[SQUEAKING] [RUSTLING] [CLICKING]

ARTHUR BAHR: All righty. What I'm actually going to do now is pass out a description of the mock exam and exam, 1 which takes place to two weeks from today. So the mock exam is going to get posted-- I mean, I'll post it to Canvas this weekend. You're not actually supposed to attempt it, however, until the following weekend. You should do it weekend after next. And we'll discuss the mock exams in class on Monday the sixth, so two days before the exam proper.

So the mock exam will mimic the structure and timing of the first four sections of exam 1. Those sections are closed book. And you'll turn those in before proceeding to the final section of the exam proper, which is open book, and for which you will need a hard copy of Baker, as I've said from the very beginning of class. So if you don't have one, get one pronto because two weeks from today you will have to use it.

Section 1, 68 points, should take you less than five minutes. You reproduce tables 5.3, 5.4, 6.1, and 7.2. I've been announcing that regularly from the beginning. So those should be already quite well drilled. You are also responsible for being able to recognize adjective endings and weak noun endings. But you don't need to reproduce them in tabular form.

You also need to be able to recognize conjugated forms of*cunnan, magan, motan, sculan, witan, gān,* and *willan.* I mentioned most of those in class last time. We're going to talk a little bit about *gān* and *willan.* Actually, we'll talk about all of them today. Section 2 is basically a souped up version of the daily vocab quiz-- 40 points, 40 words from groups-- oops, did I say 1 through 50? I think that should be--

AUDIENCE: 1 through 60.

ARTHUR BAHR: Yeah, 1 through 60, my apologies. I'll correct that before I post this. Yeah, it's through what you will have done by that point. Section 3, and the reason that I'm passing this out now, is to be able to reproduce some important grammar rules, nearly all of which I either have already or will have by then emphasized in class.

And if you turn to pages 2 and 3 of this handout, this is section 3 of the exam with all of the answers filled in. As I've said previously, I would love for everybody to earn an A in this class. This is one way of helping you do so because I don't see any point in playing hide the ball. This is what I think is important. This is what you have to know. And we'll be referring to it as we go through class today.

Part of the reason that over 100 points are pretty straightforward to get-- that is, all of sections 1, the paradigm memorization, and all of section 3, where the answers are literally on the sheet in front of you-- although, you can't bring the sheet with you to the exam. You do have to actually have it in your head for those 80 minutes at least.

One of the reasons that those parts of the exam are relatively easy is that sections 4 and 5 are hard. You're going to be doing site translation of five Old English sentences using words from *Word Hoard,* as well as any other words I have said in class you will need to be able to recognize, such as the verbs-- I think it's only the verbs. I'll double check. I'll go back to the exam and make sure this is true. But I believe it's only those verbs listed above, *cunnan, magan, motan, sculan, witan, gān,* and *willan.*

These sentences are designed to be hard. I don't expect anyone to get 50 out of 50 points on them. Although, people have surprised me in the past and done so. But I give partial credit quite liberally. So make sure to tell me what you know. Show me what you know rather than just give up or get stumped because you can have a translation that's really quite wrong in a lot of ways and still get 6 out of 10 points on a given sentence, all right?

And when I say tell me what you know, I mean, this looks like genitive plural, even though I don't know what the word means. Or like we heard Kenneth say in class when he was translating-- sight translating, so this is totally fine-- but *hrepedon* that was a word. So if you don't know what *hreppan* means, fine. But you know it's a verb. You know it's plural. You know it's past, et cetera.

You'll turn all that in when you're done. And then you'll get to turn to assisted translation of a short portion of a text from Baker. And for this section of the exam, you may use the glossary. Indeed, you must use the glossary in the back of the book, as well as your magic sheet of forms, if you bring it to the exam.

Under that, I say, by design, this is tightly timed. I've emphasized from day 1 the importance of learning your paradigms so you don't have to go running back to your magic sheet every time you see a word. Of course, you will already be tested on the paradigms in section 1 of the exam. But you'll be implicitly tested on them as well by how quickly you can complete section 4.

So when the mock exam is posted and you do it-- there is no section 5. I'm not giving you an assisted translation. You're already going to be doing assisted translation when we start translating Aelfric's preface to Genesis next week. I would time yourself for sections 1 through 4 to make sure that you're getting through it along roughly the time frame laid out here.

And as I've said again before, you may not share any materials during the exam. Everyone must have their own copy of Baker and the magic sheet, if you wish, for use in section 5. Fair Warning. Any questions on all?

All righty, let's turn to chapter 7, section 5 of Baker and very quickly mention the bottom of page 79. A few verbs, as Baker says, have weak present tenses and strong past tenses. So some common verbs behave in this way, like *biddan,* which we saw last time had the preterite form bæd, like *bade* in modern English, *sittan,* which, of course, becomes *sat* in both Old English and modern English. Remember the "old fiend," *se ealde feond sæt ofer þam stane* in "The Miracle of Saint Benedict," and scieppan, "to make or create," where we get modern English *shape,* of course. The dual nature of these verbs is a curiosity and therefore probably interesting to the linguistics-minded among you, but not something we'll go over in any detail beyond this.

All right, preterite present verbs, 7.6 on page 80, this is where it gets really very important, partly because you have to know these on the exam. And the reason for that, of course, is that they are just all over the place in Old English. You should not have to look them up. I mean, now, of course, you do, but by that point.

So preterite present verbs, what this really means is simply that the present tense looks like the past tense. That is to say, they are preterite in form, but present in meaning. Latin and Greek have some of these as well. So *οἶδᾰ* in Greek, *nōvī* in Latin, both words for "I know"-- they actually have perfect tense-- or sorry, perfect forms, but present meanings.

And you see the same thing happens in *witan,* "to know." Table 7.11, the right-hand column-- *witan, wāt*-- So the present indicative shifts. Its vowel doesn't have an ending, just like a strong verb, even though, in that strong verb-- or sorry, that strong past form is actually present in meaning.

The past tense of these preterite present verbs. This is number 2 of 7.6. The past tense is usually built on the second past root with *-d* or *-t* added. It's far preferable simply to just learn these particular forms rather than to try to learn the rules that govern them.

And again, as I've said many times, I think the best way, or at least a way that I encourage you to try to learn these, is to simply say them out loud and get these vowel gradations in your head. So *cunnan, magan, moton, sculan, witan,* you've got them all listed out on page 81. Those are the most important. Although, the others that are there show up quite often as well. Any questions about the basics here? Yes?

AUDIENCE: Just to double check, I'm assuming if we don't see a form in this table, we can just assume it is what we think it should be?

ARTHUR BAHR: Correct, yes.

AUDIENCE: Like *cune, cunnen, cūðe, cūðen* or something like that for like the subjunctive or something like that?

ARTHUR BAHR: Yeah, exactly, exactly.

AUDIENCE: OK, cool.

ARTHUR BAHR: Yep, yep, yep. So *dōn, gān,* and *willan* are all strange-ish verbs. Again, the reason you need to know these is they just show up all the time. And so they're important. I like that *"gān"*-- so this is the bottom of 81-- *"gān* lacks a past form of its own and has apparently borrowed the past of another verb now disappeared."

That explains why, at the top of 82 in table 7.12, you see *gān,* and then you get *gǣþ* and *gǣst* in the second and third. So that's the I-mutation taking over. But then in the past indicative, it just goes wherever it wants with *ēode, ēodest, ēodon.* And then the past subjunctive looks the same.

Willan is really pretty simple. I don't see any big complications there, except for the fact that the past is *wolde.* That is, of course, comparable to modern English *would.* It ultimately becomes modern English *would.* But in this case, it's just the past tense of "to will" or "to desire." So *hē wolde,* "he desired," not "he would," even though that's the cognate.

Fortunately, you're going to get a lot of practice in recognizing these in the reading that we do for the next three days. So after translating a little bit more of Aelfric's translation of Genesis, we're going to shift, for next time, for Monday. This will be where our text is coming from. And you're going to start reading, start translating Aelfric's preface to Genesis.

So if you take a look at the syllabus-- you don't have to look, I'll just tell you-- we are going to start translating-- you are going to start translating, that is, lines 1 through 24 of Aelfric's preface to Genesis, which starts on page 199 of Mitchell and Robinson.

I encourage you to get started early on this. It's a lot of translation when you haven't done really any of it before. So get started early and expect it to take a while. You're going to be looking up a lot of words. But this is how you're going to be prepared to take the exam in two weeks. This whole class is a boot camp, in some sense. And it's getting bootier by the minute. All right. Yes?

AUDIENCE: So are we turning in the translation of the--

ARTHUR BAHR: You do not have to turn it in. But your performance on the translation when we go around the room and translate will be part of your participation grade in class. So excellent question. That said, if you want to turn in your translation, I will happily look at it and mark it up. But it's not a formal homework assignment that gets turned in. Glad you asked.

AUDIENCE: Gotcha. Thank you.

ARTHUR BAHR: Any other questions? It's really pretty fun. I mean, it may sound like-- the preface to Genesis, I mean, that may sound pretty boring. But honestly, it's kind of a cool meta-moment because, of course, you are translating Genesis. Aelfric is translating Genesis. Aelfric is very nervous about translating Genesis, as you're going to hear. So I don't know. I think it's pretty fun. I'm a fan of Aelfric. So we'll get to talk more about him next time.

All right, back to Baker and verbs. So negation, we've already talked a little bit about this back on page 82. We've already talked about how two negatives do not make a positive. So double negatives and even triple negatives sometime in Old English just emphasize further the negative quality of whatever is being described.

So on the bottom of page 82, we have a sentence that we're actually going to translate later today uttered by the serpent of Genesis, *Ne bēo ġē nātes-hwōn dēade, ðēah ðe ġē of ðām trēowe eton,* "You will not in any way be dead, even if you eat from the tree," the serpent says reassuringly to Eve, or *þæt wīf* as she's described by Aelfric.

And at the top of 83, here, the additional negative adverb, *nātes-hwōn,* makes the sentence more emphatic than it would be with *ne* alone. And then "common negative adverbs are *nā, nealles, nātes-hwōn,* and *nātoþæs-hwon.*" So that last one is not particularly common, frankly. But it is a cool one.

Also, further reinforcement of how important long vowels are. So *hwōn* means "little." *hwon* is the instrumental interrogative pronoun. So "little"; "by what means"? So bear in mind, always be looking for these macrons over vowels.

All right, back to page 82. So this is also very important, the paragraph right under the first quotation. So *ne* is contracted with certain verbs-- for example, *nis,* so *ne* plus *is,* "is not"; *næs,* which is *ne* plus *wæs,* "was not"; *næfþ,* "does not have," from *ne* plus hæfþ, and so on and so forth. And then the last one, *nolde, noldon-- nāh,* "does not have," from *ne* plus *āh. Nāt,* N-A-- N-long-A-T, "does not know," from *ne* plus *wāt..*

Notice that all of the verbs so contracted begin with a vowel, an H, or a W. These don't have to be-- the author doesn't have to do this to perform these contractions. But I would say 70% to 80% to maybe 90% of the time, whoever's writing does. So you should get very used to seeing and be ready to recognize on the exam forms like *næs, nis,* and so on and so forth. Yeah, [? Lambert? ?]

AUDIENCE: How did the living negation go from being before to after? Like *ne is,* we say "is not."

ARTHUR BAHR: Oh, great question. No idea, yeah. I think the short answer-- yeah, I don't know. But it's a good question. Others?

All right, so verbals, like infinitives, and participles, and-- actually, just infinitives and participles, 7.9.1, verbs of knowing, seeing, hearing, and commanding may be followed by an accusative object and an infinitive expressing what that object is doing or should do. We do this in modern English still with, like, "I saw him dance." But in Old English, that would be "I saw him to dance." It would use the infinitive form of the verb. It also uses this construction more frequently than we do.

So for example-- well, actually, those are all examples that we would use in modern English. I guess the first one, "Depart from me, for I see you are persevering in abstinence," which sounds like we came in the middle of a very spicy conversation. There, in modern English, they translate it as a participle, whereas in Old English it's an infinitive. But it's pretty typical.

Take a look at the bottom of the page, though, because this is effectively how Old English uses the passive infinitive. There is no passive infinitive form in Old English, like there is in Latin and some other languages. But the way they express it is simply with the only infinitive form. That is the active. And you see that down at the bottom. *And se cyng þa hēt niman Siferþes lāfe and ġebringan hie binnan Maldelmesbyriġ*-- which is a great way to say "Malmesbury."

"And then the King commanded-- they have bracketed 'someone'-- to take Siferth's widow." You could functionally translate that-- and I would perfectly well accept-- "Then the king commanded Siferth's widow to be taken and brought into Malmesbury." And then at the bottom-- or sorry, at the top of the next page on 84, Baker makes that explicit.

The inflected infinitive-- this is actually pretty important because it shows up surprisingly often. The inflected infinitive is where you put an *-ne* on the end of the infinitive. So*āsmēaġeanne,* from the verb *āsmēaġan*-- you see that double N, and then an E at the end.

It's mostly used, as Baker says, with *bēon,* so a form of the verb "to be," to express obligation, necessity, necessity or propriety. So the example there, *hyt ys ġȳt ġeornliċe tō āsmēaġeanne,* "It should further be diligently investigated." The conjugated verb is simply *ys.* There is no "should" explicitly. The "should" functionality of that translation is expressed by the inflectedness of the infinitive, OK? So what this means is that yet another thing that -ne could be is an inflected infinitive if, of course, the preceding first part of the word is an infinitive, so just another thing to be on the lookout for.

AUDIENCE: Does that *-ne* form always take a *to* before it?

ARTHUR BAHR: Yes. Yes, very good, very good question. Oh, always? I hesitate to say always. But for our purposes, which is to say on an exam that you take in this class, yes. And I think certainly if not always in all extant Old English, overwhelmingly so, yeah. And I think partly that's because *-ne* is such an otherwise ambiguous ending because, as Baker said earlier in some previous chapter, it's not as if Old English people designedly created sentences that are hard to parse.

AUDIENCE: I assume actual Old English speakers would look at the word and guess the meaning from the semantics, as opposed to thinking about the conjugations or explanations.

ARTHUR BAHR: Yeah, absolutely, absolutely. So yeah, no, but you don't need to worry about, just so *tō* plus the infinitive with an *-ne* on the end is the inflected infinitive. All right, so the present participle, 7.9.2, is often used as a noun denoting the performer of an action. So *rodore Rædend,* "ruler of the heavens"-- *Rædend* is the present participle of *rædan,* to rule. But it's used here as a noun. This is, I think, pretty common in lots of languages, including Latin and Greek.

Take a look at the bottom of that page, though, or I guess just below that. A construction consisting of a noun or pronoun and participle both in the dative case is sometimes used where one would expect an adverb clause or another construction expressing time or cause. The noun phrase may sometimes be introduced by a preposition.

This is a little bit like the ablative absolute in Latin or the genitive absolute in Greek. So *hīs rēbus gestīs* famously, "these things having been done," or "with these things having been done, Caesar did" whatever else happened in the sentence. Here, we have, let's see, the second of these-- actually, the first example with Offa. *And Offa ġefēng Myrċene rīċe, ġeflȳmdum Beornrede,* "And Offa seized the kingdom of the Mercians after Beornred had been driven out. That's functionally an ablative absolute, except here it's like a dative absolute or something.

And in this case, there is no preposition. But in the next examples, *bi him lifiġendum* and then that does take a preposition. That does use a preposition. The next one does not-- *him forðfērendum.* So you may or may not get one. But you should add this mentally, or indeed scribally, to your list of the many things that the dative case can do in Old English.

And there's a little note at the bottom saying what I just said about this looking like the ablative absolute in Latin. And it's often thought to be, in fact, an imitation. In fact, in Aelfric's translation of Genesis when he's dealing with ablative absolutes, he often uses this construction.

All right, the subjunctive-- and here, I'm going to actually ask you to turn to page 1 of section 3 of the exam because this gives the very short summary of when the subjunctive gets used in Old English. And this is covered on pages 85 through 88, which is to say the rest of chapter 7 of Baker.

These should look familiar to any of you who have studied languages with the subjunctive because they're pretty comparable, even in English, some of them. So contrary to fact clauses, like "if I were rich," which implies that I'm not, you see that contrary to fact explained at the bottom of page 85 of Baker.

Also at the bottom of page 85 of Baker, following verbs of desiring and commanding-- I think we talked about that even a little bit last class. So "I insisted *that he go home.*" We still use the subjunctive there in modern English. It sounds very strange, to my ears at least, to say "I insisted that he goes home."

AUDIENCE: Some people don't notice it because "I insist that he go home" is, in fact, the infinitive. And they don't realize that it's not the same verb form.

ARTHUR BAHR: Yeah, exactly. I think the absence of the-- but it's not the infinitive, right? Because it's "he go."

AUDIENCE: Well, when you don't use a "that," it's then the accusative and the infinitive.

ARTHUR BAHR: Yeah, exactly.

AUDIENCE: Because those are so similar in modern English, I think people don't realize that.

ARTHUR BAHR: Exactly. No, I think I think you're right. I think you're right. The paucity of verb forms in modern English does create that ambiguity. But it is definitely the subjunctive. Number 3 is the one that is most unlike-- or maybe strangest, I guess, to modern English words-- or sorry, modern English sense.

So to express doubt or ignorance: "He wondered *if she were wise."* That is something we would say in modern English, but also in reported action of which the speaker has no direct knowledge. So even if there is no doubt-- so the sentence in the middle of page 86 of Baker is a good example here.

So *þæt folc*-- I'm looking right around the middle of the page--*þæt folc ðā ðe þis tācen ġeseah cwæð þæt Crist wære sōð wītega,* "so the people who saw this sign said that Christ was a true prophet." Now, in the view of the Christian writer of this sentence in the Old English period, there is absolutely no doubt in their mind about whether Christ was a true prophet or not.

Yet, they still use the subjunctive because it is indirect or reported speech. That said, they will also sometimes use the indicative here, as in the following sentence. *Be him āwrāt* se wītega *Isaias þæt hē is stefn clipiendes on wēstene,* when it could theoretically be *wære-- is stefn clipiendes on wēstene,* So "Concerning him, John the Baptist"-- oh sorry, "Concerning him [John the Baptist] the prophet Isaiah wrote that he is the voice of one crying in the wilderness."

So just be aware of that usage and the fact that it can alternate with the indicative. Fourth is in concessive clauses introduced by *þēah* or *þēah þe,* words like "although," "despite," "even if." So "Nevertheless, no man must despair, though he be sinful."

Baker says, here, *þēah* has a sense something like "even if," implying that the man may or may not be sinful. The subjunctive is appropriate, if a little archaic, even in modern English. I think it sounds a lot archaic, frankly, though he be sinful. I mean, that's ye olde.

But compare *God is mildheort, þēah þe ūre yfelenes him oft ābelge.* Here, the writer can have no doubt that we do often anger God. But the verb *ābelge* is still in the subjunctive mood. So "although" clauses of concession takes the subjunctive, and then the so-called hortatory subjunctive, "let them eat cake," "may he be damned," "let us love our neighbors," all that.

And you can see from number 5 here that you get 3 points for getting the three that I require on the exam and 2 extra credit points if you list them all. You can absolutely just say-- bullet point these-- contrary to fact clauses, following verbs of commanding and desiring, express doubt or ignorance, concessive clauses, hortatory subjunctive. That's all you have to write, OK?

And that's true throughout on these sheets. I've tended to write things out more fully than you need to on the exam, just to help you. But as long as I know what you're talking about, that's fine. Like I say, I know this is a tightly timed exam, all right?

That is it about verbs. Although, I will go briefly back to-- I'm actually going to take you through this list, this section 3 of grammatical principles, to reinforce some of the things we talked about earlier. So number 1, explain the semantic difference between the two forms of the verb *bēon.*

The *be* forms of the verb are used to express either futurity or an always true state of affairs. The vowel forms do not carry those implications. That's all you have to say. Number 2, when would the A-thorn verb ending be third singular present instead of as you would expect, plural present? What would the plural present verb ending of such a verb be? This takes us back to class 2 weak verbs.

So class 2 weak verbs, like *lufian* end in *-að* in the third singular present. And their third plural-- or actually, all of their plural present endings are -iaþ. "Briefly explain when you can expect to see the strong forms of the adjective and when the weak." That takes us very nicely to chapter 8.

The most important thing to know about adjectives, which I think I emphasized last class as well, is that adjectives have strong and weak endings. But unlike verbs, which are always just strong or weak with the exception of those very few that have weak presents and strong pasts, all adjectives can be either strong or weak depending on the context.

So section 3 puts it very punchily that adjectives take the weak form if they follow a demonstrative pronoun-- that is, a form of *se/þæt/sēo*-- a possessive adjective, like *mīn* or *ēower,* or a genitive noun or noun phrase. That's what that little bracket noun bracket phrase, either a genitive noun or a genitive noun phrase. Otherwise, they take the strong form. Yes?

AUDIENCE: It was really unclear to me from the text. Does this mean literally directly follow? Or as a part of the same overall noun phrase? Because obviously, you can separate things up in Old English. So follow is not like linearly follow or like follow if we reconstructed some nice tree?

AUDIENCE: If the specifier is empty or not?

AUDIENCE: Yeah.

ARTHUR BAHR: So it's a good question. And it's pretty much directly follow. Yeah, yeah, yeah. And the reason for that is that basically the reason that-- the reason that-- how do I back up and say this? So what's common to-- OK, so if I put up on the board here that if we have weak adjectival forms after *se/þæt/sēo*-- what was the other one? Genitive and genitive noun phrases, and then possessive adjectives.

All of those forms tend to tell us quite a bit about the noun that they modify. So for example *se,* we know that whatever noun it modifies is nominative singular masculine because that's the only thing that *se* can be, which means that the adjective itself doesn't have to give us as much information in order for us to be able to parse the sentence correctly, whereas if we lack any of that, then we need the strong adjective endings basically to help guide us as to what the correct-- what the case of the noun in question is.

And the reason that this comes up-- we see this come up, for example-- so remember that-- let's take a strong, masculine noun as an example. Remember that if you go back to 6.1, there's no difference in ending. There is no ending for the accusative singular masculine, which means that it looks exactly like the nominative singular masculine and could be either the subject or the direct object of the sentence.

The strong adjective endings basically help us out by indicating which of those it is. So if you take a look at the strong adjective endings on page 90, table 8.1, you see that the strong accusative singular masculine ending is *-ne.* And so that's going to help guide us as to what the noun itself is doing in the sentence.

This is what I meant, by the way, in saying that tables 5.3 and 5.4, The demonstrative pronouns and the third singular personal pronouns help give us a guide to what else is going on in other paradigms because, remember, *hine, þone,* those accusative singular masculine forms, that *-ne* of *hine* and *þone* is reproduced or evoked by the *-ne* of the accusative singular masculine strong adjectival form.

Similarly-- well, actually, the similarities are nicely highlighted on table 8.2, when they actually put the endings together with the adjective *gōd.* You can see *gōdne* is emphasized, is boldfaced because of that resemblance to *hine* and *þone.* And the others are as well.

You don't need to memorize any of these paradigms in the adjectives. You just need to be able to parse them appropriately when you're faced with them. One thing to emphasize here is that *-um* ending in the dative. We're already familiar with *-um* as a dative. But in nouns, it's been dative plural. *-um* can also be the dative singular masculine or neuter. So that's boldfaced in table 8.2. Really pay attention to that. That's actually number-- yeah, number 7 on the top of the third page of the handout.

What are the three possibilities about a given word that should occur to you upon seeing the *-um* ending? Dative, plural, adjective, or noun, but also dative singular strong adjective, all right? The weak adjective endings, where you just have a ton of *-an's,* that should remind you of the weak noun endings.

Top of page 92 just reinforces that you need to be alive to the fact of the dative singular masculine and neuter ending in *-um.* Remember it this way-- *-um* is always dative. And in nouns, it is always plural. In adjectives, it could be either, all right?

Comparative adjectives, which we actually came across last time with the serpent-- the serpent was *ġeapre.* These are created by adding R between the root syllable and the inflectional ending. And comparative adjectives are always weak regardless of those rules there. Some have I-mutation. But you don't need to worry too much about that.

Bottom of page-- or middle of page 94 rather, comparative adjectives sometimes cause problems for students who are not on the lookout for them or who confuse comparative R with the R of the feminine genitive or dative singular ending, *-re,* or the genitive plural *-ra.* Again, context should help here. Just remember that it's a possibility that that it be. It is possible that it be, to use the subjunctive, a comparative adjective.

The shift from *-ra* to *-er,* because this is how we typically indicate a comparative adjective, from *weak, weaker,* the way that these letters shift, this is called metathesis. And it happens actually a lot in Old English. I'll give other examples as we come across them.

Sometimes, in fact, so *brid* is the middle English word for *bird. Bird* is the middle English word for *woman.* And that's going to shift, too. And those are going to shift. *Bird*-- this is middle English. *Brid* is going to become *bird.* And *bird* is going to become *bride.* Just a little tidbit.

Finally, 8.5, the adjective in the noun phrase-- this is basically just reminding us that adjectival endings-- how do I put this? I think the most important thing to note here is just that strong adjectives are very, very, very helpful because they're much less ambiguous than almost any other form that you're going to run across in Old English. So just be on the lookout for them wherever you see them. All right. Any questions on all that?

I'm taking a look at what else from section 3 I should highlight. So we've already done numbers 1, 2, and 3. Number 4, "What two words can you expect to see serving as a relative pronoun? What is the difference between them?" The two possible words are *þe* and a form of *se/seo/þæt.* The former is indeclinable. The latter agrees in case and number with the role that it serves in the following clause. Number 5 we already did. That's the subjunctive. Number 6, what's unusual about the second and third person singular forms of Old English strong verbs?

AUDIENCE: [INAUDIBLE].

ARTHUR BAHR: Is the distinctiveness of these forms related to the vowel gradations that govern the strong verb classes? Answer? Turn the page. They display I-mutation, those forms. But this vowel shift is not related to the vowel gradations. So you can just say, I-mutation, no is enough on the exam, all right? We talked about number 7.

Oh, number 8, this is a good one. What are three possibilities about a given word that should occur to you upon seeing the *-an* ending? Infinitive, one of many weak noun forms, one of many weak adjective forms. And then number 9, *-ra* ending could be genitive plural, could be comparative adjective. These are not necessarily exclusive lists, by the way, but they are the most common and what I'm testing you on.

Number 10, I don't actually know that we have talked about this much. So many Old English prepositions can take both the dative and the accusative case. What's the semantic suggestion of using one as opposed to the other? This is actually a holdover from Latin-- well, I shouldn't say a holdover, but it's parallel to what we see in Latin and Greek. The dative implies rest or stability. The accusative implies motion or purpose.

So for example, if I say the word, in the very simple preposition prepositional phrase, *in the room,* if *in the room, room* is in the dative, it suggests that I'm just in the room, sitting put, staying put. If it's *in the room* and *room* is in the accusative, that would suggest "into the room," all right? You may want to change your translation depending on the case of the following noun.

What is a preterite present verb? We've just gone over that. You should be able to list four common ones. And then compound subjects, we're actually going to talk about that a little bit later. So I think that's the only part of section 3 that, at this point, we have not yet covered.