AN HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE VOCABULARY
OF
THE FINNSBURG FRAGMENT

THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
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Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

By

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This study demonstrates, through the detailed examination of a specific example of written Old English, that a very large proportion of the general vocabulary of Old English survives in some form in Late Modern English. The "Finnsburg Fragment" is parsed and translated and its lexicon glossed. After a brief discussion of several special semantic categories and the traditional categories of semantic change, the study enlarges upon the historical setting which influenced the loss, retention, shift, or stability of these two hundred Old English words. Appendices group the lexicon by parts of speech as well as by semantic history.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The scope of the study. This study investigates the vocabulary of a single forty-eight line fragment of Old English poetry. It is a diachronic rather than a synchronic study; that is, the words of the poem are viewed historically, their relationship to earlier and later stages of the same language being of interest, not their relationship to words in other dialects and languages of their own time. Further, this study is semantic rather than syntactic in emphasis; that is, its primary purpose is to discuss the meaning of the words, not their grammatical forms or their relationships to one another. There has been a diligent attempt to provide an accurate and faithful translation of the text, but the range and the shift or stability of usage have received far more attention than details of context and connotation. Grammar and inflections are generally ignored except in the gloss of the text, as are matters of prosody and style. Phonology also lies outside the limits of this study. The spelling and pronunciation of words are considered only in so far as is necessary to determine their etymology.

1.2.1 The text identified. The text under discussion is variously designated "The Finnsburg Fragment," "The Fight at Finnsburuh," "The Battle of Finnsburg," or any similar title.
Since it is indeed a fragment—the text of a single page from the body of the poem—its title is unknown and its designation a matter of choice. It is a fragmentary account of a fight or battle in a hall called Finnsburuh, which means 'Finn's Castle' or 'Finn's Fort' but is cognate with Modern English FINNSBURG.

1.2.2 The text preserved. George Hickes in 1705 found the single page bound with other unrelated Old English materials (Klaeber, 1950: 230). He copied the text into his notebook in half-lines, a laudable action because the original was lost when the volume was rebound. Unfortunately, Hickes's copy is faulty on many counts, affording later editors much opportunity for emendation, speculation, and manipulation on the bases of standard spelling, inflection, vocabulary, and meter. The Old English practices of writing poetry in block form as though it were prose, writing compounds and sometimes affixes as separate words while frequently joining other words, abbreviating many common words in a form of shorthand, and changing spellings and inflections to forms familiar to the copyist make any late copy of an early work problematical under optimum circumstances. It is then not surprising that Hickes's notebook should provide fruit for labor.

1.2.3 The text in context. The fragment tells part of a story that is continued in lines 1068-1159 of Beowulf. The language and content, whether seen alone or in comparison with the language and content of the Beowulf, indicate that it is contemporary with Beowulf, probably just sufficiently earlier
to be the source of the Finnsburuh narrative in the longer poem. Klaeber (1950: cvii-cxiii, 238) concludes that the most reasonable date for these works is c. 700-750 A.D. Aside from linguistic details of spelling and syntax, Klaeber finds most convincing the historical fact that both authors chose to speak from the Danish point of view, identifying with the Danes as the heroes of the tales. He thinks it highly unlikely that such a choice would have followed the Danish invasions of Britain beginning in the late eighth century.

Events and characters that are indistinct or unexplained within these forty-eight lines may be illuminated by the Beowulf narrative. The poet, however, condensed and reshaped the story to such an extent that it can supply only an outline of the missing epic. To further complicate matters, the action of the Beowulf Episode begins after that of the Fragment is completed. Comparison of the two narratives plus judicious speculation provide Klaeber (1950: 231-4) with a relatively complete "Finn Legend," which is a necessary aid to comprehending the text.

1.2.4 The text chosen. The choice of the Finnsburuh fragment rests on several bases. It is contemporary with Beowulf, which is the most familiar piece of Old English literature. It is short enough to be considered as a whole in a paper of moderate scope and size. Its style and language are literary yet relatively simple and straightforward in vocabulary and syntax. Of great interest to the student is that it is
included in most editions of *Beowulf* and is therefore readily available.

1.2.5 The edition of the text. Klaeber's latest edition is clearly the most useful currently available for this type of work. He offers two versions of the fragment, his own edited version (1950: 245-247) and a printing of Hickes's *Text* (1950: 247-249). The Old English of Chapter II below is Klaeber's, including his late emendation of line 34 (1950: 470). The words 'the battle had ceased' are a suggestion offered (1950: 253) in his notes to the poem. His introduction, notes, and glossary are invaluable, although much necessary Finnsburuh material is combined with *Beowulf* material.

1.3 The search for cognates. The search for Modern English cognates of this Old English lexicon begins in Klaeber's glossary (1950: 293-444) where a great many of them are clearly indicated. Others appear in F. Holthausen (1934). Still others, including those which have become obsolete since the beginning of the Middle English period in the twelfth century, appear in the *Oxford English Dictionary* listed in their most modern forms. The *OED*, first published one volume at a time during the years between 1880 and 1930, is the primary source of data for this study concerning the history and the semantic and geographic range of individual words.

1.4 A description of Chapter II. The body of this paper is in two major parts: preliminary work on the text in Chapter II and semantic examination of the vocabulary in
Chapter III. Chapter II falls into three sections. The first is complex but basic to the study. It consists of three parts to be read simultaneously and is intended as a reference source. The Old English text is presented side by side with a Modern English gloss; above each word in the gloss is its syntactic and grammatical identity. This form of presentation allows the reader to experience the OE poem as directly as possible; the fabric of the text is offered on one side of the page, the basic tools for handling it on the other. Together with the glossary they provide the framework on which to construct a translation. The glossary includes the semantic range of each OE word in the text, with emphasis on those that differ from or do not have a MdE cognate. Klaeber's account of the Finn Legend (1950: 231-234) sets the scene and introduces the characters of the Fragment to help the reader to appreciate these few frames of action. Only one word poses insuperable difficulties; in line 29 Hickes has Celaes, which Klaeber interprets as an adjective and emends to cellod without suggesting a satisfactory meaning. Neither form of the word appears in the references used in this study. Following the glossary is a list of abbreviations and symbols used throughout this paper. The prose translation is the culmination of this chapter. A verse translation is a work of art, the work of a linguist who is also a poet. Prose cannot capture the real artistry of the original; however, prose is adequate for the goal of
this translation, which is accuracy and faithfulness to the language and spirit of the original.

1.5 **A description of Chapter III.** Chapter III comprises the bulk of the paper. After a brief discussion of the purpose and point of view of the chapter, it falls into three sections. The first describes words in several special categories of interest to any student of Old English (for example, compounds and kennings). The second discusses the traditional categories of semantic change, with examples from the text. The third and largest section describes the results of this specific examination of the history and use of the words of the text, both current and obsolete.

1.6 **A thesis.** The intention of this paper is to demonstrate that far from having been overwhelmed by French and reduced to the bare bones of colloquial speech, the vocabulary of pre-Norman England is alive and well in the modern world. Special cultural words usually do die with their culture, except for those preserved in the antiquarian zoo; but words with general usefulness survive through centuries of change.
CHAPTER II
THE TEXT

2.1 The Old English text with a Modern English gloss.
This word-by-word transcription and description of the poem follows the Old English in half-line segments. Descriptive abbreviations refer to the OE word or phrase corresponding to the MdE word or phrase directly below.

Substantives include nouns, pronouns, and verbals and adjectives used as nouns. Descriptions indicate, in order, "substantive, case, number, gender."

Verbals include verbs, auxiliaries, participles, and infinitives. Descriptions indicate "verbal, tense, person, number."

Adjectives are included, if possible, in brackets with the substantives they modify. Descriptions indicate "adjective, case, number, gender." Articles and possessive pronouns are specifically noted.

Phrases are enclosed in brackets. Words absent from one version but needed for grammatical clarity in the other are in parentheses.

1 . . . (hor)nas byrnan.
   sb n p m v pres 3 p
   . . . horns burn.

2 Hnaef hlēofrode ʒā
Heaþoþeþeng cyning:
   sb n s m v pret 3 s adv
   Hnaef spoke then
   adj n s m sb n s m
   [battle-young king]
3 'Nē ðis ne ēgāð ðastan,

nē hēr draca ne flēo gef,

4 nē hēr ðisse healle

hornas ne byrna∂;

5 ac hēr for∂ bera∂,
fugelas singa∂,

6 gylle∂ grǣghama,
gūswudu hlynne∂,

7 scyld scefte oncwȳ∂.

Nū scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

8 wa∂ol under wolcnum

nū ārisa∂ wēadā∂eda,

9 þē ðisne folces nī∂

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Nu scyne∂ þes mōna

Adv v pres 3 s prep sb d p n

Now arise woe-deeds

Now shine[s] [this]

Now arise woe-deeds

Now shine[s] [this]

Now arise woe-deeds

Now shine[s] [this]

Now arise woe-deeds

Now shine[s] [this]

Now arise woe-deeds

Now shine[s] [this]

Now arise woe-deeds
fremman willað.

10 Ac onwacnigeað nū,
wígenda mīne,
11 habbað ēowre linda,
hicgeap on ellen,
12 winnað on orde,
wesað on môde!'
13 ðā ārās maenig goldhladen
egn,
gyrde hine his swurđe;
14 a to dura eodon
drihtlice cempan,
15 Sigefer and Eaha,

But awaken now,
[warriors mine],
have [your shields],
think [on valor],
fight [in front],
be [in spirit]!"
Then arose [many (a)
goldladen thane],
girded him
his sword;
then [to door]
went
[lordly champions],
Sigeferth and Eaha,
hyra sword getugon, [their swords] v pret 3 p drew,

16 and aet ðoprum durum conj prep adj d p f and [at other sb d p f doors]

Ordlāf and Guþlāf, sb n s m conj sb n s m Ordlaf and Guthlaf

17 and Hengest sylf, v pret 3 s sb d p m prep turned (to)them [in sb d s m track].

hwearf him on læste. adv adv sb d s m [Then yet] Garulf

18 ðā gŷt Gārulfe adv adv sb n s m Guther restrained

Gũðere stŷrde, conj sb n s m sb n s m and Hengest (him)self

19 ðaet hē swā frǣolīc feorh v pret 3 s sb d p m prep turned (to)them [in sb d s m track].

forman sīpe

19 ðaet hē swā frǣolīc feorh v pret 3 s sb d p m prep (to) (of) the hall sb d s m doors]

20 to ðaere halle durum prep art g s f sb g s f [to (of) the hall sb d p f doors]

hyrsta ne bāere, sb a p f adv v opt 3 s accoutrements not bear

21 nū hyt nīpa heard adv sb a s n sb g p m now it (of) battles
anyman wolde;

22 ac hē fraegn ofer eal

undearninga,

23 dēormōd haelep,

hwā Ḟā duru hēolde.

24 'Sigeferþ is min nāma

(cweþ hē),

ic eom Secgena lēod,

25 wreccea wīde cūþ;

faela ic wēana gebād,

26 heordra hīlda;
Dé is gýt hér witod,

sb d s 2 v pres 2 s adv
(to) thee [is yet

adv v pp
here destined],

27 swæþer ðú sylf tô mē

sb a s n sb n s 2 sb n s m
whichever [thou (thy)self]

prep sb d s l
[from me]

v inf v pres opt 2 s
[seek will].

sēcean wylle.'

adv v pret 3 s prep
Then was [in

sb d s f hall]

waelslihta gehlyn,

sb g p m sb n s n
(of) battle-slaughters noise,

v pret 3 s adj n s n
should [cellod

sb n s m shield]

29 sceolde cellod bord

adj d p (or s col) m prep
keen [in

sb d s f hand]

30 bānhelm berstan,

sb n s m v inf
bone-helm burst,

buruhœelu dynede,--

sb n s f v pret 3 s
castle-floor resounded,--

conj prep art d s f
until [at the

until battle]

31 oð aet ðæere guðe

sb d s f

Garulf gecrang

sb n s m v pret 3 s
Garulf died
32 ealra Ærest

eorðbūendra,

33 Gūðlāfes sunu,

ymbe hyne gōdra faela.

34 Hwearf hlacra aern,

hraefen wandrode

35 sweart and sealobrūn.

Swurdlēoma stōd,

36 swylce eal Finnsburuh

fyürenu wāere.

37 Ne gefraegn ic naefre

wurðlicor

aet wera hilde

38 sixtig sigebeorna

sēl gebāeran,
39 nē nēfre swānas hwītne medo
nor never youths
adj a s m sb a s m [white mead]

sēl forgylдан,
adv v inf better repay

40 ðonne Hnaefe guldan
his haegstældas.
conj sb d s m v pret 3 s
poss g s m sb n p m his youths.

41 Hig fuhton fīf dagas,
They fought
adj num sb a p m [five days],

swā hyra nān ne fēol,
adv v pret 3 s (ne) fell,

42 drihtgesīða,
conj sb n p m art a s f [the

ac hig ǣ ā duru hēoldon.
but they [the door] held.

43 ǣ ā gewāt him wund haeles
Then went (to) him
adv v pret 3 s sb d s m
adj n s m sb n s m [wounded hero]

on waeg gangan,
prep sb a s m v inf [on way] (to) go

44 sæde þæt his byrne
v pret 3 s conj poss g s m said that his
sb n s f byrnie
2.2 Glossary. In this glossary, words are in alphabetical order according to the spelling of the word stem. If words from the same stem have different initial letters, they are alphabetized individually with referral to the stem. Alternate spellings of a stem are in parentheses following the entry, whether or not they appear in this Fragment. Personal pronouns are listed as separate words, not as variants of a stem. Compounds are listed as single words with a threefold range of
meanings: (1) first stem, (2) second stem, and (3) compound word. Second stems of compound words are listed separately with referral to the full word. The "ge-" verbal prefix is disregarded in alphabetizing. Modern English cognates are shown in capital letters. If the modern meaning is not part of the Old English range, the cognate is in brackets.

A
ābrec-  BREAK to pieces, shatter, tear up, rend to bits, BREAK into, (ā- = up)
ac  but (conj.)
āērest  first, [ERST], superlative of aer < ERE
aern (earn)  eagle, ERNE
aet  AT, near, in, from (at the hands of)
and (ond)  AND
ānym- (ānim-)  take away, (ā- = up, away), [NIMBLE, NUMB]
ārīs-  ARISE, rise, (ā- = up)
B
ge-bāer-  BEAR oneself, BEAR up, behave, fare, (see ber-)
bān-helm  (1) BONE, (2) HELMet, covering, (3) shield
beorn-  see sige-beorn-
ber-  BEAR, endure, withstand
berst-  (intr.) break, BURST, BUST
ge-bid-  live to see, live through, experience, await, wait for, [BIDE, ABIDE], (pret. gebād)
bord  BOARD, shield
brūn  see sealo-brūn
būendra see eorð-būendra
buruh-ēelu (1) fort, castle, (BOROUGH, BURROW, BURG], (2) floor, (3) floor of the castle
byrn- (intr.) BURN (Mde BURN > byrn- + baern-, trans.)
byrn- BRINIE, BYRNYIE, corslet, mail coat
C
cellod meaning uncertain
cemp- CHAMPION, warrior, hero, [KEMP]
cēn- KEEN, bold, brave, wise, clever, fierce
ge-crīning- (poetic) fall in battle, die; draw up, bend sharply, CRINGE, [CRANK]
cūð- known, well-known [uncOUTH]
cwēg- speak, say, (pret. cwep/QUOTH), [beQUEATH]
cyning KING, ruler of an independent political entity
D
daed- see wea-daēd-
daeg- DAY, (pl. dag-)
dag- DAWN v.
dēor-mōd (1) DEAR, precious; bold, brave, fierce, (2) see mōd, (3) bold, brave
draca fire-DRAKE, DRAGON (> L. draco)
driht-gesīð- (dryht-) (1) lord, leader, (2) companion, retainer, (3) comrade of the lord, follower, retainer
drihtlic- (dryhtlīc-) lordLY, noble, splendid
dūr- DOOR
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ðynn-</td>
<td>DIN, resound, make a loud noise like a torrent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æac</td>
<td>also, moreover, [EKE]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æaha</td>
<td>a Danish warrior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eal-</td>
<td>ALL (as adv. = entirely, quite, in every respect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æastan</td>
<td>from the EAST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ellen</td>
<td>valor, courage, strength, zeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æodon</td>
<td>went (pret. 3 p. of gân)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eom</td>
<td>AM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eorð-bûendra</td>
<td>(1) EARTH, (2) dweller, [BYlaw], (3) man, person, native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æowre</td>
<td>YOUR, of you (p.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faela (fela)</td>
<td>many a, many, much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feall-</td>
<td>FALL (pret. fœol-/FELL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feoht-</td>
<td>FIGHT (pret. fuht-/FOUGHT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feorh</td>
<td>life, age, living being, body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fîf</td>
<td>FIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finns-buruh</td>
<td>(1) Finn, the Frisian king, (2) fortified enclosure, castle, fort, (3) Finn's Castle, [FINNSBURG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flœog-</td>
<td>FLY (intr.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>folc-</td>
<td>FOLK, nation, people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forgylđ-</td>
<td>repay, pay for, requite, (see gulď-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>form-</td>
<td>first, [FORMer]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forð (forð)</td>
<td>FORTH, away, out, forward, onward</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
frōlīc- noble, excellent, [FREELY]

fremman do, make, perform, attend to

frīgn- ask, inquire (pret. fraegn)
ge-frīgn- find out (by asking), learn, hear of

fugol- bird, FOWL

fyrren- FIERy, aFIRE, on FIRE

G

gān GO (pret. ēod-)
gang- go, GANG (Sc. and in compounds)

Gārulf- (1) spear, [GAR-], (2) (= wulf) WOLF, (3) a Frisian warrior

gehlynn- loud sound, noise, din (see hlynn-)
geong see heapo-geong

gesið- see driht-gesið- and sīp-
gōd- GOOD, brave, noble, virtuous, able, efficient, excellent, strong

gold-hladen (1) GOLD, (2) LADEN, (3) adorned with gold

grāeg-hama (1) GRAY, GREY, (2) coat, covering, especially natural covering, fur, feathers, scales, etc., (3) the one in/with the gray coat (= wolf or perhaps mailed warrior)
guld- (gyld-, gield-) pay, repay, [YIELD]

gūū- war, battle, fight

Gūūse re (1) battle, (2) (= here) army, (3) a Frisian warrior

Gūūlāf- (1) battle, (2) inheritance, LAVE (Sc.) (3) a Danish warrior
gūð-wud- (1) battle, (2) WOOD, (3) spear

gyll- (giell-) YELL, cry out, resound

gyrd- GIRD

gýt (gīt) YET; ąą gýt = further, besides, in addition

H

habb- HAVE, hold

haeg-steald- (1) [HAY, HAWthorn, The HAGUE], hedge, fence, enclosure, entrenchment, (2) young, unmarried man, "stud," (3) youth, young man

haele(ǣ) hero, warrior, man

hama see graeg-hama

hand- (hond-) HAND

hē HE (m. gender, not just male)

heald- HOLD, control, have, keep, guard, occupy (pret. hēold-/HELD)

heal(1)- HALL

heard- (heord-) HARD, HARDy, strong, brave, severe

heāpo-geong (1) battle, (2) YOUNG, (3) inexperienced in war

helm HELM, HELMet

Hengest horse; a leading Danish warrior; [HENCHman]

hēr HERE, hither

here-sceorp (1) army, (2) protective clothing, (3) war-dress, armor

hicg- (hycg-) resolve, think, purpose

hig they
hild-   war, battle
him      HIM (m. gender, not just male)
hine (hyne)  him (as above)
his      HIS (as above)
hlacor-   screaming
hladen    see gold-hladen
hlœopr-   speak, speak out, exclaim
hlynn-    make a noise, shout, roar like a torrent
Hnaef-    a Danish chief
horn-     HORN, horn-like object = gable
hraefen (hrefn) RAVEN
hū      HOW
hwā      WHO
hwaeþer  WHETHER
hweorþ-  turn, move about, go (pret. hwearf-)
hwít-     WHITE, shining
hyra      their, of them
hyrd-     guardian, protector, keeper, [HERDsman]
hyrst-    ornament, accoutrement, armor
hys-      youth, young man (p. hyss-)
I
ic        I
is        IS
L
läst- (læst-) track, footprint, footprint; on læste = behind, after
lēod- man, member (of a group or tribe)
lēom- see swurd-lēom-
lind- LINDwood, LINDen tree, = shield
M
maenig (monig, manig) MANY a, MANY
mē ME
medo (medu) MEAD
mīn MINE, MY
mōd- mind, spirit, courage, heart, [MOOD]
mōn- MOON
N
nāefre (néfre) NEVER (ne nēfre)
name NAME
nān NONE, NO (ne ān)
ne Not, (negative particle)
nē Nor
ge-nes- survive, endure, get safely through, bear
(pret. genæs-)
nīd- hostility, trouble, violence, battle, contest,
hatred, persecution, affliction
nū NOW
O
ofer (w d.) OVER, above (w a.) OVER, across,
beyond, contrary to, against, without
on (w d.) ON, IN, at, among, (w a.) ON, to, onto, IN
oncweð- (oncwyð-)  answer, reply (see cweb-)
onwacn-    AWAKEN (imp. p. onwacnigeað)
ord-    point, front, [ODD]
Ordlāf-    (1) front, (2) inheritance, (3) a Danish warrior
o    until
ōðer-    OTHER
ōðe    OR
s
sceft-    SHAFT, arrow, spear
sceorp-    see here-sceorp
scul-    SHALL, must, ought to, is to, always does
               (pret. sceold-/SHOULD)
sclyld-    SHIELD
scyn- (scīn-)    SHINE (intr.)
sealo-brūn    (1) SALLOW, dark, (2) BROWN, shining,
               (3) dark brown
sēc-    SEEK, try to find/get/reach
secg-    SAY, tell (pret. saed-/SAID)
Secgen-    (secg-/SEDGE] 'sword') a Germanic coastal tribe
sēl    better (adv.)
sige-beorn    (1) victory, (2) man, warrior, (3) victorious
               warrior
Sigeferð    (1) victory, (2) (= frisð) peace, (3) a Danish
               warrior
sing-    SING, sound forth
sīp- (1) going, journey, voyage; undertaking, venture, expedition, (2) time, occasion

sixtig SIXTY

sliht- (sleht-) see wael-sliht-

sōna at once, immediately, [SOON]

stand- STAND, issue, shine forth (pret. stōd/STOOD)

styr- (stier-) restrain, guide, STEER

sunu SON

swā SO, so that

swaeber whichever (of two choices) (swā hwaeber)

swān- herdsman, young man, [SWAIN]

sweart dark, black, SWART, [SWARTHY]

swurd- (sward-, sweord-) SWORD

swurd-lēom- (1) SWORD, (2) light, LEAM, (3) gleam of flashing swords

swylc (swelc, swilc) as if, SUCH, such as

sylf SELF, himself, etc.

T
gētē- draw, TOW, TUG (pret. getug-)

tō TO, towards; from, at the hands of; at, in; to that degree, so, until; so that; thereto

ḍ, ḍ Then, when

ḍā THE (d. s. f. ḍāere)

ṭaet THAT

ʒē (ʒē) (relative particle) who, which, that
25

THEE

THANE (THAIN, THEGN), warrior, follower, attendant

see buruh-喆lu

THIS

THAN

THOU

[DERN, DARN], not secretly, not hidden, openly

UNDER

not strong, weak, useless

WAY (on waeg = AWAY)

(1) death, slaughter, the slain (in battle),
(2) SLAUGHTER, (3) slaughter in battle

WANDER

wandering

(1) WOE, (2) DEED, (3) woeful deed

WOE, trouble, trial, hardship

man

be (pret. waes-/WAS, opt. waẹr-/WERE)

WIDELY, WIDELY known, famous

warrior

WILL, intend, desire, determine (pret.

wold-/WOULD, opt, wyll-)

put forth effort, labor, strive, contend,

fight, [WIN]
gewīt- go, depart (pret. gewāt-)
wit- (weot-) assure, destine, appoint, ordain
wolcen- (welcen) cloud, [WELKIN]
wrecc- exile, wanderer, adventurer, hero, [WRETCH]
wud- (widu) see gūs-wud-
wund- WOUNDED, injured
wund- WOUND, injury
wurplīcor (weorǭ-līcor) more WORTHILY, more splendidly
ymb(e) (w a.) around, about, near

2.3 The list of abbreviations.

a accusative
adj adjective
adv adverb
art article
Beo Beowulf
col collective
com comparative
conj conjunction
d dative
exc except (in)
f feminine
Fr French
g genitive
Gc Germanic
imp imperative
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>intr</td>
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<td>Latin</td>
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<td>m</td>
<td>masculine</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>MdE</td>
<td>Modern English</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>nominative (in context)</td>
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<td>n</td>
<td>neuter (in context)</td>
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<td>number, numeral</td>
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<td>Old English</td>
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<tr>
<td>ON</td>
<td>Old Norse</td>
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<tr>
<td>opt</td>
<td>optative, subjunctive</td>
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<tr>
<td>sb</td>
<td>substantive, noun or pronoun or adjective used as a noun</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sc</td>
<td>Scotland, Scottish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sg</td>
<td>segment</td>
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2.4 The Finn Legend. Hnaef, the young Danish king, takes a party of his men to the home of his sister Hildeburh's husband, Finn, the Frisian king. Hildeburh's son is a Frisian warrior. Despite this long-standing marital alliance, the two groups remain hostile. Hnaef and his sixty warriors are sleeping alone in the great hall. Their sentry, alerted by bright light outside, rouses Hnaef. The Danes quickly prepare to defend the hall against the Frisian attackers.
For five days the Danes inflict heavy losses on the Frisians, while they themselves suffer no deaths. Then some unspecified turn of events takes the lives of Hnaef and many of his men. Both sides exhausted, Hengest, the new commander of the Danes, arranges a treaty with Finn. All the slain are burned together in a worthy funeral service.

With winter upon them, the Danes agree that they must forego all thought of revenge in return for Finn's hospitality until the spring. They promise to repay shelter with silence. Unfortunately, the Danes Guthlaf and Ordlaf (Oslaf) are unable to contain their rage and precipitate a final battle. Finn is slain and Hildeburh together with the royal treasure taken to the land of the Danes.

Surely there are many questions still unanswered which we must suppose the Beowulf poet felt were common knowledge among his audience. Why does Hnaef visit his sister Hildeburh with sixty warriors on the brink of winter across a Northern sea? Who are the young men who launch a surprise assault on sleeping guests? What is their immediate purpose, and why is Guðere a voice of caution in their midst? What calamity overtook the Danes between the Fragment and the Beowulf narrative? What was Finn's role in the conflict? How did he and his son meet their deaths? Did the final battle erupt at the end of a long winter of confinement and resentment? Otherwise, how did the Danes get home across the angry sea? We may suppose that the missing portions of the Finnsburuh epic would supply
answers to a number of these questions; but even in the whole
description courageous actions probably occupied far more of
the poet's thoughts and lines than explanations of background
and motivation.

2.5 The prose translation of the text.

"... the gables are burning."

Hnaef, the battle-young king, spoke then: "Neither is
this dawning in the east, nor is a dragon flying here, nor are
the gables of this hall burning; but here men bear forth arms,
birds call, greycoat yells, battle-wood rings, shield answers
shaft. Now this moon is shining, wandering under clouds; now
deeds of woe arise, which are intended to fulfill the enmity
of this people.

"But wake now, my warriors, hold your shields, resolve
on valor, fight in the front, be in high spirits!"

Then arose many a goldladen thane and girded himself with
his sword; then the lordly champions Sigeferth and Eaha went
to the door and drew their swords, and Ordlaf and Guthlaf at
the other door; and Hengest himself accompanied them.

In addition, Guthere restrained Garulf that he might not
bear arms for the first time to the door of the hall where the
hardened warrior would now take away his so noble life; but he,
the bold hero, asked openly above it all who held the door.

"Sigeferth is my name," he said. "I am a man of the
Secgens, a widely known adventurer. I have experienced many
trials of hard battles; here is destined yet to you whichever
fate you yourself are about to seek from me."
Then there was noise of battle-slaughter in the hall; the celled shield, the bond-helm, had to burst in hand for the keen; the castle-floor resounded,—until Garulf, first of all earth dwellers, fell dead at the battle; he was Guthlaf's son with much good about him.

A screaming eagle turned, a raven wheeled, black and dusky-bronze. Sword-light gleamed, as if all Finsburuh were afire. I never heard of sixty valiant warriors better, more worthily, to bear themselves at a battle between men, nor ever young men to pay for white mead better than his youths paid Hnaef.

They fought five days, so that none of them fell, those lord-companions, but they held the door. Then a wounded warrior went away to go to him and said that his byrnie, weak armor, might be shattered, and also his helm was pierced through. Then the guardian of the people asked him at once how the warriors bore their wounds, or whether [the battle] of the young men [had ceased].
3.1 The unending symphony of languages. Although my knowledge of music is inadequate for the task, I am irresistibly drawn to compare the history of our language to an unending symphony in which the music waxes and wanes with the fortunes of the orchestra, reflecting both the nature of the instruments and the lives of composers, conductors, and musicians. Some instruments and some motifs in the form of word-stems and semantic patterns are present throughout the known span of the symphony; they appear in each movement. These instruments may change their range and to a limited extent their shapes over the years and may move from one place to another on the stage. Motifs may be simple or embellished. A few instruments, an occasional motif, may lose favor, but the musicians remember them long after they are last used. The number lost is more than restored by the new ideas adopted from neighboring orchestras. Composers, directors, and the musicians themselves exchange ideas for preserving or improving the music. Events of history greatly influence the shape of the music. A movement loud and arrogant with the vigorous sweep of martial rhythms and the intricate embellishments of professional musicians may precede a movement with pastoral tempo and motifs suited to amateur musicians who are limited to local performances.
among the least musical of their fellows. If another rousing
movement of conquest and confidence follows the pastoral inter-
lude, the composer, conductor and musicians must look beyond
their own orchestra for new instruments and new melodies to
express the thoughts that had been deleted from their repertoire.

Any musician who looks beyond the score immediately
before him, whether to see the scores played by earlier musi-
cians or to listen for the sounds of other sections of his
contemporaries, must be awed and astounded by the complexity
and beauty of the symphony. That is the attitude from which
this paper describes some discoveries in the single score
examined here. The instruments and motifs of the old score
are identified with those currently familiar, with careful
note of any which are no longer in use and those now used for
different keys and different themes, as well as those unchanged
through the years.

3.2.1 Compounds. One noticeable feature of OE is the
frequent, colorful use of compounds. A compound is two words
used as one. That is, of two juxtaposed words, each able to
function alone in other contexts, the first, in stem or com-
bining form, is heavily stressed and only the second is
inflected. The meaning of a compound is determined by inter-
action between the segments.

There are twenty-two obvious compounds in "The Fight at
Finnsburg," Klaeber (1950: 246-247). Of this number, four
appear as adjectives. One adjective, gold-hladen, combines noun and past participle in a form common in MdE compounds, e.g. "gold-filled," "wind-blown," "lace-trimmed." The underlying phrase is "segment 2 with/by segment 1." Another, heapo-geong, combines noun and adjective in a pattern readily understood and productive in MdE. A classic example is the pejorative proverb "penny-wise and pound-foolish." There are more current examples: "car-happy," "girl-crazy." The underlying phrase is "sg 2 with regard to sg 1." A third, sealo-brūn, combines two color words so that the first qualifies the second. MdE examples of this pattern are "yellow-green" and "blue-violet." The fourth adjective compound, dōor-mōd, apparently combines noun and noun to imply "with sg 2 like that of sg 1." In MdE this type of compound is formed with an -ed adjective marker: "eagle-eyed," "fox-faced," "bird-witted."

Of the six compound proper nouns, the one that names a place follows a pattern which is still extremely productive. Finnsburuh combines the name of a person with a common noun to imply "sg 2, which is identified with sg 1." Modern examples abound on the map of the United States of America: "Jamestown," "Vicksburg," "Aransas Pass."

The five compound names of men--Ordlāf, Sigeferð, Gārulf, Gūðere, and Gūðlāf--seem to combine words with desirable connotations without regard for whether the two form a coherent whole. The result is similar to that produced by the MdE
practice of choosing first and middle names primarily for phonological or sociological impact.

Compound common nouns especially capture the interest of language students with their imagery and flexibility. Scholars in search of an ordered universe have grouped and sorted them using as criteria either the relationship between compound and referent, the relationship between the two elements of the compound, or both.

Thomas J. Gardner (1968: 101-133) and A. G. Brodeur (1959: 8, 36) work primarily with the relationship of compound to referent, defining three categories, direct, indirect, and metaphorical. For example, buruh-belu and here-sceorp are no more colorful in their language patterns than are "kitchen-floor" and "choir-robe." Their romance is in the mind of the reader; each simply and directly names its referent. Indirect compounds, like wēa-dāed and driht-gesiā, call a spade an earth-mover. They point vividly to a particular aspect of the referent. Metaphorical compounds, however, name the referent what it clearly is not. The compound sige-beorna is metaphorical on two levels. The second segment, used in OE poetry to mean 'warrior,' is cognate with words meaning 'bear' in other Germanic languages. The first segment is more immediately figurative, since no one actually wins this particular battle. Just as the connotations of fierceness and courage make sige-beorna a good term for our heroes, so does the connotation of protective covering make bān-helm a
good variation of shield. Similarly, the shine and flash of moving swords is not *swurd-läoma* in the direct sense of "candle-light." It is similar scientifically to "moon-light," but is the idea of reflected light a real connotation of "moon-light" in ordinary speech? In a more obvious way, a *graæg hama*, taken literally, cannot *gyllan*. W. P. Lehmann (1972: 189-197), although primarily interested in intersegmental relationships, points out the possessive relationship between such compounds as *graæg-hama* and their referents. The underlying string is "the one who has a sg 2 that is sg 1." Modern examples like "red-neck" and "long-hair" are often derogatory.

Lehmann discusses three other sets of compounds. He contrasts coordinating compounds, in which two segments have equal force and meaning, with subordinating compounds, in which the first segment modifies the second. An example of the former set is *wael-slihta*; in MdE it includes words like "papa," "self-same," and "pitter-patter." The latter set is by far the more productive, including most compounds. His fourth set is synthetic compounds, those which are compact expressions of underlying complex structures. This set also includes most compounds.

Further work with compound common nouns usually consists of identifying the underlying structure which each expresses and grouping them on that basis. This task is done exhaustively by Robert B. Lees (1966: 125-181). Often the same compound
can express alternate patterns. "I found it on the kitchen-floor" = "... floor of the kitchen," but "I want a new kitchen-floor" = "... floor for the kitchen." The first pair of sentences illustrates a genitive relationship, "sg 2 of sg 1," one of the most productive, including buruh-pelu, driht-gesiđa, and possibly wēa-dāeda and swurd-lēoma. The second pair illustrates a benefactive relationship, "sg 2 for sg 1," also quite productive, including bān-helm, gūð-wudu, and here-sceorp. A third set, "sg 2 in/on/at sg 1," where sg 2 is a verbal agent and sg 1 is adverbial, is less common. One example is eorġ-buendra which is reflected in MdE by "school-teacher." The two segments of a compound can in fact reflect almost any syntactic relationship, e.g., subject to object, wael-slihta, "sg 2 which produces sg 1," and sige-beorna, "sg 2 who achieve sg 1." Many patterns are not illustrated in this brief sample. In conclusion, remember that identification of underlying structure is speculative and, like all forms of communication, is only as reliable as the understanding between two minds.

3.2.2 Kennings. Another characteristic of Germanic poetry is the use of the figurative expressions called kennings. These are words or phrases, often compounds, which name their referents indirectly or metaphorically. If a helm is specifically protection for the head, then bān-helm 'shield' is a kenning. Thus, eorġ-buendra is a kenning for 'human beings,' wēa-dāeda for 'treachery and war,' gūð-wudu for 'spears,'
græg-hama for 'the wolf' or perhaps for 'an armed warrior.'

Other kennings take various forms, often a genitive phrase: nípa heard for 'a warrior,' folces hyrde for 'the ruler.'

Sometimes a single word can have the force of a kenning.

Thus gehlyn, which is 'the sound of rushing, tumbling water,' is used for 'the sound of battle.' Each kenning embodies an inspired insight on the part of its creator concerning the nature or features of its subject.

3.2.3 Affixes. At least twenty-eight of the words in the Finnsburg fragment have affixes, twenty of them prefixes and eight of them suffixes. One, wurplícōr, has two suffixes. Inflectional endings are not included in this list. Although many affixes are identical to free forms, these are demonstrably not compounds. An affix is unstressed, and the word alliterates on the base. The only exception is when the affix has merged with the stressed syllable of the base, as in swæeper and nān.

Nine words carry the ge- prefix, which has associative or perfective force. It is most common as a verbal prefix, as in gebād, gebāeran, gefrignan, gecrāng, gēnaēson, getugon, and gewat. Although the perfect aspect of each of these verbs is discernible, one obvious contrast is between frignan 'ask' and gefrignan 'find out.' While each of these verbs is altered in meaning by its prefix, it was quite usually added to the past participle of most verbs to reinforce the perfect tenses or the finality of the modifier. The two nouns with this
prefix, gesīde and gehlynn, share with the verbs the feeling of association or result. The torrent itself is hlyn(n), its resultant noise gehlynn. One who joined the lord on his journey was called his gesīde, from sid 'a journey.' This prefix remained fully in use throughout the ME period, but was particularly characteristic of southern and midland speech. The absence of it in Old Norse hastened its obsolescence in the north, where the language of the Danes greatly influenced the speech of the Anglo-Saxons during the two centuries before the coming of the Normans. Although it is still a feature of the dialects of southern England, by the sixteenth century Spenser and others regarded it, in its MdE form Y-, as a conscious archaism. It survives in twentieth century standard English only as a prefix A- on such words as "Alike" and "Among," or hidden unrecognized in "handIwork" and "Enough."

There would seem to be some semantic correspondence between the OE prefix æ- and the MdE adverbial particle "up." All three of the æ- verbs in this lexicon have MdE cognates or meanings in "up": æbrocen 'broken up,' ærisaæ 'rise up,' and ënyman 'take away, take up (papers, etc., in the classroom).' There is further fragile support for this argument from the fact that NIMBLE first meant 'quick on the up-take, clever.' The OE prefix is not productive in MdE.

Two negative prefixes appear in this short list. The n- of naefer and ën is the negative particle ne, which corresponds to MdE 'no' or 'not.' Thus, ne æefer = naefer just as
'not ever' = 'never,' and ne ḡn = nān just as 'not one' = 'none.' Although the syntactic range of the two forms is not identical, their semantic identity is demonstrated by the use of the phrasal form for emphasis in such contexts as, "Have you never seen it? Not ever?" and "You found none of them? Not one?" The other negative prefix, the un- of undearninga and unhrōr, has no recorded existence as a separate word, yet retains its form and identity through more than fifteen hundred years of use in many languages. Possibly an early ablaut-formation from the ne negative particle, it was in OE freely prefixed to adjectives, adverbs, nouns, past and present participles, and their derivatives, creating antonyms at need. It was much less used in ME, being seen for the most part in a handful of frequently used OE words, not as a living affix. However, as English became once more a language of literature in late ME, the old prefix regained its usefulness and flexibility corresponding to the function of Latin in- and its derivatives.

One other prefix shows the elision of vowels to produce a single syllable from two: swaeper = swa hwaeper. As is true throughout the history of English until the establishment of American usage, an initial "h" is as though it were not; that is, a word beginning with "h" followed by a vowel is treated as though it began with that vowel; in modern Britain one may speak of "an hotel." Just as the e of ne ḡn elides with the ā to form a single syllable, so the a of swā elides with the ae of hwaeper.
The on- prefix of oncwæd- means 'back, in response.' It is the unstressed form of and-, ond-, which appears in andswær-/ANSWER.

The for- prefix can have several effects on its base, all of them probably related in some way to the root meaning 'forth, forward.' Perhaps merely intensive in the verb forgyladan, it seems to correspond here to MdE "re-" as all its MdE glosses are in "re-." Although it is not productive now, it appears in such common MdE words as "forgive and "forget."

The suffix -líc(e) appears three times in this list, in drihtlíce, fröölíc, and wurþlícor. In each case it means as it always has 'having characteristics in common with ___' on 'in a ___ manner.' After this suffix lost its final consonant in ME to become MdE -LY, new compounds with MdE -LIKE began to appear, distinct from the original. They are used in different contexts with slightly different connotations, but vary little in denotation. Both come from a pre-Germanic substantive meaning 'appearance, form, body' which is also the source of LICHgate, the gate into an English churchyard cemetery.

The -or suffix of wurþlícor is one spelling of MdE -ER comparative suffix. In MdE it is restricted to use with one- or two-syllable words, having been supplanted in much of its range by the preceding adverb "more." The -est of aerest is the unchanging superlative suffix which in MdE shares its range with "most."
The -(e)r of wandrode is the verbal -ER which indicates repetitive motion in the manner of the stem verb. Modern examples are WANDER, "flutter," "chatter," and "flicker."

The adjective ðyrəl is from the adverb þuruh with ablaut and -el adjective suffix. This suffix, which usually appears as -LE in MdE, is used to form nouns as well as adjectives: "thimble," "nimble," "girdle," "hovel," "kernel," "brittle."

The -en suffix of fyren- is one familiar but somewhat archaic in MdE. It is the affix which identifies an adjective describing the substance of which a thing is composed. The hall is not composed of fire in the same sense that a ring might not be golden or a shirt woolen.

The other suffix has functions unrepresented in MdE. The -an of eastan is the dative or locative singular inflectional suffix which here is adverbial or prepositional. Since it was usually a case- rather than adverb-marker, it was lost during the ME period of inflectional leveling. The MdE "-(i)an" of "African" and "Christian" comes from L -an(us) 'belonging to."

There have been many shifts and changes in English affixes. Many have come and a few have gone through the centuries, but a number continue useful. The MdE words "arise," "forget," "awake," "unclear," and "never" show the currency of OE prefixes. The MdE words "tallest," "childlike," "sweetly," and "neater" show the currency of OE suffixes. Even the forgotten ge- prefix can claim modern life, as "handIcraft" is modeled on "handIwork." Like a house which has sheltered many generations
of a single family, the English language has an attic full of things outdated or supplanted which can still be used if the occasion arises.

3.3.1 Differences between Old and Modern English. This fragmentary account of heroism and death in "The Fight at Finnsburuh" was composed at least a thousand years ago. Its language, Old English, looks to an untrained eye as foreign to Modern English as any language spoken in Africa. The OE alphabet differs slightly from the modern one. The digraph *æ* called aesc/ASH represents the "a" of "cat." The consonants *sc* and *c* represent respectively "sh" and "ch." The Þ 'thorn' and þ 'eth' both represent "th." The letter þ has in addition the sounds of "s" and "k," all determined by context. Modern editors usually replace the runic letter þ 'wynn' with "w," just as they replace the þ 'yogh' with "g" or "y" as the context requires. Even without the individual styles of calligraphy and spacing which complicate the decipherment of ancient manuscripts, OE words look unfamiliar. Line 13, Dā ārās maenig goldhladen þegn, gyrde hine his swurde, contains only two syllables which have exactly the same form and function then and now. Many lines have none at all. It is easy to believe that OE and MdE would sound as different as they look. If by some quirk of time a speaker of OE and a speaker of MdE should meet, one may assume that neither would understand a word the other said.

3.3.2 Similarities between Old and Modern English. A closer examination of the text reveals, however, that
approximately 75 per cent of the words used in this poem have MdE cognates. A simple modernizing of 1. 13 demonstrates the close ties between the two stages of the language: "Then arose many (a) goldladen thane, girded him(self) (with) his sword."

Most of the cognates are direct descendants; a few were borrowed from sister tongues. All of those in 1. 13 are in the direct line, but MdE SWAINS presumably comes not from swānas (1. 39) but from Old Norse sveinn.

The meaning of any word is to some extent a function of the experiences and needs of the one who uses it. To say that a word means the same thing to two persons is to say that one would understand and accept all the ways that the other would use it. Sometimes one user is unfamiliar with a social or technological context; if he immediately accepts and understands the use of the word in its new context when he learns the necessary supplementary facts, then the meaning of the word has not been changed. For example, geong and YOUNG equally connote 'immature' and 'inexperienced'; although MdE may choose among many more Latinate synonyms, the meaning of the Germanic word survives intact. For some words like scyld/SHIELD, a central, underlying meaning remains while subsidiary uses cluster around it. When each new use seems to return to the original for its strength, without ambiguity, the word has survived unchanged. The words with the best potential for life are those which are used in all walks of life: aet/AT, daeg-/DAY, eom/AM, etc.
A number of OE words arrived in the modern language with their meanings modified in various ways. Supposing that OE and MdE speakers surmounted the barriers of syntax and phonology to become mutually intelligible, they would stumble over the semantic differences between seemingly identical words. Would it compliment a modern leader to call him a FOLK-HERDER? Would his ancestor understand the humiliation of having to stand in the HALL?

3.3.3 Traditional categories of semantic change. In the nineteenth century, the proponents of logic in the study of language compiled a list of categories to encompass the different kinds of semantic change. Bloomfield (1933: 426-27) outlined these traditional categories, implying his dissatisfaction with them.

Narrowing or specialization occurs when a word becomes restricted to a use or uses which were in OE only a part of its field. An animal's horn is of course still a HORN. Noise-producing objects of similar shapes are also HORNS. However, since architectural fashions have changed greatly, there is no MdE use of HORN to mean 'gable.' In the same way, while a fugol was any feathered creature, a FOWL is a domesticated bird raised primarily for food. Sometimes a word loses not meaning but appropriate applications. Although sweart was a general color word, only complexions are SWARTHY.

Widening or generalization occurs when a word enlarges its range as it ages. Sometimes a word absorbs or displaces
a closely related word so that the MdE cognate is the same for both. Thus, byrnan was intransitive and baernan (Beo 1116) transitive, but BURN can be either. A few particularly useful words cling to their early meanings while being used in ever more varied contexts. A GOOD warrior is as brave as ever, but our OE speaker might well ask the qualities of a GOOD time or a GOOD price.

Metaphor occurs when a word used often in a figurative sense loses its more literal meaning while the figurative nature of the new use is forgotten. A leader would gyldan his men rings or mead, and they forgylidan him bravery and loyalty. When we YIELD a point or YIELD the floor or YIELD to a superior force there is only a faint echo of this simple, straightforward transaction. Scholars speculate that beorn, which has in the history of English meant first 'warrier,' then 'man,' is an ancient poetic metaphor, since all of its cognates in related languages mean 'bear.'

Metonymy occurs when a word is transferred to a new meaning which is close to the first in either space or time. Our OE speaker would winnan his battles from the moment they began. His MdE counterpart WINS only at the end of the encounter, if at all.

Synecdoche occurs when the old meaning of a word and the new are related as whole and part. To defend a buruh the thane strengthened its walls and guarded its ramparts; but more complex maneuvering is needed to ensure the safety of an entire BOROUGH.
Hyperbole or overstatement occurs when an exaggeration loses its force and becomes commonplace. The fōlc cēne in mōd might willan to do battle sōna. If so, they would be a serious danger to some KEEN, MOODY FOLK who WILL arm themselves SOON. The senses of nationhood, courage, resolution, and immediacy have been diluted to colorlessness.

Litotes or understatement occurs, in theory, when a weaker meaning becomes stronger. This seems to have happened, temporarily, to the verb (ge-)cringan, which was used so frequently in OE poetry as a euphemism for 'die, fall in battle' that it accrued that denotation, although historically it has meant 'bend (double), contract (the body).'

Degeneration or pejoration occurs when the meaning of a word becomes worse. A wrecca, although perhaps homeless, could become a welcome hero in foreign halls. A WRETCH loses his very wretchedness by being transformed into a successful man in whatever profession at home or abroad.

Elevation or amelioration occurs when a commonplace or low word gains a higher or literary usage. While for the OE speaker ðū referred to any interlocutor, for the MdE speaker THOU usually refers to the deity.

3.4 Semantic change within this lexicon. Although the traditional categories describe some changes pertinently, other word histories refuse to settle neatly into an allotted space. It is further frustration to the student of political and cultural history to find that linguistic history should so
often have been limited to the microscopic examination of one word at a time, focusing on separate stages in its life as though tracing one man's family tree and leaving the reader to guess why Papa was a grocer in New York when Grandpa had been a blacksmith in Yorkshire. More recent language studies have preferred to project their subject upon a larger screen, tracing whole families as their births and deaths, marriages and migrations occur in response to local and world events. Of course, if Papa left Yorkshire and appeared in New York by whim, accident, or secret personal pressure, his story may not fit neatly into an allotted space in this sort of study. However, on the wide screen a little individual initiative on the part of the actors lends color to the plot and suggests many intriguing avenues for future exploration.

3.4.1 The Old English Period. The pax Romana embraced much of Celtic Britain for many years, but never without some harassment from the wild Celtic tribes of Wales and Scotland and the wild Germanic tribes of northern Europe. When the West Germanic pirates began coming to stay, bringing their families to enjoy and exploit Britain's climate and resources, Britain became even more attractive to these marauders. Soon the West Germanic tribes of northern Europe, when the island was left to its own devices early in the fifth century, began coming to stay, bringing their families to enjoy and exploit Britain's climate and resources. For over a century the outcome appeared moot, but as the sixth century ended, the outcome appeared inevitable, with the Celtic Britons outward into Cornwall, Wales, Ireland, and the Celtic Britons outward into Cornwall, Wales, Ireland, and
Scotland. The Celts who remained in the eastern and central sections became absorbed blood and tongue into the new English peoples. The different tribes of newcomers spoke various dialects of a West Germanic language, mutually intelligible at the diplomatic level but different enough at the peasant level to distinguish a foreigner from a neighbor at the drop of a vowel. By the year 700 A.D. when the written language had appeared, all these Englishmen spoke English, but with distinctive regional vowels and inflections, just as we do today despite public education and Telstar; and each scribe spelled in his own dialect.

While English as a written language was perhaps a hundred years old and still little used for scholarship, the Danes, a North Germanic tribe, began to have a great and terrible influence on the lives of the people. For the next three centuries the northeastern regions had every opportunity to add a Viking flavor to their speech, some of which spread throughout the language. During the ninth and tenth centuries, the part of Anglo-Saxon England farthest from the Danes had the best opportunities for record-keeping and scholarship, which is why most Old English documents appear preserved in the West Saxon dialect.

Englishmen and Danes were indistinguishable to an outsider but still opposed in their political loyalties when William of Normandy brought an abrupt end to the Old English period in 1066. Within a hundred years English as a language of literature and power had been forgotten.
If we consider 700 A.D. as the very approximate date of our text, then half a millennium of linguistic history separates it from the year 1200. How much of the vocabulary was obsolete by that time, and what kinds of words were lost? One group of words that demands notice is the large proportion having to do with pride in battle. There are four variations of 'fighting man,' gesīd-, haeleð, wīgend, and hys-; two of 'armor,' hyrst- and herescorp-; three of 'battle,' guð-, heapo-, and hild-; and one each of 'victory,' sige, 'courage,' ellen, 'sword,' secg-, 'strength,' (un)hrōr, and 'army,' here. Other words in this group also suggest a people who have lost the opportunity to experience the joy of successful combat: ānym-, a verb of plunder; bū(end), a verb of social stability and autonomy; wit-, a verb of destiny; hīcg-, a verb of high resolve; and hlynn-, a verb of battle-noise, and its substantive gehlynn.

The other words from the lexicon that became obsolete before 1200 provide more opportunity for speculation than for classification. There is one small group that is particularly perplexing. Why should three verbs of inquiry—frign- 'ask,' gefrign- 'find out,' and oncwēd 'answer'—die out during this period? Were these activities reserved to the Norman ruling class?

3.4.2 The Middle English Period. The Normans did reserve for themselves most of the fruits of victory, both economic and scholarly. That learning and trade which did not take place in Latin took place in French, as did most conspicuous
consumption and all government. For two hundred years English had the status enjoyed by the Spanish language in the American Southwest in the twentieth century. Only in the last third of the ME period did courageous authors, noting the growing nationalism and Anglicism of the English upper classes, dare to entrust their literary futures to the English language. Geoffrey Chaucer epitomizes this period with his heavily French vocabulary and his worry that the shifting language patterns of his day would obliterate his work. He could not anticipate that by the year 1500 the printing press and the thoroughly English House of Tudor would have ended this period of rapid and radical linguistic change. There is now no question of any British dialect but that of educated London achieving literary supremacy.

Additional OE words of war slipped from use during these three centuries. Wael/WAL 'the slain, slaughter,' gar-/GAR 'spear,' dœor-/DEAR 'brave,' byrn/BRINIE 'mail coat,' drihten/DRIGHTEN 'lord,' ord 'forefront,' helm, and frēolīc/FREELY in its meaning 'noble, excellent.' Two more are variations in our text of 'fighting man,' wer-/WERE and swan/SWON. The loss of stīd-/SITHE in its meaning 'journey' and ge-wit/IWITE 'depart, undertake to go,' as well as hleober-/LEOTHER, a variation of 'speak,' fremman/FREME 'accomplish,' leod-/LEDE 'man of the nation,' and ferđ-/FRITH 'peace' seems to belong in the chronicles of English-speaking men humbled.
Several words in this group are of individual interest. The Germanic tribes had borrowed the L. *draca* as a variation of OE *wyrm*, but during the ME years traded it in on the more fashionable French version *DRAGON*. Three roots seemingly became overextended and were severely pruned. The OE verb *witan* 'to see' had put out branches in too many directions—'to depart,' 'to destine,' 'to prophesy'—and has left to it in MdE only the twigs WIT and WISE, WISDOM. A similar fate befell the pre-Germanic root *sinpan* 'to go' when it diversified into 'journey,' 'luck,' 'companion,' 'ultimate fate,' 'time,' etc. during its life in England. The only remnant in MdE is the related causative verb SEND. In OE there were three similar nouns and a related verb all of which would have arrived in MdE as LAST, which does represent for us the verb and the noun 'form for constructing a shoe' but not 'footprint' or 'boot.' Loss of vowel and gender differentiation perhaps placed too great a burden on the single remaining form for it to retain the meanings of all its forebears.

The substantives *hig/HI, HY, swän/SWON* and *sliht-/SLEIGHT* illustrate the two ways ON influenced OE after the Danish occupation of Northern England. The first was completely replaced by 'they'>ON. The second was greatly influenced by its ON cognate *slahtr*, so that its predictable development was altered to conform to the new pattern as OE *sliht/SLEIGHT* + ON *slahtr* <SLAUGHT <SLAUGHTER. Both substantives are from the pre-Germanic verb root 'slay.' The same pattern produces the
string OE swan/SWON + ON sveinn < MdE SWAIN. Both words applied to laborers and were possibly formed on the root 'my own,' = 'my own servant.' This influence could be felt on both form and meaning, although in most cases the meanings of OE and ON cognates are quite similar.

3.4.3 The Early Modern English period. The English language, all her lost glories supplied many times over by the flood of Greek and Latin washing over Europe in the Renaissance, became during the Early Modern English period one of the most flexible and versatile literary languages of history. The Tudors, the Stuarts, and Cromwell all provided excellent though distinct climates for the growth of English scholarship and letters. Political and religious passions found public expression in a language which, having survived the fire of humility, was bare of superfluous synonyms and inflections, committed to syntactic stability, and ready to conquer the world. One of the experiments of writers during this period was deliberately archaic language. Compared to the 1611 King James Bible, which represents the best conservative literary prose of the age, the works of Spenser and his followers may be seen as examples of a language that never lived outside their pages. Their influence makes it more difficult for the student of language history, for they invent new words on old stems, revive forgotten words, and in general prefer artistic verisimilitude to historical accuracy. Shakespeare is another word-merchant of the time, finding
them wherever he goes and using them so skillfully that he sets linguistic fashions some of which last several lifetimes.

A few further words from our text are allowed to fall into disuse during this period, bringing the total to perhaps a fourth of the lexicon over the course of a millennium. Two more variations of 'fighting man' are lost, beorn/BERNE and cemp/KEMP. However, cemp like draca is a L loan which has been traded in on the later Fr model CHAMPION. The form KEMP survives in specific contexts in rural dialects. Shakespeare introduced the Sc form of byrn-/BYRNIE which survived its southern cognate in the vernacular long enough to be adopted as the historical form. Two more OE personal pronouns are pushed out of standard usage, the a. s. hine when the d. s. him fills the single new objective case slot, and the g. hyra/HER whose range is usurped by ON 'their.'

Two more short OE grammatical words slip away during this period. As the grammarians shaped English to fit the Latin molds, one of the rough edges they tried to trim away was our exuberant duplication of negatives. The primary casualty was the particle ne which is so often found with other more aggressive negative words. Its place as both adverb and conjunction has been filled by new short negatives trimmed from earlier ne compounds. The process has been awkward but necessary because, as every native speaker of English knows in his heart, two negatives really are stronger than one. Or perhaps the musicians were tired of the same old "here a ne, there a ne" and
wanted some negative variety. The OE preposition and adverb butan is responsible for crowding the disjunctive conjunction ac from its range. Butan/BUT was already being used as a conjunction in OE in certain contexts where its adverbial meaning of exception was implied. During ME when niceties of distinction had little support it greatly expanded its range at the expense of ac, which finally disappeared in the sixteenth century.

The verb forgylid fell victim to two circumstances. Both its stem and its prefix shifted in meaning through preceding decades, and FORYIELD was not used frequently enough to retain its range without their support. The difficulty is demonstrated by comparing the meaning of "forgive and forget" with the meanings of the segments as they are now used.

One word from this group which seems to have enjoyed a brief revival before its final demise is belu- 'floor' which had been unrecorded since OE until it achieved currency as THEAL 'board, plank' for a few decades in the seventeenth century. Also during that time, chē- lost its positive form and leom-/LEAM retreated to Scotland.

3.4.4 The Late Modern English period. With England committed to the power of Parliament and her American Colonies becoming addicted to self-government, the Age of Revolution and the Age of Democracy follow close upon the Age of Reason. Logic and discipline of language shape political passions to the classical periods of rhetoric and debate. Speakers
and writers tailor their arguments to their audiences, whether prosperous merchant or smallholder. English ships have carried the English flag and the English language around the globe. The joy of conquest and the satisfactions of great power and wealth are again mainstays of the language repertoire, although a secondary theme of social responsibility and political restraint sounds from time to time. This is our own age, and rarely do our swarms of scholars and hordes of writers allow a word to escape us or a meaning to be forgotten. Just as one seems gone for good a new turn of phrase or a new context renews its vigor. The proliferation of novels ensures that all regions, all social classes, and all occupations may speak from their pages. The constant mobility of the modern world carries words as well as people to work in contexts far from their points of origin.

A word need not be suitable for formal occasions to be strong and lively. A good example is berst, which in its formal attire BURST is a shadow of its former self but as BUST in the United States vigorously holds and even extends its original range. As a pre-Germanic verb, it was an intensive derivative of 'break,' which exactly describes the uses of BUST if you discount the separate root 'thrash, beat' which coincides with it.

Many words which die with their culture are used by historians to discuss that culture, as are helm and byrn/BYRNIE. Helm is the noun form of a pre-Germanic root 'to cover'; the
MdE 'helmet' > Fr. diminutive > the Gc. helm. For a time in the medieval vocabulary the towering helm and crest of the knight was contrasted with the modest helmet of the footsoldier, which is the cultural antecedent of football and motorcycle helmets as well as the soldier's metal pot.

Shakespeare took the Scottish spelling of degn/THANE for Macbeth and established it in standard English with the connotations of Scottish nobility. Later historians introduced the spelling THEGN and a modernized gesīð-/GESITH to describe the nobility of pre-Norman England.

What title might one give to the sort of antiquarian who in the nineteenth century despoiled the grave of wer-/WERE 'man,' obsolete for five hundred years, to create the compound WEREWolf? It was a sedate old word from a pre-Germanic root cognate with Skr., L., and Gaelic 'man,' and no natural semantic turn reduced it to a role in Gothic horror tales.

Professional and amateur historians are not the only groups to preserve words past their time of use in the vernacular. Lawyers and poets have fossilized two forms of cweð- 'speak, say.' The lawyers preserved the complex verb beQUEATH, which has a new weak past tense beQUEATHED, in the restricted context of wills when it had disappeared from its other contexts. It originally had much the same range as the now outdated form 'bespeak,' whose range in standard English is occupied by 'reserve' and in colloquial or slang speech by 'get dubs on.' The poets, on the other hand, preserved only
the old strong past tense QUOTH as a variation of 'said.'

Many words live on in compounds long after they cease to exist as free forms. It can be like following a maze or hunting treasure to find them. The stem of un-hrōr 'strong, active' appears in upROAR, ðvrel/THTRL 'hole, holed' in nosTRIL, cūð 'known' in unCOUTH, gang 'go' in GANGplank and GANGway, here 'army' in HARBOR with buruh 'place of safety,' gar 'spear' in GARfish, and in GARLIC with līc 'form, appearance,' Hengest 'horse' in HENCHman, haeg 'hedge' in HAWthorn, and bū- 'to dwell' in BYlaws and in many place names like DerBY.

Often when one branch of a word family dies out, another branch can lead back to the root. The stem of ēnym- 'take (away)' appears in NUMB 'deprived of feeling' and in NIMBLE with an adjective suffix. The basic separation of an ancient household is between the lord's family who are free, dear, and noble and the servants who are none of those things. Thus frēolīc/FREELY, from the same pre-Gc root as OE frōon 'to love' and ME FRIEND, can share with dēor/DEAR a range which also includes drihtliċ- 'lordly,' all of them indicating the qualities of bravery, nobility, and excellence reserved to the upper classes of a warrior culture. Other relationships which seem unlikely at first glance are cuð/CAN, COULD, ord/ODD, and sēl/SILLY. The shifts of meaning can be traced briefly with the appropriate map: CAN 'to know how to' is not really far
from ｃｕｄ 'known'; ｏｒｄ 'front, point' ˂ 'leader, one alone in front' ˂ 'one alone' ˂ ODD; and ｓｅｌ is the adv. of the adj. ｓｅｌｅ 'good, better' ˂ ｓｅｌｉｇ 'happy' ˂ SILLY 'too happy to have good sense.'

Sometimes the OE and MdE cognates are in the direct line, appearing as the same part of speech with the anticipated spellings in every age, and yet meaning something quite different at each end of the story. This sort of semantic shift is usually a response to cultural pressure. Instead of dying when its cultural context changed, the word changed its direction and lived on. One good example of this phenomenon is ｂｕｒｕｈ which in our text refers to a strong hall within a fortified enclosure, probably a prototype mott and bailey castle. The pre-Germanic root was 'shelter,' a sense that can be traced in MdE BURROW, BOROUGH, BURG, and the -BERG and -BURY of place names.

It is not safe to assume this type of development on the basis of the meaning of a word in a single context, however. The MdE cognates of many of the words in our text sound out of place in the gloss because specific, often literary, OE meanings are not part of their MdE range. The primary or underlying uses of the words may still be nearly identical throughout their history. BOARDS, LIND trees, and other WOOD are still much the same although rarely used for shields and spears. We still STAND on our feet and STEER ships although in MdE light does not STAND and we use STEER in positive rather than
negative contexts. The concepts of remaining and guiding justify the OE choice. Although we expect the sound of SINGing to be pleasant or musical and would not so refer to the call of eagle or raven, we have the related concept SING out 'shout.' Although the verbs sceold, will-, wes-, and habb- were available for use in OE as auxiliary verbs, their own intrinsic senses were wider and stronger than in MdE. The senses of necessity and intention remained when the first two accompanied an infinitive, wes- still had a present tense in its own stem, and habb- still meant 'grasp, hold.'

The loss of the ge- perfective prefix distorted the relationships of two verbs in our lexicon with their MdE cognates. Because the connotations of TOW and TUG are strongly inconclusive, neither is an appropriate gloss for sword getugon. But because WIN has the range of OE gewinn- it is equally inappropriate to gloss the exhortation "winnað in orde."

By far the largest single historical group in this lexicon is the group of words whose basic, central meaning has remained stable over the past thousand years or so. Their range may expand or contract a bit here and there as political and cultural events influence the field. It may seem right to use them with now one preposition and now another or with the currently productive affixes. Position in the syntactic patterns may shift. Cognates may be differentiated or consolidated. Through all such superficial changes the word's own theme sounds true, often from as far back into the mists
of time as the linguistic historian has dared to speculate. To examine only the changes in such words is to be so bemused by dancing leaves that one fails to see the tree itself.

Consider the awesome endurance of words that meant the same thing in Northern Europe and perhaps in Southern Europe, Ireland, and India fifteen or twenty centuries ago that they mean today in North America, Australia, and the British Isles: AT, AND, BEAR 'carry, bring forth,' BONE, BOARD, BURN, DEED, DAY, AM, EARTH, FALL, FIGHT, FIVE, FLY, FOLK, FORTH, FIRE, GO, WOLF, YOUNG, GOOD, GOLD, GRAY, GIRD, HAND, HALL, HELM, HERE, LADEN, HORN, RAVEN, HOW, WHO, WHETHER, WHITE, I, IS, MANY, ME, MEAD, MINE, MOON, NAME, NOW, OVER, ON, OTHER, SHAFT, SHIELD, SHINE (intr.), SIXTY, STEER, SON, SELF, TOW, WOE, SAY, STAND, SWART, SWORD, SUCH, TO, THE, THAT, UNDER, WAY, WIDE, WILL, WOOD, and WORTH. Further, related words in languages that developed alphabets in antiquity have double or triple this recorded life span.

Some shifts in otherwise stable words suggest cultural change. A HALL is still a large public building designed to hold large groups of people, but its functions and design have changed drastically, and the word has been extended to many other architectural products. Now in the United States its most common use is for the central area of a building from which all rooms open, shrunken often to a passageway. The color BROWN has to a great extent lost its luster to the L. cognates BRONze and BURNished which were unfamiliar in OE.
The cyning/KING was originally the greatest of one's KIN, the patriarch of the tribe whether by inheritance or election. Our mental picture of the EARTH is shaped and colored by recent science.

Other changes reflect phonological shifts which allow more than one OE word to have a single MdE cognate. Thus OE duru 'door' and dor 'gate' appear in MdE DOOR, which has in turn relinquished the outer barrier. Also, OE byrn- (intr.) and baern- (trans.) both appear in MdE BURN which retains the double range.

3.5 Conclusion. A brief statistical survey of this lexicon may serve to reinforce the thesis suggested in Chapter I, that most unspecialized OE vocabulary appears in some form in the current language. There are over two hundred words in the entire lexicon, treating as separate words the two segments of compounds as well as pronouns and verbs which either are formed on different stems or appear as distinct words in MdE. Of this number, twenty-four or 12 per cent had disappeared root and branches before 1200 A.D., that is, within the first five hundred years after the presumed date of authorship of this text. Another sixteen or 8 per cent had completely disappeared by 1700. Thus, only 20 per cent of the words of this fragment were utterly lost within the first thousand years after it was composed. The remaining one hundred sixty-one or 80 per cent survive in some form to be a part of the vocabulary of our own language. Whether as free forms or restricted
to surviving compounds, whether stable or shifting in meaning, whether in direct line or as a collateral branch from the same OE root, they live.

In addition to the stems, seven prefixes and six suffixes in this lexicon carry semantic weight. Of these thirteen affixes, at least eleven or 85 per cent appear in MdE words, several of them still as productive forms. One of the two which does not appear as an affix is SO, an extremely frequent free form in MdE. Thus, only the one suffix which was usually inflectional has completely disappeared.

Of those forty stems which were lost before the beginning of Late MdE, eighteen or 45 per cent related to war and conquest, some directly and some indirectly as variations employed in martial poetry, whether pertaining to abstract or concrete aspects of war. This is the largest group lost from the text of this heroic fragment; it is not necessarily representative of the vocabulary of works devoted to religion, philosophy, law, or other specialized fields. We may conclude, however, that of this text only twenty-two words or 11 per cent of the general, unspecialized vocabulary has disappeared.
APPENDIX I
THE LEXICON BY PARTS OF SPEECH

I.1 Substantives.

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<td>wunda</td>
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## Adjectives

<table>
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<th>Words</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aerest</td>
<td>fif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brun</td>
<td>forman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celled</td>
<td>frolloc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cenun</td>
<td>fyrnu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deor</td>
<td>geong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drihtlice</td>
<td>heordra</td>
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<tr>
<td>eowre</td>
<td>his</td>
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</table>

## Verbs

<table>
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<tr>
<td>abrocen</td>
<td>godon (gan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anyman</td>
<td>eom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arisa</td>
<td>fgl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gebad</td>
<td>fleoge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gebaeran</td>
<td>forgylแห</td>
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<tr>
<td>berad</td>
<td>fragn</td>
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<td>berstan</td>
<td>gefragn</td>
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<tr>
<td>byrna</td>
<td>fremman</td>
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<td>gecrang</td>
<td>fuhton</td>
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<tr>
<td>cwe</td>
<td>gangan</td>
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<tr>
<td>daga</td>
<td>guldan</td>
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<td>dynede</td>
<td>gylle</td>
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I.4 Adverbs.

ēac     her
ēastan  hwaeþer
forð    næfre
gít     ne

I.5 Prepositions

aet    ofer    on    tō    under

I.6 Conjunctions.

ac     nē       oðde    swylce
and    oð     swā     þæt
          ðonne
APPENDIX II

THE LEXICON BY SEMANTIC HISTORY

II.1 Obsolete Words.

II.1.1 Words which were obsolete before 1200 A.D.

*ānym-  healo-  hyrst  *swaeper
*bū(end)-  *here-  hys-  ġā
Ēaha  hicg-  genes-  *āyrel
ellen  hild-  *oncweð-  *unhrōr
frign-  hlacor-  oð  wadol
gefrign-  *hlyn-  sceorp-  wīgend
*gesið-  *gehlynn-  *Secgen-  *wit-  (weot-)
uguð-  Hnaef-  *sēl  ymbe
haele(ð)  hweorf-  sige-

II.1.2 Words which became obsolete in the thirteenth century.

*draca/DRAKE  hleoðr-/LEOTHER  wer-/WERE
*gar-/GAR  sīð-/SITHE 'journey'  *gewit-/IWITE
*Hengest/HENGEST  wael/WAL

II.1.3 Words which became obsolete in the fourteenth century.

byrn-/BRINIE  fremman/FREME  *sliht-/SLEIGHT
*ferð-/FRITH  hig/HI, HY

*Other words from the same root are extant, or this word itself appears in composition.
II.1.4 Words which became obsolete in the fifteenth century.
*deor/DEAR 'brave'
*driht(en)/DRIGHT(EN)
*ēodon/YODE
*frēolīc/FREELY 'noble'

II.1.5 Words which became obsolete in the sixteenth century.
 ac/AC
 beorn/BERNE
 byrn/BYRNIE

II.1.6 Words which became obsolete in the seventeenth century.
 pelu/THEAL
 faela/FELE
*forgyld-/FORYIELD

II.2. Living words.
II.2.1 Words which have become archaic or poetic since 1700.
*ārrest/ERST
*cwed-/QUOTH
*ēac/EKE 'also'
gang/GANG (exc. Sc.)

II.2.2 Scottish, regional, and dialect words.
*berst-/BUST
*gebid-/BIDE
II.2.3 Historical and professional words.

byrn-*/BYRNIE helm-*/HELM
cwe ∆-*/(be)QUEATH
gegni-/GESEN, THAIN, THANE

gestΕ-*/GESITH 'Anglo-Saxon noble' wer-*/WERE(wolf)

II.2.4 Words with living cognates in composition or from the same root.

ærest/ERST(while) here-*/HAR(bor), HARRY (v.)
ānym-/NIM(ble), NUMB (ge)hlyn(n)-*/LINN 'torrent'
bū(end)-*/BY(law), (Der)BY

hyrd-*/HERD(sman)
cemp-*/CHAMPION lāf-*/LEAVE
cūδ-*/CAN, COULD, (un)COUTH lāst/LAST (of a shoe)
dēor/DEAR 'precious' (on)cwe δ-*/(be)QUEATH, QUOTH

draca/DRAGON Secgen-*/SEDGE
ēac/EKE (out) sél/SILLY
ferδ/FRIEND swæber/SO WHETHER
froöl/IC FREELY swān-*/SWAIN
gang-*/GANG(plank, -way & sb.) ώyrel/(nos)TRIL
gār-*/GAR(fish, -lic) ώε/TH(en)

haeg-*/HAW(thorn), The HAGUE (un)hrōr/(up)ROAR
Hengest/HENCH(man) gewit-*/WIT, WISE
wit-*/WIT, WISE
II.2.5.1 Words whose meanings have shifted away from the meanings of their roots or whose MdE usage is far from that of OE.

buruh/BOROUGH, BURROW, -BURY ord-/ODD
guld-/YIELD winn-/WIN
mōd-/MOOD wrecc-/WRETCH

II.2.5.2 Words whose meanings in this text do not accord with the current standard English, although there is significant similarity in range.

aern/ERNE heard-/HARD (sb.) sweart-/SWART, SWARTHY
gebid-/ABIDE horn-/HORN swylc/SUCH
bord-/BOARD lind-/LIND(en) sylf/SELF
gecring-/CRINGE, CRANK sceold/SHOULD getē-/TUG, TOW
dynn-/DIN sealo-/SALLOW tō/TO
folc-/FOLK sing-/SING wandr-/WANDER
fugol/FOWL sōna/SOON wes-/WAS, WERE
gyll-/YELL stand-/STAND will-/WILL
habb-/HAVE styr-/STEER wud-/WOOD

II.2.6 Words whose basic, central meaning and usage remain stable.

ābrēc-/BREAK ārīs-/ARISE berst-/BURST, BUST
aern-/ERNE gebāer/BEAR gebid-/ABIDE
aet/AT bān-/BONE bord-/BOARD
and/AND ber-/BEAR brūn-/BROWN
| byrn-/ BURN   | græeg-/ GREY, GRAY | mîn/MINE, MY |
| cēn-/ KEEN   | gyll-/ YELL        | mōn-/ MOON   |
| gecring-/ CRINGE, CRANK | gyrd-/ GIRD | nāēfre/ NEVER |
| cyning/ KING | gīt/ YET          | nama/ NAME   |
| daeg-/ DAY   | habb-/ HAVE        | nān/ NONE    |
| dag-/ DAWN   | hand-/ HAND        | nū/ NOW      |
| dur-/ DOOR   | hē/ HE            | ofer/ OVER   |
| dynn-/ DIN   | healđ-/ HOLD       | on/ ON       |
| eal-/ ALL    | heal(l)/ HALL      | onwacn-/ AWAKE |
| ēastan/ EAST | heard-/ HARD       | òēr-/ OTHER  |
| eom/ AM      | hēr/ HERE         | ođēe/ OR     |
| eorð-/ EARTH | him/ HIM          | sceft/ SHAFT |
| ēowre/ YOUR  | his/ HIS          | scul-/ SHALL |
| feall-/ FALL | hladen/ LAĐEN      | scylď-/ SHIELD |
| feoht-/ FIGHT | horn-/ HORN        | scyn-/ SHINE |
| fif/ FIVE    | hraefen/ RAVEN    | sealo-/ SALLOW |
| flēog-/ FLY  | hū/ HOW           | sēc-/ SEEK   |
| folc-/ FOLK  | hwā/ WHO          | secg-/ SAY   |
| form-/ FORM(er) | hwaēber/ WHETHER | sing-/ SING  |
| forþ/ FORTH  | hwīt-/ WHITE      | sixtig/ SIXTY |
| fugol/ FOWL  | ic/ I             | sliht-/ SLAUGHTER |
| fūren-/ FIERy| is/ IS            | sōna/ SOON   |
| gan/ GO      | lind-/ LIND(en)   | stand-/ STAND |
| geong-/ YOUNG | maenīg/ MANY      | stýr-/ STEER |
| gōd-/ GOOD   | mē/ ME            | sunu/ SON    |
| gold-/ GOLD  | med-/ MEAD        | swā/ SO      |
sweart/SWART, SWARThY  des (dis)/THIS  wes-/WAS, WERE
swurd-/SWORD   donne/THAN wīde/WIDE(ly)
sylf/SUCH   ðū/THOU will-/WILL
swylc/SUCH  under/UNDER  wud-/WOOD
sylf/SELF  waeg/WAY (w)ulf-/WOLF
getē-/TUG, TOW  on waeg/AWAY  wund-/WOUND
tō/TO  wandr-/WANDER  wund-/WOUND(ed)
ðā, ðæere/THE  wēa/WOE  wurþlicor/(more) WORTHILY
ðæt/THAT  wandr-/WANDER
BIBLIOGRAPHY


