

[SQUEAKING] [RUSTLING] [CLICKING]

ARTHUR BAHR: If you didn't print out a copy of the magic sheet, one is going down for you. This is also posted to Canvas. So I encourage you to have this printed out and on your right hand, like metaphorically and literally, as you're working because it's-- oh, thanks-- because this is going to be-- this is going to be super critical and super helpful going forward.

And you're starting to-- now, you don't have to-- obviously, you don't have to memorize this all at the beginning of the semester. And in fact, much of this you don't have to memorize at all. But some of it, you do. And specifically, tables 5.3 and 5.4 from chapter 5 of Baker you will recognize as the personal pronouns-- sorry, as the demonstrative pronouns and the third person personal pronouns in the upper left of the sheet.

All right. So without further ado, let's turn to chapter 5 of Baker, page 41. So the personal pronouns, many of these-- I mean, Baker says optimistically, "You will find the personal pronouns easy to learn because of their resemblance in both form and usage to those of modern English." This is not, of course, universally true. But some of them are easier than others.

The first person pronouns on table 5.1 are pretty recognizable--*wē, ūs*-- you can hear those-- *īc, mē, mīn, mē*-- you can hear those pretty readily. One thing to note, as the lead-in to table 5.2, which is the second person pronouns-- Old English does not use singular *þū* as a familiar form the way that it will come to be in middle and early modern English, where there's a sharp distinction between the familiar *thou* and the polite or formal *you*.

That doesn't exist in Old English. There's no *tu-vous* distinction, as in French or in many other Indo-European languages-- *þū* is just singular, all right? *Ĝē*-- you can hear how that becomes *ye*. The plural *ēow* becomes *you*. *Ēower, your*. You can start to hear how those words will evolve.

Where it really gets important is table 5.3, the third person singular pronouns. Tables 5.3 and 5.4, as I said in the announcement-- by the way, so when I put announcements on Canvas and send messages to y'all, do you *actually* get them? Because they just go into the void.

Like back with Stellar, I would send an email. And I would get a copy of the email. And then it would be in my email. And everybody would reply. And I would know. OK, but you are getting these things? All right, excellent, because occasionally it feels like I'm just like yelping out into the chasm. But if I'm not, then that's great.

5.3 is arguably the most-- at the bottom of page 42, this is arguably the most important paradigm in the entirety of Old English grammar. The reason for that is because it offers-- both because these words show up all the time and also because the endings of the words form the-- well, they're not the basis. They offer a guide to many other pronoun and noun declensions.

And what I mean by that is that-- so for example, when you see *hine*, the masculine accusative singular, *hine*, which means him, that *-ne* ending is also going to be the accusative masculine singular ending of a lot of other pronouns and nouns. So the labor that you spend memorizing 5.3 and 5.4, which we'll get to in a moment, is labor saved when it comes to memorizing basically everything else. And that's why these tables are going to be drilled. You'll simply have to reproduce them on every single exam. So just learn them now. And you'll be all set.

Before we get to table 5-point-- oh, and then there are some helpful little repeated forms noted by Baker at the bottom of 42 and top of 43. So the neuter nominative and accusative singular forms are the same. Here, it's *hit*. Neuter and masculine genitive singular forms are the same. Neuter and masculine dative singular forms are the same. Feminine genitive and dative singular forms are the same.

And again, those similarities tend to-- you can't totally take it to the bank. But they tend to replicate across the other paradigms that you're going to learn. Notice that the plural-- unlike in many other languages, the plural is not differentiated by gender. So plural is just plural. And you don't have to worry about it beyond that.

Interesting little etymological detail-- so Baker says at the top of 43 that the third person plural pronouns may cause some difficulty at first because they don't start with þ or thorn the way that modern English counterparts do. That's because our modern English plural pronouns, like they, actually come from Old Norse.

So when the Scandinavians settled-- conquered, settled, whatever we want to call it-- parts of the north of England, their forms got adopted into English as the plurals. And that's why some of these look less familiar than you might expect.

Possessive adjectives on page 43-- a couple of important points here. So on the bottom of the page, we see that Baker says that the third person genitive pronouns are used as possessive adjectives. And these work like modern English possessives, in that they agree in gender and number with their antecedents, not the nouns that they modify.

So in the example here, *his hring*, the gender of *hring* is immaterial. The *his* means that it's a man, or at least a masculine-- grammatically masculine entity that owns the ring. So if it were her ring, it would be what? What's the genitive singular feminine?

AUDIENCE: *Hire.*

ARTHUR BAHR: *Hire.* Very good, *hire hring*. And that's the way it is in modern English, right? Those rules are reversed, however, when we get to the first and second person possessive adjectives. So if you talk about-- these words take their endings from the nouns that they modify, not their antecedents.

So what that means is that if you're ever talking about "my ship" in Old English, the form of the word "my" is going to be neuter because "ship" is neuter. It does not matter who owns the ship. It's going to be-- that form will be neuter. And the same is true of the second person as well.

So *mīnum scipe* in the dative, *þīnne wægn* in the accusative, *ēowru hors*, your horses. This is not going to be-- this will come to be normalized and naturalized the more you work with it. But it is important to recognize that *difference*. So to make the first and second person possessive adjectives strong adjective endings, which we'll get to in a moment, are added to the genitive pronoun forms.

These strong adjective endings are actually going to look very similar to the forms on table 5.4, which are the demonstrative pronouns. So turn to page 44 and take a look here at *se*, *þæt*, *sēo*. These words can mean any of *the*, *that*, and, in the plural, *those*.

And when you see the blank for instrumental forms under feminine and plural, that's because there is no instrumental form in the feminine and the plural. So when you reproduce this paradigm on your exams, which you will, make sure-- even though they don't have a little slash through it, make sure that you put some kind of empty set sign, or slash, or an NA, or something for the feminine and plural instrumental forms so that I know that you didn't just forget it. If you just leave it blank the way they do here, I'll take off.

So make sure that you indicate that there is no feminine or plural instrumental form. Other than that, you just have to reproduce exactly what's in this table. These are free points on every single exam. So just make sure you know them because they are so important everywhere else.

Now, when I said that 5.3-- the endings of 5.3 offer a guide to many other endings, you can see how that works if you compare 5.3 and 5.4. And it may be easier to do that on your magic sheet, since they're right next to each other-- the third person personal pronouns and the demonstrative pronouns.

You see that nominative *hē* is kind of evoked by the *se*. Similarly, *hine*, that *-ne*, you see *þone*, that *-ne*. So you know that is accusative singular masculine. Similarly, *him* in the dative singular masculine, *þām* in the dative singular masculine, that *-m* ending. So again, it's not precise. But as you're memorizing, start learning to pick up on these analogies between the paradigms. Any questions on this so far?

So I've said it before, I'll say it again. Just keep that magic sheet right at your either right hand or left hand. And just have it there until these are down cold and actually even beyond when they're down cold. You want this there. You want that there in every context basically, except an exam when I don't allow you to have it.

All right. Bottom of page 44, the dual-- so like ancient Greek and some other languages, Old English has not just a singular and a plural number, but also a dual, which is used specifically for-- to indicate two-ness. So "we two," "you two," "the two of us," that's how you would translate that.

Most of these, the dual pronouns have all-- they all fall out of the language by the time we get to middle English. So you probably won't recognize any of these. And you don't need to memorize them for exams. But you do need to be aware of them because they get used in poetry a fair bit when the poet wants to emphasize two-ness.

5.2.2, common spelling variants-- the most important of these and the only ones that you really need to remember-- well, the ones that will show up the most often are *hynē*, H-Y-N-E, for *hine*, H-I-N-E, and *hī*, H-I, or *hȳ*, H-Y for *hīe*, for the third person plural. So just don't get thrown off if you see a different-- if you see a spelling variant. Because remember, there's no such thing as standardized spelling in English until really the 1700s.

Interrogative pronouns, again, you'll want to be able to recognize, and same with indefinite pronouns, but you don't need to memorize them. We'll come back to mini-text A, which is Psalm 1, in a moment. All right, relative pronouns-- 5.5 is very, very important because there are three different ways that Old English can indicate the relative pronoun "that," or "which," or "who" really. One is the indeclinable particle *þe*, so relative pronoun. That says pronoun, even if it's not clear.

Three ways of indicating the relative pronoun-- one is the indeclinable particle *þe*. This is the easiest and nicest because it doesn't get declined. So it just means "which." What is the difference, by the way, between *þe* and *þē*? We know what this is. What's that? Yeah?

AUDIENCE: I think it's--

ARTHUR BAHR: Right.

AUDIENCE: Yeah, yeah. Second person singular dative.

ARTHUR BAHR: Or?

AUDIENCE: Or the accusative.

ARTHUR BAHR: Accusative, excellent, exactly. So this is "you," where we get *thee* from. This is the indeclinable relative pronoun, OK? So again, this is just one example of many where the long or the short mark-- well, the long mark or the absence of the long mark can make a huge difference in the meaning of the word, all right?

So one option for the relative pronoun is the indeclinable *þe*. Another is to use a form-- a form of *se/þæt/sēo*. And I'm just using *se* to indicate that whole battery of words. One is to use *se* and *þe*, in which case-- well, we'll get back to that. And then the other is just *se* on its own. This is most common in poetry. But you'll see it in prose as well.

The meaning of this does not change at all depending on which one of these options the poet or the author uses. But grammatically, it makes a pretty big difference because, if you turn the page to the top of 48, when a demonstrative is used, that *se/þæt/sēo* form of 5.4, table 5.4-- when a demonstrative is used, its case and number will usually be appropriate to the following adjective clause.

What that means in slightly less oblique terms-- what that means for our purposes is that its form is going to be determined by the function that it serves in the adjective clause itself, OK? So if we go back to the bottom of page 47, *Hē lifode* - I'm looking at the second example there-- *Hē lifode mid þām gode, þām þe hē ær þeowede*, "He lived with that God, whom he had earlier served." That *þām* is what case?

AUDIENCE: [INAUDIBLE]

AUDIENCE: Dative.

ARTHUR BAHR: Dative, exactly. That *þām* is dative because it's the object of the verb *þeowede* in the subsequent clause. And *þeowian*, that verb, takes the dative. This is one of those irregular or unusual verbs that takes a dative direct object rather than an accusative direct object. Similarly, the next example, *Danai þære ēa, sēo is irnende of norþdæle*, "the River Don, which flows from the north"--*sēo* is what case?

AUDIENCE: *Sēo* is nominative.

ARTHUR BAHR: Nominative, good. *Sēo* is nominative. And the reason for that is that that which is the subject of that clause, right? Which flows from the north. Demonstrative will agree. Now I'm back at the top of page 48. Sometimes, the demonstrative will agree with the word that the adjective clause modifies. So here, we have an example, which I'll read out loud: *Uton wē hine ēac biddan þæt hē ūs ġescylde wið grimnysse myssenlicra yfela and wīta þāra þe hē on middangeard sendeð for manna synnum*.

"Let us also entreat him that he shield us from the severity of various evils and punishments that he sends to the Earth because of men's sins." As Baker points out, relative pronoun *þāra þē* agrees with the genitive plural that is its antecedent. Technically, it should be-- because it's the object of the verb *sendeð*, "which he sends, that he sends to the Earth," technically, that should be what case, that *þāra*? Assuming that *sendan* is an [INAUDIBLE] verb.

AUDIENCE: Accusative.

ARTHUR BAHR: Accusative, exactly. And what would the plural accusative form be?

AUDIENCE: *þā*?

ARTHUR BAHR: *þā*, exactly. So theoretically, this should be *þā þe* instead of *þāra þe*. But there were so many accumulate genitive plurals that the author got caught up in [AUDIO OUT] and did it, quote unquote, "wrong." So just [AUDIO OUT] sometimes make grammar, quote unquote, "mistakes," which what we say or what we [INAUDIBLE] that have been set out. So too that was true in Old English. Just be aware of that.

[INAUDIBLE] uses reflexives more than we do. So we would never say *ic ondrēd mē*. We would never say "I was afraid myself." Or probably we wouldn't. But in Old English, they'll sometimes use a reflexive as an intensifier. So if it doesn't seem-- if it doesn't seem to make sense to translate it, it may be that you shouldn't translate it. And it just represents an intensifying effect, OK?

Reciprocal pronouns, like "each other" in modern English-- the most common way to do this in Old English is the second of the two options that is listed, *æġðer* and *ōðer*. So *æġðer hyra oðrum yfeles hogode*, "each of them intended harm to the other." So *oðrum* is in the dative because they intend the harm against-- so this would be a dative of disadvantage. They intend the harm toward the other. *Yfeles*, that *-es* ending is a classic--

AUDIENCE: Genitive.

ARTHUR BAHR: Genitive, exactly. So why on Earth is it genitive? Well, because *hogian* is an irregular verb that takes a genitive direct object. So just be on the lookout for that. If you see a form that doesn't make sense in context, check the verb to see what case it takes for its object. It's not that uncommon to have a dative or a genitive instead of accusative. Any questions on anything in chapter 5?

As I said in that announcement email that I'm reassured to know did go out into the world, it's a very small amount of pages, but they are super important. And tables 5.3 and 5.4 in particular, that's going to be about-- those tables alone are probably about 10% of every single exam you take. So just get them down cold, all right?