Grapheme-Phoneme Correlations
in Old English

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Abstract:

In this paper, the author provides a historical review of the situation of orthography during the Old English period. Throughout its course, English went through two stages in developing its spelling system. The first is the use of the rune letters, known as *futharc* which the Germanic tribes brought with them when they arrived to Britain in the middle of the fifth century. These runes were found carved on stones, war shields, and tree trunks. The runic letter inventory included twenty nine symbols representing consonants, vowels, and diphthongs. Sound variations could not be determined due to the lack of enough documented records of these letters. The other stage marks the introduction of Latin spelling into English around the end of the sixth century. As Old English developed its dialects, variations in spelling, during this stage, have been documented and reflected significant differences among that language varieties.   In addition, several letters, that were part of the old system, disappeared as a result of the deletion of the sounds they represented or their merger with other segments.

Introduction

Very few people, including native speakers, are aware of several facts about English orthography. One fact is that, contrary to the belief that English alphabet has been derived from Latin, Old English used an old Scandinavian writing system before Latin letters were borrowed around the end of the sixth century. Another fact is that, English as an Indo-European language, has been influenced by the Semitic languages in several ways. Not only its numerals were taken from Arabic, its letters also have Semitic roots, being a modified version of graphemes used in the Phoenician language. In addition to these unknown pieces of information about Old English, its dialectal variations were written during its time, and a lot of the discrepancies between sounds and their written forms appearing in Modern English are reflections of those differences found in that old language varieties.   In this paper, I will present a historical characterization of the Old English orthography focusing on the phonemic inventory and its corresponding orthographic representation.

Historical Background

The historical development of writing in English has been traced back to the Middle East region where the Semitic tribes, the Phoenicians, lived during the eleventh century BC. Leith (1997) and Williams (1975) note that those Semites recognized the distinction between consonants and vowels as the units forming the basic syllable structure of Phoenician. They invented twenty two written representations for the sounds of their language.

Around the tenth century BC, the Greeks being close to the Phoenicians' homeland in the northern Middle East, imported this writing system. They adjusted it to fit their language pronunciations. They borrowed the Phoenician consonantal graphs (symbols) that matched the consonants of Greek without change. For the consonant symbols that existed in Phoenician only, not Greek, the scribes used them to spell the Greek vowels. For example, the Semitic symbol for the bilabial sound, which was called *beth* in Phoenician, was used in Greek and was called beta[1]. The first letter of the Semitic orthography (called "aleph" and used for the glottal stop consonant) was not found in Greek. So the Greeks used its symbol to spell

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[1] See Appendix I for a complete list of the Phoenician symbols and their corresponding Greek and Latin letters.

their vowel <α> which is still being used and is called alpha.[2]

Partridge (1982) states that the adaptation of the Semitic writing system was very efficient in Greek that other neighboring regions adopted it for writing their sounds. It spread to southeast Europe and Italy during the time of the Roman Empire. The Romans modified the symbols to match their Latin pronunciation and spread it throughout their empire states, e.g. the Slavs regions, Poland, Rumania, and others,

The system, as Paul (1997) reports, reached the Germanic tribes of Scandinavia in northern Europe in the second or third century AD through their contacts with cultures in northern Italy. The changes in the form and in the order of the letters took place after the Germanics borrowed the Latin letters. When they landed in the British Isles, they brought with them these letters, which they called *runes* or secret writings.

This spelling system had limited use due to the literacy level of the Germanic invaders and their descendants. The use of runes continued in Britain until the arrival of Christianity at the end of the sixth century AD when English began gradually to adopt the Latin letters used in the Christian scriptures. Burchfield (1985) comments that Old English scribes, even when Latin letters were borrowed, continued using some symbols from the runic alphabet, e.g., < T > which was called "thorn" to represent the sound [θ].

Later developments in the English orthography came from France during the Middle English period after the Normans invaded Britain in the twelfth century. Several letters that were used in the Old English period were replaced by others from French, e.g., the <T> was substituted by the digraph <th>[3].

A relative stability in the English alphabetical system did not take place until the invention of printing by William Caxton in the middle of the fifteenth century. The noticeable inconsistencies or the lack of correlation between letters and sounds found in Modern English are attributed to all

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[2] The angle brackets < > will be used for letters, and the square brackets for [ ] phonemes

[3] A digraph is two letters representing one phoneme

these historical developments. Some of the examples of spellings that do not match modern pronunciations include the so-called silent letters as in *know* and *though* where the consonant clusters of both kn- and -gh were pronounceable in Old English. Few changes in pronunciation that happened after the use of printing were accompanied by changes in spellings. These included the modifications in vocalic spellings following the Great Vowel Shift which resulted in the loss of all long vowels, leaving behind short vowels and diphthongs. Consequently, length markings were dropped from writing. The doubling of vowels found in modern words like *book* and *cool* are indicative of that old vowel length.

III. The Runic alphabet
The earliest discovered runic letters date back to the fourth century AD. Page (1973) examined as many as twenty four runic letters carved on stones in Denmark representing the Gotlandish alphabet, one form of the Scandinavian runic writings which resembled the letters found in the Anglo-Saxon runes. When the Scandinavian invaders arrived to Britain, the majority of them were illiterate. However, their elites (leaders, chiefs, and commanders), as Strang (1974) notes, were literate or familiar with the runic writing symbols which was also called fuðarc spelled as fuTArc. Each of these six letters represented a word. For example, the <f> for the phoneme [f] meant *feoh* "wealth", the <u > stood for the vowel [u] and meant *ur* "aurochs", etc.

The shapes of those letters were angular because they were carved or scratched on hard surfaced objects like stones, shields, wood, etc. Few runic manuscripts, however, were found written on leather or cloth. Millward (1989) comments that the Modern English word "book" is derived from the Old Germanic word *bōc* which meant "beech tree". This gives the indication that wood or bark was a common writing object.

In England, the earliest runic scripts were found in East Anglia and Kent around the middle of the sixth century AD. Page's (1973) investigation of old runic writings estimates the total number of the authentic runic inscriptions which were written during the early period of Old English to be around thirty pieces. The most famous of all are the *Rune Poem* and *The Dream of the Road*. The latter was found carved on a stone in Dumfriesshire and was written in a Northumbrian Old English dialect. A

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very recent discovery has been reported by Bill Mouland (2003) in the *Daily Mail* newspaper in which a granite rock with carved runic letters was unearthed at Gorleston near Great Yarmouth, Norfolk in Britain. This rock has added a new document to the list of the historical records of this ancient orthography and carried the message "this stone is for the people who celebrate with fire" (p. 5). It has been examined and authenticated by the archeologists from the Norfolk Archeological Service.

The runic writing, during the early Old English period, had limited uses, and was confined to few ritual and literary practices. When England converted to Christianity, those letters started to have a wider use with the addition of religious discourses. The runes continued in writing Old English, even when Latin alphabet was introduced, till the eleventh century (Hogg, 1994).

The early runic alphabet consisted of twenty four letters. This number increased as the Germanic tribes (Angels, Saxons, and Jutes) developed their own dialects which included Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish. In the runes letter-inventory, there were eighteen symbols for the consonants, eight for vowels, and three for diphthongs. With only thirty well-documented runic texts (some were limited to few words), it was not possible to identify whether the allophonic variations were also present in the texts or not.

The Runic Symbols	Phonetic Value	Old English Word
f	f	feoh "wealth"
T	θ	þorn "thorn"
rR	r	rād "road"
c	c/k	cēn "pine"
g	g	giefu "gift"
w	w	wēn "hope"
h	h	hagel "hail"
n	n	nīēd "necessity"
k	j	gēαr "year"
K	p	peorþ "chessman"
x	x	eolh "elk"

s	s	sigel	"sun"
t	t	tīr	"glory"
b	b	beorc	"birch"
m	m	mɑnn	"person"
l	l	lagu	"sea"
N	ŋ	Ing	"name of a god"
d	d	dæg	"day"
u	u	ur	"aurochs"
o	o	ōs	"god"
I	i	is	"ice"
e	e	eoh	"war-horse"
E	œ	ēþœl	"native land"
a	ɑ	āc	"oak"
A	æ	æsc	"ash"
y	y	ȳr	"bow"
Z	eo	ēoh	"yew-tree"
j	io	īōr	"eel"
q	eɑ	ear	"earth"

Instances of these orthographic characters can be illustrated from several early documented Old English writings. One of these is taken from the eleventh stanza of *"The Rune Poem"* (Millward, 1989, p. 77):

                    Is   byT   ofercqld
                     is   byþ   o f e r c eɑ l d
                        "ice is very cold"

Another is taken from a stone in Hartlepool carrying the name Hildþryþ written as ʜɪlldꞱrуꞱ (Burchfield, 1985, p.8).

The Latin Alphabet

The runic symbols, with the Christianization of England, began to lose ground for the alphabet of Latin which was used by missionaries and clergies sent from Rome.

Burchfield (1985) points out that the first attested Old English text written in Latin was the *Cædmon's Hymn* which appeared in 737 AD, and was written in the Old English dialect of Northumbrian, one of the two dialects representing the so-called Anglian Old English which included also Mercian

At the onset of the use of Latin letters in English orthography, it was restricted to few situations. Hogg (1994) writes:

That the letters of the alphabet and even the very style in which they were written should be so dependent upon the arrival and spread of Christianity is far from surprising. Throughout the Anglo-Saxon period the teaching and to a considerable extent the practice of writing was predominately a property of the church. It was in monasteries and their scriptoria that instruction in reading and writing was carried out and scribes were normally clerics. Even when the structure of government became seriously developed, from the time of Alfred onwards, the scribes in the king's secretariat were clerics not laymen (p. 73).

When the English clerical scribes started using the Latin alphabet, some of the runes were borrowed into the new alphabet. In the famous epic *Beowulf*, the runic letter ᛖ was used twice in the word *ēþœl* "native land". The other borrowed symbols included Ʇ for the sound [θ] and ƿ for [w]. These two symbols represented written forms for sounds found in Old English not Latin (Hogg 1994, Scragg 1974, Williams 1975, Barber 2000, Moffett 1992, Quirk & Wrenn.1994).

a. 1. The Vowels Spellings (Monophthongs)

The Old English letters representing the vowel system of the language were drawn based on the phonemic contrasts identified in that system which

included: tongue position (high, low, front, back); lip rounding (rounded, spread); and quantity (short, long). The Old English scripts revealed eight symbols representing orthographically these contrasts:

Symbol	Phonetic Value
<a/α >	[α]
<æ>	[æ]
<e>	[ɛ]
<o>	[ɔ]
<œ/oe >	[ö]
<u>	[U]
<i>	[ī]
<y>	[y]

Brook (1958) notes that the long vowels involved a higher degree of intensity compared to the short ones, and the Anglo-Saxon scribes were not consistent in their marking of vowel length. It was shown by either doubling the vowel or by a macron drawn over the vowel.

The high front rounded vowel spelled as <y> had been quite unstable throughout the period. In some manuscripts (e.g., *Beowulf, Cynewulf and Cyneheard,* and *Ælfric's Life and of Saint Edmund, King and Martyr*), it was written interchangeably with both <ie> and <i>, e.g., *scylid* "shield" was also written as *scield* and *scild* (Millward, 1989) . Some of these texts, in fact, were written during the late Old English period, which makes it plausible to assume that this represented a period of transition to Middle English during which this vowel was losing its rounding feature and merging with the vowel [i]. Toon (1992) adds that the front rounded vowel disappeared from all dialects of Old English except in West Saxon before disappearing for good by the middle of the eleventh century AD, when the Normans came to England.

The letters <i> and < ī > as in *biddan* "to pray" and *bīdan* "to wait" stood for the short and long high front unrounded vowels. These two did not have variations in the Old English manuscripts, and they were consistently found corresponding to the phonemes they represented. In some texts, there were attestations of some instances where <i> was found alternating with <g>. Quirk & Wrenn (1994) explains that the <g> was

vocalized as an on-glide segment when occurring before front vowels. This accounts for the interchange of <i> and <g> in words like, *herges* and *heries* "gen. sg. of here", and *hergan* and *herian* "to praise".

The two letters <e> and <ē> as in *eft* "again" and *ēst* "favor" represented both short and long mid front unrounded vowels. Like the high vowels, they did not have written variations. The mid front rounded vowels were written with either a single graph <œ> or as a digraph <oe> with a micron over the long vowels as <œ̄>. Barber (2000) notes that, unlike other letters, these had existed in the early Old English manuscripts, mainly in the Anglian texts written before 900 AD. These letters disappeared later, and assumed to have merged with the other mid front unrounded vowels <e> and <ē>. Williams (1975) reports instances of this merger like *dœman* "deem" which was found later as *deman.*

The short and long high back rounded vowels were spelled as <u> and <ū> as in *ful* "full" and *fūl* "foul". The Modern English diphthong [æʊ] as in "found" and "house" is derived from the long back vowel as part of the Great Vowel Shift development.

The letters <o> and <ō> were used by the Old English scribes for the short and long mid back rounded vowels respectively, e.g., g*od* "a god" and *gōd* "good". In some words, the <o> appeared as a variant of <α> when the latter was followed by a nasal sound. Quirk & Wrenn (1994) assume that the nasals had a rounding influence on the low back vowel represented by <α>. For example, the words *mann* "a man" and *land* were written orthographically as *monn* and *lond.*   There were, however, other words where <α> remained unchanged even when a nasal sound followed. Millward (1989, p.79) cites instances of the <α> which resisted the nasal effect taken from the last line of the Old English poem *Judith* written in the tenth century:

| nαnne | onȝeþitlocαn | wiȝȝend | stopon |
| none | in mind | warriors | stepped |

The two symbols <æ> and <α> were used for the low front and back vowels respectively. The old manuscripts show that the <α> was also written as <æ> when the following syllable had a back vowel, compare *dæg*

"day, nominative singular" with *dɑgɑs* "days, nominative plural"; also *dæges* "day's" as opposed to *dɑgum* "days, dative plural". The low front vowel spelled as <æ> came originally from the Latin digraph <ae> which, during the eighth century, was joined as <æ> (Hogg 1994, and Toon 1983).

IV. a. 2. The Diphthongs Spellings:

The Anglo-Saxon scribes used digraphs to spell the Old English diphthongs. At the early stages of this period, there were four digraphs representing four diphthongs. These, like the single vowels, had short and long forms: <eɑ> <eo>, <io>, and <ie> which stood for the sounds [ɛə], [eʊ], [Īʊ], and [Īə] as in:

feɑllan	"to fall"	*scɛ̃p*	"sheep"
eoh	"horse"	*gēōmor*	"sad"
iorre	"anger"	*līōht*	"light"
giefan	"to give"	*gelīēfan*	"to believe"

Toon (1983) indicates that the two diphthongs spelled as <eɑ> and <eo>, both short and long, were stable throughout the period compared to the other two. The diphthong [Īə] written as <ie> was spelled later as <i> through a process of smoothing resulting in a monophthong, so *giefan* came to be written as *gifan*. The diphthong [Īʊ] written as <io> merged with <eo> in its short and long forms, e.g. *miox* "manure" became *meox;* and *līōht* "light" became *lēōht.*

IV. b. The Consonants Spellings

The texts of Old English have revealed a letter-inventory of symbols taken from the alphabets of both Latin and runes. These consisted of nineteen symbols. There were no silent letters except for the cases of digraphs. Consonantal length in Old English was phonemic and was marked by the doubling of the letter representing the phoneme, e.g., *lētt* "take, 3rd person present indicative" and *lēt* "let, 3rd person preterit indicative"; *ful* :"full, adj", and *full* "fully, adv."

The following eight letters stood for the same grapheme-phoneme correspondences Modern English presently has: <p>, <b>, <d>, <t>, <m>, <n>, <l>, and <w>. Barber (2000) points out that the letter <w> appeared in Old English in a later stage, around the end of the seventh century AD. The sound [w], on the other hand, used to be spelled with the doubling of <u> or

with the runic letter < w > which was called "wynn" as in *triouu* or *triow* "tree". The <n> stood for both [n] and the velar nasal [ŋ]. The latter variant occurred before velar sounds, e.g., *hrīng* "ring" was pronounced as [hrīŋg] compared to Modern English [rīŋ].

The old English sounds [f], [g], and [r] were transcribed orthographically as <*f*>, <ȝ> and <ɣ>. The letter < *f* > was the written form of both the voiceless and voiced labiodental fricative sounds [f] and [v].   The [v] was an allophone of [f] when it occurred medially before a voiced sound (vowels or consonants) and was not doubled.   So in *hæft* "handle" and *pyffan* "to puff" there was a [f], while in *giefan* "to give" and *hræfn* "raven", it was a [v].   A similar situation was found with the letter <s> representing both [s] and [z]. The latter was an allophone of [s] when it occurred in a voicing environment, e.g. *sǣ* "sea" had a [s] and in *nosu* "nose" there was a [z].

Old English used two symbols for the sound [θ] and its allophone [ð]. The first symbol was borrowed from the runic alphabet which was called "thorn" and spelled as < ᛏ >.   The other one was <ð> which was called "eth". Hogg (1994) comments that the letter <ð> was originally a <d> and the scribes added a line crossing its top.   Old texts have shown that the Anglo-Saxons used the two symbols interchangeably.   They did not discriminate between the two in terms of position. Such interchangeability is seen in *Beowulf:* in line 6 *syððan* "since"; in line 132 *syðᛏan*; in line 283 *syᛏðan*; and in line 604 *syᛏᛏan*. The pattern of voicing [θ] to [ð] follows that of [f] and [s] stated above. So [θ] was found in *ᛏes* "this" and *moᛏᛏe* "moth", while [ð] appeared in *baᛏian* "to bathe" and *fæᛏm* "embrace".

The letter <c> was used to spell the two sounds [k] and [tʃ]. They were not distinct phonemes though. [k] appeared when the following sound was a back vowel or a consonant, as in *cumbol* "banner" and *cniht* "boy". The [tʃ] was used when the following segment was a front vowel, e.g., *cēāp* "goods" and *cild* "child". Some words in Old English may appear to violate this pattern. For example *cǣg* "key", *ᛏancian* "to thank", *cynn* "kin", and cēlɑn "to cool". The <c> in all these words was pronounced as [k] even though it was followed by a front vowel. Barber (2000) explains that during the prehistoric Old English period, these vowels were originally back

vowels and underwent fronting at the early Old English. However, the original pronunciation of <c> as [k] remained unchanged obscuring the velarization of <c>. So *cēlan* developed from pre Old English **cōljan*, and *cynn* came from **cunni*.

The <c> was also used in the digraph <sc> to spell the sound [ʃ] in a large number of Old English words, e.g., *sceacul* "shackle", *sceoh* "shy", *fisc* "fish", and *blyscan* "to blush". There were few instances where the sequence <sc> was pronounced as [sk], e.g., *ascian* "to ask", and *tusc* "tooth" which were taken as exceptions..

It is worth noting that <c> in Old English had never stood for the sound [s] as seen in Modern English. This development came in the Middle English period under the influence of French as seen in words like *city* and *sincere*.

The <g> was not used in Old English until the late stages of the period. It was written as <ȝ>, a form borrowed from the Irish spelling (Quirk et. al. 1994). This <ȝ> represented three sounds. It was the velar stop [g] before consonants and back vowels as in *ȝnornian* "to mourn" and *ȝāt* "goat". It was also used to spell the glide [j] when the following sound segment was a front vowel, e.g., *ȝefeol* "fell", *ȝif* "if". Finally, it was the voiced velar fricative [γ] when occurring between two back vowels and was not doubled, as in *fuȝol* "bird" and *āȝan* "to own". This letter was also used in the digraph <cg> which spelled the affricate [dʒ], e.g., *ecg* "edge", *brycg* "bridge" (Barber, 2000).

The letter <h>, like <c>, represented three sounds. At the word-initial position, it was [h], e.g. *hecg* "hedge"and *hlūd* "loud". When occurring medially and after front vowels, it stood for the voiceless palatal fricative [ç] as in *niht* "night". This sound still exists in Scottish and other northern British dialects. After back vowels, it was the voiceless velar fricative [x] in words like *fuht* "moist" and *dohtor* "daughter" (Williams, 1975).

There were attestations of the letters <q>, <x>, and <z> in Old English texts. These had few appearances though. Hogg (1994) states that <q> was found in limited texts before the letter <u> and was pronounced as [kw], e.g., *quiða* "womb". The letter <x> was used for the sound sequence of [ks] recorded in words of foreign origin, e.g., *æx* "axe". The <z> was rarely

found in the Old English writing, and stood for the sounds [ts] and [dz]. Between two vowels, it was pronounced as [dz], e.g., *bæzere* "baptist", and elsewhere it was [ts], e.g. *milze* "mercy".

IV. c. The Dialectal Variations in Old English Orthography

Among the studies focusing on the textual analysis involving the inter-dialect variations of the Old English period are those done by philologists like Fisiak (1987), Seebold (1992), Wakelin (1989), Lass (1994), and Toon (1992).   The majority of the texts were written in the West Saxon (WS) variety which was the prominent variety and was the one used by King Alfred's scribes (known as Alfredan writing).   The other varieties Northumbrian (NM), Mercian (MN), and Kentish (KN) were also written, but fewer texts were historically documented. Fisiak (1987) estimated the number of non West Saxon records to be around seventy-two only. The existing texts from all the four dialects have displayed significant spelling variations especially with vowels. These can be illustrated in the following:

- West Saxon short <æ> was represented as a middle vowel spelled as <e> in Mercian, e.g., (WS) *fæt* "vessel" was (MN) *fet*.
- West Saxon long vowel <ǣ> was raised to a middle vowel too written as <ē> in Northumbrian, Mercian, and Kentish, e.g., (WS) *brǣcon* "break" was *brēcon* in (NM), (MN), and (KN).
- The West Saxon diphthong <eɑ> was <ɑ> in Northumbrian and Mercian when the diphthong was followed by two consonants, e.g., (WS) *eɑld* "old" was *ɑld* in (NM) and (MN).
- The short front mid vowel written as <e> of West Saxon and Kentish was diphthonganized as [eə] spelled as <eo> in Mercian and <ea> in Northumbrian when the diphthong occurred in closed syllables, e.g. (WS) *setol* "seat" was *seotul* in (MN) and *seatol* in (NM).
- The front rounded vowel written as <y> in West Saxon, Northumbrian, and Mercian was unrounded and lowered to <e> in the southeast where Kentish was spoken, e.g., *yfel* "evil" in the three varieties and was e*fell* in (KN).
- The long diphthong written as <īē> of West Saxon was monophthonganized in the other varieties to a long vowel spelled as <ē>, e.g. (WS) *gīēt* "yet" was *gēt* in (NM), (MN), and (KN).

- The letter <c> of Northumbrian was written as <h> before the letter <t> in West Saxon, e.g. (NM) *maecti* "might" and *dryctin* "lord" were *mihte* and *dryhten* in (WS).
- The letter <d> in Northumbrian was < ⊤ > in West Saxon when it occurred intervocalically, e.g., (NM) *modgidanc* "thought" was *modeⲧ onc* in (WS).
- The West Saxons tend to convert fricatives to stops when they occurred before liquids and nasals, e.g., (WS) *wǣdla* "poor man" and *bytme* "keel" were *wiðlia* and *byðne* in (NM) and (MN).

Without attested historical records, such dialectal variations were not possible to identify and explain. The number of scribes as well as the wider practices of writing gave the Latin letters the advantage over the runes which had very limited uses. As a result, documents using Latin symbols have enabled us to describe with details the writing situation of English in that period, and have made it easier to identify the written symbols and the sounds they represented. In addition, they have revealed to us the environments where symbols displayed variations or multiple sound representations. Such documents were lacking during the runes period. Consequently, a detailed picture of the dialectal differences could not be drawn. Nevertheless, the available records have given us enough understanding of the orthographic practices of the Anglo-Saxons when they arrived to British Isles.

V. Conclusion

In sum, this historical investigation, not only has given insights into the two stages of the Old English spelling development, but has revealed a closer relation between English and the Semitic languages. Even though there were two orthographic systems, the number of graphemes found during the runes phase was similar to that of the alphabet of Latin, twenty nine characters in both systems. This signals a relatively stable sound situation during that period. The continuation of runes in the Old English writing till the end of eleventh century, even when Latin was introduced, may indicate that they had wider use than reported by historical linguists. As for the Latin alphabet, the majority of the records which were written in the West Saxon dialect have revealed more details about the grapheme-phoneme correspondences in Old English. The situation with the dialectal variations, even with seventy two records, has shown fairly significant

vowel differences found across those Old English varieties. Finally, more discoveries of other records (in runes and in Latin) are needed to add to our knowledge about the sound-letter correlations especially the variations within the early Old English. Such discoveries would also give insights into the purposes Anglo-Saxons used writing for. The message found on the recently discovered rock at Norfolk, even with few words, has shown that those tribes used writing for pagan rituals.

APPENDIX I
Phoenician, Greek, and Latin letters

Phoenician	Phoenician name	Modern symbol	Early Greek	Classical Greek	Greek name	Early Latin	Classical Latin
☧	'aleph	'	◁	A	alpha	A	A
◁	beth	b	⊌	B	beta		B
∧	gimel	g	∧	Γ	gamma		C
◁	daleth	d	△	△	delta	◯	D
∃	he	h	∃	E	epsilon	∃	E
Y	waw	w	∃		digamma	⅂	F
							G
I	zayin	z	I	Z	zeta		
日	ḥeth	ḥ	日	H	eta	日	H
⊗	teth	ṭ	⊗	Θ	theta		
∿	yod	y	⟨	I	iota	I	I (J)
⟋	kaph	k	∤	K	kappa	⋏	K
⟨	lamed	l	∧	∧	lambda		L
⋔	mem	m	⋔	M	mu	⋔	M
⅃	nun	n	⅄	N	nu	⋔	N
∓	samek	s			xi		
○	ayin	'	○	○	omicron	○	O
∕	pe	p	⅁	Π	pi		P
⋔	sade	s	⋔		san		
Φ	qoph	q	Φ		qoppa		Q
◁	reš	r	⅃	Ρ	rho		R
W	šin·	sh/s	⟨	Σ	sigma	⟨	S
X	taw	t	X		tau	∨	T
				Y	upsilon		V
				X	chi		X
				Ω	omega		Y
							Z

PHOENICIAN	GREEK	LATIN

Copied from Robinson (1995, p. 170)

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تقابل الصوت مع الشكل الكتابي في اللغة الإنجليزية القديمة

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الملخص:

في هذا البحث يقدم الباحث عرضا تاريخيا لتقابل الأشكال الكتابية مع الأصوات في فترة اللغة الإنجليزية القديمة. فقد مر تطور الكتابة في تلك الفترة بمرحلتين رئيسيتين. أولاهما مرحلة نظام الحروف الرونية أو ما يطلق عليها أحيانا فوذارك و التي أتت بها القبائل الجرمانية إلى بريطانيا في منتصف القرن الخامس الميلادي. حيث كانت سجلاتهم عبارة عن كتابات من حروف محفورة أو منقوشة على صخور أو دروع حرب أو جذوع أشجار. و أظهرت الدراسات التي تمت على تلك السجلات وجود تسعة و عشرين رمزا كتابيا تمثل الصوامت و الصوائت و ثنائيات الصوائت. و بسبب وجود عدد محدود لتلك السجلات، لم يتم تحديد وجود فروقات أو تفاوت في استخدام أصوات اللغة الإنجليزية القديمة في مراحلها الأولى. أما المرحلة الثانية فهي إحلال الحروف اللاتينية محل الحروف الرونية و التي بدا في استخدامها في أواخر القرن السادس. و أظهرت نتائج الدراسات التاريخية اختفاء بعض الحروف التي كانت جزا من نظام الكتابة في المراحل الأولى للغة الإنجليزية القديمة نتيجة لاختفاء أو اندماج بعض الأصوات مع أصوات أخرى.