd wèrà* (Andreas 787)

(81a, c) are all A-type verses, and the last heavy syllable of the first word of each verse bears secondary stress, overriding DS II (79). On the other hand, (81b) are E-type verses, for which the last heavy syllable of the first word of each verse has to bear a strong stress—in this instance, secondary stress—since it is followed by an unstressed syllable (Cable, p. 61).

Final Destressing (79), however, does not apply to (82), as expected, since their second elements are monosyllabic phonological words.

(82) a. compound words: ((hèah)m(mòd)m)m 'high spirit' (Phoenix 112)

b. stress-prefixed words: ((ed)m(geòng)m)m 'becoming young again' (ibid. 435)

Now in the case of alternating forms, one a full compound word (84a)(=6b) and the other its 'reduced' form (84b)(=7a), the latter can be derived from the former (see Booij and Rubach 1987) by the following demoting rule (83).

(83) \[ W' \rightarrow W \]

(84) a. [[hlåf][wèard]]w 'bread-keeper, lord'

b. [[hlåford]]w

2.3.3 Stress Attraction

PG can't apply on the post-tonic light medial syllable of such words as (8b)(=24f) on account of the resulting stress clash with the preceding stressed syllable. However, such a post-tonic light syllable is capable of 'secondary' stress by the postcyclical Stress Attraction (85), when a phonological word (m$_j$) containing such a medial syllable is preceded by another phonological word (m$_i$) with a stressed bimoric morpheme (a stressed prefix or a
word) within a phonological compound (m'), i.e. a stress-prefixed word (86a) or a compound word (86b)(see Campbell §89 and fn.3), making the resulting stress patterns eligible for D1-type verses, as shown analyzed in (87).

(85) Stress Attraction (SA)

\[ x \rightarrow x / ((xx)_m \ (x \_ x)_m) \]

(86) a. and-swarode (metrically: '/' '/' x) 'he answered' (Beowulf 258, 340) mid-wunode 'he lived together' (Andreas 101)(65)
b. eald-werige 'accursed from old times' (Exodus 50)

(87) ((and)_m(swarode)_m) (DB, ER I, ER II (2x)) \[ x \rightarrow x \ (xx \ x \ x)_m \] (SA)(see (56a))

The phonetic rationale for SA (85) is that only a preceding stressed bimoric constituent can attract a 'compensatory' secondary stress onto the following (non-adjacent) post-tonic light syllable.

2.3.4. Stress Shift

Multisyllabic words with hiatus are subject to synizesis (i.e. syllable reduction); therefore, when 4-syllable words (88bii), for example, are alternatively scanned as 3-syllable words by synizesis, one of the successive vowels in hiatus becomes [-syl], like the penultimate i in (88biii), with one of the vowels subsequently shortened if long as in (88ai)(Pogatscher §30), with stress shift (88a) or without stress shift (88b)(Campbell §§554-557).

(88) a. i. (\( \vdash \ x \ \vdash \)) \( \rightarrow \ (\vdash \ x) \)
    Bérsabéa (17bi), Ámmorréa, Júliána (17bii) \[ x \ x \ x \ x \ x \]
    Bérsabea, Ámmorréa, Júliana

ii. (\( \vdash \ x \ \vdash \)) \( \rightarrow \ (\vdash \ x) \)
    Maláléhel (17bi), Gálileam \( \rightarrow \) Málálehel, Gálieam
iii. \((\sim x x \sim x) \rightarrow (\sim x x x)\)

\[ \text{Bátholoméus (17c)} \rightarrow \text{Bátholoméus} \]

b. i. \((\sim x) \rightarrow (\sim x)\)

\[ \text{Cáines (Genesis 124)(17a), Íóhannis} \rightarrow \]

\[ \text{Cáines (idid. 1066), Íóhannis} \]

ii. \((\sim x \sim x) \rightarrow (\sim x)\)

\[ \text{Grégoriús (17bii)(= 29a), Ássyria (Judith 232)} \rightarrow \]

\[ \text{Grégoriús, Ássyria (ibid. 265)} \]

iii. \((\sim x \sim x) \rightarrow (\sim x \sim x)\)

\[ \text{Mácedónia (13c), Mármédónia} \rightarrow \]

\[ \text{Mácedónia, Mármédónia (Andreas 42, 180)(Campbell §556)} \]

iv. \((\sim x x \sim x) \rightarrow (\sim x x x)\)

\[ \text{Mésopótámie (13d)} \rightarrow \text{Mésopótámie} \]

It is apparent from the data (88) that the concomitant (postcyclic) Stress Shift applies only to a phonological word with a second-level beat on the penultimate syllable preceded by a post-tonic unstressed syllable (88a); hence, it does not apply to (88b), as illustrated in (89).

\[(89) \]

\[ \text{Grégoriús(s)} \rightarrow xx xx x (29a)(\text{Grégoriús}) \rightarrow xx xx x (\text{synizesis}) \]

\[ (\text{Grégoriús}) \rightarrow xx xx x (\text{flattening}) \]

Therefore, Stress Shift, which applies after synizesis, can be formulated as (90), as illustrated in (91).

\[(90) \text{Stress Shift (SS)} \]

\[ x x x x x x x x x \\
\]

\[ x_i x x x x \rightarrow x_i x x \]

where \(x_i\) may be either heavy or light.

\[(91) \]

\[ \text{malaléhe(1)(DB, em)} \rightarrow x x xx x (QS) \rightarrow x x xx x (\text{ER I}) \rightarrow \]
From (91) one can see that Stress Shift (90) precedes DS II (79) since, if otherwise, DS II would wrongfully bleed Stress Shift. Moreover, even though a stress clash resulting from application of a basic beat addition rule (QS) is eliminated by DS I (74), the clash resulting from application of a postcyclical stress adjustment rule, such as SA (85) or SS (90), is tolerated. Furthermore, SS differs from Rhythm Rule (§2.3.5), in that the former is conditioned by synizesis with the leftward movement of a beat to the nearest landing site, overriding a stress clash (91), while the latter is conditioned by a stress clash with the rightward movement of a beat, eliminating a stress clash.

### 2.3.5 Rhythm Rule

Rhythm Rule (RR) is a beat movement rule that operates on the third level of the grid and above. RR and ER II operate complementarily; that is to say, if ER II is initial in a language, then its RR would operate rightwardly; on the other hand, if ER II is final in a language, then its RR would operate leftwardly. Thus in Modern English whose ER II is final, its RR (92) operates leftwardly, as illustrated in (93-94) (see Kiparsky 1979, p. 428; Selkirk p. 168).

(92) Rhythm Rule (Modern English)

\[
\begin{align*}
& x \quad \times \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \quad x \\
& x \quad x \\
& x \\
& x
\end{align*}
\]

Condition: \( x_i \) is a weak beat (i.e. not the designated terminal element) on the third level of the grid and up.
In the case of (94a) where two clash levels are involved, stress clashes are to be resolved from top down, not bottom up, since, if the lower second level clash had first been resolved, an unwarranted hole would be created in its column, together with a stress clash, as shown in (95), resulting in an ill-formed output.

*(95)  

In Old English, on the other hand, RR would move a clashing beat rightwardly to the nearest landing site, just as in German (96)(see Kiparsky 1966; Hayes 1983, p.73).

(96) Feld Marschall → Feld Marschall ‘Field Marshall’
    sichtbar ‘visible’ → unsichtbar ‘invisible’
    halbtot ‘half-dead’ → der halbtote Mann ‘the half-dead man’
    gross-vater ‘grandfather’ → ur-gross-vater ‘great grandfather’ →
The Old English RR hence can be formulated as (97) as the mirror image of (92) with the same condition, with the relevant data given in (98) and their analysis in (99 ff.).

(97) Rhythm Rule (Old English)
\[
x-x_i \quad x \\
X \quad X \quad x \quad x
\]

(98) a. unrihtwis(e) 'unrighteous', unårlic(e) 'dishonest', rihtwislic(e) 'righteous', unrihtwisness(e) 'injustice', unsōďfæstness(e) 'injustice'
   (the final -e in parentheses is an inflectional ending)
   Ðéah hine nū se yfela/unrihtwisá (The Metres of Boethius 15/1)

b. rondhæbbende 'shield-bearer' (Beowulf 861), sæwlberendra 'of human beings' (ibid. 1004)(77aii), tēargōtende 'tearful'

(c. hagostealmon 'one living in the lord's house; an unmarried man; a bachelor, a warrior'
   i. to hwæs hægestalmen 'where warriors' (Exodus 192)
   ii. geong hægestalmon 'young bachelor' (Riddles 14/29)

Now the words in the cited verses (98a) and (98b) are normally scanned as D₁-type verses ( / / \ x)(= 1/2 3 4) with tertiary stress on the heavy medial suffix syllables. However, if RR (97) is to apply (optionally) to them, as it does to their modern German equivalents (96), they would be scanned as A-type verses ( / / \ x)(= 1 3/2 4), as shown analyzed in (99) and (100) respectively.

(99) un-rihtwise → (x)ₘ(xx xx x)ₘ (DB) → (x)ₘ(xx xx x)ₘ

(QS, ER I) → (x)ₘ(xx xx x)ₘ (ER II) → (x xx xx x)ₘ

(ER II)(un-rihtwise)(D₁) → (x xx xx x)ₘ (RR)(un-rihtwise)(A)
STRESS ASSIGNMENT RULES FOR OLD ENGLISH (POETRY)

(100) rond-hæbbende→((xx)_m(xx xx x)_m)→((xx)_m
  
  x  x  x  (QS) → ((xx)_m(xx xx x)_m) (ER II) →
  
  x  x  1  2  3
  (xx xx xx x)_m (ER II)(rondhæbbende)(D₁)→
  
  x  x  x  x, (RR)(rondhæbbende)(A)

Be that as it may, we have no metrical evidence to prove either the correctness or incorrectness of the alternative scansion of the words via RR (97), since the verses in question can be scanned either way within the framework of the Sievers' system (4), which seems to point to the optionality of RR in Old English. ¹³

The word unrihtwīse can be bracketed morphologically either as (101a) or (101b) but phonologically only as (102), and it is on (102) that stress rules apply (see (56)).

    b. [[[un] [right-wīs]ₐₐₐ]ₐₐ]ₐₐ

(102) ((un),ₐₐₐ(rithwīse),ₐₐₐₐ

Next, the second verse in (98c) is scanned as a D₂-type verse (103a) (Huguenin p. 20), as shown analyzed in (104a); accordingly, the word in question has to be bracketed as hagosteald-mon as entered in Bosworth and Toller's Supplement and Clark Hall's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary; however, the word is also bracketed as hago-stealdman in Bosworth and Toller's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, which implies the scansion of the verse as a D₁-type verse (103b), even though I believe the correct bracketing of the word is (103a).

(103) a. géong hágosteald-môn (D₂)
    b. géong hágō-stealdon (D₁)

(104) a. (for (103a))

¹³On the other hand, Huguenin (p. 24) attributes the different scansion of such words to different morphological bracketings:

(a) un-rihtwise  (b) unriht-wise
Now if RR is to operate on the output of (104b) before flattening, then (105) would result.

Thus in view of the stress patterns of the various words analyzed in the present section (and elsewhere ((29), (34), (56b, c), (109b)), it can be concluded that RR in Old English is optional, since stress clashes are regularly tolerated on the third-metrical level (and up), just as in Modern English (31c)(see Selkirk pp.103, 182).
2.3.6 Stress Promotion and Stress Demotion

There are also some purely verse-specific stress adjustment rules: stress promotion and stress demotion rules, the former promoting a beat and the latter demoting one, both operating optionally in verse for a metrical line to be scanned so as to fit one of the verse types (4).

Now a verse (i.e. a half line) contains only two metrical primary (called the ictus) stresses; therefore, in case a verse contains either less than two or more than two linguistic primary stresses, a secondary stress is then promoted to the ictus in the former while an extra primary stress is demoted to a non-primary metrical stress in the latter, since the verse operates only on 3 degrees of stress, compared to the prose that operates on 4 degrees of stress. Thus, 4 degrees of stress (· · · x) in prose (86) are reduced to 3 degrees of stress (· · x) in verse, where the grave accent mark (') in the latter represents secondary stress. Moreover in Old English there is no Nuclear Stress Rule (NSR); instead, Compound Stress Rule is employed for stressing both phonological compound words and phrases (see Maling 1971).14

2.3.6.1 Stress Promotion

Stress Promotion (106) optionally promotes to the primary metrical stress a secondary linguistic stress on the medial syllable immediately preceded by a bimoric primary stressed unit—a heavy syllable or a sequence of two light syllables—and followed by another syllable within a verse (i.e. a half line) for it to be scanned as a C- or D-type verse that requires adjacent juxtaposed primary stresses, as illustrated below in (107-109).

(106) Stress Promotion (SP)

\[
\begin{align*}
(x) & \quad (x) \\
\cline{1-2}
(x) & \quad x \quad x \\
\cline{1-2}
(x) & \quad x \quad x \\
\cline{1-2}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
x \rightarrow x / x \quad x \quad \ldots \quad \text{Verse}
\]

where 'v' represents a verse

(107) phonological simple words (also see Huguenin §16)

a. C-type verses

14On the other hand, the intonation patterns in Modern English of the constructions equivalent to on holt-wudu (108aii) and wis ealdorman (109a) would be (x · · x) and (· · x) respectively.
swā se gē-sāliga (linguistic stress) → x x x / x x (metrical stress) (Phoenix 350)

ōd ḥêt he ṭūsēnde → x x x / x x (ibid. 151)

tō gē-cēsēneč → x x x / x x (Beowulf 1851)

ōnd Iācōbes → x / x x (Psalms 83.7) (Campbell §549 fn.1)

gē-fētērōdē → x / x x (Genesis 2902)

nū māg cūnnian → x x / x x (Maldon 215)

b. (ge)sāliga ‘the happy’ (DB, QS, PG, ER II) → xx x x (SP)

pūsende ‘thousand’ (DB, QS, ER II) → xx xx x x (SP)

(ge)fēterōdē ‘(he) fettered’ (DB, ER I, PG, ER II) → 

x x x x x x (SP)

(108) phonological compound words, including stress-prefixed words (see (Huguenin §17)).

a.i. D₁-type verses

ānd-swārōdē → / x x x (Beowulf 258)

brīm-līpēndrā → / x x x (Maldon 27)

ii. C-type verses

ōn hōlt-wūdū ‘in the forest’ → x / x x (Phoenix 171)
geond lágú-láde ‘beyond the sea’ → x ə x x (Wanderer 3)
in gér-dágum ‘in the days of yore’ → x ə x x (ibid. 44)
on pýs ëg-lánde ‘on this island’ → x x ə x x (Brunnanburh 66)

b.i. ((brim)ₘ(þendra)ₘ)ₘ ‘seafarers’ (DB, QS, ER II) →

(775)

(flattening)

ii. ((holt)ₘ(wudu)ₘ)ₘ (DB, QS, ER II) → (xx x x)ₘ (ER II) →

(776)

(flattening)

Note that of the two postcyclic rules SP and RR, SP precedes RR, as shown in (108bi), where SP bleeds optional RR.

(109) phrases

a. wís éaldormán ‘a wise prince’ → 'x x x (Maldon 219), a D₂-type verse

wéard Scildinga ‘the guard of the Scildings’ → 'x x x (Beowulf 229), a D₁-type verse

b. ((wís)ₘ((caldo(r))ₘ(man)ₘ)ₘ)ₘ (DB, em, QS, ER I, ER II) →

(777)

((x)ₘ(xx x x)ₘ)ₘ (ER II) → (xx xx x x)ₘ (ER II) →

(778)

(flattening)

Now of the two metrically juxtaposed primary stresses in a phonological compound word or a phrase, the first is necessarily stronger since it allite-
rates, as shown in (108-109), where the alliterating segments are italicized, and alliterating primary stresses are stronger than non-alliterating primary stresses.

2.3.6.2 Stress Demotion

Stress demotion (110) optionally defoots on metrical demands a medial syllable with secondary stress ((12), (16)) after a bimoric primary stressed syllable within a phonological word (m) in a verse (v), as illustrated in (111).

(110) Medial Syllable Demotion (MSD)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{x} \\
\text{x} \rightarrow \text{x} / \text{xx} _\ldots \text{(m)}_\text{v}
\end{array}
\]

(111) a. \text{wöriað} p\ddagger w\text{insalō} (Wanderer 78), a D\text{1}-type verse

b. \text{wöriað(δ)\text{m}} (DB, em) \rightarrow (\text{xx} \text{x} \text{x})\text{m} (QS, PG, ER II)

(\text{wöriaδ} (24\text{c}) \rightarrow (\text{xx} \text{x} \text{x})\text{m} (MSD) (\text{wöriaδ})

However, unlike the words in (80) whose secondary stresses on final syllables have to be demoted in the verses in question for them to be scanned correctly, some words with secondary stress on a medial syllable, on the other hand, can have their secondary stress either retained as in (112-113), where the verses are scanned as E-type verses with anacrusis ((x x) \cdot x / \cdot) since the suffixed forms of the word \text{Bëowulf} (Bëowulfes, Bëowulfe, etc.) in the epic poem are normally scanned as (` x) with secondary stress (see also Huguenin p.12; Sievers §83), or demoted as in (114) via MSD (110), where the verses are scanned as B-type verses since secondary stresses ("light half-stresses") in \text{Bëowulfes} (24\text{a}, Íácôbes, Ædâmes (15\text{a}) are said to be optionally destressed ("neglectable") in verse (Campbell §549).

15However, Bliss (pp. 126, 84) scans (112a) solely as a '3B2b' type verse since "secondary stress is never found in Type B verses"(!)
(112) a. \( (x \; x) \overset{\ast}{\text{wæs}} \text{him } \overset{\ast}{\text{Bëowulfes}} \text{ síð} \)
    \( (x \; x) \; \overset{\ast}{x} \)

b. \( \overset{\ast}{x} \text{ ne } \overset{\ast}{\text{haet}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{lácóbes}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{gód}} \)

(113) a. \( (x \; x) \; \overset{\ast}{\text{þæt}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{ic}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{ánigra}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{mé}} \) (Beowulf 932, 949)

    \( (x \; x) \; \overset{\ast}{x} \)

b. \( \overset{\ast}{x} \text{ þéah } \overset{\ast}{\text{de}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{ánlicu}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{sy}} \) (ibid. 1941)

(114) a. \( \overset{\ast}{x} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{wæs}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{Bëowulfes}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{síð}} \) (Beowulf 501)(Campbell §90 fn.1)

    (cf. síð Bëowulfes (ibid. 1971))

b. \( \overset{\ast}{x} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{ne } \overset{\ast}{\text{þæt}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{lácóbes}} \; \overset{\ast}{\text{gód}} \) (Psalms 93.7)(Campbell §549 fn.1)

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