

The Early Modern
English Version of
Elizabeth Jacob's
*Physicall and
Chyrurgical Receipts*

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By

Miriam Criado-Peña

Cambridge
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To my parents

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<i>alter.</i>	Alteration
<i>bot. marg.</i>	Bottom margin
<i>cancel.</i>	Cancellation
<i>del.</i>	Deletion
<i>ext. marg.</i>	External margin
<i>f.</i>	Folio
<i>ff.</i>	Folios
<i>lac.</i>	Lacuna
<i>oblit.</i>	Obliteration
<i>OED</i>	Oxford English Dictionary
<i>PDE</i>	PDE
<i>r.</i>	Recto
<i>rep.</i>	Repetition
<i>v.</i>	Verso
<i>W3009</i>	London, Wellcome Library, MS 3009 (ff. 17r-90r)

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CHAPTER 1

THE MANUSCRIPT

The present chapter contains a linguistic analysis of the text to assess the level of standardization of morphological and syntactic features, together with a physical description of MS Wellcome 3009 (ff. 17r-90r; henceforth W3009).

1.1. The Manuscript

W3009 is housed in London, Wellcome Library. This volume is attributed to Elizabeth Jacob, whose signature is visible in the fourth and fifth folios of the witness. As such, she is the main contributor to the volume (ff. 35r-54r; 63v-88r), even though later unknown hands expanded the manuscript from 1654 to 1685.

This manuscript was purchased by the Wellcome Library at Sotheby's Art Auction House in London in 1930. The previous owners are unknown although the dates 1573 and 1590 can be observed in the first folio (together with the author's name and title), which may be an indication of previous ownership.

1.2. The Language

The English language has undergone significant changes over time, and during the process, an array of regional dialects emerged. A standard form of communication also developed, especially in the written domain (education, administration, court, etc.). The term standard, however, can be understood in two different ways: as the variety acknowledged in an area where the established local norms apply, and as the language carrying prestige over a range of dialects spoken in the country (Stein 1994, 2).

The process of standardization of a language is not straightforward. Bartsch (1987) considers the three following aspects as the *sine qua non* for its rise: a) to be spoken by a political or economic prestige group; b) to have a history of literature with well-known authors; and c) to be the variety spoken in a central area of commerce and political power (237-238). The language also needs to be adapted to the different contexts to increase its productivity, that is, to widen its scope of contexts and uses,

until a single accepted norm is acquired. Bearing in mind the importance of the written language for its standardization, Lass (1994, 82) proposes two evolutionary steps during the process:

- a) selection, i.e. the choice of a dialect to be the standard
- b) regulation, i.e. the development of an accepted form which results in a supraregional norm.

The English language as it is known today is considered to have evolved during the 15th century and have reached its fully form by the middle of the 18th century. The first evidence towards the creation of a national language is found in Wycliffe's sermons by the end of the 14th century, and since then, the language has spread throughout the country during the following decades (Fisher 1996, 121). Notwithstanding that these sermons were ascribed to the Northern part of England, London played an important role in the emergence of Standard English, being "the political and commercial centre of England. It was the seat of the court, of the highest judicial tribunals, [and] the focus of social and intellectual activities of the country" (Baugh and Cable 1993, 181). Chancery English, used in London during the 15th century, is deemed as the onset of the standard language. The beginning of standardization seems to be connected with the emergence of written prestigious forms (e.g. the language of administration), the formal and official language that appeared as a result of the creation of an influential and enduring society in London. In this light, Richardson (1980) considers Henry V's need of administrative documents for political purposes as one of the triggering factors for the development of a standard language. Those from the upper classes (royalty and aristocracy) often used the same language, and the adoption of this variety might be understood in terms of political reasons rather than social values (Mcintosh 1994, 68).

It was at the beginning of the early Modern English period when this language began to be recognized, thereby becoming the official language of certain members of society (Dobson 1955, 27-31). Chancery English spread rapidly as the language used in business and private letters due to the absence of any other model for the vernacular written form (Fisher 1977, 892). This language was acknowledged by the early printers, and spelling books and grammars began to be published, albeit there were still variations in spelling and grammar. Despite the already accepted standard, there were however some citizens who continued to use their local dialects (Freeborn 1998, 289-323).

Written English, however, was not exclusively an administrative language, it widened its scope to academic treatises and medical texts, regarded as important as literary and administrative language¹. However, as scientific texts had an intellectual and learning pursuit that differed from the interests of the administration, they were bestowed different levels of prestige (Taavitsainen 2000b, 133-147). Medical texts did not follow the established pattern of other text-types, and its different subfields also presented variations in the sense that recipes, the major genre in remedy books, exhibited a higher degree of standardization than academic and surgical texts (Taavitsainen 2005, 95-96).

The English language then presents a range of distinctive characteristics in the course of this ongoing process of standardization. Fisher (1977) comments on those found in Chancery English texts: adverbs ending in *-lich* (*frelich*), plural verbs ending in *-n* (*they wolden*), past participles prefixed with *-y* (*yhidde*), non-distinctive spelling forms like *u/v*, *u/w*, *i/j*, *ou/ow*, and presence of final *-e* (subject to scribal preference), among others. The following section assesses the level of morphological and orthographic standardization of W3009 in the light of the use of the different linguistic features of the text.

1.2.1. Morphology

On morphological grounds, early Modern English presents a high level of variation. This period is characterized by an artificial loss of inflections and an increasing grammaticalization of the language, with a major dependence on prepositions and auxiliaries (van Gelderen 2006, 166). Verbs are regarded as the category with more morphological modifications, although other word-classes also underwent significant alterations.

1.2.1.1. Nouns

The Old English nominal inflections were radically reduced into one singular type and several plural types (although only one frequent) by the end of Middle English, leaving a simple paradigm in early Modern English, as shown in Table 1.1. In W3009, the common plural form *-(e)s* clearly predominates (e.g. *spoonfulls*; *daies*), amounting to 96.25% in the text. There are others forms such as the weak plural *-n*, exclusively witnessed in the word *children*; the unlauted plurals (e.g. *feet*; *lice*); and the zero plural (e.g. *pound*). Most of these forms coincide with their

Present-day English (henceforth PDE) plural forms, however, some others differ from their modern use such as *oxes* (oxen), *egges* (eggs), *gumes* (gums), *seedes* (seeds) or *eares* (ears).

	Singular	Plural
Common	-∅	-(e)s
Genitive	-(e)s	-(e)s

Table 1.1. Early Modern English paradigm of nouns
(adapted from Lass 1990, 140)

	Occurrences	%
-(e)s	1,928	96.25
-n	19	0.95
Umlaut plurals	35	1.75
Zero plurals	21	1.05

Table 1.2. Distribution of plural morphemes in W3009

Nominative plurals are sporadically marked with the apostrophe in W3009, with 7 instances. Phil (2016) considers this use of the apostrophe in the 17th century as merely an indication of omitted letters, and thus employed with the plural morphemes *-es* but not with *-s*, in which case it was considered that there was no <e> to omit (151). However, the plural morpheme *-s* with an apostrophe is attested in W3009 as observed in (1), suggesting a non-distinctive use of the plural and the genitive.

When the apostrophe was used to mark the genitive case both cases may arise, they could be found with or without the apostrophe as in (2-3). This use of the genitive function was replaced by the *of*-construction, which is quite frequent in the text, observed in instances such as *the seeds of Fenell* (f. 45v) or *the shells of snailes* (f. 27r). This construction gained ground in Middle English as a replacement of the earlier Old English genitive functions (Nevalainen 2006, 76).

- (1) Take an oyster shell , and warme it by degree's (f. 85r)
- (2) Doctor Burgess's approved Medicine against the Plague ./ (f. 29r)
- (3) Mister Iohnsons cure for the Ricketts ./ (f. 17r)

1.2.1.2. Adjectives

The adjectival paradigm was also reduced in late Middle English, and all the inflections disappeared, the distinction between strong and weak adjectives included, except for the occasional use of the inflectional *-e* in verse (Lass 1990, 155). Adjectives amount to 3,153 occurrences in W3009, with the final *-e* rarely found in these contexts in cases like *cleare* (x22), *browne* (x5), *sharpe* (x4), *sweete* (x3), among others. However, this practice is not consistent since both forms coexist in the text e.g. *clear* (x2), *brown* (x22), *sharp* (x2), *sweet* (x29).

The comparative and the superlative degree were already formed with *more* and *most*, and the suffixes *-er* and *-est* in early Modern English, but a substantial increase in the use of the analytic comparison was observed if compared with Middle English (Algeo 2010, 164). The stylistic convention of the early Modern English period was not normalized; the synthetic comparison was not limited to polysyllabic words, and the analytic was also found with monosyllabic words, the double comparison included (e.g. *more better*). Table 1.3 reproduces the use and distribution of the comparative and superlative degrees in the text, with a strong preference for the synthetic method, especially with comparative adjectives. The use of adjectives is quite standardized, the double comparison is not attested, and the suffixes *-er* and *-est* are used with monosyllables whilst *more* and *most* accompany bisyllabic and polysyllabic adjectives as illustrated in (4-5):

(4) of saffron in the finest powder 2 drames and of suger and rose water as much as is sufficiant to make an Electuary (f. 49r)

(5) to make it more Effectuall and of greater virtue it will be good in Quince time to mix therwith the Iuice of Quinces in such quantity as that there may be for Euery pound of honey (f. 52r)

	Comparative	Superlative
Analytic method	9.68%	18.92%
Synthetic method	90.32%	81.09%

Table 1.3. Distribution of comparatives and superlatives adjectives in W3009

Possessive adjectives are not common in the text. The masculine possessive *his* (x13) is normally used for general reference of body parts as in (6), although its use is not restricted, whereas *her* (x3) is employed with inanimate objects. *His* is not only used as a masculine possessive, it

also functions as the neuter possessive form in early Modern English. In the 17th century, the neuter form could be represented as *his*, *it*, *thereof*, *of it* and its recent form *its*. In their study of the third person neuter possessive in early Modern English scientific treatises, Nevalainen and Raumolin-Brunberg (1994) argue that “the use of *his* with inanimate reference might either be considered a special characteristic of early scientific writing, or it represents conservative tradition in general or the dialectal background of the authors” (196). Notwithstanding the relevance of *his* as a neuter pronoun in scientific manuscripts, *its* gained ground against its counterparts during the 17th century, a process stimulated by the periphrastic use of *of it* as a variant of the possessive (Nevalainen and Raumolin-Brunberg 1994, 171). The analytic form *of it* is thence regarded as a catalyst in the standardization of *it* and *its*, and it is considered to have its roots in colloquial language (197). In this light, *of it* is regarded as a filler for the empty slot left when *his* became exclusively a masculine pronoun, later substituted by *its*. Example (7) shows how *of it* functions as a substitute of the PDE *its* in the text (*cut its top*):

(6) he must keepe his rains cold and thirefore to lye upon his back he must always keepe his belly loose (f. 55v)

(7) Take A piping and cut the top of it , and take out the core and fill it vp with white suger candy , or brown , and then roast it , and when Enough put it in water , it’s good for A cold or Tickling Rhume / (f. 39v)

Table 1.4 reveals a preference for the periphrastic form *of it*, and only one instance of the form *its*. *Thereof* and *of it* are mostly used as neuter possessive adjectives, although they also perform other functions, for instance, as invariant forms accompanying quantitative partitives, e.g. “then drink A good draught *therof*” (f. 77v).

	Raw
His	2
Thereof	9
Of it	15
Its	1

Table 1.4. Distribution of third person neuter possessives in W3009

1.2.1.3. Adverbs

Adverbs can modify adjectives, other adverbs, and verbs, being normally formed adding the suffix *-ly/-lie* to adjectives in early Modern English. In W3009, the adverbial ending *-ly* is found in 125 occurrences, whilst there is no presence of the *-lie* suffix in adverbs. Other adverbial suffixes are also found in the text are *-ward(s)* and *-wise*, although with a low frequency, the former found in 27 occurrences (e.g. *afterwards*; *vpwards*), and the latter in just 7 instances (e.g. *otherwise*; *likewise*).

1.2.1.4. Pronouns

As far as personal pronouns are concerned, two major changes occurred during the period: the replacement of neuter *his* by *its*, and the loss of the singular/plural distinction in the second person, with *you* taking both functions (Lass 1999, 147). Table 1.5 below reproduces the pronominal paradigm in W3009.

	Nominative	Objective
Singular		
1st	I	-
2nd	You	You
3rd	He	His
	She	Her
	It	Its
Plural		
1st	-	-
2nd	You	You
3rd	They	Them

Table 1.5. Personal pronouns in W3009

As a recipe book, the imperative mood prevails over the rest, and thus the first personal pronouns *me*, *we* and *us* are absent, and the form *I* is scarce with just 2 instances. The second person pronoun, in turn, is only rendered as *you* (x452) whilst the forms *thou* and *thee* are not recorded².

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nominative	He (19)	She (8)	It (1,500)	They (104)
Objective	Him (15)	Her (8)	Its (1)	Them (650)

Table 1.6. Third personal pronouns in W3009

The third person personal pronouns clearly stand out in the text, especially the neuter singular *it* (also rendered as *yt* in 1 instance) with 1,500 instances, and the plural forms *they* and *them*, as they are used to refer to body parts and the ingredients of the recipes. To refer to animate objects, the masculine forms are employed for general reference. The feminine, however, are almost exclusively used in remedies to treat pregnancy as in (8).

(8) For Women In Trauaile

Let her drink Hisop with hott water , or Ale , or Eloue veruaine in cold , or Else Century stamped alone and drank with Ale or wine (f. 76r)

1.2.1.5. Relative Pronouns

The relative *that* appeared in Middle English as a substitute of the Old English particle *þe*, and later *which* emerged as an interrogative and a relative pronoun (Algeo 2010, 168)³. *That* presents a higher percentage than *which* in the text as shown in table 1.7: the former used to refer to animate referents, preceded by *he*, *those*, *men*, *women*, *child* and *children*, and the latter to refer to inanimate objects such as ingredients, diseases, fire, time, etc. This usage of relatives is illustrated in (9-11):

(9) This water dissolues the swelling of the lunges , without any griuance , if the lunges be wounded , or perished , it mightly helpeth them , and Comforteth them , it suffereth not the blood to putryfy , and he that useth this water shall neuer need to be blouded (f. 65r)

(10) it recouereth those that is falling into A Consumption it is Excellent against all burning feauours , it is good Against all gorts of poisoning it lones to master , and Exterpate the fenumons disease of the plague , it helps quotidian Tertian , and double Tertians , it is Commended of all men that haue vsed it / (f. 65r)

(11) It preserues from poisons taken before , or when there is suspition , and Especially after the poison is discouered , in which case the sick person must endeaour to vomitt (f. 79r)

Relative	Occurrences and %
That	108 (53.47%)
Which	94 (46.53%)

Table 1.7. Relative pronouns in W3009

1.2.1.6. Verbs

The loss of inflections in verbs is perhaps the most important change in early Modern English, the verbal paradigm was simplified and developed towards the zero inflection. The infinitival form (both to-infinitive and bare infinitive) presents 3 different endings in W3009: -∅ stands out in the text with 805 occurrences (62.80%), and is seen in words such as *powder* (x28) or *cure* (x11); -e with 463 instances (36.11%) used in verbs such as *coole* (x7) or *eate* (x7); and -en, seldom witnessed with only 14 occurrences (1.09%), recorded in words such as *sweeten* (x6) or *thicken* (x1).

The present indicative paradigm of W3009, in turn, shows the inflection -e in the 2nd and 3rd person, and the distinction between the morphemes -th and -(e)s for the 3rd person singular still remains.

Suffix	
Singular	
1st	∅
2nd	∅/-e
3rd	-th/-(e)s
Plural	
1st	-
2nd	∅/-e
3rd	∅/-e

Table 1.8. Present indicative morphology in W3009

The indicative does not present great morphological variation. The first person singular has lost the inflection -e, erased in Middle English when it served as a mark of distinction from the infinitive form (Algeo 2010, 176);

whilst the 2nd person singular and the plural combine the use of zero and *-e*. This addition of the final *-e* in the text occurs with monosyllabic verbs as a way of adding of an extra syllable.

The third person singular, in turn, varies between *-(e)th* and *-(e)s*, although *-(e)s* predominates from the beginning of the 17th century. In W3009, however, the two forms are used interchangeably, with an outstanding preference for *-(e)th* as shown in table 1.9. Those verbs showing the coexistence of the two forms are normally high-frequency items (*help*, *grow*, *work*, *come*, *cure*, etc.), suggesting that the diffusion of *-(e)s* took place with these types of verbs first. The following examples illustrate the use of these morphemes in the text:

(12) the root of A Nettle , but swallow it not downe , and it helpeth much – Take A spider , and bruise it in A linnen cloth , smell to it but not touch the nose ther-with and it helpeth / (f. 84r)

(13) Eate as much of this as will lye vpon A 6 pence in the morning fasting , and it helps / (f. 78v)

Suffix	Occurrences and %
-eth	142 (74.84%)
-(e)s	77 (35.16%)

Table 1.9. Distribution of third person singular verbs in W3009

The morphology of past participles in early Modern English verbs does not vary much from the modern conventions, although some differences are observed. In W3009, weak verbs show an outstanding preference for the standardized inflection *-ed* with 249 instances, although its allomorphs *-et* and *-t* are also used with less frequency (the inflection *-et*, for instance, only occurs in 3 instances). This choice is partly influenced by their pronunciation: when a voiceless sound precedes the inflection *-ed*, it was pronounced as /t/, and therefore, rendered as such orthographically. This is the case in verbs such as *helpet* (x2), *dropet* (x1), *stampt* (x1), *pickt* (x1) or *stopt* (x2), the latter also rendered as *stopped* (or *stoped*).

Strong verbs, in turn, also present a high level of variation. Lass distinguishes two major developments in early Modern English: the stabilization of unique vowel-grade patterns for individual verbs, and selection of verbs as strong or weak (or a mixture with weak pasts and strong participles) (1999, 167). The past participle of strong verbs in W3009 shows the following forms:

- a) Zero inflection, presenting the same form as the infinitive as *put* (x9) and *cut(t)* (x5).
- b) *-en* participles, which were in a process of regularization in early Modern English, observed in verbs such as *beaten* (x2) and *seen* (x3) in the text. However, as the process of normalization was incomplete, they still present variations as the participle form *rise* for *risen*.
- c) Participle vocalism, with an alteration of the vowel. In W3009, this case is only observed in the verb *to drink*, rendered as *drank* (x5).
- d) Irregular participles, quite common in the text, and seen in verbs such as *found* (x2) and *brought* (x2).

1.2.2. Spelling

There was a great deal of spelling variation in early Modern English. The 15th century was the turning point in English phonology and spelling, with radical changes in pronunciation. The spelling variation in manuscripts is regarded as a reflection of what was considered the ideal pronunciation at the time (Dobson 1955, 40). W3009 presents a high level of standardization of the language.

The complementary distribution of u/v, i/y, i/j, v/w, and ou/w is one of the characteristics that persist in the text. The use of <v> for <u> is always word-initially in W3009, e.g. *vp* (x90), *vpon* (x95), *vse* (x83), and *vrine* (x9). On the other hand, <u> acts as a consonantal in initial and medial position, with higher frequency in the latter, in cases such as *ouer* (x48), *haue* (x57), *approued* (x16), and *Euill* (x11). Table 1.10 reproduces the distribution of the non-standard uses of the allographs u/v in the witness, revealing a tendency for <v> in initial position and <u> elsewhere.

	Occurrences
Initial <v>	389
Medial <v>	-
Initial <u>	218
Medial <u>	847

Table 1.10. Distribution of the non-standard forms of <v> and <u> in W3009

The grapheme <i>, in turn, is also rendered as <y> or <j> in the text. The alternation i/y is especially noticed where <y> functions as a vocalic in word-medial position, including *juyce* (x9), *oyle* (x119), *boyle* (x28), and *theyr* (x1). The use of <i> in place of <y>, however, is not frequent, solely found in *phisick* (x1)⁴.

On the other hand, the grapheme <j> is sometimes yielded as <i> in initial position in words such as *Iohnsons* (x1), *Iohns* (x7), *iuyce* (x74), and *iust* (x6), among others, and in word-medial position as in *subiect* (x1). The use of the graphemes ou/w is also witnessed, even though only in the word *howers* (x4), where <w> stands for <ou>.

The use of the redundant <e> in final position is also found. The presence of this letter is a reflection of the earlier stages of the language when inflectional endings were used. Inflections were reduced to *-e* and later on to zero, “[t]his meant that historically disyllabic words had become monosyllabic. When the vowel in these words was long, the final silent <e> was later often reinterpreted to mark its length” (Nevalainen 2006, 32). The usage of this silent <e> thus indicated the presence of a long preceding vowel in certain words, whilst it created an extra syllable in words with double consonants (Hart 1955 [1551]). This feature is quite common in W3009, observed in words such as *weeke* (x6), *keepe* (x21), *roote* (x5), *sweete* (x5), or *halfe* (x349), among others. However, there are other words ending in *-e* not following this norm, either because the final silent <e> is preceded by a short vowel or a diphthong instead of a long one (*selfe* (x20), *owne* (x2), or *straine* (x73)) or because the word is trisyllabic (*afternoone* (x12)).

Superscripts letters indicated abbreviation in early Modern English texts in cases in which the period is used today. Abbreviations were highly popular in the Middle Ages and continued to be in early Modern English times, even in printed books, imitating the visual appearance of hand-copied manuscripts. In the 16th century, some printers began to disregard abbreviations insofar as economy of time and space became irrelevant, however, they were still used in handwritten texts (Honkapohja 2013). In W3009, a somewhat consistent practice is observed, although they are not very frequent, e.g. *Mister* (x7), *Mistress* (x6), or *Doctor* (x7)⁵.

One of the commonest abbreviations of early Modern English texts is the past tense and past participle verb contracted forms (*-’d* for *-ed*). In our witness, these contractions appear in past participle forms (*till halfe is consum’ d* or *it may be heal’ d*), and adjectives (*distill’ d water* or *refin’ d suger*), whereas this practice is not found with verbs in the past tense⁶.

In the early Modern English period, the use of capital letters was more generous than today. In the text under study, capital letters are mainly used

for nouns and verbs, albeit there are also some instances of adjectives, prepositions, articles and adverbs. These words were capitalized “for expressive foregrounding” (Nevalainen 2006, 36), i.e. to highlight an important word or relevant information. Some of the capitalized nouns found in the text are the name of herbs in the receipts, the name of illnesses, parts of the body, numbers, or nouns referring to time (days of the week, months, etc.). Some verbs are capitalized regardless of their tense; adjectives, especially those modifying ingredients and parts of the body; prepositions (*For*); articles (*A*, *An*, or *The*); and a few adverbs (*Then*).

(15) A Wash For The Face

Take A whit chicken and gut it and split it in the midle , and steep it in water 3 days and change the water Euery day , then put it into A pipkin , with 2 quarts of fountain water , and let it boile to 3 pints , Scume it well , take it and straine it (f. 47r)

(16) For the Wormes ./.

Take an hanfull of Savin , an hanfull of Bansfoot , an handfull of Wormwood , a handfull of unset leekes ,an handfull of Sothernwood , a handfull of lavender-cotton an handfull of featherfew , an handfull of Sparmint , Chop all these , and stamp all these together then take a pound and an halfe of May butter , clarified in the Sun till it be white (f. 20r)

The final <-y> is unsystematically used throughout the text as the suffix <-ie> still remains in some instances. As shown in table 1.11, the vast majority of occurrences are spelled with the PDE form <-y>, although some of them appear in both ways, e.g. *clarify/clarifie*, *fleshy/fleshie*, *twenty/twentie* or *very/verie*.

Suffix	Occurrences and %
-y	2,134 (98.3%)
-ie	37 (1.7%)

Table 1.11. Distribution of suffixes <-y> and <-ie> in W3009

The doubling of consonants is also witnessed in W3009, particularly in word final position as in *skinn* (x10), *sun*n (x5), *itt* (x21), *untill* (x11), or *bigg* (x14), although they also appear in middle position as in *alltogether* (x9). The orthographic variation of the period is also reflected in the text with a variety of spellings, illustrated in words such as *takeing/taking*,

coare/core, sume/some, togeather/together, peece/peice/piece, shuger/suger/sugar or stomake/stomack/ stomach, in which the standard and non-standard forms of these terms are employed interchangeably.

1.3. Source and Contents

The manuscript under scrutiny is housed in London, Wellcome Library. It is referenced as MS Wellcome 3009, and entitled *Physicall and chyrurgicall receipts. Cookery and preserves*. Remedybooks were the main branch of scientific texts in early Modern English, and among them, Taavitsainen (2005) distinguishes three main text-types: recipes, prognostications, and charms, being W3009 categorized into the first group. The volume is divided into two sections: the first deals with physical and chirurgical recipes (ff. 17r-90r), and the latter with cookery recipes (179r-224r), a division easily noticeable considering the blank folios (90v-178v) between the two sections, and the flip in the direction of the folios. The present edition is focused on the first part of the volume, i.e. the medical recipes, which are “instructions on how to prepare medicines to cure an illness, how to maintain health or prevent a harmful condition” (Calle-Martín and Castaño-Gil 2013, 13). Ingredients and the order to be followed in their preparation are given along with the precise quantity and time needed, normally expressed as a command beginning with *take*. Example (17) illustrates one of the recipes, a recommendation for the colic⁷ and stones⁸:

(17) For the Collique and Stone ./.

Take two Cloves of Garlick in a stewed Prune , and take it each other day , it is to be taken in the morning fasting and some moderate exercise after it , Probatum est ./ (f. 27r)

The source of the present manuscript is unknown given that in earlier times recipe books had an oral tradition, being shared among people and physicians. They assured rapid cures for the different illnesses without being expensive, and allowed families to treat themselves. The compilation in volumes of these recipes allowed to test them, contrast them, and see what is shared among them (Eamon 1994, 130-131). In Middle English manuscripts, the normal order to follow in these recipes was from head to foot in order to facilitate their consultation, however, in the early Modern English period, this order is only respected in some texts. W3009 is an example of this as shown in the index at the beginning,