



VNIVERSITAT E VALÈNCIA

**Warfare as a catalyst for lexico-semantic  
change from late Old English to Middle English**

**A study of Norse and French influences on the semantic field of war**

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## **Abstract**

The aim of this dissertation is to analyse how warfare in medieval England served as a motor for the linguistic evolution of the English language, more specifically, how borrowings and semantic change affected the semantic field of [WAR]. Although vast literature has been devoted to language contact and its outcomes, this field of meaning has never been fully addressed before. We explore to what extent the Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest affected the language and this semantic field in particular. On similar lines, we also consider whether or not alliterative poetry played a key role in these linguistic changes. By means of a corpus-based study, we locate and extract the warfare vocabulary from the Old and Middle English texts dealing with this subject. Subsequently, a comparative analysis of the data obtained from both periods shows that this semantic domain suffers major changes, either in the form of borrowings or semantic shifts. Contrarily, the comparison of alliterative works versus French-rhymed works reveals that there is no direct correlation between the use of the alliterative verse and linguistic change. With this work we hope to contribute to prior research on other semantic fields bringing to light how war in medieval England was indeed a catalyst for the lexico-semantic change in the English language.

## **Keywords**

Historical Linguistics, Old English, Middle English, Old Norse, Latin, Old French, Anglo-Norman, language contact, multilingualism, code-switching, borrowings, semantic change, semantic field, war, Anglo-Saxon, Viking, Norman.

## List of Abbreviations

### Parts of speech:

adj.	adjective
adv.	adverb
n.	noun
v.	verb

### Languages:

AN	Anglo-Norman
CF	Central French
Lat.	Latin
ME	Middle English
OE	Old English
OF	Old French
ON	Old Norse
ONF	Old Northern French
PdE	Present-day English
Prov.	Provençal

### Old English texts:

ASCP	Anglo-Saxon Chronicle Poems
BBRUN	The Battle of Brunanburh
BEOW	Beowulf
BMALD	The Battle of Maldon
DEOR	Deor
FFRAG	the Finsburg Fragment
SLUPI	Sermo Lupi ad Anglos
WALD	Waldere
WIDS	Widsith

### Middle English texts:

HDANE	Havelock the Dane
KHORN	King Horn

LBRUT	Layamon's Brut
SGGK	Sir Gawain and the Green Knight
SORFEO	Sir Orfeo

Materials and Resources:

HTOED	Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary
MED	Middle English Dictionary
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
COMEET	Concordancer of Old and Middle English Epic Texts

Other relevant abbreviations

n.d.	no date
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## Chapter 1. Introduction

For any historian, *war* is most certainly an extremely meaningful word. Since the dawn of mankind, it has been present in all cultures as a means of evolution and progress but also as a harbinger of death and destruction. Much like fire, war has helped cultures to rise and fall under its power. But could it be avowed that war has also had the power to shape languages? Could war affect so drastically a language so as to elevate its status or eradicate it from existence? England, since its early days, has always been a bellicose land. The Roman, Anglo-Saxon and Viking invasions and the Norman Conquest are clear examples of how war contributed to shaping this country. A language is a tool for cultural transmission and, as such, it is directly influenced by the history of the culture it belongs to and, therefore, subject to the changes that this culture undergoes. Thus, the English language was never alien to the concept of *war*.

Considering the status of English in today's global linguistic landscape, anybody who does not know about the history of this language would probably find it hard to believe that, in previous stages, war doomed the English language to ostracism, away from the upper echelons of European society where languages grow and are enriched along with the many speakers that employ them. Baugh and Cable (2005) claim that after the Norman Conquest:

For 200 years [...], French remained the language of ordinary intercourse among the upper classes in England. At first those who spoke French were those of Norman origin, but soon through intermarriage and association with the ruling class numerous people of English extraction must have found it to their advantage to learn the new language, and before long the distinction between those who spoke French and those who spoke English was not ethnic but largely social. (Baugh and Cable 2005: 104)

Due to the aforementioned series of external factors (namely the Viking invasions and the Norman Conquest), the English language suffered its own Dark Ages between the 11th and 14th centuries. Today's global acceptance of this language and its status as the "world's lingua franca" make it very difficult to think that English could have reached such an endangering situation. Nevertheless, a look back at the history of English would reveal how the aforementioned factors affected the very same structure of the English language at all levels. For instance, although English belongs to the Germanic branch of Indo-European languages, just by conducting a simple comparative analysis we realise



how much the lexicon of the English language resembles that from other Romance languages. Let us take the following two headlines from the newspaper *The Guardian* as cases in point: “US considers sanctions against China over treatment of Uighurs” (*The Guardian*, Wednesday, 12 September 2018, by Lily Kuo), or “Skripal poisoning: suspects are civilians, not criminals, says Putin” (*The Guardian*, Wednesday, 12 September 2018, by Andrew Roth and Dan Sabbagh). In these examples, ignoring proper names, our search retrieves a total of 13 words, 6 of which (namely *considers*, *sanctions*, *treatment*, *suspects*, *civilians*, *criminals*) have cognates in Romance languages such as French, Spanish or Italian (see Table 1):

**Table 1.** Examples of cognates in some European Romance languages

<b>English</b>	<i>Considers</i>	<i>Sanctions</i>	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Suspects</i>	<i>Civilians</i>	<i>Criminals</i>
<b>French</b>	<i>Considère</i>	<i>Sanctions</i>	<i>Traitement</i>	<i>Suspects</i>	<i>Civils</i>	<i>Criminels</i>
<b>Spanish</b>	<i>Considera</i>	<i>Sanciones</i>	<i>Tratamiento</i>	<i>Sospechosos</i>	<i>Civiles</i>	<i>Criminales</i>
<b>Italian</b>	<i>Considera</i>	<i>Sanzioni</i>	<i>Trattamento</i>	<i>Sospetti</i>	<i>Civil</i>	<i>Criminali</i>

While some of the words in these headlines are of Germanic origin (such is the case of important verbs such as *are* or *says* or prepositions such as *against* and *over*), the rest of the words are of Romance origin. Even the case of *poisoning* can be arguable, since its root is a French noun which, according to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED hereafter) was later acquired a new use as a verb in Middle English through conversion (OED, s.v., *poison*, n.). As Skaffari (2009: 1) already exposes that Present-day English contains around 65-75% of words of either Scandinavian or Romance origin, but also another 15% of words from other languages. Conclusively, the resemblance between the cognates given above indicates that they are loanwords adopted from other languages at some point during the history of the English language.

Thus, for an inquiring mind, the logical questions that arise from this assumption are: when were all these loanwords incorporated and what were the causes. To provide an answer to these questions, we must then travel back to a specific era where the historical events that the Anglo-Saxons went through are, in truth, some of the most important in the history of their culture. After the legions of Britannia were withdrawn in defence of the Roman Empire, the first Angles, Saxons and Jutes who arrived in the practically unprotected British Isles settled there, mixing with their native peoples. There

they established a legacy of kings and kingdoms with their different dialects and variants of Anglo-Frisian arrived from the continent. By adopting the new terminological substrate that they found in a widely Romanised Britannia, the foundations of the language that today we call *English* were established, encompassed in linguistics under the name of *Old English*. Nonetheless, as mentioned above, for this language to survive and become the power that it represents in today's world's linguistic panorama, it had to overcome many difficulties. Specifically, there were two stages that should be highlighted and that can be established as turning points in the linguistic evolution of English, which ultimately gave rise to what today we call *Middle English*: The Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest. Therefore, the key element that set these fundamental events in motion was none other than war. As a result, the Anglo-Saxon language was subjected to drastic changes that would affect it at all levels and which facilitated, in turn, the transition from Old English to Middle English.

### **1.1. Motivations for conducting the study**

The vast contribution of the scientific community has widely demonstrated that the Middle Ages represent a period of far-reaching change throughout Europe. In England these changes affected not only society but also the language itself. During the Old English period, in spite of all the regional variation, West Saxon (i.e., the variety spoken in the kingdom of Alfred the Great) was the dominant dialect. Nevertheless, as Baugh and Cable (2005: 103-4) stated above, the relative stability that the linguistic panorama was experiencing suffered what we could call the period of maximum fragility due to the Norman Conquest in 1066

Therefore, French (and Latin) dominated all aspects of written transmission for over two centuries, and English had to resist ostracism to survive this interval as it became “an uncultivated tongue, the language of a socially inferior class” (Baugh and Cable 2005: 106). And it was not until the 13th century, when the interests of the English nobles in France ceased, that the vernacular began rising again.

A tangible proof of the above statement is largely represented by the literature from this period that has survived to this day. Although scarce during the 11th and 12th centuries and much of the 13th, the production of literary works written in the vernacular languages experienced a kind of revival in the late 13th-14th centuries. This is known in

English literature as the “Period of Great Individual Writers” (Baugh and Cable 2005: 144). Authors like William Langland or Chaucer brought English back to the status it held in the days of Alfred the Great or Aelfric of Eynsham in the Old English period. In addition, although anonymous, other important works helped enormously to achieve this status. For example, *the Alliterative Morte Arthure*, which (although published under a French title) represents one of the most famous works on Arthurian literature written in English; or the works by the Pearl (or Gawain) Poet, among which we find the poem *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, studied in this dissertation. These poems took up the traditional Anglo-Saxon method of alliterative poetry and adapted it to fit the standards that continental literature imposed in Europe. Unlike the final or French rhyme, the lexical demands of the alliterative verse required at least three alliterating stressed syllables throughout the verse, generally two in the first hemistich before the caesura and another one in the second hemistich, as we can observe in the extract below.

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
SIPEN þe sege and þe assaut watz sesed at Troye, þe borȝ brittened and brent to brondez and askez (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, lines 1-2)	When the siege and the assault had ceased at Troy, and the fortress fell in flame to firebrands and ashes (Tolkien 2006: 17)

Consequently, they are considered to be part of the *Alliterative Revival*, defined by Schiff (2011: 2) as “the dissemination of the theory that the Old English alliterative line re-emerged in a mid-14th-century Middle English literary ‘efflorescence’ practiced by a single, nativist ‘school’ that competed with French-influenced, syllabic poets associated with the English South”.

Although the influence of Scandinavian and French on the lexical stock of Middle English has received recurrent attention, “the expansion of the English lexis is not known in detail” (Skaffari 2009: 13). On similar lines, Dance (2003: 246) defends the need for a “careful analysis of the borrowed vocabulary found in individual manuscripts”. Thus, the debate also arises as to what type of vocabulary a study of these characteristics should focus on. Clough provides us with a clue to choosing the most suitable lexicon by saying that “the alliterative tradition encouraged linguistic diversity in its demand for alliterating variants. The poetry of the Alliterative Revival employs a distinctive vocabulary of its own; in general, its traditional style prefers elaboration and stylistic elevation to

simplicity and informality” (1985: 189-90). Therefore, what kind of vocabulary, then, was available for these authors to create these stylistic elaborate compositions? Could it be that the historical contribution of the different peoples who came to British soil to settle was in itself the source which these necessary elements in alliterative poetry arise from? Is it in the loanwords adopted from the languages of these settlers that we may find the semantic plurality of the concepts that are dealt with in these compositions?

On the one hand, we speak of the Scandinavian influence. As we will see in detail in Chapter 2, this influence had ceased to represent a direct source of loanwords for the English language in the period under study, since the great age of the Vikings had ended just before the Norman Conquest. Björkman (1969) already explained in this regard that:

We know no English literature, worth speaking of, written in the language of the parts of England where Scandinavian influence has proved to have been, in later times, of such great importance, dating earlier than the 13th century, and we cannot with any certainty ascertain how many Scandinavian loan-words were to be found in these dialects at different times before the 13th century. (Björkman 1969: 4)

Also, Bator (2006) comments that “out of 1500 Scandinavian loanwords found in the MED and the OED, 258 became obsolete in the 15th century” (2006: 285). She states that researchers generally attribute this fact to harsh opposition between foreign languages, and summarises the issue by suggesting that “obsolete words had an equivalent of French origin” (2006: 299). In this way we deduce that the time when we can find the vast majority of Scandinavian elements in the records of the English language is undoubtedly the one from the 12th to the 15th centuries.

On the other hand, we find the French influence. After the loss of the English territories in Northern France at the hands of King John I, French continued to strongly coexist with the vernacular within England. Although from the 13th century onwards it would virtually no longer be used for everyday matters, French remained as the language of any cultured and elevated aspect. Clough adds that “French, and particularly Anglo-Norman, culture dominates its subject matter and attitudes; hunting, court life, polite manners, chivalry and courtly love – to all these refinements of behaviour a Romance vocabulary was essential” (1985: 189). Therefore, we can also assume that the Middle English romances represent the corpus where we must look for this type of vocabulary. Conceivably the lexical richness that the alliterative poetry requires favoured the

appearance of other words, perhaps not so frequent, that accelerated and enlarged the creative work of the author.

Thus, considering the positions of the above renowned scholars (i.e., Björkman (1969), Clough (1985), Bator (2006) or Skaffari (2009)), we conclude that warfare in medieval England is a fresh topic and with enough potential to make a notable contribution to the scientific community. This research will provide a new approach to linguistic loans through the analysis of this propitious semantic field and will help to collect a new set of data that will give us a more detailed view of how the English lexicon was modified during this period.

## **1.2. Motivation for the choice of the field**

Certainly, asking ourselves which sector to analyse in this study was one of the main questions that arose in the initial stages of the dissertation. However, a comprehensive exploration of the existing literature on semantic studies in these periods made two ideas clear.

The first idea is that, in the last 20 years, there has been a notable increase in the number of works related to this line of research, covering a wide variety of topics. As we will see in Section 3.2.1 below, many authors have made their scientific contribution to the history of the English language by analysing different semantic fields or the problems that the comparison or evolution of a specific term implied. The second idea, which is derived from the previous one, is that these studies have not focused on a specific genre from those available in the periods studied. This left a very valuable niche to explore for future investigations.

Research on these periods shows how texts belonging to both heroic poetry and religion have been largely dealt with. Nonetheless, Anglo-Saxon poetry is characterised by the use of the alliterative verse. Consequently, due to its poetic requirements, this type of poetry provides a unique context for the appearance of a large variety of new lexicon. Therefore, the presence of compound words, such as *kennings* (i.e., *hronrāde*, in *Beowulf*, line 10), or loanwords is highly expected. For this reason, it is surprising that, although these lyrical works have been widely studied from other linguistic perspectives, no study

has (to the best of our knowledge) focused entirely on the analysis of the vocabulary that can be found within such a particular corpus.

Moreover, such a popular topic as *war* was throughout the Middle Ages, along with the sociocultural consequences it entails, provides in itself an ideal candidate for a study of these characteristics. Therefore, the lack of studies investigating this semantic field in depth from a diachronic perspective is undeniably surprising. In addition, as it will be explained in Chapter 2, a quick sweep over the nomenclature used to designate landowners and the various units that made up an army during the Middle Ages is enough to see that (even only within the Old English period) this vocabulary suffered enough changes so as to consider a complete study of this semantic field. Consequently, if we take into account that the leap between Old and Middle English represents a unique period of contact between cultures within Anglo-Saxon territory, a careful and detailed analysis of the evolution of that field should provide us with information just as unique about the behaviour of the language in this period and, even more specifically, as it relates to matters of war.

In this way, bearing in mind the ideas presented above, we decided to select the semantic field of war, firstly, because it has not been exhaustively studied under this approach and, secondly, because it is a key genre within the literatures from the Old and Middle English periods and, consequently, we believe it represents an exceptional contribution to the scientific community.

### **1.3. Initial hypothesis**

The different foreign cultures arriving in England were carriers of different weapons and techniques that, together with those of the Anglo-Saxon culture, created a specific semantic field in this multilingual context. For this reason, our initial hypothesis defends that, in the midst of this situation of linguistic contact, we will find a large incorporation of barbarisms fluctuating between these languages in contact. Specifically, we expect to find terms coming from the aforementioned foreign languages into the English language. As a consequence, we also hypothesise that Middle English will show a higher rate of warfare terminology than Old English as this period is comprised in between two decisive wars, that is the Battle of Hastings (which triggered the Norman Conquest) and the

Hundred Years' War (which meant the end of the Middle Ages in Britain and the transition to Modern English).

At this early point, it is important to highlight that the items that we find here are not necessarily part of the current lexical stock of the English language. Many of the terms which we encounter may have had a short lifespan in the language, or have never even been part of it. Furthermore, the presence of borrowings may have also led to a wave of semantic change affecting both native and foreign words. Altogether, we consider that the warlike events that took place in the early Middle Ages in England triggered the borrowing process and the semantic changes suffered by the vernacular, which in turn create an excellent linguistic situation for the study of such a specific semantic field.

#### **1.4. Objectives and research questions**

The focus of this study is mainly on warfare borrowings (particularly on loanwords and hybrids) present in the language during Middle English. To observe the impact these words had on the vernacular, a comparative analysis with the previous Old English lexicon is also necessary. The target lexis is that semantically related to any situations of warlike nature comprising, on the one hand, all equipment, tactical operations, locations and causes of any armed conflict and, on the other hand, the individuals involved in such hostile matters (as exposed in Chapter 2 below). The main languages considered are those spoken by the peoples settling in English soil during the early Middle Ages (namely, Vikings and Normans), although Latin, which was the language of education and religion, is also taken into account. These languages had a direct contact with the Anglo-Saxons and, thus, created multilingual contexts where code-switching, borrowings and semantic change were to be expected. As a result, these linguistic phenomena represent the theoretical framework this study is grounded on (Chapter 3). Accordingly, our objectives have a twofold nature: on the one hand, extrinsic, that is, those related to the context in which the study has been carried out, and, on the other, intrinsic, namely those directly related to the vocabulary from the texts and the conclusions we aim to extract.

As the main extrinsic objective, we seek to contribute to the scientific community by starting a new research line with the semantic field of [WAR],<sup>1</sup> which has never been

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<sup>1</sup> For the sake of clarity, we have decided to present the name of our semantic field in small caps and within brackets.

exhaustively reviewed before. Thus, our intention is to provide a new set of data to fill in this gap and complement previous studies in other semantic fields. Moreover, we aim to test the efficacy of the *Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth HTOED), which was released by Oxford University Press in 2009, in the words of Christian J. Kay, “to provide a research tool for people working in semantics and historical linguistics” (Hartmann, 2017: 87), and thus see how helpful this source can be in a study of this nature. Concretely, the online version of this dictionary will be used as the main source for information retrieval, and the results will be contrasted in other available and reliable online resources, such as the MED or the Bosworth-Toller dictionaries (see Chapter 4 for the complete list of dictionaries and tools used).

Regarding the intrinsic objectives, we believe that, due to linguistic contact, the advances in weaponry and the arts of war in the Middle Ages, a significant number of loans will make their way into the vernacular within the Middle English period. In this regard, the main intrinsic objective is to develop a diachronic study that aims to observe the evolution of the semantic field of [WAR] between the 9th and the 15th centuries, comprising most of the Late Old English period, as well as the entire Middle English period. Thereby, we will be able to observe and analyse the full timespan in which the vernacular received the influence of the Scandinavian and French languages, from the first Scandinavian incursions to the Hundred Year’s war, which marks end of the Middle Ages in England. Moreover, although the present study will focus on the lexicon found in Middle English texts, we must also examine the surviving literature of the Old English period in search for a solid basis with which to compare and contrast this semantic field. To that end, we have created an initial corpus comprising a comparable number of texts semantically related to warfare from Old and Middle English, so as to extract both the native and the borrowed lexicon (for a complete list of the texts analysed, see Section 4.1.2 below). With the help of the COMEET tool (which is explained in detail in Chapter 4) and the HTOED, the extracted vocabulary will be classified into different semantic subfields that will allow a more precise analysis and concrete results. Once this process is finalised, and in a complementary way, we will try to describe how the vocabulary of the vernacular behaves in the face of new additions and how it has been modified by contact between languages, situations of multilingualism, code-switching, the borrowing process or semantic change. More specifically, we will develop a careful and detailed lexical analysis to describe which words entered the English language from the invading



languages, which of them remained and which did not, in addition to analysing which words have replaced existing ones and which have been borrowed, contributing with concepts that did not previously exist in the vernacular (Chapters 5). Finally, all these data will be commented on alongside the conclusions of this study (Chapter 6).

To this end, a number of research questions (RQs) arise when the lexis of both periods is placed into contrast:

- RQ1. How did the socio-historical situation of England in the late Old English and early Middle English periods (i.e., language contact, multilingualism, or code alternation) contribute to shaping the lexicon of the semantic field of [WAR] in English?
- RQ2. How did the influx of words from other languages affect this particular semantic field in English?
- RQ3. Which processes of semantic change did native terms undergo from Old English to Middle English, and then from Middle English to Present-day English? Which percentage of our semantic field was affected by semantic change and which remained unaltered?
- RQ4. To what extent did alliterative poetry influence the adoption and use of loanwords?

The concerns these questions express will be present throughout the whole study. In this manner, we intend to keep track of the ideas that support our initial hypothesis as well as to offer key information that may help us to provide a final answer to the research questions above. Accordingly, this paper is organised as follows. Chapter 2 describes the historical factors that motivated language change in the period under study, whereas Chapter 3 offers the theoretical framework that comprises our research. Then, Chapter 4 considers the methodological procedures applied. In Chapter 5, the results are presented in different taxonomies for their proper interpretation. Finally, Chapter 6 presents the main conclusions extracted from the analysis of the results and offers possible complementary research topics derived from our conclusions.

## **Chapter 2. From the Viking invasions to the Norman Conquest: extralinguistic factors affecting the evolution of the English language**

The history of Great Britain is, without doubt, a history of invasions up until the eleventh century. Many peoples along history considered this territory worth fighting for, and each of these invaders left a permanent imprint on the language, ultimately shaping it into what we now call the English language. Consequently, war represented an important mechanism for language contact and the linguistic consequences that it entails. In order to set the historical basis that wrap our initial hypothesis, the sections that follow consider in detail, first, the context of these invasions and its influence upon the language from the Romanization of Britain in the 1st century BC until the Norman Conquest in 1066 in Section 2.1 and, then, the military organisation of each of these invaders in Section 2.2.

### **2.1. The history of the invasions in Great Britain**

This section presents, first, an introduction regarding the Roman and Anglo-Saxon periods (Section 2.1.1) and, then, considers the successive invasions of the British Isles by the Vikings (Section 2.1.2) to finish with the Norman Conquest (Section 2.1.6).

#### **2.1.1. *England before the 9th century***

The arrival of Vikings and Normans implied drastic changes in the course of events of Anglo-Saxon England that lasted for more than five centuries. Nevertheless, the history prior to these events was never peaceful and quiet.

After conquering Gaul back in the 1st century BC, Julius Caesar turned his eyes on the British Isles. Many incursions, battles and campaigns took place there ever since up until the fall of the Roman Empire in the 5th century AD. The Romans fought against Britons, Scots, and Picts for the supremacy over this land, and none would ever achieve it entirely. The conquered Roman territory was given the name of Britannia, albeit it was also known under other terms such as *Brita*, *Breton* or *Brites Islands*. It consisted of the main islands which, according to Michaletos (2008: 136), “[a]lmost all ancient writers referring to them placed these islands in the North-Western part of Europe [...] Britain at that time was often mentioned as ‘Albion’, whilst Ireland as ‘Hibernia’ or ‘Hernia’”. The advance of the Roman legions gave way to the organisation of the territory into provinces (see Figure 1 below). According to Ritari and Bergholm (2008), Britannia “was divided

by Diocletian into five separate provinces: Maxima Caesariensis in the southeast, Flavia Caesariensis in the east, Britannia Secunda in the north, Britannia Prima in the west” and “Valentia [...] in the far north” (2008: 194). Therefore, the term *Britannia* would finally be the name applied only to the Roman part, as opposed to *Caledonia* (present-day Scotland): “Caledonia did not play the role of a ‘sixth province’ of Britannia because Caledonia was not part of Roman Britain” (Ritari and Bergholm 2008: 194).

**Figure 1.** Roman Britain in AD 410<sup>2</sup>



At the end of the 4th century, the division of the Roman Empire and the fall of its western faction represented a turning point in the future of Europe. Such a great empire needed laws and disinterested people who lived by and for Rome. But the eternal power struggles, the rise of Christianity, and the constant Germanic incursions fuelled by the

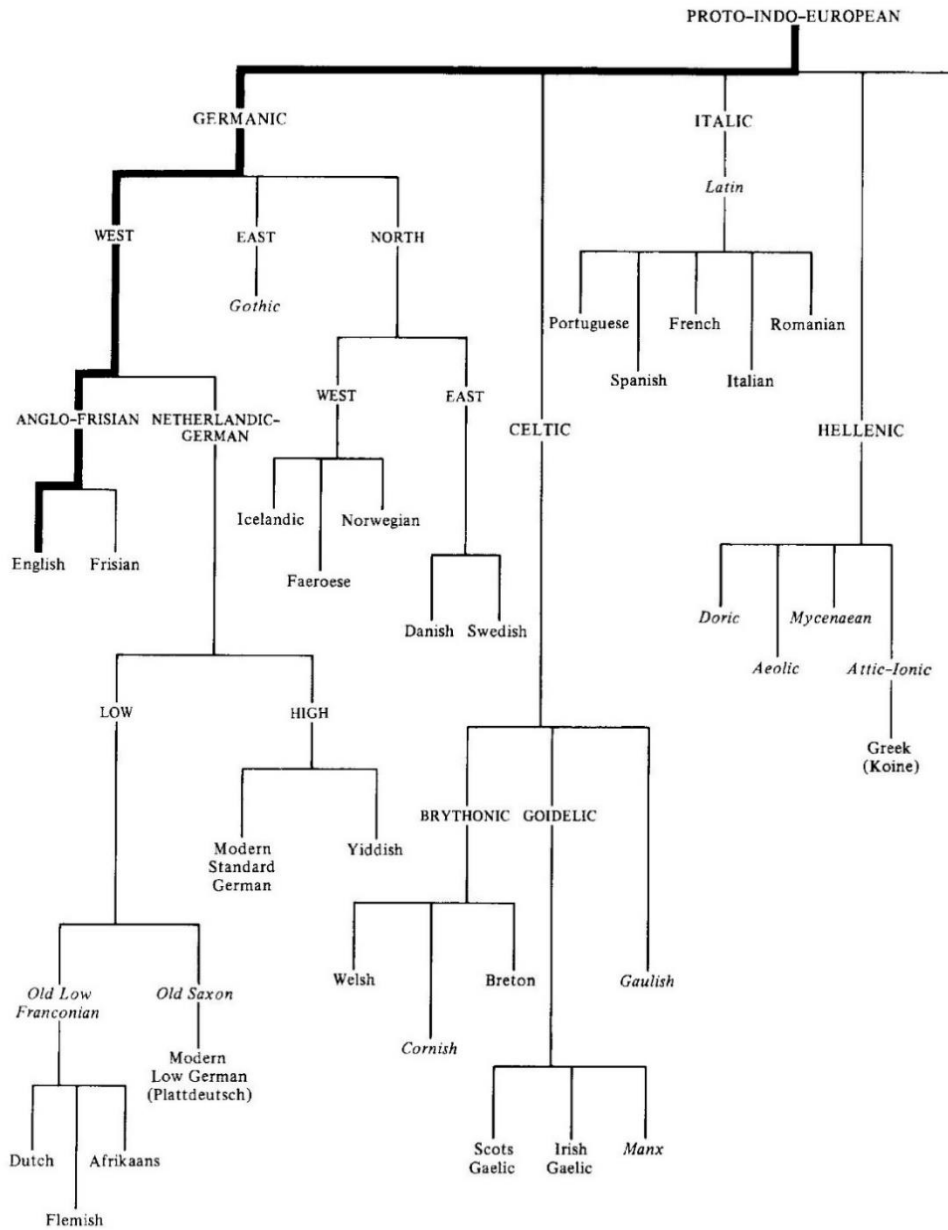
<sup>2</sup> Taken from <<http://mapsof.net/roman-empire/roman-britain-410>>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

arrival of the Huns from the steppes of present-day Russia plunged the empire into a series of civil wars and territorial divisions. These wore down the power and coffers of Rome, showing its political inefficiency, devastated its economy and weakened its army, which already included many mercenary soldiers of Germanic origin who were not subdued to Rome like the loyal legions of the past. Algeo and Butcher (2013: 85) state that “[t]he Roman forces in Britain in the late 4th century probably included some Angles and Saxons brought from the Continent”. The Roman infrastructure of territorial administration and military control was degraded until the borders could not be defended. In the early 5th century, the fractured Empire began losing regions at an alarming pace, until the very same capital was sacked in August 410 AD by the Visigoths, led by Alaric I.

Other Germanic peoples also expanded throughout Europe, such as the Swabians, Franks, Burgundians, Thuringians, Alemanni, Heruli, Rugians, Vandals, or Lombards, and, of course, the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. In his *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, Venerable Bede tells us that the Germanic tribes occupying the abandoned Roman Britannia were precisely these Jutes, Angles and Saxons. All three tribes came from northern Europe: The Jutes from the northern part of the Danish peninsula (Jutland), the Angles from the southern part, and the Saxons from present-day northern Germany. Furthermore, we know that Britannia was not an unfamiliar territory for these tribes, as Algeo and Butcher stated above, these expeditionary peoples were aware of the possibilities of such a fertile and sparsely populated land. Thus, Baugh and Cable (2005) assert that:

Britain had been exposed to attacks by the Saxons from as early as the fourth century. Even while the island was under Roman rule these attacks had become sufficiently serious to necessitate the appointment of an officer known as the Count of the Saxon Shore, whose duty it was to police the south-eastern coast. (Baugh and Cable 2005: 55)

It was these tribes who carried to the island the germ of what we know today as the Anglo-Saxon language. This language comes from an amalgam of the different varieties spoken by these peoples, all of them descending from a common West Germanic branch within the Indo-European family of languages. As can be seen in Figure 2 below, such amalgam received the named of Anglo-Frisian, which ultimately diverged into Anglo-Saxon, or Old English.

**Figure 2.** Germanic Branch of the Indo-European Languages<sup>3</sup>

According to Bede, the Germanic tribes arrived in Britannia in AD 449. However, this date is more referential than real, since many individuals from these tribes were already in Britannia. Following Algeo and Butcher (2013: 80), “[t]hey sent word to their Continental kinsmen and friends about the cowardice of the Britons and the fertility of the island; and in the course of the next hundred years or so, more and more Saxons, Angles, and Jutes arrived”. In this way, the arrival of these expeditionary peoples to the

<sup>3</sup> Taken from Algeo and Butcher (2013: 56).

unstable Britannia is wrapped in a veil of mystery and mythology, where any available writing that relates the events of the time is of doubtful veracity. In the words of Stenton (2001):

Between the end of the Roman government in Britain and the emergence of the earliest English Kingdoms there stretches a long period of which the history cannot be written. The men who played their parts in this obscurity are forgotten, or are little more than names with which the imagination of later centuries has dealt with. (Stenton 2001: 1)

Roman tradition dictates that Rome was not particularly inclined to record its defeats as closely as it did its victories. This, together with the collapse of the Empire, perhaps explains the lack of writings that support these theories. Only the hypotheses that are generated from archaeological sites seem to shed some light on this matter. Nonetheless, although the lack of data causes a historical vacuum that prevents us from knowing precisely the events that may have occurred, there is a fact that should not be disregarded in terms of literature: this particular “dark age” caused the birth of one of the most influential legends of our culture, namely the Arthurian legend.

It was the time when the stories of many famous characters associated with the current British culture were born: Hengest and Horsa, two Germanic brothers whose names both mean ‘horse’, were supposed to be the leaders of the first Jute settlers who arrived in the islands, and descendants by direct lineage from the Germanic supreme god Odin; or Vortigern, the theoretical Breton chieftain that hired the services of these Germanic mercenaries to usurp the throne of the Britons. Although, undoubtedly, the most worth-mentioning character is that of King Arthur. His uncertain existence has given rise to a whole series of stories and legends, thus, indisputably becoming a key element in the pop culture of our time. Arthur, Merlin, Excalibur, the knights of the Round Table, the Holy Grail and all the mythology that was elaborated around the figure of this Brythonic king over the following centuries generated a succession of songs and poems, produced mainly in France (and to a lesser extent in England), which were translated into all the languages of medieval Europe. Proof of that is “Sir Gawain and the Green Knight”, one of the poems analysed in detail in Chapter 5 below. This is the same Arthur mentioned by Geoffrey of Monmouth in his *Historia Regum Britanniae* (AD 1136), who fought against the Germanic invaders and established a British empire in the British Isles, of which nothing else has been documented empirically.

Regardless of the resistance Arthur and his followers could have presented against the Germanic incursions, in a matter of little more than half a century, the Roman province of Britannia (which had taken so much effort to establish) was flooded by waves of those Germanic tribes from the mainland that took over the island almost completely and made it their home. “The Germanic settlement comprised seven kingdoms, the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy [see Figure 3 below]: Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria—the last, the land north of the Humber estuary, being an amalgamation of two earlier kingdoms, Bernicia and Deira” (Algeo and Butcher 2013: 81).

**Figure 3.** Map of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms or Heptarchy (c.500 – c.900 AD)<sup>4</sup>



While it is true that, in the academic world, we refer to this era as the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy, it is nothing more than a convention to coin the period under Anglo-Saxon rule. The number of kingdoms was always changing and there was never a hegemony within them as a result of continued armed conflicts between the Germanic factions. For example, Algeo and Butcher affirm above that Northumbria was made up of two earlier kingdoms called Deira and Bernicia; or Mercia, which also represented a combination of settlements from different tribes that included territories such as *Lindisware* (‘Lindsay’),

<sup>4</sup> Taken from *Encyclopedia Britannica*, available at <[www.britannica.com/topic/Heptarchy](http://www.britannica.com/topic/Heptarchy)>, accessed on 28/02/21

*Middil Engle* (in the boggy region of the Fens) and *Cilternsæte* ('Chiltern'). Nonetheless, the "classic" distribution of these kingdoms does represent the struggle for power and territorial dominion that the chieftains or kings of these kingdoms carried out for centuries until the arrival of the Vikings at the end of the 8th century.

By Alfred the Great's time, regardless of being of Saxon, Angle or Jute ascendancy, all factions called their league *Englisc*, and *Angelcynn* to both themselves and their territory (Foot 1996: 29). Nevertheless, we do find a distinction in the Latin texts where we come across the terms *Angli* for its people and *Anglia* to refer to the occupied territory. However, it is not until the 11th century that Canute the Great is called for the first time "*Cyning to eall Angelcynnes*"<sup>5</sup> (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, AD 1017), and has been called that way ever since. Why England took its name in reference to the Angles and not the Saxons is an uncertain subject. Baugh and Cable (2005: 45) determine that it is due to "possibly a desire to avoid confusion with the Saxons who remained on the continent and the early supremacy of the Anglian kingdoms were the predominant factors in determining usage".

#### 2.1.1.1. *Latin influence on the language*

Until the fall of the Roman Empire, Britannia was one of the provinces under Roman govern and, consequently, the Roman law was recognised, the currency of the Empire used and Latin the language spoken in this land, as in any other part of the imperial territory for state affairs. But despite this, the Roman military presence was always a constant in the British territory due to the abundant revolts and native rebellions. A clear example was the Icenian uprising under the rule of their queen Boudica, "whose leadership of a revolt in AD 60/61 resulted in the burning of Camulodunum, Londinium, and Verulamium (modern Colchester, London, and near present-day St Albans, respectively)" (Gillespie 2018: 1). The constant threats of invasions, especially in the north (Scots) and southwest (Welsh) of the territory, caused the creation of an enormous infrastructure of roads and fortifications that facilitated the movement of troops throughout the territory under Roman rule. Proof of this are: the London Bridge, the paving of the road known today as Watling Street, as well as all the military camps, which later would become towns and cities and that would reach the direct borders with Wales

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<sup>5</sup> 'King over all the people of the Angles' (my translation).



or Caledonia. Thus, we find a great variety of place names that survive today and derive or contain elements from Latin, such as those cities and ports crossed by Watling Street: *Londinium* ('London'), *Dubris* ('Dover'), *Regulbium* ('Reculver'), *Portus Lemanis* ('Lympne'); derivatives of *castrum* (*chester* / *caster* / *cester*), 'camp', such as *Chester*, *Doncaster*, *Manchester*, *Gloucester*, *Leicester*, *Worcester*; derived from *vicus* (*wic* / *wick* / *wich* / *wych*), 'farm', such as *Gatwick*, *Wickham*, *Aldwych*, *Ipswich*, or *Norwich*, among others.

In the 2nd century AD, some native peoples from the north revolted against the Empire destroying the Roman garrisons of Eboracum (York). Thus, in AD 122, Emperor Hadrian ordered the construction of the extensive wall (from the Latin word *vallum*) that carries his name today. This construction ran the island from east to west (117 km) and served as the northern limit of Roman territory, some parts of which can still be visited today. The following years would pass with relative peace and the empire would be able to establish an administrative reform of the insular territory dividing the island into five provinces: *Britannia Prima*, *Britannia Secunda*, *Flavia Caesariensis*, *Maxima Caesariensis*, and *Valentia*.

Along with the Romanisation of the island, we find evidence of the use of Latin. In the passage below, Baugh and Cable (2005) explain that some sites with Latin inscriptions found throughout the island indicate the extensive use of this language. Although they add that:

Latin did not replace the Celtic language in Britain as it did in Gaul. Its use by native Britons was probably confined to members of the upper classes and some inhabitants of the cities and towns. [...] On the whole, there were certainly many people in Roman Britain who habitually spoke Latin or upon occasion could use it. But its use was not sufficiently widespread to cause it to survive, as the Celtic language survived, the upheaval of the Germanic invasions. Its use probably began to decline after 410, the approximate date at which the last of the Roman legions were officially withdrawn from the island. (Baugh and Cable 2005: 41)

In this way, and despite the fall of the Empire, we cannot deny that there was an important Roman influence in this territory during the four centuries of occupation that it lasted. Moreover, this influence was so profound that it is worth mentioning that we still find traces of that time in the everyday lexicon of the English language. Words like *butter*, *camp*, *cheese*, *copper*, *kitchen*, *mile*, *pound*, *sack*, *street*, *wall*, or *wine* were present in the island before the Germanic invasions, they survived such invasions, and they passed from

culture to culture practically unaltered up to the present-day. Nonetheless, this small but remarkable lexical contribution serves only as an introduction to the true history of the English language, which commenced with the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons.

With the arrival of Christianity, the building of churches and the creation of monasteries, Latin was heard on the island once again. The vast majority of terms that arrived during this new period of Latin influence was, as expected, of a religious nature. These new terms were borrowed along with the new ideas or concepts that they named. A small list of these words includes *abbot, altar, angel, anthem, ark, candle, canon, chalice, cleric, deacon, disciple, epistle, hymn, litany, martyr, mass, minster, noon, nun, offer, organ, pope, priest, psalm, psalter, relic, rule, shrine, stole, synod, temple, and tunic*. However, the church also influenced the daily life of Christians, in whose vocabulary we find words from semantic fields such as clothing, food, crops, or education among others. Some examples are *aloes, anchor, balsam, beet, cap, chest, circle, cook, elephant, giant, grammatic(al), lily, lobster, mallow, master, mat, meter, oyster, plant, pear, pine, place, purple, radish, sack, school, sock, silk, sponge, or verse*. Finally, hand in hand with the Benedictine reform, another wave of terms of a more cultured and literary nature arrived: *accent, alb, apostle, brief, camel, cancer, cedar, cell, cloister, collect, coriander, creed, cucumber, cypress, decline demon, figure, font, ginger history, idol, laurel, paper, paralysis, parsley plaster, prime, prophet, sabbath, scorpion, synagogue, term, tiger or title*.

As a result of the Christianisation of Britannia, about 450 Latinisms – not counting derivatives or onomastics – appeared in the vernacular during the Old English period. Although not all of them became fully assimilated, the incorporation of those terms that did remain was so complete that they became common productive words. For instance, the term *cook* (Latin *coquus*) entered the language as a noun, and today we find *cook* (a verb which even takes some prepositions and adverbs to form phrasal verbs), and derivatives like *cooked* (adjective) or *cooker* (noun).

### **2.1.2. *The Vikings***

Approaching the end of the Old English period we find what would be the third influence of a foreign language. This is none other than that of the Scandinavian people, namely the Vikings. These people were directly related to those first settlers from the continent

who established themselves in Britannia and transformed it into *Anglaland*, since they all belonged to the North Germanic culture. Let us remember that the Jutes and Angles came from the Jutland peninsula in present-day Denmark. The current name derives from *Denemarke* (*dene* ‘Danish’ and *mark* ‘border’). Therefore, it was the ancestors of the Danes who would sail to the British shores a few centuries later. The Vikings did not just raided England, but sailed all through the world. It was a period of Scandinavian expansion that led these people to places as distant as America or Africa, which we now call the “Viking Age”. Nonetheless, what concerns England is just one section within this expansion, which is comprehended between “the raid on Lindisfarne in 793 and [...] the Battle of Hastings in 1066” (Ferguson 2009: 3). We vulgarly group all these Scandinavian people under the term *Vikings*, defined by the OED as ‘[o]ne of those Scandinavian adventurers who practised piracy at sea, and committed depredations on land, in northern and western Europe from the 8th to the 11th century; sometimes in general use, a warlike pirate or sea-rover’ (OED, s.v. *Viking*, n.).

However, the Vikings were not socially distributed as a community, or even as a confederation of tribes. Each of these tribes was independent from the others and this is demonstrated in their history in which we see kings (or *jarls* in Old Norse) fighting for supremacy in their petty territories. The only time in which these tribes worked as a sole unit was under the premise of sailing in search of new territories in which to disembark, loot and return loaded with goods and treasures to their lands, where they would spend the winter waiting for a new raiding period. These expeditions lasted from the middle of the 8th until the beginning of the 11th century – the period known as the “Viking Age”. There existed two great facets of Vikings that expanded in all directions from Scandinavia (this territory was named by the Roman writer Pliny the Elder in the 1st century which included today’s Norway, Sweden and Denmark).

The first of these facets worth mentioning is represented by the Swedes (*svíar* in Old Norse). Their actions did not represent any direct influence on the history of the English language since these people focused their expansion towards eastern Europe, occupying territories from Finland and Russia, descending through the Urals and the Slavic countries, and reaching Constantinople in 839. There they would form, in the middle of the 10th century, the famous *Varangian guard*, who served under the orders of the Byzantine Empire, then they would found Novgorod in 859, and finally would take

control of Kiev, which would become the capital of the “Rus” of Kiev, predecessor of present-day Russia (hence its name), Belarus and Ukraine. It was the other faction that did represent a great influence on the English language. We are, thus, talking about the Danes (a term derived from the Latin word *dani* used by the Romans to describe the people from Scandinavia in general). It would be at the hands of this Viking facet that the Anglo-Saxons would suffer the same abuse that their ancestors imposed over the inhabitants of the former Britannia three centuries before.

Historians do not agree on the reasons that prompted Vikings to spread throughout Europe and beyond. After debating the topic, Barret (2008: 672) collects all postures and discusses them individually, arguing that “[c]ollectively, previous scholarship has considered the causes of the Viking Age in terms of one or more of the following”:

- Technological determinism (developments in sailing: warships, keel, sail, navigation, etc)
- Environmental determinism (favourable climatic conditions)
- Demographic determinism (‘population pressure’ favoured by climate)
- Economic determinism (the growth of urbanism and trade);
- Political determinism (the weakness of neighbouring empires and/or the centralisation of power within Scandinavia);
- Ideological determinism (honour and fate).

Whatever the motives, the Danes repeatedly reached English shores over several centuries in a series of incessant and catastrophic incursions for the Anglo-Saxons. Following the tradition of Germanic pillage, these people attacked accessible areas with their warships (either by sea or by rivers) in small skirmishes, took whatever was of interest to them and returned to sail to another point sharing both similar characteristics and fate. Although these incursions extended from the 8th to the 11th centuries, following Hindley (2006, n.p.a., Chapter 7), “[they] can be divided between the ‘First Viking Age’, from about 780 to about 900 and the ‘Second Viking Age’ from the 980s onwards”.

### 2.1.2.1. *First Viking Age*

The *normani* ('men of the north'), whom the Anglo-Saxons generally called *dani*, expanded to the northwest, where they settled in parts of north-eastern England (mostly in what would later become the Duchy of York) and in many of the islands of Scotland and Ireland from where they would continually launch attacks on English soil. They also colonised the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland and even some coastal areas of North America. The latter has brought many discussions among scholars, since for many years this belief was only based on the Vinland sagas, which narrate how the Vikings arrived from Greenland to Helluland, Markland and Vinland and "these lands, or at very least the last mentioned, can be identified with the North American continent" (Godfrey 1955: 35). Although according to recent archaeological findings in L'Anse aux Meadows (Canada), the sagas content can be supported. Wallace (2003: 10) states that "[t]he archaeology of the L'Anse aux Meadows site shows that many elements of the Vinland sagas are factual, in particular Erik's Saga's version of the settlement. The Norse did indeed have a northern base camp".

At the arrival of the first Viking raids, and despite the "minor" political differences that existed among the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, Ferguson (2009: 132-3) indicates that, although in his *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum* Bede affirmed "that an entity such as 'the English people' did indeed exist [,] [t]he reality was, however, that England at the start of the 9th century remained essentially a geographical notion. It was in no sense a 'united kingdom'". Therefore, the attack on Lindisfarne at the end of the 8th century has traditionally been regarded as a starting point for a period of depredations that would last until the middle of the 9th century without a united force defending the territory from them. The accurate annals of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* record, almost annually, cases of Viking appearances, reinforcing the belief that these incursions were, in fact, only seasonal; Vikings only travelled to England from spring to fall, spending winter in their homeland. Nevertheless, in the following years, the situation worsened for Anglo-Saxons. First, in 851, there was a large-scale arrival with 350 Viking ships entering the Thames, attacking London and already setting up camps for the winter. Later, in 865, came what would be called by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* itself as "the great heathen army." This was a glorious time of Viking heroes who became protagonists in the Scandinavian sagas, such as Ragnar Lodbrok, his supposed sons Ubba, Hvitserk or Ivar 'the boneless',

Halfdan or Guthrum, among others.<sup>6</sup> After years of skirmishes, the kings of the heptarchy had managed to keep the invaders at bay by paying an economic tribute called *danegeld* ('Danish gold') in exchange for peace. However, this remedy would not always be the solution, since, over the years, the Vikings were gaining ground from the locals, occupying more and more territory. Gradually, the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia and Essex fell under the Scandinavian yoke until only the kingdom of Wessex, which had absorbed the kingdoms of Sussex and Kent, prevailed.

It is in the midst of this political turbulence in Anglo-Saxon England that the figure of Alfred the Great of Wessex emerges. He is not only one of the most important historical figures of England, but also one of the most influential names in its politics and literature. It is worth highlighting the importance that his work as a lover of culture was reflected in the production and conservation of the texts and manuscripts of the time. Baugh and Cable (2005: 65) name him "the founder of the English prose". Still, his first years as ruler were not a time of literary production but of planning and reconstruction. The Danish incursions had destroyed multiple monasteries along with the works that these could house. Therefore, king Alfred established some measures to remedy this. Following the example of Charlemagne, he hired the services of scholars from other parts of the world (such as Wales or France) and created a school in the court where his children, the children of nobles and other students of lower classes would learn. With this, Alfred proposed that every free and young man in England who had the necessary means should turn to study. Primary education would be given in English and whoever wanted to advance in divine subjects would do so in Latin. Thanks to his military victories, Alfred managed to establish a peace treaty with the Viking leader Guthrum, known as "the Treaty of Wedmore", in which the Danes agreed to withdraw from Wessex. Still, as Baugh and Cable (2005: 87) explain "they [Danes] were not compelled to leave England. The treaty merely defined the line, running roughly from Chester to London, to the east of which the foreigners were henceforth to remain". This territory would receive the name of *Danelagu* (or Danelaw, 'the [land under] Danish law'). On the other hand, for the first time in history, Alfred was endowed with the title of 'King of the Angles and Saxons'. Likewise,

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<sup>6</sup> The impact and interest of these events in our culture is currently palpable through the many books and TV shows that reference them, such as for instance *Vikings*, or *The Last Kingdom* (likewise based on the novels by Bernard Cornwell *The Saxon Stories*).

the Anglo-Saxon soil became “united” under the house of Wessex. Alfred married Ethelwitha, daughter of king Æthelred I of Mercia (or rather Western Mercia, which was the part not occupied by the invaders), thus establishing blood ties between the last two Anglo-Saxon kingdoms left. He also established a series of defensive fortresses, called *burhs*, that gave mobility to his soldiers to defend the territory quickly, as well as a defensive line against possible attacks from the Danelaw. Figure 4 below illustrates how the Viking invaders arrived in the different parts of the British Isles.

**Figure 4.** England, Scotland and Ireland at the time of the Viking invasions<sup>7</sup>

However, the Treaty of Wedmore only represented an oral agreement between the leaders of both factions at that time, and was far from being a perpetual pact. The change of warlords in the Viking ranks also meant a change in the agreement. Although, after the death of Alfred, his son Edward I continued with his father's policy of constructing more *burhs* along the border with the Danelaw, this did not, by any means, stop the Viking incursions. From both East Anglia and Northumbria, the invaders continually launched

<sup>7</sup> Taken from Wise (1979: 21).



attacks in order to expand their territory. Notwithstanding, Edward's political and military strategies were sufficient to counter these attacks and subjugate much of the East Anglian territories under Wessex, such as the cities of London and Oxford and the lands surrounding Oxfordshire and Middlesex. In addition, he also annexed what was left of Mercia – until then under the control of his niece Elfwynn, daughter of Æthelflæd, whom he deposed, thus ending the independence of this kingdom.

But if there is a moment when we can speak of a total Anglo-Saxon hegemony over English soil, this is undoubtedly under the rule of Athelstan, Edward's first-born. More given to diplomacy than to war, Athelstan established a series of ties that would act both as tools to annex territories to his crown and as protection against future invasions. Following MacLean (2008):

The sequence began in c. 919 with the marriage of Eadgifu to the Carolingian king of west Francia, Charles the Straightforward (also known as 'the Simple') [...] In 926 Eadhild married Hugh the Great, 'duke of the Franks', [...] in 929-30 Edith was married to the future emperor Otto I, son of Henry I of east Francia; and at the same time or slightly later Edgiva wedded Louis, the brother of King Rudolf II of Burgundy. [...] a fifth [Edith of Polesworth] became the wife of Sihtric, Viking leader in Northumbria. (MacLean 2008: 1-2)

Furthermore, he sponsored several heirs of the noble families of the continent, such as Alan II, Duke of Brittany, his nephew Louis, from Western France, or Hakon, son of Harald I of Norway. Due to these strategies, Athelstan was able to become strong in his territory to the point that, after his victory in the battle of Brunanburh (narrated in the poem under the same name) he was recognised as absolute lord by the other independent kingdoms of Great Britain receiving the title of *Rex Totius Anglorum*, 'king of all England', until his death two years later. His legacy, despite minor military problems in the north, such as the ascension of Olaf III or Erik the Red as kings of Northumbria, represented the end of the first Viking wave and a time of relative peace that served to reform the church and strengthen the borders of England.

#### 2.1.2.2. *Second Viking wave*

This second period is marked by a series of events that led to the subsequent Norman Conquest in the year 1066. The Anglo-Saxon hegemony that had been established with the effort of the monarchs of the royal house of Wessex, such as Alfred, Edward or Athelstan, was collapsed by the mismanagement of their successors. If the end of the

previous period was immortalised in the poem collected by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, “The Battle of Brunanburh”, this new period of Viking raids begins in the same way. This time, it was depicted in the poem of *The Battle of Maldon*.

In 991, Olaf Tryggvason, future King of Norway, decides to reactivate the depredation of the English territories. Among all the incursions, the battle of Maldon<sup>8</sup> (where a nobleman named Byrhtnoth faced the invaders despite being greatly outnumbered) stands out. During these years, it became clear that King Etelred II, Athelstan’s grandson, lacked the necessary skills to face this new threat, being forced to pay the danegeld again to keep new looters at bay. Scragg (2006: 63) collects the figures provided by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which suggest “a steady upward progression as the Vikings realised the strength of their ability to extract tribute: £ 10,000 in 991, £ 16,000 in 994, £ 24,000 in 1002, £ 36,000 in 1007, and a massive £ 48,000 in 1012”. The exponential or repeated nature of these tributes caused the ruin of the coffers of the crown and won many enemies among the Anglo-Saxon nobility. This new wave of incursions was encouraged by the massacre of Saint Brice’s day on December 13, 1002, when Æthelred ordered the assassination of every person of Danish descent in England in order to demonstrate his strength. The results were not the expected. Ferguson (2009) adds:

Whether St Brice’s really was a full-scale massacre involving a great many unrecorded deaths or, as seems more likely, a localized ‘day of terror’, with a handful of high-profile victims [...] that was intended largely to frighten Anglo-Danes away from any thought of collaborating with the invaders, it had no deterrent effect on the Danes in Denmark. (Ferguson 2009: 330)

One of the victims was Princess Gunhild, the sister of King Sweyn I of Denmark, who saw in the death of his sister the perfect excuse to launch himself into the conquest of this territory. Thus, after a series of predations that lasted for more than a decade, Sweyn decided to invade the Anglo-Saxon territory in 1013. He first sailed to Northumbria, where he was instantly recognised as king. Then the nobles of the East Midlands did the same, and before long he had secured hostages in all the counties north of Watling Street. When he crossed this physical and political line and marched south, all the other counties were submitting without raising confrontations. Finally, only London resisted since Æthelred had castled there with his fleet, although the Wessex heir was

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<sup>8</sup>Maldon is a city in the county of Essex bathed by the Blackwater River, “Panga river” in the poem.

quick to acknowledge his defeat, and by Christmas 1013 he fled in exile with his family to Normandy.

After this important conquest, Sweyn was in command of England and established himself as one of the great Viking leaders of his time. However, fortune did not accompany him for a long time and he died just two months later in February 1014. Æthelred saw the opportunity to regain control of his kingdom and, invited by a group of Anglo-Saxon leaders, he was reinstated as the rightful king of England. He staged a fight against the forces of Sweyn, now under the command of his son Canute, and achieved a major victory in which he would annihilate his enemies and send Canute back to Denmark. Although Ferguson (2009: 334) indicates that “[p]assing Sandwich on his way back to Denmark he put ashore the hostages who had been given to his father, having cut their ears, noses and hands”, thus making clear his intention not to let the task his father had started fall on deaf ears.

Just a year later, Canute, nicknamed the Great, would return to England to continue his father’s legacy. However, after the death of Æthelred in April 1016, Canute found in the son of his enemy, Edmund, a worthy opponent. For months the battles took place throughout the island, making it clear that neither of the two leaders would give up their efforts. In this way, the contest ended in a draw when both agreed on establishing again the dividing line that Alfred had agreed with Guthrun almost two centuries before. Only the unexpected death of the young Edmund in November of the same year gave Canute complete sovereignty over England. Under his reign, that territory that had not rested from war in so many years would live in peace for more than two decades, being socially, politically and geographically unified. Stenton (2001: 399) adds: “[his reign] was so successful that contemporaries found little to say about it”. He re-established old laws and adopted new positions to ensure coexistence and the resolution of disputes between Scandinavians and Anglo-Saxons, reorganised the system of regions to unify them into four large provinces under the names of the last Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of the heptarchy (that is, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria) and appointed four earls to run them. In addition, he introduced a monetary system that was already in use in Norway, to unify the economy of its territories. We must not forget that, at his death in 1035, Canute was king of England, Norway, and Denmark.

Furthermore, he also showed great concerns for the church. He first converted to Christianity and married Æthelred's widow, Emma of Normandy, then he helped financially in the reconstruction of monasteries and churches destroyed by pagan invaders, and finally he established laws against pagan practices, such as the worship of the Germanic gods, the sun, or the moon, among others. Notwithstanding, one of the most remarkable events of Canute's work with the church was what Ferguson (2009: 342) calls "his most dramatic display of Christian pity", when he made a pilgrimage to Rome to attend the coronation of Emperor Conrad II of the Holy Roman Empire.

In short, Canute was respected by both sectors of his people, that is Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians, and so he earned the nickname "the Great". In the end, Canute completed the task begun by the sons of Ragnar with their "great heathen army", thus ending successfully the Viking invasions of England.

### 2.1.2.3. *Scandinavian influence on the language*

Much can be said of the impact that contact between Old English and Old Norse had during this long period. Gramley (2019) summarises the main linguistic consequences of this contact:

The two groups lived close together, and there was probably a fair amount of intermarriage. Indeed, genetic evidence (Sykes 2006; Sykes 2007; cf. Miller 2012: chap. 5) indicates that the Vikings usually came in male bands, which meant that they married women who were already there and were presumably English-speaking. So even if it is not clear whether the languages of the two groups were similar enough to be mutually comprehensible, there was sure to have been a fair amount of bilingualism (cf. Townend 2002, but called into question in Kastovsky 1992: 329). Indeed, the displacement of Danish is unthinkable without bilingualism, and sometimes a process of koinéization is postulated (Miller 2012: 91). Although Norse-language pockets continued to exist into the twelfth century, a renewed set of military incursions by the Danes did not reverse language shift to English. Yet, as Thomason and Kaufman say, "The Norse influence on English was pervasive, in the sense that its results are found in all parts of the language; but it was not deep except in the lexicon" (1988: 302). (Gramley 2019, n.p.a., Section 3.2)

Furthermore, the vast expanse of territory occupied by the Vikings already shows this influence, where hundreds of places bear Scandinavian names. Only in some parts of Yorkshire or Lincolnshire, over 75% of the place names are of Scandinavian origin. But, for example, throughout the country, we find about 600 place names with the root *-by*

(‘farm’ or ‘town’ in Danish) such as *Grimsby*, *Whitby*, *Derby*, *Rugby*, or *Thoresby*. We also find another 300 with the suffix *-thorpe* (‘village’) such as *Mablethorpe*, *Moorthorpe* or *Cleethorpes*, and as many with *-thwaite* (‘fraction of land’) as *Applethwaite*, *Braithwaite*, *Cowperthwaite*, *Langthwaite*, and *Satterthwaite*. These only represent a few examples relating to the geographical extent of the Viking impact, so it is easy to think that the two periods of Scandinavian influence could have provided a direct vocabulary base from which the English language could feed upon. However, only about twenty examples of words of Scandinavian origin have been recorded in Old English, mostly related to navigation and laws. For a valid explanation, we must bear in mind that although England is traditionally regarded as a consolidated state at the time of the Norman Conquest, it should not be forgotten that the country had been divided first by the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms and later by the Danelaw. This fact, together with the idea that the first Germanic settlers of the island also came from different territories in northern Europe, produced the vast dialectology that existed in this period. By the time England began to form as a state in Alfred’s time, and thus to continuously produce texts in the vernacular, the only dialect with the power to do so was none other than West Saxon. From this point, Winchester, the capital of Wessex, became the cradle of most of the texts that have survived to this day from that time. It should be noted that the Vikings never conquered this territory and, therefore, the Scandinavian influence on this dialect would be reduced to a minimum. In this regard, what we now call Old English may well be called West Saxon. According to Grant (2009):

The major sources of data on Old English represent West Saxon and Northumbrian (and to a lesser extent also the now extinct Kentish) varieties; they do not represent the linear ancestors of the major speech varieties which gave rise to Modern Standard English. (Old English as taught in universities, based though it is on West Saxon, has been provided with a standard spelling and morphology only since Henry Sweet’s work of the 1870s and is therefore something of an artefact.) This means that the East Midlands variety of Middle English which underlies Modern Standard English is all but unrepresented in our documents at the Old English level, since materials in Anglian Old English are not plentiful. (Grant 2009: 6)

Thus, in order to truly see the impact of the Viking language on the English language, we must wait, paradoxically, until the decline of West Saxon after the Norman Conquest. We must not forget that throughout the Danelaw, where the use of the West Saxon dialect was limited, the predominant language was Old Norse. Although as

Edmonds (2015: 39) indicates: “the Norse in the Danelaw was probably significantly “Anglicised” well before the Conquest”.

Likewise, Pons-Sanz (2015: 2) also assures that “[a]lbeit lower in number than Latin and especially French loans, the importance of the terms borrowed from Old Norse lies in their non-technical character”. Because the Vikings had established ordinary relations with the Anglo-Saxons, many everyday words found their way into the lexical stock of the vernacular. Baugh and Cable (2005) already provided an extensive study of the Scandinavian loanwords present in the English language, where they provided a clear explanation of the items introduced during the 10th and 11th centuries. In this way, as they explain, we find words from all grammatical categories:

- Nouns: *band, birth, booth, bull, calf (of leg), egg, fellow, gait, gap, guess, kid, leg, link, loan, race, root, scales, score, seat, sister, skin, skirt, sky, steak, tidings, trust, want, and window.*
- Adjectives: *awkward, flat, ill, loose, low, meek, odd, rotten, scant, seemly, sly, tight, and weak.*
- Adverbs: *aloft, athwart, aye (ever), or seemly.*
- Verbs: *bait, call, cast, clip, crave, crawl, die, gape, gasp, get, give, glitter, kindle, lift, nag, raise, rid, scare, screech, take, thrive, and thrust.*

It should be noted that even some forms of the verb *to be*, such as *are*, were adopted from Old Norse. Of equal value is the fact that some personal pronouns (the third-person plural *they*, to be precise) along with their declensions were also borrowed from this language. The familiar nature of these words shows how the base culture had assimilated the invader and, therefore, how united these cultures were within the territories where they coexisted. In this way, today we can find about 900 Scandinavian loans in the English language standard, although in some dialects of northern and eastern England, where the Scandinavian influence was greater, other elements of the same origin that have not been accepted into the standard are still in use (Baugh and Cable 2005: 90-5).

Finally, although the present study focuses on the loans of Scandinavian vocabulary in the English language, and therefore it is not absolutely relevant to it, we

must not forget either that the Scandinavian influence not only led to changes at the lexical level, but also in phonetics, morphology and syntax.

### 2.1.3. *The Normans*

The last of the relevant periods within our study is that of the Norman Conquest. If there is a period that really incites a substantial change in the English language this is, without any doubt, the one that this event gives way to, namely the leap between Old English and Middle English. Nonetheless, although we speak of an event that took place on an exact date, it can never be regarded as an overnight change, but as a transition that would last more than two centuries. Today, researchers cannot agree on where to fix the exact date that marks the change of period between Old English and Middle English, but either 1066 (the Battle of Hastings) or 1100 (the turn of the century) are commonly considered as the end of the period.

Unlike the Viking incursions, the Norman Conquest did not occur only because of the desire of a leader with pretensions to invade new territories. The reasons that led William, Duke of Normandy, to cross the English Channel were a series of circumstances that, as a climax, would end in the landing of Hastings on September 28, 1066.

#### 2.1.3.1. *Status quo between England and Normandy*

The ties that united the destinies of England and Normandy were numerous. Starting from the historical point of view, some of the Norsemen who left Scandinavia to embark on the expeditions (see Section 2.1.3 above) arrived in the mouth of the river Seine, in northern France. Under Rollo, and after years of pillage, these Vikings took over this territory and became so strong that they even managed to besiege Paris. To prevent the advance of the invaders, King Charles the Simple signed an agreement with Rollo by means of which these people were granted the right to settle in the county of Rouen in exchange of preventing more Viking attacks on the Frankish territory. That area would later become known as *Normandy*, or ‘the land of the North man’. In this way, the invaders who attacked England and those who took over Normandy came from the same place, a fact that fostered relations between the two territories for years to come.

In a medieval environment in which rulers continually sought to reinforce borders and secure their position among the European nobility, alliances through marriage were

a common practice. In his second marriage, Æthelred II married Emma of Normandy. From this marriage, Edward, the future king of England from 1043 to 1066, would be born. Also, during the reign of Sweyn, Æthelred had retired into exile to the lands of his wife, where his children grew up and the ties between the two territories grew probably tighter. In addition, according to *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, before Edward's death, he had acknowledged William II, Duke of Normandy, as heir to the English crown in a meeting between the two of them on English soil. The relationship between these two characters is unquestionable, since Edward had grown up in exile in the same house as William, and therefore, a distance relationship between them is also plausible. Nevertheless, many historians doubt that such a meeting would have taken place, since William was immersed in power struggles and consolidation of territories on the continent at that time, making his trip to England practically impossible. Stenton (2001) adds:

That he [Edward] carried this interest to the point of recognizing William as his heir is placed under serious doubt by the reiterated assertion of Norman writers that there was an occasion when he promised the kingdom to William. They do not agree among themselves about the date of the promise. It could not have been given in Edward's later years, when Harold, son of Godwin, dominated his court. But there is much to suggest that some recognition of the kind was an incident in the episode which is conveniently called the English revolution of 1051. (Stenton 2001: 561)

Lastly, from a geographical point of view (perhaps the least relevant but no less decisive) both regions were very close, which allowed the rapid transfer of troops from one territory to another through the English Channel, as well as a simultaneous government of both. Having secured his territories in France and seeing the geographical facilities of a possible campaign, William wanted to validate "Edward's will" and proclaimed himself heir to the crown of England, joining the dispute for the throne.

#### 2.1.3.2. *Contenders for the throne and the Norman Conquest*

AD 1066 was a fateful year for England. After a long period of stable growth under the governments of important figures such as Canute the Great and Edward the Confessor, England had been consolidated as a strong territory with a promising future. But everything changed with the death of Edward. Without direct descendants, his death left England without a legitimate heir and with many eyes that looked at England as an easy



prey. While the *witenagemót*,<sup>9</sup> the traditional Anglo-Saxon council of sages, had placed Harold Godwinson on the throne of England, several other contenders saw an opportunity to claim the throne for themselves. On the one hand, Tostig, brother of Harold Godwinson in exile in Flanders, assembled a small group of Flemish mercenaries to return to England and seize the crown. However, his campaign was disastrous and he ended up defeated and again exiled in Scotland, where he spent the summer gathering new forces. On the other hand, Harald III Hardrada, considered the last great Viking leader, had seized the throne of Norway in 1046. He annexed Orkney, Shetland and the Hebrides islands to his kingdom. He also returned to declare war on the Danes which did not come to fruition. Finally, in 1066, Harald “very much at the request of an insistent Tostig, [...] sailed to the Humber Estuary with a colossal fleet of up to 500 ships. His wars with Swein Estrithson the king of Denmark were getting him nowhere, and now would be the time he would take the English throne instead” (Hill 2012: 140). After initial victories in which the north of England surrendered to the new invaders, his forces ran into those of Harold in the small town of Stamford Bridge. There, the decisive battle between the English and the invaders took place on September 25, 1066, and it was there where both Tostig and Harald were defeated and killed in combat.

After the Battle of Stamford Bridge, Harold’s forces were decimated, exhausted, and worn out. Thus, the last contender, William, Duke of Normandy, came into play. An expert in battles and with knowledge of the ways of war that were displayed on the continent, William had all the pieces set to win this fight. If the English forces were worn out, they also erred on being an antiquated military organisation, where soldiers were basically infantry units, they did not use organised units of archers and, of course, they did not have cavalry units – for those who had one, the horse was only used to ride to the battlefield, but not to fight on it. Thus, three days after the victory at Stamford Bridge, on September 28, 1066, the Normans reached Hastings, where they waited for Harold while they secured their position there. The battle took place two weeks later, on October 14, and although the events that occurred are very diffuse, the battle lasted a single day and its tide would turn on the side of William after the death of Harold. This Norman victory

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<sup>9</sup> ‘The assembly of the witan, the national council of Anglo-Saxon times; transferred of modern parliaments or other deliberative assemblies.’ (OED, s.v. *witenagemot*, n.)

would end up signifying the utter conquest of the Anglo-Saxon territory, its subjugation to the French crown, and thus the end of the Old English period.

### 2.1.3.3. *French influence on the language*

To explain in detail how the French influence affected the English language from this point onwards, a separate study should be written. Nonetheless, it is necessary to emphasise certain aspects that are key in the evolution of the language towards the Middle English period.

Perhaps the most salient aspect of the French occupation is that, from the Norman Conquest until the resurgence of English as a language independent from mainland French, there is a period of about 200 years in which the use of Anglo-Saxon was reduced to a minimum. With the arrival of the Normans, the feudal system and the differentiation between states that was already taking shape on the continent were established in England. Not surprisingly, William brought with him a retinue of Norman nobles to hold high positions within the political landscape of England. These nobles, although mostly of Scandinavian descent, had already assimilated French as their language and therefore it was the language that they used to carry out their duties. In short, the upper class of England was completely transformed into a francophone class. Again, Baugh and Cable (2005) indicate that:

At first those who spoke French were those of Norman origin, but soon through intermarriage and association with the ruling class numerous people of English extraction must have found it to their advantage to learn the new language, and before long the distinction between those who spoke French and those who spoke English was not ethnic but largely social. (Baugh and Cable 2005: 103-4)

Although the lower classes still spoke English, they did not represent a significant majority for the propagation of this language, since most were illiterate or were not involved in situations in which the use of English was relevant. Since the Norman Conquest, England and the Duchy of Normandy were considered as a single political territory. Hence, being part of the French aristocracy, the rulers of England focused their interests more on what happened on the continent than on the internal affairs of the territory in which they were kings (spending, in most cases, more time in France than in England). Furthermore, until Edward IV's reign (1461-1483) none of his predecessors had bothered to seek a marriage of English origin. Apart from politics, another sector that

was affected by the Norman Conquest was the clergy. Along with the intrusion of French into Anglo-Saxon soil, “[i]n the period between the Norman Conquest and 1500, many Latin words having to do with religion appeared in English” (Algeo and Butcher 2013: 251), since it was *par excellence* the language of religion on the continent. For this reason, the writers of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, who were still writing in English, had to cease their activity in 1154, the *Peterborough Chronicle* being its last composition.

Even taking into account all these facts, there is no reason to think that there was a discriminated rejection of the English language by the Norman aristocracy. Over the years and after the emergence of the middle class, the need for communication between the estates made learning the language of the other party essential for the proliferation of business. In this situation of diglossia, French represented the H-code (see Section 3.1.2 for an explanation of the different status of languages in a situation of multilingualism), that is, the language of prestige. As a result, the middle class had to make the effort of learning French for necessity reasons (being the more advantageous of the two languages). Another fact that promoted bilingualism was the existence of mixed marriages between speakers of the two languages. Although high positions had been held by the Normans, this does not mean that wealthy English families disappeared. There were still a significant number of important families in England who owned vast territories and remained very influential even after the conquest. As a result, marriages between the Normans and these families were not at all frowned upon and were even frequent. Baugh and Cable (2005: 103-4) add that “soon through intermarriage and association with the ruling class numerous people of English extraction must have found it to their advantage to learn the new language, and before long the distinction between those who spoke French and those who spoke English was not ethnic but largely social”.

Given the levels to which the Norman culture had rooted within England, it is to be expected that the influence of French on the English language would have been of equal magnitude. One of the key concepts to analyse this impact is the traditional separation established in historical linguistics to refer to the period of French influence on the English language, which is divided into two clearly differentiated stages: Anglo-Norman and Central French. Hickey (n.d., para. 24) explains this division as follows:

The first period lasted from the invasion of 1066 to the loss of Normandy to England under King John in 1204. After this there is little or no direct influence

of French on English but the language remained fashionable and the practice of borrowing words from the continental language continued well into the 15th century. The Central French period can be taken to cease gradually with the introduction of printing at the end of the 15th century and the general resurgence in interest and status of English. (Hickey n.d., para. 24)

In short, in both subperiods French influence affected to a greater extent the lexicon of upper echelons, in which there was a greater Norman influence. Hickey (n.d., para. 18-28) exemplifies the vast influence of the French language in both periods by providing an extensive list of vocabulary divided into semantic fields.

- a) Geography: *country; coast; river; valley; lake; mountain; frontier; border; city; hamlet; village; estate.*
- b) Nobility titles: *emperor; duke; duchess; duchy; prince; count; countess; baron; squire; noble(man/woman); gentle(man/woman); dame; damsel*
- c) Community segments: *peasantry; people; subjects; burgesses; nobility; gentry; knighthood; chivalry.*
- d) Administration: *sovereign; crown; sceptre; ruler; power; policy; government; administration; court; office; chancery; treasury; parliament; counsel; administrator; governor; ambassador; warden; mayor; charter; seal; accord; agreement; covenant; treaty; alliance; curfew; duty; reign; civil; empire; nation; tyrant; oppression.*
- e) Legal terms: *justice; privilege; statute; ordinance; judge; chief; crime; fraud; trespass; transgression; accusation; coroner; plaintiff; defendant; client; claimant; executor; notary; process; appeal; bail; evidence; decree; divorce; exile; heir; heritage; prison; jail; dungeon; arrest; plead; punish; banish; treason; release.*
- f) Military terms: *peace; war; armour; artillery; fortress; host; army; warrior; archer; soldier; chief; captain; admiral; enemy; conqueror; victor; robber; expedition; resistance; banner; battle; besiege; destroy.*
- g) Ecclesiastic terms: *charity; chastity; chaplain; abbot; abbess; dean; friar; confessor; person/parson; preacher; evangelist; saint; fraternity; chapel; cloister; abbey; faith; bible; chapter; commandment; divine; service; prayer; sermon; absolution; procession; parish; baptise; praise; glorify.*

- h) Emotional estates: *ease; disease; joy; delight; felicity; grief; despair; distress; courage; folly; passion; desire; jealousy; ambition; arrogance; despite; disdain; malice; envy; avarice; certainty; doubt; enjoy; despise; furious.*
- i) Commerce and crafts: *barber; butcher; carpenter; carrier; draper; forester; fruiterer; grocer; mason; mercer; merchant; spacer; painter; tailor; victualler; apprentice; surgeon; physician; bargain; fair; merchandise; price; money; coin; dozen; double; measure; gallon; bushel; purchase; profit; pay; usury; debt; prosperity; barrel; bottle; basket; vessel.*
- j) Clothes and decoration: *blouse; chemise; cloak; coat; frock; garment; gown; robe; veil; cotton; fur; boot; ornament; brooch; jewel; pearl; button; scissors; brush; mirror; towel; carpet; curtain; blanket; couch; cushion; table; chair; fashion.*
- k) Food and cuisine: *boil; fry; roast; mince; dine; dinner; supper; appetite; flour; grease; sugar; spice; vinegar; bacon; victuals; lard, pork; beef; mutton; veal; venison; sausage; sauce; gravy; jelly; salad; juice; cabbage; cream; biscuit; fritter; cider; cucumber; onion.*
- l) Miscellaneous: *age; aid; affair; action; air; baggage; beauty; branch; cage; cable; cattle; chance; change; choice; company; consent; coward; couple; cry; cure; damage; danger; delay; demand; departure; difference; difficulty; error; example; exception; exercise; experience; face; fate; favour; fence; fool; force; foreign; fountain; guide; honour; labour; leisure; marriage; piece; pencil; possession; question; language; wages able; ancient; brief; certain; clear; considerable; cruel; different; difficult; easy; familiar; famous; favourable; feeble; faint; fine; general; gentle; glorious; poor; safe; sure achieve; arrive; appear; approve; approach; assemble; assist; attend; advertise; affirm; await; blame; catch; cancel; carry; cease; chase; cry; change; consent; consider; count; cover; demand; deny; depart; deserve; discover; disturb; finish; employ; encourage; enjoy; enter; excuse; escape; increase; examine; force; fail; form; grieve; marry; refuse; perish; suffer; paint; perform; propose; save; touch; travel; tremble.*

Although there are significant differences between those words incorporated in the Anglo-Norman period and those that entered the Central French period (mainly in terms of morphology and phonetics), there is no doubt that both varieties affected practically the same semantic fields.

When, in 1204, King John I definitively lost the territory of Normandy, along with many other territories on the continent – a fact that gave him the famous nickname of ‘lackland’–, England was once again isolated from the Continent. Although initially this situation did not favour the interests of the crown, it did mean an almost complete liberation for the language. The affairs of England would again be dealt with in English after almost two centuries subjugated to the French rule. English progressively became again the dominant language in the country, although the influence of the neighbouring Romance language would continue in some areas of the daily life of the English society until the 14th century. French would still continue to be the fashionable language throughout the old continent, maintaining its prestige and influencing not only English but also many other languages of Europe. Therefore, the variety that favoured this new wave of loans was no longer of Anglo-Norman origin. It was the dialect of the Paris area, called Central French, which would rule over all matters of interest: political, judicial, administrative, literary, artisanal or leisure and pleasure. New ideas arose in Paris and spread to neighbouring cultures offering all kinds of products coined in French. Thus, loans in the English language during this period numbered in the thousands. Some examples are *abbey*, *alliance*, *attire*, *defend*, *navy*, *march*, *dine*, *marriage*, *figure*, *plea*, *sacrifice*, *scarlet*, *spy*, *stable*, *virtue*, *marshal*, *esquire*, *retreat*, *park*, *reign*, *beauty*, *clergy*, *cloak*, *country*, *fool*, *coast*, *magic*, among many others.

One of the most remarkable characteristics of this double French influence is that it caused the appearance of pairs of words that had the same meaning in French, but when borrowed in two different periods and from two different varieties, they ended up being two different words in English. In this way, we find cases such as *catch* (Anglo-Norman) and *chase* (central French), both coming from the Latin *captiare*, which surprisingly also ended up as a direct loan from Latin as *capture*. The main differences between both varieties are represented by phonetic changes that ended up affecting their spelling. Hickey (n.d., para. 6) provides clear examples of these varieties (see Table 2 below):

**Table 2** Differences between Anglo-Norman and Central French phonetic variants in Italic origin loanwords (Hickey n.d., para. 6)

Anglo-Norman	Central French
/k/	/tʃ/
<i>cattle</i> /k-/	<i>chattels</i> /tʃ/
<i>pocket</i> /-k-/	<i>poach</i> /tʃ/
/tʃ/	/s/
<i>catch</i> /-tʃ/	<i>chase</i> /-s/
<i>launch</i> /-ntʃ/	<i>lance</i> /-ns/
<i>pinch</i> /-ntʃ/	<i>pincers</i> /-ns-/
/ei/	/oi/
<i>convey</i>	<i>convoy</i>
<i>display</i>	<i>deploy</i>

A particularly curious case is that of Germanic loanwords already existing in French at the time of the Norman Conquest. Some of them found their way into English in both the Anglo-Norman and Central French variants as displayed in Table 3 below (Hickey n.d., para. 9):

**Table 3** Differences between Anglo-Norman and Central French phonology in Germanic origin loanwords (Hickey n.d., para. 9)

Anglo-Norman	Central French
/w/	/g/
<i>war</i> /w-/	Mod.Fr. <i>guerre</i> /g/
<i>warranty</i> /w-/	<i>guarantee</i> /g/
<i>warden</i> /w-/	<i>guardian</i> /g-/
<i>reward</i> /-w-/	<i>regard</i> /-g/
<i>waste</i> /w-/	Mod.Fr. <i>gâter</i> ‘spoil’

Another major lending focus was, again, Latin. Although some words came through French, others were directly borrowed, not from classical Latin, but from medieval Latin or ecclesiastical Latin, which during this period was largely connected with matters of religion, law, medicine or literature, among others. Some examples are *scripture*, *collect*, *meditation*, *immortal*, *oriental*, *client*, *adjacent*, *combine*, *expedition*, *moderate*, *nervous*, *private*, *popular*, *picture*, *legal*, *legitimate*, *testimony*, *prosecute*, *pauper*, *contradiction*, *history*, *library*, *comet*, *solar*, *recipe*, *scribe*, *scripture*, *tolerance*, *imaginary*, *infinite*, *index*, *intellect*, *magnify* or *genius* (Hickey n.d., para. 4).

It was not until the arrival of the printing press at the hands of William Caxton at the end of the 15th century that the mass production of texts written in English began. Caxton, who embarked on this task purely for business reasons, was not aware of how incredibly important his contribution was to the English culture and language, since the arrival of the printing press led to the complete resurgence of this language. All the changes that English had gone through due to continuous influences of foreign cultures were left behind. However, it should be noted that it is precisely all this amalgam of cultures and influences that has allowed the vernacular to be so versatile and rich in vocabulary. As a consequence, it is precisely this incessant state of military conflicts that represents the main reason why this research is carried out, wanting to demonstrate in this particular way in which the semantic field of [WAR] was enriched from this experience.

## **2.2. Military organisation in Great Britain: From Romans to Normans**

Section 2.1 above was devoted to the panoramic overview of the different peoples which invaded England from 1st century AD up to AD 1066. These different peoples brought with them their particular art of war, with their weapons, tactics, stratagems, and military organisation. These would eventually help to shape England's own nobility and military ranks. We must bear in mind that, at this time, the aristocracy had an important military role. As a result, many of the terms referred to these ranks suffered modifications in the form of incorporations or semantic shifts due to the influence of the invading cultures. In this regard, Table 4 below presents evidence of borrowings and semantic change just by observing the different designations of rank degrees in the armies of each period (which will be addressed in detail in the sections below).



**Table 4.** Evolution of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and military ranks from Old to Middle English (data extracted from the lexicon of our corpus)<sup>10</sup>

RANK/PERIOD		EARLY OLD ENGLISH	LATE OLD ENGLISH		MIDDLE ENGLISH	
		ANGLO-SAXON	ANGLO-SAXON	OLD NORSE	ENGLISH	FRENCH PERIOD
Sovereign		cynning >	=	-	=king	
		hlaford >	=	-	=lord	
Prince		æðeling >	=	-	=atheling	prince
Chieftain (nobles under king)		ealdorman >	eorl	-	-	duk
			scirgerefa	-	=sheriff	-
Retainer (Militia)	high rank	eorl >	=	jarl	=earl	marquis
		gesith >	ðegn	ðegn	=theyn	-
		huscarl >	=	huskarl	-	-
	middle rank	duguð > (veteran>noble)	ðegn	ðegn	=theyn	count
low rank	geoguð > (young)	=	dreng	=drench	baroun	
Free man		ceorl	=	-	=churl	-
Slave		þeow	=	þrall	=	villein

The remainder of this section discusses the different warfare terms provided in Table 4 above and presents their evolution over time. The first subsection is thus devoted to the Roman period (Section 2.1.1), followed by the Anglo-Saxon settlement (Section 2.1.2), then the Viking Age (Section 2.1.3) and ending with the Norman Conquest (Section 2.1.4).

### 2.2.1. Roman period (AD 43 – 411)

While the Romanisation of Britannia had important consequences for the subsequent settlement and development of the Anglo-Saxon culture, it is not necessary to elaborate much on how Roman armies were organised militarily. It is important, though, to see at

<sup>10</sup> The symbol “=” in Table 4 indicates that there is no attested lexical change in the following period, whereas the symbol “-” indicates that there is no attested word for this rank in the pertinent language.

consequences it had in the future of the events that occurred in England and how it led to the arrival of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the island.

As explained in Section 2.1.1, just before the fall of the Roman Empire and the removal of the British legions from the island, the Roman territory was divided into five provinces: Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Flavia Caesariensis, Maxima Caesariensis and Valentia. At the same time, a defence system was created throughout the Roman territory to maintain security and defend against possible invasions. We speak, on the one hand, of the walls of Hadrian and Antoninus, which were built to prevent the incursions of the Scots and Picts from the north and which delimited the province of Valentia. On the other hand, the Saxon Shore, which consisted of a series of fortifications on both sides of the English Channel intended to defend the territory from the passage of Saxon and Frankish pirates (see Figure 5 below).

**Figure 5.** The Late Roman fortifications of the Saxon Shore in Britain and northern France<sup>11</sup>



<sup>11</sup> Taken from <<http://www.stedmundsburychronicle.co.uk/Chronicle/700bc-410pics/saxonshore.jpg>>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

This was but a reflection of Roman military evolution. At the beginning, Roman military units were very homogeneous and well regulated. The bulk of the army consisted of Roman heavy infantry units, that is, the legions. Occasionally, there were also the services of allied troops made up of non-Roman citizens: the *auxilia*, or auxiliary troops, and they could perform different functions of varied nature, such as light infantry or cavalry units. However, as the Empire expanded, the need for this type of troops was also on the rise as they were necessary to cover the defence of such a vast territory. In the years before the fall of the Empire, many of these auxiliary units were already made up of Frank and Saxon mercenaries. They had even been officially recognised as *foederati* ('an ally bound by treaty', OED, s.v. *federate*, adj. and n., B.1) of the Empire. Johnson (2017: 84) speaks of these units in a positive way arguing that "[f]or the Saxon who settled on the British coast, being a foederati was more than an income. It was a chance to live within the empire. They realised that they would never become Roman themselves but they could hope that their children did".

Nevertheless, far from being a help for Rome, these federated tribes were gaining power and independence in the face of mismanagement and internal disputes for the position of the emperor, which ultimately led to the collapse of the Roman government. In this way, the traditionally effective Roman military organisation, with its preparatory manoeuvres, the orderly disposition of its troops, and its meticulous tactics in battle were of very little use at a time when the government did not know how to manage its internal crisis and ended up collapsing in almost all their fronts at the same time. In Britannia the situation was not different. After the withdrawal of three legions that defended that territory, the incursions of Picts, Scots and other peoples became more notable. Thus, after the refusal of Rome to send troops to help them, the Britons who lived there - following the Roman tradition - recruited Saxon troops as *foederati* to stop the incursions. However, after a few victories against the Celtic tribes, the Saxons began to demand better conditions which, when they were not met, caused a growing tension between the Britons and the Saxons. Apparently, as Sancho-Gómez (2017: 135) explains, this tension eventually led to a Saxon rebellion: "There was looting, great deaths and also epidemics. It is believed that the Saxons (or at least some of them) returned to their homes, laden with loot, and surely also spreading news about the existence of rich and fertile lands,

almost defenceless” (my translation).<sup>12</sup> Thus, it is clear that, although not in a direct way, the Roman military organisation (or rather its decadence) led to the arrival of the Saxons in British lands, thus planting the seed that years later would give rise to the birth of the English nation.

### 2.2.2. *Anglo-Saxon period (AD 411 – 1066)*

Perhaps speaking of military organisation in the early years of this period may not be the most correct definition since, compared to the legions of the Roman Empire, the Germanic tribes were not precisely characterised by representing a contingent of ordered troops and highly elaborated military tactics. However, we do find a certain hierarchical distribution accepted and respected by most of the tribes.

It must be borne in mind that, for the Germanic tribes, death on the battlefield was the most dignified kind of death as it opened the gates of Valhalla<sup>13</sup> to fight in the Ragnarok<sup>14</sup> alongside Odin, Thor and other famous warriors from their mythology. This was reflected both in their eagerness to lead expeditions to seek for new territories and in their fierce behaviour in the battlefield. Price (1968: 438) explains that “[t]he warriors had to pass hazardous initiation rites, follow strict rules, maintain a high standard of military performance, and undertake all this as a religious obligation”. The first Saxon troops to settle in Britannia were organised into infantry companies, or warbands, led by a chieftain, or warlord, that was not necessarily a ruler in practice:

There was no central government, no sense of allegiance to a common state, but different clans were led by a chieftain. As reported by Tacitus, each tribe was governed by a chosen rex (king) who was more a dux bellorum (gang leader or a chieftain) with limited power than a proper sovereign. The emphasis was on companionship, and chiefs were chosen for strength and skill, not for their subtlety or political acumen. Cohesion of the tribe existed by bonds of tradition, by common upbringing between warriors, and was maintained by personal loyalties,

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<sup>12</sup> Hubo saqueos, se produjo gran mortandad y también epidemias. Se cree que los sajones (o al menos algunos de ellos) regresaron a sus hogares, cargados de botín, y a buen seguro propagando también noticias sobre la existencia de tierras ricas y fértiles, casi indefensas. (Sancho-Gomez 2017:135)

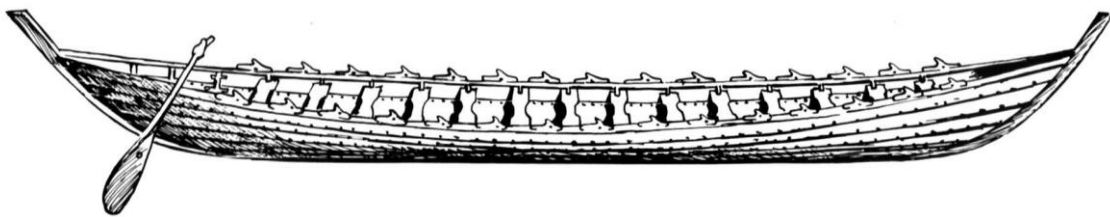
<sup>13</sup> Old Norse: *Valhöll* ‘hall of the slain’. It is a legendary hall located in Asgard, where those who die in combat prepare to aid Odin during the events of Ragnarök.

<sup>14</sup> Norse myth of the doomsday. It is a series of events, ending in a great battle that will reshape the world.

ties of kinship, and devotion between the chief and his group of warriors. (Lepage 2005: 12)

In addition, the word *lord* comes from Old English *hlaford* (OED, s.v. *lord*, n. and int.). Therefore, a lord was someone who could afford to feed and maintain followers of his own. When on sailing expeditions, these companies of warriors consisted of a minimum of 30 men, which was equivalent to the crew of one of their ships (see Figure 6 below for an illustration of a typical Saxon boat).

**Figure 6.** Saxon boat from c. AD 400 in Jutland<sup>15</sup>



In this way, an army comprised around 200 to 600 men. Within the army, warriors were classified into three classes. First, the *gedriht*, or the leader's personal guard, made up of the *gesið*, those who had sworn allegiance to the leader. This body was not very numerous, although they used to be well equipped, as we can observe in Figure 7 below. They used *helm* ('helmet') (1) and *byrne* ('chain mails') (2) for protection; their main weapon would be a typical Saxon *gár* ('spear') (3) with an *asc* ('ash shaft') (4), and many even carried a long sword (*swerd*) (6). The bulk of the company were the *geoguð* or young warriors, who could carry a shield (*scild*) (5), spear and a dagger or *seax* ('short single-edged sword') (7). Finally, the *guguð*, were war veterans who already enjoyed a certain status within the company. These wore the same equipment as the *geoguð*, although they could sometimes act as an outpost troop carrying bows (*boga*) or slings (*liðera*). Within the bulk, their function was very important, as they provided stability with their combat experience and prevented the dissolution of the company in difficult moments of the battle.

<sup>15</sup> Taken from Wise (1979: 4).

**Figure 7.** Anglo-Saxon Warrior<sup>16</sup>

During the first years of Anglo-Saxon settlement on the island, this organisation underwent few, but quite significant, modifications. It no longer responded to the model of a body of looters, but to a people settled in lands that needed protection. We find here the dichotomy between the *fyrð* and the *here*. Both terms mean ‘army’, although researchers cannot agree on whether they are absolute synonyms or not. According to Hill (2012: 39), “[t]he contexts in which the words *here* and *fyrð* are used in the contemporary texts tend to point the Anglo-Saxon *fyrð* being a defensive type of army and the *here* being an offensive kind”. Nonetheless, both bodies, regardless of their nature, were made up of the same elements. The army was formed by a system of levies that responded to the call to arms of a particular landowner and was made up of two sectors: the *Great Fyrð*, (or bulk of the army) composed of all those subject to a landowner, and the *Select Fyrð*, (or select group) made up of landowners.

The territorial organisation played a fundamental role in the formation of an army since it was the official way to recruit soldiers. Thus, the figure of landowner could be represented by the *cyning* (‘king’) or anyone who had received lands from him. Those veterans of the looting gangs, the *duguð*, would have received land for their services

<sup>16</sup> Taken from Williams (2017: 17).

becoming landowners themselves. Likewise, they could have other people in their charge. Later, the term *duguð* would be replaced by that of *thegn*. Any *thegn* with enough land to form a *scir* ('shire') was called an *ealdorman*, which, in turn, would be replaced by the term *scirgerefa* ('sheriff'). Therefore, depending on the amount of land a *thegn* had, it had to contribute a certain number of soldiers to the *fyrð*. Following Longman (1863: 31), "[t]he land was also divided into hides, tithings and hundreds. A hide contained about 120 acres [approximately 49 hectares] and supported by a free family. Ten such free families constituted a tithing and ten or twelve such tithings constituted a hundred". The number of hundreds that made up a region depended to a large extent on the fertility of the land or its location. The defensive system of England fed from this land division system. Whereas the law stated that each landowner had to provide one man for each hide he had in order to garrison the *burhs*, "Fyrð service was more often on a selective basis, with one man serving from each 5 hides of land" (Heath 2015: 65). Failure to comply with the requirements established by this law resulted in the payment of an economic sanction that also varied depending on the size of the estate.

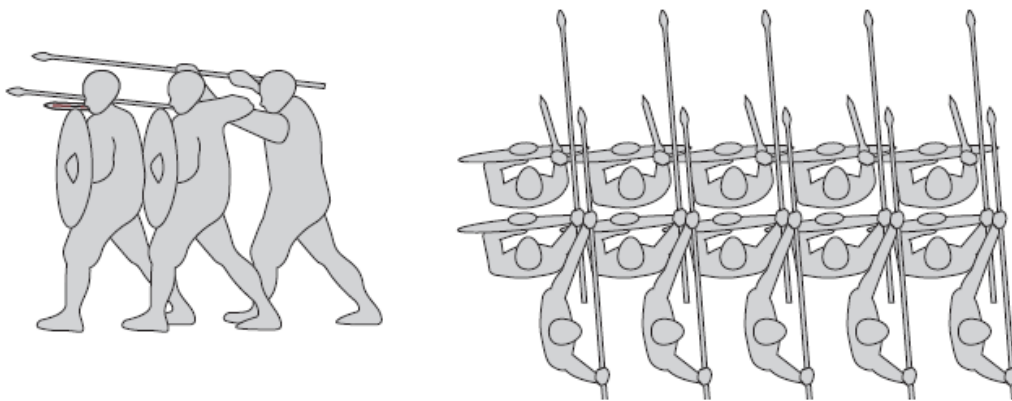
In the 8th century, the growing power of Christianity caused many lands to be ceded to the churches in perpetuity. This resulted in many counties losing their own territory and thus unable to contribute the same number of soldiers to the *fyrð* as before. It was not until the end of the 9th century that King Alfred the Great solved the problem with his great reforms, driven by the need to protect himself from the new threat: the Viking invasions. The major modifications were the construction of numerous forts (*burhs*) throughout the entire territory no more than 20 miles apart and the division of the army into three parts. In Heath's (2015) words:

Alfred the Great (871-899) reorganised the west-Saxon Fyrð so that it served at only half strength, the other half remaining at home to continue with agricultural chores. The second half replaced the first when their period of service had expired, thus theoretically doubling the period for which any army could be maintained in the field. (Heath 2015: 65)

This military format worked successfully in its early years. From the reign of Alfred (AD 871) to that of his grandson Athelstan (AD 939), almost all the territory that had belonged to the Anglo-Saxons was recovered, and for the first time we can speak of a unified country of Anglo-Saxon peoples called *Anglaland* (as seen in Section 2.1.3 above). Nevertheless, already in the days of Æthelred II, the enormous cost of maintaining

the aforementioned army, added to the construction of a fleet of 200 ships to protect the coasts against a second wave of Viking invasions, would end up being its own death sentence. The increasingly large amounts of money that were paid to Scandinavian looters to prevent their incursions (*danegeld*) ended up collapsing the country's economy and favouring the settlement of the Vikings, who would end up taking the throne of *Anglaland* under King Canute in 1016. On the battlefield the strategy to follow was well-defined and quite invariable. Both the Anglo-Saxons, and later the Vikings, made use of the *scildweall* or *bordweall* ('shield-wall'), literally a wall made up of shields. This tactic consisted in joining the defensive line so much that there was no gap between one soldier and the other, overlapping their shields to form the representative wall, as shown in Figure 8 below.

**Figure 8.** Shield-wall formation<sup>17</sup>



This tactic was not exclusive to the Germanic peoples; in fact, it was already a remarkably widespread practice among the Persian, Hellenic and Roman armies before Christ. Notwithstanding, for an army made up mostly of peasants inexperienced in war, this was a very suitable strategy since it did not require a large deployment of military resources and was very efficient as a defensive method. While the front ranks were made up of the more skilled warriors like *thegns* or *erls* along with their select *fyrð* – who would bear the enemy's load –, the great *fyrð* gave constant support from the second ranks thrusting their spears over the shield-wall. The archers also benefited from the protection of the wall and could shoot from behind without being disturbed, although they did not represent a decisive move since both sides did not take long to unite within the battlefield.

<sup>17</sup> Taken from Williams (2017: 28).



The Anglo-Saxons mastered this strategy to the point of becoming their best weapon. Strickland (1997: 360) corroborates this by adding that “[t]he ability of disciplined and closely formed infantry successfully to resist and even defeat cavalry equally serves seriously to qualify the supposed supremacy of heavy horsemen’s ‘shock tactics’”. Such was their mastery over this strategy that, at the Battle of Hastings, the Norman cavalry could do little against the solid wall of shields that withstood up to three charges without breaking, and it was, ultimately, Harold’s death that led to the rupture of the Saxon lines, signifying their downfall and, therefore, the victory of William.

Finally, one of the questions that has caused the most conflict among researchers over the years is precisely to which extent Anglo-Saxon armies made use of cavalry units. The Bayeux tapestry (see Figure 9 below), which narrates the battle of Hastings, graphically demonstrates how only the Norman faction made use of these units while the Saxons were limited to using infantry troops.

**Figure 9.** The two armies (Anglo-Saxons on foot, Normans on horse)<sup>18</sup>



Nevertheless, research to date shed little light on this, and there is still no general consensus in the scientific community, which continues searching for more evidence to provide an answer to this question. The earliest studies defended the widespread hypothesis that mounts were only considered as an object of value and rank marker. Some researchers even suggest that Anglo-Saxons did not know how to ride horses or that their horses were the size of ponies. However, these theories collapse under their own weight

<sup>18</sup> Taken from <https://www.bayeuxmuseum.com/en/the-bayeux-tapestry/discover-the-bayeux-tapestry/explore-online/>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

since, as described at the beginning of the poem of *The Battle of Maldon*: the *thegn* Byrhtnoth commands his troops to march without their horses:

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
Het þa hyssa hwæne hors forlætan, feor afysan, and forð gangan (The Battle of Maldon, lines 2-3)	Then he commanded each young man To leave his horse, to drive it far off, and to go forth (lines 2-4, taken from <a href="https://lightspill.com/poetry/oe/maldon.html">https://lightspill.com/poetry/oe/maldon.html</a> , accessed on 28/05/2021)

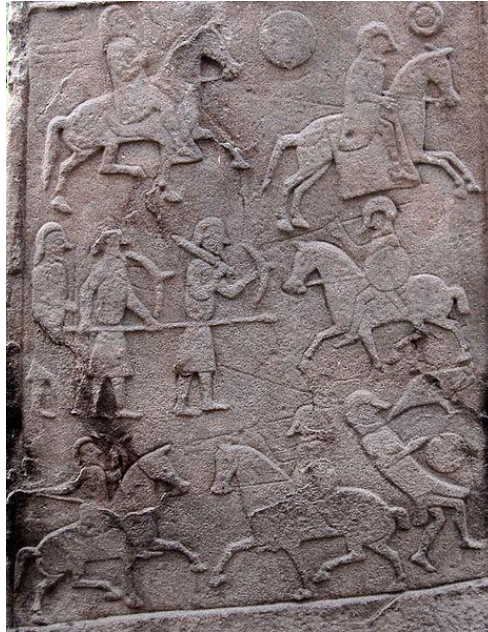
It is clear, then, that the Anglo-Saxons did make use of horses, although what has not been discerned yet is to what extent. In the words of Strickland (1997):

Byrhtnoth's orders for his men to dismount to fight in the Battle of Maldon; the Chronicle entry for 1055 telling how Earl Ralph ordered the Anglo-Saxons to fight on horseback against the Welsh contrary to their custom with disastrous results; the complete untrustworthiness of Snorri Sturluson's *Harold Hardrada's Saga* for the use of cavalry at Stamford Bridge; and the fact that Harold's army fought on foot at Hastings despite the potential of a devastating downhill charge – all these point to the same inescapable conclusion that the Anglo-Saxons fought predominantly, if not exclusively, as infantry. (Strickland 1997: 360)

This idea is rejected, in more recent studies, by some researchers who allege the scarce existence of sources that demonstrate such misuse of horses and that, in the same way, there are other indications of the opposite. The clearest example on which these detractors rely is the representation of a battle on a Pictish stone of Aberlemno, Scotland (as shown in Figure 10

below), where we can see how in a battle between a Pictish contingent and King Ecgrith of Northumbria both factions dispose of cavalry units charging, lance in hand, against other horsemen or infantrymen indistinctly.

**Figure 10.** Pictish stone in Aberlemno, Scotland<sup>19</sup>



Among other authors, DeVries (1999) already provided some sources that supported this theory.

“The Battle of Brunanburh”, written c.937, reports that West Saxon troops fought on horseback “the whole day long” against the Scots. In 1066, the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle describes how the Danish army, in encountering the armies of king Edmundo Ironside, fled on horseback only to be overtaken and defeated by the English troops, also obviously on horseback. (DeVries 1999: 227)

Nevertheless, these citations only reinforce the idea that the Anglo-Saxons’ use of cavalry had little or nothing to do with the generalised medieval concept of compact units charging in battle against their enemies. More recently, Hill (2012) comments that:

There is, however, tantalising evidence to support the theory of a mounted reserve being retained for the chase at a tactical level, as at Brunanburh. The great change that came with the Anglo-Norman warfare of the twelfth century was the usage of the mounted knight at a tactical level. This was a time when the first histories of Anglo-Saxon England were being written. The Anglo-Saxon’s usage of a mounted arm and that of the Anglo-Normans are incomparable and contemporaries knew it. On the one hand, we have a widespread mounted infantry philosophy accompanied by limited cavalry activity on the battlefield, while on the other we have the famous charging Norman milites riding around in their squadrons of well-trained cavalymen. (Hill 2012: 69)

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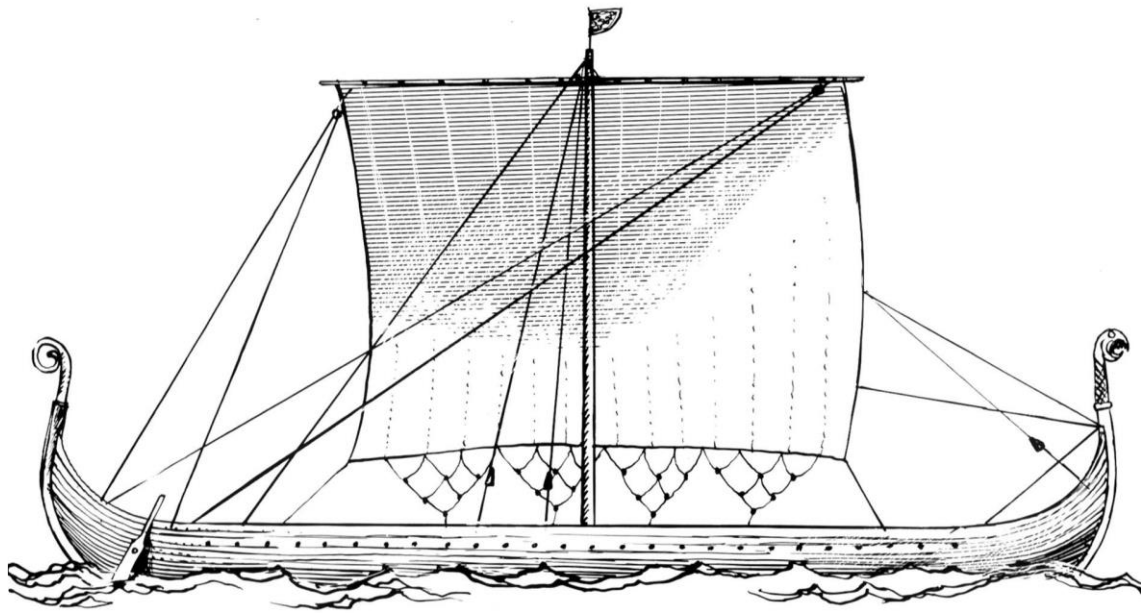
<sup>19</sup> Taken from <[www.undiscoveredscotland.co.uk/forfar/aberlemnokirk/index.html](http://www.undiscoveredscotland.co.uk/forfar/aberlemnokirk/index.html)>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

Therefore, it does not mean that the Anglo-Saxons did not use these animals for war purposes, but they simply used them to transport troops and cargo from one side to the other or as a reserve unit to pursue a group of retreating enemies, and not as an organised cavalry unit used as part of the Anglo-Saxon landlords' military attack tactics as did their Norman counterparts.

### 2.2.3. *Scandinavian period (AD 793 – 1066)*

As with the first Anglo-Saxon settlers, the Vikings lacked a notable military organisation. Furthermore, the Scandinavian tribes still possessed a lesser sense of cultural unity than their predecessors. In fact, they clustered into small communities of farmers and fishermen who fought with each other more often than less. Due to the geographical and atmospheric conditions of the territories in which they lived, these people inhabited almost exclusively in the coastal areas and were mainly engaged in fishing, livestock and trade. In the same way as their Anglo-Saxon predecessors, the Vikings also belonged to the Germanic religion and shared the beliefs of obtaining great wealth and fame in life and the glorification of death in battle.

Their nature as fishermen made them excellent navigators, as the stories of the famous Nordic sagas show. They are credited with developing various instruments for navigation, such as keel design, *drakkar* (Viking long boats) or the first solar and magnetic compasses, as well as the discoveries of Iceland, Greenland and North America (as already mentioned in Section 2.1.3.1, especially in connection with the discovery of L'Anse aux Meadows's site). As a result, the early Scandinavian military organisation, along the lines of that of the first Anglo-Saxon invaders three centuries earlier, depended on the number of men that a ship could transport. The use of the *drakkar* (illustrated in Figure 11 below) allowed the mobilisation of groups of between 40 and 60 sailors (*líðend* or *líðman*) that formed a band (*hirð*).

**Figure 11.** Viking long boat, or drakkar<sup>20</sup>

Of course, not all the ships were this size. Even so, the smaller ships could carry between 20 and 30 men. These bands were divided into two groups, the *dreng*, a term analogous to the Anglo-Saxon *geoguð*, and the *ðegn*, a term equivalent to the *duguð* and which, as we have already mentioned, would eventually replace. However, although various leaders joined an expedition, they were still differentiated groups with a common objective, so we cannot speak of an organised army under the command of a sole king. Besides, the word *king* (Old English *cyning*) was originally used to designate any leader who led a group of Vikings. Figure 12 below shows a prototypical Viking warrior.

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<sup>20</sup> Taken from Wise (1979: 20).

**Figure 12.** Viking warrior<sup>21</sup>

Similar to their Anglo-Saxon counterparts, each of these *líðman* used to carry an *ax* ('axe') (1), which was the weapon most commonly used by these warriors due to its versatility, as it served both for farm work and for combat. On the other hand, although swords (2) were a fairly frequent resource, being in possession of one depended on the economic status of the warrior, since they used to be given away as treasures by the leader who organised the expedition. A sample of the value that was given to these weapons was the fact that they were named, and even supernatural powers were attributed to them. In the Nordic sagas there are numerous stories of warriors with their famous swords. A custom that became so popular that in the poems and songs of the late Middle Ages each great hero had a sword with a name, as is the case of Arthur's Excalibur, of Roldan's Durendal, or the Cid's Tizona. Carrying a *seax* (3) as a third weapon was also a widespread practice. Regarding the defensive equipment, each soldier wore an iron helmet (4) and his classic round shield (5); and, generally, the leader also wore a chain

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<sup>21</sup> Taken from Williams (2017: 12).

mail (6). In addition, they also carried a bow and arrows for every six benches of one of their *drakkar*.

As for their combat strategies, we cannot say that they were too elaborate. Pillage, ambushes and skirmishes carried out by small units were their forte, and the element of surprise their best weapon. They attacked small targets and returned to their ships to later do the same in another location. To this end, they stranded their boats on the shores of a beach or river and made reconnaissance forays until they found the right place for looting. These expeditions, or raids, took place throughout Europe during the Viking Age, being especially recurrent in the northern territories of France and the British Isles.

The adventures of the Vikings in France (as explained in detail in section 2.1.3) did not go unnoticed by other Scandinavian warriors in search of riches and fame, who sought other destinations to carry out their depredations. From 793, the Viking attack on Lindisfarne, the arrival of Viking expeditions in the island would be a constant, as evidenced by the entries in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. In this chronicle, the words *danes* and *heathens* are repeated incessantly throughout the entries of the first half of the 9th century, recurring episodes of plundering until the year 851, when the arrival of an unprecedented fleet of Scandinavian warriors is described, specifically “three hundred and fifty ships into the mouth of the Thames; the crew of which went upon land, and stormed Canterbury and London” (*The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, AD 851). Later, 854’s entry confirms that “This year the heathen men for the first time remained over winter in the Isle of Sheppey” (*The Anglo-Saxon chronicle*, AD 854). Their intentions were clear: the Vikings had discovered a place where the lands were most fertile and they were not going to give up in their attempt to get hold of them. The entry for year 865 describes the pagan army as a great invading force: “This year sat the heathen army in the isle of Thanet, and made peace with the men of Kent, who promised money therewith; but under the security of peace, and the promise of money, the army in the night stole up the country, and overran all Kent eastward.” (*The Anglo-Saxon chronicle*, AD 865).

The so-called “great heathen army” (named like that after this entry) devastated England until almost completely dominating all the territory belonging to the former heptarchy. The rulers of the kingdoms tried to seek peace in exchange for money, the danegeld. But the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms fell one after another, until, in the year 878, only the kingdom of Wessex, with a young King Alfred in command, was able to stop the

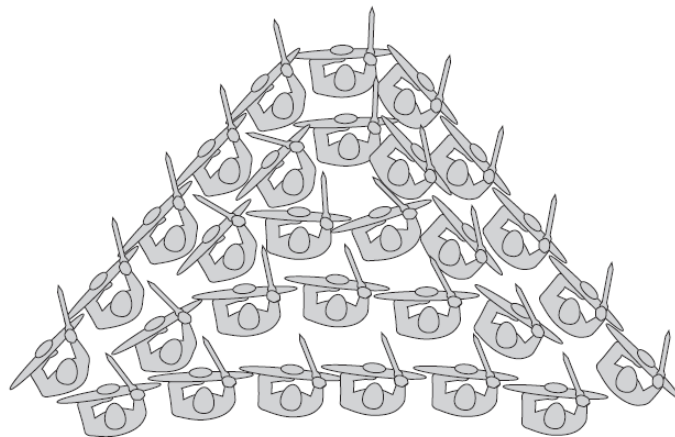


advance of this coalition of Scandinavian magnates at the Battle of Edington. This long-lived expedition must have been composed of a large contingent of troops, although the specific size of this invading force has been the subject of controversy among researchers. MacNeill (2019) describes these armies as follows:

Historians have found the army to be anywhere from one thousand warriors to ten thousand. [...] These stats, along with data on the size and number of ships used in earlier invasions, suggest that hundreds of Viking ships were built to hold thousands of soldiers. The sources are clear that this was a substantial army, and, since Ragnar's sons were set on invading, it is entirely possible that there was a substantial amount of men, ships, and supplies conglomerated to create a considerable fighting force. (MacNeill 2019: 13-4)

While troop numbers were vital, the Vikings also had a purposefully designed strategy to break through the solid Anglo-Saxon shield-wall. This movement received the name of *svinfylka*, or boar formation (see Figure 13 below), and it was a wedge alignment where the best warriors were positioned at the front and carried out a frontal charge towards the centre of the wall.

**Figure 13.** *Svinfylka*, or boar formation<sup>22</sup>



It is important to note that, due to their “wild” appearance and practices, the Vikings instilled a unique terror among the enemy ranks. Many of them dressed in animal skins or were almost naked displaying their abundant tattoos, and even ingested psychotropic herbs that made them appear demon-possessed brutes to the Anglo-Saxons’ Christian eyes. These warriors were called *berserkers* (‘bear’ plus ‘shirt’, literally

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<sup>22</sup> Taken from Williams (2017: 29).

'bearskin'). Thus, the Vikings used their intimidating appearance and the moment of the charge to break the enemy's defensive line.

As seen in Section 2.1.3, the Vikings eventually settled in the north-eastern half of the country establishing the Danelaw. Despite the descendants of King Alfred eventually reconquered that territory in the following years, they could not prevent a second wave of Viking raids. In this way, from 947 to 1013 AD, another long period of Scandinavian depredation took place. After the death of Sweyn Haraldson, his son Canute carried on his father's errand and invaded the entire island. It was thus clear that the Viking push, ferocity and insistence on their raids turned out to be extremely fruitful strategies against the apparent preparation and organisation of the Anglo-Saxon armies.

#### **2.2.4. *Norman period (AD 1066-1135)***

When Canute's heir line disappeared and the crown of England returned to Saxon hands, those purists loyal to the Scandinavian tradition moved back to their country of origin. But in England the customs of Saxons and Vikings had been almost completely homogenised. From this point until 1066, the people who inhabited in England fought as a united nation and were quite impartial in the face of succession conflicts to the throne. Regardless of the origin of the monarch, the *fyrð* was still operational, *thegns* (called *houscarls* since the reign of Sweyn and Canute) were still in command of the counties and obliged to man the *fyrð*. Likewise, *burhs* were being built throughout the territory to mobilise troops with ease. There was no distinction between Saxon and Scandinavian soldiers. Along the same lines, those Vikings who received the lands of Normandy from the hand of the king of France, Charles the Simple, had also become homogenised with French customs. In this period, they were, for all intents and purposes, part of the territory of Western France and were subject to the king. They had also converted to Christianity. However, this conversion did not necessarily have to be out of conviction and belief in the Christian religion. The Vikings were always people who adapted to the tactical needs of the situation in which they were submerged to take advantage and get the most out of it. This custom was maintained by the Normans who throughout their history demonstrated that this was a very valid resource when it came to achieving their objectives. Well into the 11th century, the whole Europe was submerged into the feudal system. Vassalage was the order of business and the most common way to assemble an army quickly and competently. When speaking of this historical period, our mind tends

to evoke and idealise the figure of the classic errant knight of gentle and courteous forms, with his shining armour and his famous sword. However, this concept developed much later thanks, in part, to the appearance of the *chansons de geste* and the chivalric novels. In Norman times, the Latin terms *milites* and *pedites* were still used to distinguish between mounted soldiers and infantry. Thus, only those people who could afford their own military equipment, including a mount, were considered *milites*, while the *pedites* designated the rest.

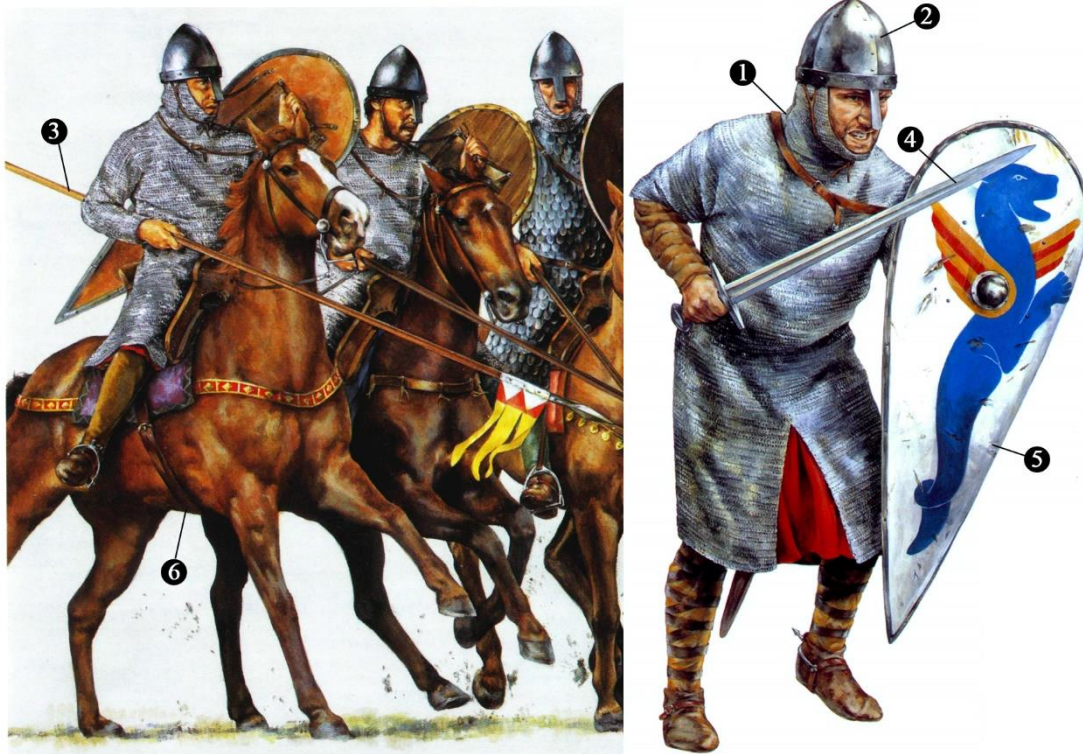
Another Latin-derived concept of utmost importance to the Normans was that of the *familia regis*, literally ‘ruling family’. We understand by *regis* any person who governed over a territory, whether it was over a kingdom or a division of this, such as a county, a duchy or a barony. This term was used to designate those people who were in the political-social circle close to the ruling figure, not necessarily belonging to his family, but of his utmost confidence. The group consisted of a corps of professional mercenaries who, according to Strickland (1992: 105) “in receipt of money fiefs, and stipendiaries, all nerved by the hope of future rewards in the hope of cash bonuses, grants of land, or the restoration of lost patrimonies” would offer their services and, therefore, they were fully available to the ruler’s military needs. In essence it was a very similar concept to that of the Anglo-Saxon selected *fyrð*. In this way, the *familia regis* consisted of relatives and high positions of the aristocracy such as barons (*baroun*), dukes (*duk*), counts (*comtes*) and even figures of the clergy, such as bishops, who at that time also had military obligations. Strickland (1992: IX) highlights the importance of these authoritative figures by saying that “in his role as a warleader, the king or duke was but *primus inter pares* of a nobility whose *raison d’être* was war; in the traditional schema of the three orders of *oratores*, *bellatores*, and *laboratores*, the aristocracy was defined first and foremost by its military function.”

As an illustrative example of the importance of this concept we find another clear representation in the literature of the time in the famous King Arthur’s Round Table. It should be remembered that war was a way of life in the Middle Ages. As a consequence, having a council of comrades to consult and make governmental decisions was of vital importance for the rulers of the time. Factional disputes usually ended with a resolution of a warlike nature. There were no diplomatic intermediaries in the same manner as today, so the negotiations depended on a show of power by the parties involved, although it did

not always necessarily diverge in open warfare. For example, a more common military strategy was the siege of a stronghold (namely, a city or a castle), as it did not involve the high economic and life cost of an open high-scale battle.

For obvious economic reasons, members of the *familia regis* were able to afford their own military equipment, as were most of the other feudal nobles. Nevertheless, this equipment was still extremely laborious and expensive even for wealthy people. This ended up entailing an added value to this equipment, so much that it became customary to inherit it among relatives or even sometimes receive it as a gift from the lord in exchange for the services rendered. As seen in Figure 14 below, at this time the complete military equipment of a Norman soldier consisted of the hauberk (*hauberk*) (1), helmet (*helm*) (2), lance (*lance*) (3), sword (*swerd*) (4), shield (*sceld*) (5) and horse (*hors*) (6).

**Figure 14.** Norman soldiers from AD 1066. On horse (left), on foot (right)<sup>23</sup>



Among the defensive gear, the hauberk (1) was a very expensive item both in time and price. It was distinguished by being an iron chainmail to the knees and with long sleeves that could also include a hood. Although it is a very typical defensive piece of the

<sup>23</sup> Taken from Gravett (1993), appendices C and K.

Middle Ages, its origin dates back to the Celts and it was its incorporation into the clothing of the legionaries of the Roman Empire that made it popular throughout the Mediterranean. On the other hand, the Norman helmet (2) perfectly complemented the hauberk and provided a wide range of vision. This piece had a simple conical shape with a nasal protection that could consist of a whole piece of metal or of several riveted plates forming the helmet and was covered inside by leather to pad it. As for the Norman shield (5), it had a very particular design. It was very different from the Germanic concept of a round shield as it was shaped like an inverted teardrop. This design was ideal for providing leg protection, which was very useful for mounted units.

Regarding the offensive gear, the spear (3) and the sword (4) stand out as their preferred weapons. The Norman spear, slightly longer than other European spears, was the most common weapon used by both *milites* and *pedites*. It was cheap and versatile since it could be used as a projectile or melee weapon. In cavalry charges it could be lethal as it could easily pierce a shield. Alternatively, the Norman sword was a more elitist element. The Viking designs engraved with detailed patterns had given way to more elaborate manufacturing. Although the forging techniques in Europe had improved considerably making the sword a cheaper and more accessible piece so that other than the wealthy could own one, the Normans opted for a specific design that was adapted to their needs. Their sword was a double-edged weapon about a meter long designed for the purpose of reaching the enemy from the horse, penetrating his armour or piercing the shield.

Finally, the horse (6) represented the most expensive element for the military. To begin with, not all horses were fit for war. A specific character was needed for a mount of this type, so there was a selection process prior to dressage. Once selected, both the rider and the horse had to undergo harsh training to master cavalry techniques. As with weapons, riding training began as soon as possible. Hunting on horseback became a very popular sport since it was used as a practice of horsemanship skills and group work. Thus, when a young man reached adulthood, he had to master both the use of weapons and horsemanship to perfection. Strickland (1992: 105) comments that “Norman knights were as professional as the age could make them, born and bred to war and trained from the early youth, in the household which is the contingent of a lord, in the art and science of horsemanship and arms.” To ensure the rider’s stability, the saddle design included front

and rear studs and long leather stirrups that allowed it to stand up during riding, making it a much more lethal unit. This way, the Norman cavalry, known as *conrois*, operated in groups of 25 to 50 perfectly trained men who charged in a united and synchronised way for greater effectiveness: an excellent war machine. These mounted units (which are represented in the Bayeux Tapestry partially reproduced in Figure 9 above) were essential at the Battle of Hastings in providing the victory for William I and also in his later conquest of England.

The ease of adaptation to situations coupled with the ability to assemble a strong professional and cohesive military corps made the Normans excellent strategists and warriors. In a short time, their lineage was established among the most powerful of this era, expanding its dominance in France, England, and also Italy, and gaining the support of the papacy to justify its battles. In fact, taking advantage of papal favour and after their disagreements against Islam in Sicily, they were the ones who lit the flame of the crusades and the holy war, becoming key elements in the evolution of our history.

### **2.3. Conclusions to Chapter 2**

To sum up, this chapter has served as an overview of the main extralinguistic factors that influenced the evolution of Old English into Middle English, as well as an introduction to the military organisation of the different peoples that stepped on British soil along the history of England, from the Roman legions to the Normans knights. But most importantly, it depicts the constant warlike situation that put several cultures in contact.

The Romans brought organisation and the language of prestige, which the Anglo-Saxons absorbed to establish the foundations of England. Despite the constant raids and partial occupation of the Vikings, the Anglo-Saxons managed to maintain order and seek the unification of their territories under the same nation. Finally, after becoming subdued by the French, the Anglo-Saxon culture adapted and survived to rise as an important nation which, in the years to come, would play several important roles within Europe. Therefore, this period represents the perfect ground to prove our initial hypothesis and, thus, demonstrates how this contact helped in shaping the lexicon of the English vocabulary by analysing and describing the semantic field of *war* in the surviving texts from the period.



## **Chapter 3. The lexico-semantic phenomena at work in the evolution of the English lexicon**

In the previous chapter we laid out the extralinguistic factors that led to the changes suffered by the English language in order to provide a historical context for our analysis. The present chapter describes these changes from the different perspectives that Historical Linguistics and Sociolinguistics can provide, as well as all the necessary concepts that must be considered to thoroughly explain such changes. Section 3.1 discusses the linguistic context of medieval England alongside the linguistic phenomena that favoured these changes, namely, language contact, multilingualism, code-switching and borrowings. In turn, the purpose of Section 3.2 is to provide an overview of the theory of semantic fields and its applications, as well as to explain which processes of semantic change the lexicon of a language can undergo. Consequently, the aim of this chapter is to lay the foundations for understanding how the semantic field of [WAR] has semantically evolved as a result of the adoption of foreign terms.

### **3.1. Language contact and its consequences on the Old English lexicon**

The present section delves into language contact as well as all the linguistic phenomena that it entails, focusing particularly on the case of medieval England. In Section 3.1.1, language contact is discussed in detail to show how it sets the ground for the other phenomena to occur. Section 3.1.2 focuses on multilingualism in addition to the degree at which an individual could be considered a polyglot in this period due to coexistence with foreign languages. Section 3.1.3 is devoted to the process of code-switching, describing the different types of code-switching and its sociolinguistic aspects. Finally, Section 3.1.4 discusses the borrowing process along with the different taxonomies and the distinction with loanwords.

#### ***3.1.1. Language contact***

The first of the concepts required to set the linguistic context of our study is, unavoidably, the contact between languages, without which the rest of the elements cannot occur naturally. Following Thomason (2001: 1) we define language contact “in the simplest definition” as “the use of more than one language in the same place at the same time”. Nonetheless, linguistic contact represents a vast field of study which encompasses various



phenomena that concern the encounters between two or more languages – or even varieties– and their speakers. These phenomena are investigated both synchronically and diachronically. Subsequently, it represents a central field in Historical Linguistics, yet it is also linked to other branches such as Sociolinguistics or Language Acquisition. Furthermore, its research topics are intertwined with Psychology, Sociology and Anthropology, which are also interested in the processes that affect cross-linguistic and cross-cultural encounters.

Interest in language contact and its relationship with other branches of Linguistics does not emerge until the mid-20th century. In the midst of the structuralist current founded by Ferdinand de Saussure, these new studies advocated for the inclusion of social and psychological aspects in research on linguistic contact, because “it became clear that without some extralinguistic factors certain problems of language contact could not be explained precisely enough; as a matter of fact, some phenomena could not be explained at all if these factors were not taken into account” (Muhvic-Dimanovski, 2009: 54). From the first publications on the subject in the 1950s up to the present-day, this rich linguistic landscape has attracted recurrent attention (see Thomason 2001, Appel and Muysken 2005, Muhvic-Dimanovski 2009, Wogan-Browne 2013, or Conde-Silvestre and Calle-Martín 2015).

From a diachronic point of view, it is easy to understand the purpose of these new lines of research in this field. Since mankind exists as such, all communities have been characterised by starring in migratory currents encouraged by various reasons, such as exploration or the expansion of their territories, or the search for new resources. Inherently in any of these mass transfers, these communities carry with them their culture, which is, therefore, revealed to all the other communities they encounter during their migration. These encounters, sometimes very dissimilar, result in exchanges of all kinds. Trade or war are clear examples of cultural exchange situations in which the parties involved can benefit from this shared context. Nevertheless, this exchange is not always equitable between both parties, and even less in war contexts.

In philological matters, a clash of great magnitude between cultures always translates into direct contact between the languages of the people involved. Any type of negotiation, whether for trade or war, will lead to communication between speakers of different languages. In the specific case of England, the inhabitants of this territory

suffered several of these clashes against other cultures that differed from the vernacular at different levels (as seen in Chapter 2). On the one hand, both Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon are Germanic languages, so the language of the Norsemen can be regarded as a distant relative of that of the Angles and the Saxons. For instance, in the example below, the poem *The Battle of Maldon* (lines 26-62) recreates conversations between both parties, indicating at least some degree of intelligibility between these two languages.

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<p>“Þa stod on stæðe, stiðlice clypode wicinga ar, wordum mælde, se on beot ahead brimliþendra ærænde to þam eorle, þær he on ofre stod: “Me sendon to þe sæmen snelle, heton ðe secgan þæt þu most sendan raðe beagas wið gebeorge; and eow betere is þæt ge þisne garræs mid gafole forgyldon, þon we swa hearde hilde dælon. Ne þurfe we us spillan, gif ge spedap to þam; we willað wið þam golde grið fæstnian. Gyf þu þat gerædest, þe her ricost eart, þæt þu þine leoda lysan wille, syllan sæmannum on hyra sylfra dom feoh wið freode, and niman frið æt us, we willap mid þam sceattum us to scype gangan, on flot feran, and eow friþes healdan.” Byrhtnoð mabelode, bord hafenode, wand wacne æsc, wordum mælde, yrre and anræd ageaf him andsware: “Gehyrst þu, sælida, hwæt þis folc segeð? Hi willað eow to gafole garas syllan, ættrynne ord and ealde swurd, þa heregeatu þe eow æt hilde ne deah. Brimmanna boda, abeod eft ongean, sege þinum leodum miccle lapre spell, þæt her stynt unforcuð eorl mid his werode, þe wile gealgean epel þysne, Æpelredes eard, ealdres mines, folc and foldan. Feallan sceolon hæþene æt hilde. To heanlic me þinceð</p>	<p>Then on the bank stood a Viking messenger, called out stoutly, spoke with words, boastfully brought the seafarers’ errand to that land’s earl where he stood on shore: “Seamen sent me quickly to you, ordered me tell you to send rings at once, wealth for defense: better for all of you that you with tribute this spear-rush forgo than that we share so bitter a war. Nor need we kill each other if you perform it; for gold we will fasten a truce with you. If you determine it, the mightiest here, that you for your people ransom will pay – give to the seamen at their own choosing wealth for a truce and take peace from us – we with that payment shall to our ships, on ocean fare, hold peace with you.” Byrhtnoth spoke, lifted shield, shook slender ash-spear, with words spoke, angry and one-minded gave him answer: “Hear you, seafarer, what this folk says? Spears will they give you, ash-spears as tribute, poisonous point, old sword – an armor-tax useless to you in war. Seamen’s messenger, bear word back again; tell your people much loathlier tale: that here stands a good earl with his war- band, who will defend this homeland,</p>

<p>þæt ge mid urum sceattum to scype gangon unbefohtene, nu ge þus feor hider on urne eard in becomon. Ne sceole ge swa softe sinc gegangan; us sceal ord and ecg ær geseman, grim guðplega, ær we gofol syllon.” (Atherton 2021: 174-6, lines 26-62)</p>	<p>Æthelred’s land, land of my prince, folk and fold. At battle, now, heathen must fall. Too shameful it seems that you, unfought, should go to ship bearing our wealth, now that thus far you have come into our land. Not so softly shall you carry off riches: point must, and edge, reconcile us first, grim battle-play, before we give tribute. (Atherton 2021: 174-6, lines 26-62)</p>
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On the other hand, when the Norman Conquest took place, the languages in contact had apparently no direct relationship, since one was of Germanic origin while the other was of Italic origin, albeit with Scandinavian elements. Accordingly, many are the scholars that delve into the outcomes of these contact situations in specific periods of the English language (see Kroch and Taylor 1994, Weber 2011, Stenroos *et al.* 2012 or Conde-Silvestre and Calle-Martín 2015).

Both the Viking raids and the Norman Conquest brought people from other cultures to Britain. Perhaps these events would not have had an impact of such magnitude had they not represented permanent settlements. However, their perennial nature led to a series of stages during which the vernacular was undergoing the continuous impact of these other foreign languages until it became what we call Middle English.

In the case of Old Norse, there are two stages of direct contact. The first involved just a series of raids with the only intention of looting, which meant that linguistic contact was scarce. Contrarily, in the second wave these raids quickly escalated to a large-scale invasion with the arrival of the Great Heathen Army. Some works and authors mentioned in their works some of the early confrontations with the attackers, their language and their customs, such as Wulfstan of York’s *Sermo Lupi ad Anglos*. In different ways, either by pure force or through peace treaties with the natives, the Vikings acquired portions of land where they could establish their first farms on Anglo-Saxon soil, and commence what was to translate into a long-lived settlement (the future Danelaw). For a long time, coexistence between the Anglo-Saxons and the Norse was really hostile. Both parties were fighting for political and territorial hegemony. Due to the large extension of their territory, the Vikings did not necessarily have to switch languages within its borders. Consequently, Old Norse remained on Anglo-Saxon soil for a long time as yet one more

code within the linguistic landscape of the territory, along with Anglo-Saxon and the Celtic varieties of the territories of Wales, Scotland or Cornwall. It is actually on the borders of this new Viking kingdom where the first situations of linguistic contact between Old English and Old Norse began. First, the defence of the territory with its ever-changing frontiers, followed by trade, and finally the “peaceful” coexistence between the two cultures (such as cases of intermarriage) led to the dialects of the Midlands being the most affected ones by the Scandinavian contact. On the contrary, the Southwest dialects, under the protection of a rising Wessex royal house, remained more unaffected. Thus, we can deduce that the Scandinavian influence occurred mostly due to geographical reasons rather than political ones.

In the case of Norman French, its speakers also came to settle permanently. However, the contact between these two codes (Norman and Anglo-Saxon) did not occur for geographical reasons. The goal of the Normans in England was never to coexist with its people, but to extend a general dominion over Anglo-Saxon soil. From their capital in London, the Normans gradually extended their control to the north, “and the language contact continued as long as speakers of Norman French filled positions of power in England (until about the 13th or 14th century)” from the previous Anglo-Danish government (O’Neil 2019: 115). French supplanted the language of politics in England. Consequently, contact between these two languages came to represent a distinction between social classes, between registers, where the upper classes would speak French (alongside Latin) while ordinary people would speak Anglo-Saxon. The contact between all these diverse languages favoured different situations of diglossia and triglossia that will be commented on in depth in Section 3.1.2 below.

### **3.1.2. *Multilingualism***

The different contact situations showcased at the end of Section 3.1.1. fall under the second concept under study, which encompasses the polyglot nature of medieval England, that is, multilingualism. Following Hoffman (1991: 157), we define this concept as a phenomenon that occurs “when speakers of different languages are brought together within the same political entity”. Although this concept tends to be approached within a synchronic framework, its bases are also perfectly applicable to a diachronic context. Consequently, multilingualism in medieval England represents a highly discussed topic within the academic world, as shown by the studies of Rothwell (1993), Crespo (2000),

Weiner (2000) Kristol *et al.* (2000), Ingham (2005), Machan (2006), Timofeeva (2010), Wogan-Browne (2011), Tyler (2011), Hsy (2013), McNamara (2013), Schipor (2013), De Visscher (2013), Ingham (2016), or Pahta *et al.* (2017), among many others. In this period, various languages came into contact at different stages for different reasons causing different situations of *diglossia* and *triglossia*. Diglossia was defined by Ferguson (1959) as:

a relatively stable situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body or written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation. (Ferguson 1959: 336)

Although this definition would apply to the situation that the Anglo-Saxon speakers experienced while coexisting first with the Vikings and then with the Normans, these two foreign languages were not the only ones in contact with Old English in medieval England's linguistic panorama. Consequently, the situation wherein three languages were spoken in a given space is described as *triglossia*, and it was far more common than one would initially expect. The Celtic varieties (namely, Cornish, Welsh, and Breton) surviving in different parts of the island and the use of standardised Latin for academic and religious purposes often caused that three languages could be found within the same context. For instance, the Old English poem *The Battle of Brunanburh* (which celebrates the victory of the Anglo-Saxon army under king Athelstan's command over a Norse-Scots coalition) illustrates a perfect context in which Celtic, Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon could have been in direct contact in the north-western part of England. The flow and diversity of languages within this territory served as a breeding ground for the inhabitants of the island to develop skills in more than one language. As a matter of fact, most of the aforementioned languages had enjoyed a status of some importance in the insular territory over the 1<sup>st</sup> millennia AD. Nevertheless, we can never speak of a total hegemony of one over the other since many were employed in large parts of this territory, but never its entirety. In the words of Pahta (2012):

In post-Conquest England, the three principal languages in use were English, French, and Latin, present in various forms. English before the rise of the national standard was spoken and written in innumerable regional, local, and idiolectal varieties, Latin existed in classical and various medieval varieties, and French in forms derived from the dialectally distinct varieties of Norman and Central (Parisian) French. In addition, Celtic languages were spoken in western and northern areas, Hebrew among Jewish communities, and Low German among immigrant communities. (Pahta 2012: 531)

It is also worth mentioning that the languages under consideration in the present paper were not always the standard varieties and they represent different dialectal/geographical varieties. For example, in the Anglo-Saxon period, the southern dialect of King Alfred was not the same as that of Mercia, which, in addition, was also directly influenced by the contact with Old Norse. On the other hand, in Middle English, we should find more evidence of French influence south of the Thames, since, under Norman rule, London was established as the capital of the kingdom from which Norman French spread to the neighbouring territories. Likewise, the French brought by the Normans was not the same as the one spoken at court of the Kingdom of France. In addition, this northern French dialect would end up developing an Insular variant known as Anglo-Norman. Consequently, we cannot speak of a total French or Norse predominance over all Anglo-Saxon soil. Instead, we must highlight the dialectal richness of medieval England.

Despite this varied linguistic landscape, some scholars might argue that not all parts of England were multilingual. The concept of *asymmetric multilingualism* sheds some light on this matter. This is defined as a situation in which the speaker of one language dominates a second or third language, but not vice versa. Thomason (2001) explains the case of asymmetric multilingualism in present-day Switzerland:

Speakers of Italian and Romansh, whose speakers are far outnumbered by the country's French and German speakers, usually speak French and/or German, while French and German speakers are unlikely to speak either Italian or Romansh. Moreover, most or all German speakers also speak French, and in addition they know both the distinctive Swiss German and (at least to some extent) Standard German. It is said to be fairly easy, however, to find monolingual speakers of French in Switzerland. (Thomason 2001: 3)

When applied to our study, we realise that medieval England represents a notable example of asymmetric multilingualism. For instance, in the case of Norse, the genetic proximity of the vernacular to the invading language made communication between its

speakers possible, since both languages were mutually intelligible to some extent. Hence, Old English-Old Norse multilingualism among these individuals could be regarded as symmetrical in those territories where the Vikings had some influence. Conversely, finding individuals who could speak these two languages outside these boundaries could be difficult. The case of French is quite different. Both languages have different origins (Germanic and Italic, respectively) and, consequently, communication between their speakers was very difficult. Since the Norman aristocracy was the ruling class, its speakers had no need to learn English. Nonetheless, Anglophones, represented by the native lower class, had to make the effort to learn Norman French along all the territory to be successful in any matter of importance, mainly business. As a consequence, the English-Norman French diglossia could be considered as a case of *asymmetric bilingualism*.

Ferguson (1959: 327) addresses these cases of diglossia by distinguishing between *H-code* (high), the superposed variety, and *L-code* (low), the regional dialects. It may be somehow bold to attempt to make this differentiation within the Old English dialects. They were formed in the midst of the Heptarchy and, therefore, none of them was predominant over the other dialects. Although in the Late Old English period West-Saxon could be regarded as the standard (due to this being the least Old-Norse-influenced dialect and the proliferation of literary works under King Alfred and his scholars), the H-code would still be represented by Latin as it was the language of religion and education. In contrast, as early as in Early Middle English, Norman French would represent the H-code, as it would have been used for all important state matters (e.g., law, politics) as well as all kinds of specific registers (e.g., literature, art, leisure, cooking), whereas English would only be used in daily life registers (e.g., work, family), thus becoming the L-code.

### 3.1.3. *Code-switching*

The effects of language contact and multilingualism translate into the following two processes: *code-switching*, explained in this section, and *borrowings*, in Section 3.1.4. These concepts are closely related and must not be confused. Consequently, the aim of these two sections is to carefully define them so as to ensure that the distinction is made clear.

Many scholars have attempted to provide an accurate definition of code-switching and they differ in some aspects. For instance, Myers-Scotton (1993b: 1) describe it rather generally as “alternations of linguistic varieties within the same conversation”. Later, Milroy and Muysken (1995: 7) introduce speakers in their definition as they consider code-switching as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation”. Therefore, code-switching is used as a cover term under which different forms of bilingual behaviour are included. Likewise, Trudgill (2003: 23) proposes a broader definition by regarding it as “the process whereby bilingual or bidialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another within the same conversation”, thus merging the two previous definitions. Furthermore, Trudgill also introduces the concept of *code-mixing* defining it as “the process whereby speakers indulge in code-switching between languages of such rapidity and density, even within sentences and phrases, that it is not really possible to say at any given time which language they are using”. This distinction was necessary as previous authors, such as Kachru (1983) and Singh (1985), used the term *code-switching* just for inter-sentential switches, whereas *code-mixing* was reserved for intrasentential switches. Regardless of the nuances, when contrasting all these definitions we find certain elements that are common to all. Therefore, after synthesizing them, it can be concluded that code-switching is the process in which a speaker makes use of at least two different languages, or elements of them, within the same communicative action.

Moving deeper into this concept, we understand that the switch from one language to another is not always equitable, and it raises different types of code-switching situations that can be analysed independently. Poplack (1980, 1981) distinguishes three levels of language shifting between the origin language (hereafter L1) and the target language (hereafter L2), namely *inter-sentential switching*, *intra-sentential switching* and *tag-switching*. Let us explain these concepts with the help of the definitions provided by Rusli *et al.* (2018), based on Poplack (1980), and the examples extracted from the Middle English poem *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* in which the type of switch appears in bold:

- (1) The first type, inter-sentential switching, is a switch from one language to another that occurs at a clausal level and this involves a clause or a sentence that is changed entirely to a different language” (Rusli *et al.* 2018: 187). This



is shown in the example below, where sentences in Latin follow a fragment in English:

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<p>Mony aunterez here-biforne  Haf fallen suche er þis.  Now þat here þe crown of þorne,  He bryng vus to his blysse! <b>AMEN.</b>  <b>HONY SOYT QUI MAL PENCE.</b>  (Tolkien and Gordon 1967: 69, lines  2,527-31)</p>	<p>many a marvel such before,  has happened here ere now.  To His bliss us bring Who bore  the Crown of Thorns on brow! <b>AMEN</b>  <b>HONY SOYT QUI MAL PENCE.</b><sup>24</sup>  (Tolkien 2006: 92-3)</p>

- (2) The second type, intra-sentential switching, “involves the change of one language to another language within the same sentence” (Rusli *et al.* 2018: 187). In addition, intra-sentential switching consists of two types of other-language material. The first one showcases the incorporation of *lone content words* from L1 in L2 (namely nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs), whereas the second represents the inclusion of *multiword fragments* from L1 in L2, combining different types of words (Muysken and Muysken 2000: 679). The following example shows a sentence in English in which a multiword fragment from French is inserted:

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<p>Penne hatz he hendly of his helme, and  hezly he þonkez  Jesus and sayn Gilyan, þat gentyle ar  boþe,  Þat cortaysly had hym kydde, and his cry  herkened.  ‘Now <b>bone hostel</b>,’ cope þe burne, ‘I  beseche yow zette!’ (Tolkien and Gordon  1967: 22, lines 773-6)</p>	<p>and then humbly he doffed his helm, and  with honour he thanked  Jesus and Saint Julian, who generous are  both,  who had courtesy accorded him and to  his cry harkened.  ‘Now bon hostel,’ quoth the knight, ‘I  beg of you still!’ (Tolkien 2006: 40)</p>

- (3) Lastly, tag-switching “is the inclusion of a tag or short phrase of one language into another language” (Rusli *et al.* 2018: 187). It is also called *extra-sentential switching* by Milroy and Muysken (1995) and it refers exclusively to expressions or idioms. As we can see in the example below, this sentence begins with a French expression and continues in English:

<sup>24</sup> “shame on anyone who thinks evil of it.” (my translation)

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
' <b>Graunt mercy,</b> ' quoth Gawayn, 'Per Kryst hit yow forȝelde.' (Tolkien and Gordon 1967: 24, lines 838-9)	'Gramercy!' quoth Gawain, 'May Christ you this repay!' (Tolkien 2006: 41)

By and large, when speaking of multilingual contexts where at least two languages are in contact, these alternations between different codes do not pose a problem for the participants of the communicative act. Nonetheless, there are some concepts that, taken from a bilingual context, can also be understood by a monolingual public. To explain this situation, Sebba *et al.* (2012: 14-5) distinguish two main types of code alternation in non-literary texts, namely *parallelism* and *complementarity*. Parallelism occurs when the same concept is expressed in different languages within the same context, such as on-road signs in Catalonia or the Basque Country. In contrast, complementarity occurs when texts, or parts of them, with different content appear in different codes simultaneously used within the same message. Unlike parallelism, complementarity assumes that the receiver has sufficient competence in both languages, at least, to understand the message. As a result, we may conclude that no matter how clearly particular the different types of code-switching are, they are undeniably conditioned by the languages used, the type of text, its function, the genre, or even the register used by the issuer.

Referring back to our diachronic context, we also find all these types of elements in what Schendl (2002: 196) calls *mixed-language* or *macaronic texts* in linguistics, and which comprise a wide variety of genres. For example, in an ecclesiastical setting, we find liturgical texts such as homilies, sermons, or even religious poetry, where many of the texts produced combine Anglo-Saxon with Latin. Wulfstan's *Sermo lupi ad Anglos* begins with a title in Latin (in bold type) only to continue in Old English, as shown in below:

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<b>Sermo Lupi ad Anglos, quando Dani maxime persecuti sunt eos quod fuit anno millesimo XIII ab incarnatione domini nostri Iesu Christi:</b> Leofan men gecnawað þæt soð is: ðeos worolde is on ofste & hit nealæcð þam ende. (Wulfstan and Whitelock 1939: 33)	The Sermon of the 'Wolf' to the English, when the Danes were greatly persecuting them, which was in the 1014th year after the Incarnation of our Lord Jesus Christ: Beloved men, recognise me what is true: this world is in haste and it draws near its end. (Liuzza 1999: 202)

Likewise, William Langland's *Piers Plowman* presents several examples in which Latin (in bold type) and English are combined in the same lines, as can be seen in the two extracts below:

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<b>Qui loquitur turpiloquium</b> is Luciferes hyne <sup>25</sup> (Langland and Kane 1960: 178)	He who speaks slander is Satan's slave. (Sutton 2014: 22)
'Ceesar,' thei seiden 'we seoth wel vchone.' <b>Reddite ergo que sunt cesaris cesari, et que sunt dei deo.</b> <sup>26</sup> (Langland and Kane 1960: 202)	'Caesar's,' they said, 'we each can see him.' 'Then render to Caesar,' God said, 'what is Caesar's, And to God what is God's, if you want to do good. (Sutton 2014: 29)

In turn, in other non-literary texts such as epistles, medical or business treatises, or legal texts, much of the specific terminology referring to these fields is found in Latin, as well as in Hebrew or French. Likewise, in literary texts (both prose or verse), such as romances or epic poetry, there appear elements in either Latin, French or Norse.

It seems clear, then, that the selection of the type of text is fundamental when deciding which codes to use. Although these changes appear categorically due to the idiosyncrasy of the author, their fundamental purpose is often uncertain. Although in literary texts it could be argued that the switch occurs due to literary licenses, in non-literary texts it seems to have more specific functions. For example, Davidson (2005: 348), who analyses code-switching in legal texts between Latin, French and English, states in his results that "these Latin constituents have a formalised role of clarifying and structuring the report".

Other authors also reinforce the idea that the nature of the alternation between codes is not as important as its applications. Schipor (2013: 55) clarifies that its use "would have not only been socially acceptable, but appropriate and even expected at that date". For her, the alternation between French and English "indirectly indicates the identity and social status of both the author and addressee". Hence, register constitutes an important piece within code-switching. If we take a look at the studies carried out on language alternation in medieval England, we find an enormous amount of literature on

<sup>25</sup> *He who speaks slander* is Satan's slave. (Sutton 2014: 22)

<sup>26</sup> 'Caesar's,' they said, 'we each can see him.' 'Then *render to Caesar*,' God said, 'what is Caesar's, And *to God what is God's*, if you want to do good. (Sutton 2014: 29)

the matter produced during the last twenty years, implying the notoriety of this subject within Historical Linguistics nowadays. Authors such as Schendl (1996, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2011) or Wright (1999, 2000, 2002, 2011), who have devoted much of their research to this topic, and other researchers such as Machan (1994), Voigts (1996), Diller (1997), Dossena (2002), Rothwell (2000), Davidson (2003, 2005), Pahta (2004, 2012), Ingham (2011) or Putter (2011) have extensively studied this phenomenon in different fields in the Middle Ages including law, business, politics, drama, medicine, and epistolary writing, among others. Most of the works cited above focus on the contact between English and Latin or French, as these were the most frequently used languages in macaronic texts. Nonetheless, some scholars also study code-switching between English and Norse, Welsh or Scottish, thus expanding the knowledge that researchers have in the face of code-switching between English and other languages in medieval England.

#### **3.1.4. Borrowings and Loanwords**

This final subsection is devoted to the ultimate result of long-lasting language contact. When two languages interact for such a long period of time as English and the invading languages did, the product of this interference can only derive into two outcomes, depending on which of the two is the affected language. Thomason and Kauffman (1992: 37) coined these two results as *borrowing*, when the target language incorporates foreign elements, and *substratum interference*, when the target language influences the structure of the intrusive language. It is the aim of this study to analyse and describe the behaviour of the English language in the face of Old Norse and French influence. Therefore, only borrowings will be considered.

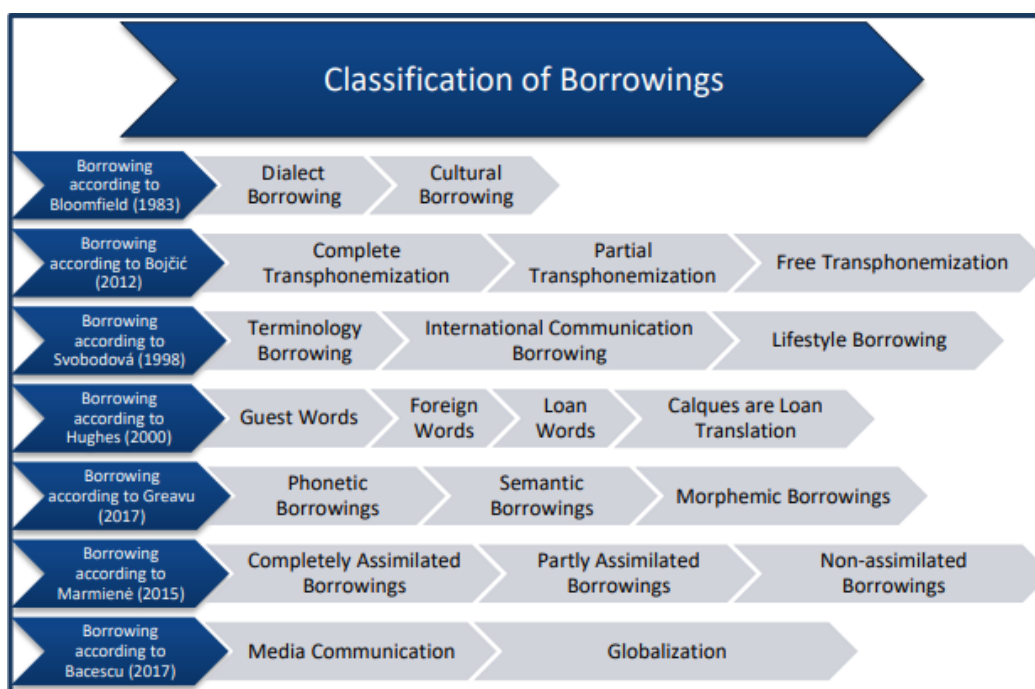
Haugen (1950: 212) was among the first scholars to attempt an accurate description of the term *borrowing* defining it as “the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another”. Nonetheless, although this term is well accepted within the scientific community, in Hoffer’s (2002: 5) words it is somehow “a misleading term since it takes place without consent of the lender and need not be repaid”. Although, the reasons behind the borrowing process can be very diverse, it is also an unavoidable result when there is a prolonged linguistic contact. On this subject, Bloomfield (1935) clarified:

Every speech-community learns from its neighbours. Objects both natural and manufactured pass from one community to the other, and so do patterns of action, such as technical procedures, warlike practices, religious rites or fashions of individual conduct. This spread of things and habits is studied by ethnologists, who call it “cultural diffusion.” (Bloomfield 1935: 445)

Hence, when analysing the impact of borrowings in a situation of contact between languages, Sankoff and Poplack (1981: 5) observed changes that affected the different linguistic areas, that is phonetics/phonology, lexis, syntax, morphology and semantics. Following Haugen (1950: 214), borrowings are divided into *imports* and *substitutions* depending on their accuracy when reproducing the model item from the donor language. Therefore, we understand *import* as an item similar to the model, whereas *substitution* represents an inadequate version of the model. Once this distinction was made clear, Haugen (1950: 214) originally proposed three basic groups of borrowings depending on whether they implied import, substitution or both: “(1) Loanwords show morphemic importation without substitution [...]. (2) Loanblends show morphemic substitution as well as importation [...]. (3) Loanshifts show morphemic substitution without importation”. Similarly, Hockett (1958) refers to *loanword* when both the item or idea and the source language word for it are incorporated to the L2; he understands as *loanshift* when the native word is adapted to the borrowed meanings; and as *loan-translation* [or *calque*] when the L2 uses an item-for-item L2 version of the L1 concept. More recently, Myers-Scotton (2002) distinguished between cultural borrowings and core borrowings:

(i) Cultural borrowings are words for objects and concepts new to the culture (e.g. *hard-drive*, *SUV*, or *global warming*). These borrowed forms are rapidly integrated into the recipient language.... (ii) Core borrowings are words that are more or less duplicate already existing words in the L<sub>1</sub> (e.g. in French a word for a small truck, pickup, or le weekend). I argue that such words typically come into the recipient language through codeswitching. That is, in contrast to cultural borrowed forms, core borrowed forms only enter the recipient language gradually. (Myers-Scotton 2002: 41)

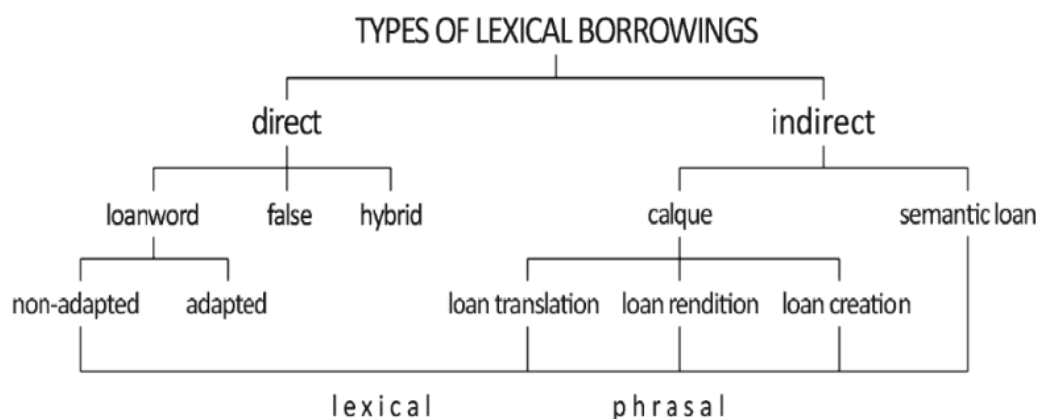
Many other authors have also attempted, without much agreement, different taxonomies of borrowings depending on the diverse parameters that can appear within a multilingual situation. In addition to Haugen’s classification based on the accuracy of the borrowed term, other models are grounded on the reasons for borrowing the term (Svobodová 1998), its features (Hughes 2000), or the borrowed linguistic unit (Greavu and Blaga 2014). Jafaar *et al.* (2019) compiled and summarised all these classifications into the following diagram (see Figure 15 below):

**Figure 15.** Classification of Borrowings according to different authors<sup>27</sup>

Despite the abundant taxonomies and literature on the matter, all authors agree on the importance of lexical borrowings. In addition, as many of the aforementioned scholars concur, the most common type of lexical borrowings are loanwords. Often the terms of *borrowing* and *loanword* have been used indistinctively to refer to words that are adopted from the donor language to the recipient language. Nonetheless, as Sankoff and Poplack (1981) confirmed, borrowings can occur at all levels of the language. Therefore, it must be clarified that loanwords are explicitly considered as lexical borrowings and, in consequence, the term should never be used as a synonym of *borrowing*. Furiassi *et al.* (2012: 6), as a result of this constant ambiguity, saw the need to unify the concept of lexical borrowings and what it entails. They proposed a new classification showcasing the most relevant concepts regarding lexical borrowings. This is provided in Figure 16

<sup>27</sup> Taken from Jafaar *et al.* (2019: 6).

below.

**Figure 16.** Types of lexical borrowings<sup>28</sup>

As we can observe, *lexical borrowing* is used as an umbrella term for many different terms related to the term *loanword*, but they cannot be regarded as synonyms either. Terms such as *hybrids*, *calques*, or *semantic loans* are at the same level of importance as loanwords. Hence, they must also be considered under the scope of our study. For example, following Myers-Scotton's (2002) classification of cultural vs. core borrowings, we understand that morphemes can also be borrowed. The word-forming processes of a language such as English consisted of, among other processes, affixation. This mechanism of word creation was already used in Old English; in fact, even today we find some affixes from this period in contemporary English, such as the prefix *fore-* (in *foresee*, *foreteller* or *forehead*) or the suffix *-ful* (in *grateful*, *hateful* or *beautiful*). Even then, the English language not only borrowed words, but also affixes. Many of the affixes we use today come from Latin or Greek. Prefixes like *in-*, *a-*, *dis-*, *pseudo-*, *anti-*, *pro-*, or suffixes like *-ism*, *-ist*, *-able*, *-ment* were used frequently to create new words. The term *hybrid* refers to those words resulting from a combination between an English root and a borrowed affix or *vice versa*. For example, the morphology of the word *painful* shows the Latin root (borrowed via French) *pain* together with the English suffix *-ful*, while the word *readable* consists of an English root *read* and a Latin suffix *-able*. Burridge (2004) emphasised the importance of hybrids in the English language as follows:

The English language is probably the most successful language of all time, and a mongrel tongue if ever there was one. Seventy-five per cent of English words are exotic - filched from somewhere else. Its current-day 'bitsier' grammar also shows

<sup>28</sup> Taken from Furiassi *et al.* (2012: 6).



the effects of contact with many different languages. It is indeed a remarkable hybrid. (Burridge 2004: 85)

In general lines, to understand the importance of lexical borrowings it is necessary to highlight that, on the one hand, the lexicon of the English language is organised into function words (pronouns, prepositions, connectors, some adverbs), which carry out organizing functions within the message, and content words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, and most adverbs), which express the meaning of the message itself. Consequently, content words would be the ones with the highest and most feasible probability of becoming loans since they do not necessarily change the internal structure of a language and, thus, they are more easily borrowable than function words. On the other hand, loans are subject to a series of principles that govern the transfer process, and the number of words borrowed will largely depend on the needs of the recipient language. In the period under scrutiny, due to socio-cultural reasons (explained in Chapter 2), the substratum of the Anglo-Saxon language was largely affected by the arrival of words of Old Norse and French origin. This massive change in vocabulary is known as *relexification* (Fuster-Márquez and Calvo-García de Leonardo 2012: 64). *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics* (Matthews 2014, s.v. *relexification*, n.) defines this term as the “process in which the vocabulary of a language is largely at least replaced, though borrowing, by that of another language, without its grammar being affected similarly”. This term has been typically attributed to the process of *creolegenesis*. Back in the late 20th century, authors such as Bailey and Maroldt (1977) or Domingue (1977), introduced the Middle English creolization theory, by which they claimed that Middle English should be regarded as a creole. This theory received much criticism from authors such as Poussa (1982), Görlach and Holm (1986), Thomason and Kaufman (1988), and even today no official position prevails with supporters and detractors on both sides. It is not the aim of this study to contribute to such discussions. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that the number of words entering the English language in this period could be, at least, considered as an exceptional evolution of the language. For Domingue (1977: 89), Middle English was not a “modernization” of Old English, but a “linguistic innovation” that resulted from contact with several languages. Therefore, whatever the label, it is undisputable that this huge set of new vocabulary was there for the authors of the period to benefit from its advantages, which, in turn, gave rise to an extremely rich and sophisticated literature worthy of study.

### **3.2.Semantic fields into perspective: theory, scope and change**

In order to accurately describe the behaviour of the English language in the leap between Old and Middle English, this section delves into the importance of analysing the semantic change favoured by the influence of Old Norse and French borrowings. To do so, we have divided this section into five subsections. Section 3.2.1 delves into the state-of-the-art situation in semantic field studies. Section 3.2.2 focuses on the definition and establishment of the theory of semantic fields. In Section 3.2.3, we discuss the difference between semantic field and lexical field, including as well other important concepts to describe the components of a semantic field. Section 3.2.4 presents the different kinds of relationships that form a semantic field. Finally, Section 3.2.5 provides a general overview of the types of semantic changes addressed by different authors in the recent past with special emphasis to those relevant for this study.

#### ***3.2.1. A panoramic overview of the establishment of semantic field studies***

The radical relexification of Middle English, as discussed in Section 3.1.4 above, led to a certain chaotic state that required the restructuring of this language at all levels if English was to become a prestigious language again. Despite the herculean task this supposed, many scholars have devoted time and effort to develop accurate research on explaining these changes. However, in recent years, Corpus Linguistics has become a vital companion for Historical Linguistics. This branch of linguistics refers to “the study of language data on a large scale – the computer aided analysis of very extensive collections of transcribed utterances or written texts” (McEnery and Hardie 2011:i). The diachronic applications of corpora studies have provided an inestimable push towards studying and understanding the evolution of a language in depth. Perhaps the most notable apportion of this collaboration is the compilation and publication of the *Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary*.

Furthermore, many research groups in Historical Linguistics have engaged in the compilation of corpora related to a specific sector of the language, thus contributing to a more accurate understanding of the evolution of the English language, such as VARIENG (Research Unit for the Study of Variation, Contacts and Change in English; University of Helsinki, Finland), VLCCG (Research unit for Variation, Linguistic Change and Grammaticalization, Universidad de Santiago de Compostela) or MuStE (Research

Group for Multidimensional Corpus-Based Studies in English; Universidad de A Coruña), among others. Corpus Linguistics has allowed many scholars to observe the contextualised development of a particular word or a group of them, which has triggered the proliferation of many recent studies related to semantic fields, both synchronically and diachronically. We find diachronic studies that investigate the semantic evolution of Middle English period in a general way, such as those by Melenciuc and Cameneva (2008), Diensberg (2009) or Skaffari (2009), as well as others of a synchronic nature that compare the case of either Old or Middle English with other contemporary languages, such as Rothwell (2007), Mackenzie (2010) or Müllerová (2018). On the other hand, other studies focus on the semantic evolution of grammatical (or function) words, such as Iglesias-Rábade's (2003a, 2003b) work on "on-phrases", or Stevens' (2008) monograph on demonstratives. Likewise, other authors focus on researching lexical (or content) words. In such cases where the lexical richness is so vast the study tends to be segmented. For instance, there are studies on adjectives (Nevanlinna 2000), adverbs (Simon-Vandenberg and Aijmer 2008), verbs (Orta 2000), Petré 2010, 2013, 2014, 2016, Mateo-Mendoza 2013, 2016, Bator 2014, Zhorabayevna 2014, Izdebska 2015, or Condorelli 2016). Nevertheless, the vast majority of research focuses on nouns, distinguishing between two large groups. On the one hand, we find those that analyse a specific word or a small group of words belonging to the same semantic field. To name some, Biggam (1997) studies the word *blue* in Old English, Lenker (1999) looks into the evolution of *girl*, Sądej (2009) analyses the concepts of *hill/mountain*, Hebda (2010) compares *onde* and *envy*, or Lendinara (2017) who studies the piracy term *lida*. On the other hand, we have those who investigate entire semantic fields such as that of *emotions*, like *joy*, *anger* or *fear* (Fabiszak 1999, 2002, Geeraerts *et al.* 2011, Pons-Sanz 2014, 2015, Díaz-Vera 2014, Izdebska 2015), *movement* (Negro-Alousque 2000), *religious terminology* (Bolin 2005, DiSciaccia 2012, Kirner-Ludwig 2016), *finance and commerce* (Moskowich and Crespo 2007), *hospitality, harbouring and entertainment* (Moriyama 2010), *pledges and agreements* (Ammon 2011), *building and architecture* (Biggam 2002), *colours* (Biggam 2012), *clothing* (Cambers and Sylvester 2010, Sylvester 2012), *music* (Bęclawski 2013), *comfort* (Reu 2014), *linguistic taboos* (Edwards 2015), or *identity* (Carlton 2019).

### 3.2.2. *Semantic fields: definition and theory*

Since it was first approached, the concept of semantic field has been a subject of controversy. According to Faber-Benítez and Mairal-Usón (1999: 67) “[t]raditionally, a semantic field is regarded as a set of lexemes which cover a certain conceptual area and which bear a certain specifiable semantic relation to one another”. Nonetheless, it is the largeness of the conceptual area and the relationships which establish it that has caused the more trouble within the scientific community when attempting to configure a theoretical framework for this concept.

The first to introduce the concept of semantic field was the German sociologist Gunther Ipsen (1924), later used by the German linguist and medievalist Josh Trier (1931) in his *Der deutsche Wortschatz im Sinnbezirk des Verstandes* to develop his first ideas around the theory of lexical fields. He argued that the vocabulary of a language is divided into lexical fields and conceptual fields, where the former separated the latter into parts to form a mosaic without gaps and without overlapping elements. This postulate falls in the lines of the classical model of categorisation in which, in Rodríguez-Abruñeiras’ (2019) words, “an item either belongs to or is excluded from a category, without any possible gradation” as opposed to the modern approach, “according to which there exists a gradation when considering which items are part of a given category and which items are not” (2019: 19). The first criticisms to Trier’s (1931) postulates did not take long to appear. These were precisely based on the assumption that semantic fields are not closed categories. In the following years, other scholars such as Ipsen himself or Porzig (1934) opposed their arguments to those of Trier, arguing that his bases did not sustain. In the words of Bator “He [Ipsen] claimed that words have joined meanings, and fields are formed on the basis of formal and functional assimilations” (Bator 2010: 36). Porzig (1934), on the other hand, defended that “words form [...] ‘elementary semantic fields’, and are bound together by ‘elementary semantic relations’” (Bator 2010: 36). Both claimed that most lexical fields were not clearly structured or separated. As a consequence, it became really difficult to distinguish definite barriers between the lexemes of a particular field or between different fields so as to properly categorise their constituents. This would be in line with the idea of categories being fuzzy sets in which “the transition from membership to non-membership is gradual rather than abrupt”

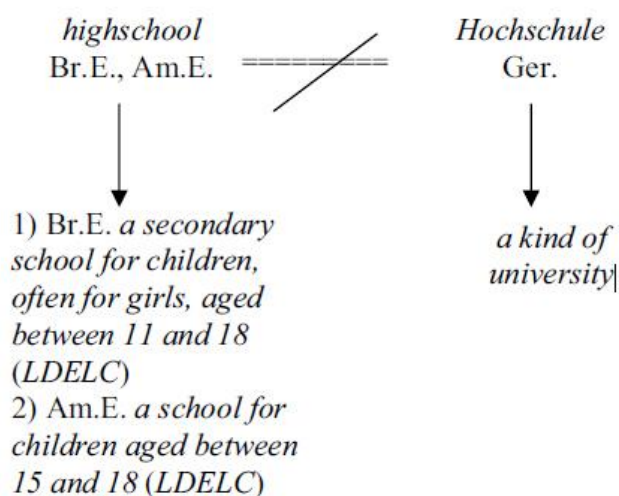
(Markowitz 1979: 30, as quoted in Rodríguez-Abruñeiras 2019: 26) and elements can overlap or belong to more than one category.

Although Ipsen (1924), Trier (1931), and Porzig (1934) could be regarded as rival contemporary semanticists, their theories did not exclude but complemented each other. As a result, these theories laid the foundation for a comprehensive development of semantic field theory. From this point on, many other authors saw the potential of a semantic study on a specific field of the language and contributed with their ideas to compose a solid theoretical base. For instance, Bally (1940), influenced by Saussure's structuralism, described each word as the centre of a constellation where an indefinite number of other coordinated items converge around it, and proposed the associative relationships that, in the words of Kleparsky and Rusinek (2007: 192), "linked together due to the presence of the common root-element, or due to a parallel set of relatedness of meaning, [and which] are exemplified in the following manner":

- Common root-element: *read* <> *reader* <> *reading* <> *readable* <> *reread*
- Relatedness of meaning: *reading* <> *book* <> *page* <> *letter* <> *education*

The flexibility and constant alternation of semantic fields proposed by Porzig (1934), though not devoid of criticism, created a list of followers who supported and refined his theory. Among them, Öhman (1951) and Oskaar (1958) stand out. They suggest that semantic fields are subject to the peculiarities of a language and depend to a great extent on dialectical or stylistic factors, on the register (formal or informal) that is used, even on the word formation processes of that language, assuming that the same lexical element – cognate in two languages of the same family – would not develop in the same way in these languages, as seen in Figure 17

below.

**Figure 17.** Semantic difference between *highschool* and *hochschule*<sup>29</sup>

As Kleparsky and Rusinek (2007) point out, the cognates *highschool* and *hochschule* developed related but different meanings in their respective languages. However, the possible applications of semantics into Historical Linguistics were not considered until some years later:

In 1964 Coseriu proposed the different applications of diachronic structural semantics, in fact he opened up a series of lines of research, [...] and in that sense today we find ourselves with extensive knowledge of what could be a structural etymology of content, [...] Where the knowledge of lexical structures supposes to deepen in the question of lexical loans. (my own translation from Corrales-Zumbado 1991: 80)<sup>30</sup>

Diverging from the studies carried out so far, these applications focused more on diachronic studies, although never disregarding the synchronic aspect, so as to provide a wider picture of the semantic evolution of the lexicon. García (2015) explains in this regard that:

In an attempt to harmonize the synchronic and diachronic bifurcation, the linguist, [Coseriu] perfects the paradigm of his theories about the functioning of the language from a synchronic perspective, at the same time that it is founded from a diachronic perspective (Coseriu, 1958). The necessary consequence is a structural semantics, a purification of methodological, conceptual and historical

<sup>29</sup> Taken from Kleparsky and Rusinek (2007: 192).

<sup>30</sup> En 1964 Coseriu nos proponía las diferentes aplicaciones de la semántica estructural diacrónica, nos abría de hecho una serie de líneas de investigación, [...] y en ese sentido nos encontramos hoy con amplios conocimientos de lo que podría ser una etimología estructural del contenido, [...] donde el conocimiento de estructuras léxicas supone profundizar en la cuestión de préstamos léxicos. (Corrales-Zumbado 1991: 80)

contributions that has inspired multiple researchers in various disciplines. (my own translation from Garcia 2015: 3)<sup>31</sup>

In summary, with Coseriu's contributions, linguists began to look to other horizons in search for more detailed sources of information that would help to build and define the theory of semantic fields. Although he was not the first to present a diachronic perspective as a possible option in a study on semantic fields, throughout his publications Coseriu, in collaboration with Geckeler (1974, 1981), tried to determine the possible scope of such studies. At the time, there was no clear-cut distinction between the terms *lexical field* and *semantic field*. Hence, in 1967, Coseriu provided his own definition of the concept under study, referring to it as a *lexical field*:

From a structural point of view, a lexical field (Wortfeld) is a lexical paradigm constituted by different words of a language that are directly opposed to one another by simple content-distinguishing features and that jointly subdivide a lexical continuum of content. (Coseriu 1967: 298, as quoted in Lieb 1978: 66-67)

As a result, the earliest diachronic studies applied to the semantic field theory appeared. In the late 1960s, while studying the semantic field of *blood*, Kühlwein (1968) stressed how the inadequacies of earlier semantic studies made most modern theories inapplicable for Old English. He synthesised other previous methods (namely, those of Trier and Porzig), to elaborate what he named the *operationelle Bedeutungskonzeption* ('operational concept of meaning') (1968: 19). This theory emphasised the importance of considering the different approaches to meaning (namely, *semasiology* studies,<sup>32</sup> *onomasiology* studies,<sup>33</sup> *syntax* studies,<sup>34</sup> and *etymology* studies<sup>35</sup>) in conjunction and not as isolated aspects. Perchonock and Werner (1969) studied the field of *food* in Navajo with very positive conclusions on the variation of relations in the lexicon, whereas Berlin and Kay (1969) studied word acquisition in children focusing on the field of *colour*.

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<sup>31</sup> En un intento de armonizar la bifurcación sincronía y diacronía, el lingüista [Coseriu], perfecciona el paradigma de sus teorías sobre el funcionamiento de la lengua desde una perspectiva sincrónica, a la vez que se encuentra fundamentado desde una perspectiva diacrónica (Coseriu, 1958). La consecuencia necesaria la constituye una semántica estructural, una purificación de aportaciones metodológicas, conceptuales e históricas que ha inspirado a múltiples investigadores en diversas disciplinas.

<sup>32</sup> Semasiology focuses on what is the meaning of the word X.

<sup>33</sup> Onomasiology focuses on which word is defined as X.

<sup>34</sup> Syntax focuses on which word fits in X context in a sentence.

<sup>35</sup> Etymology focuses on what is the history of the word X.



From the 1960s onwards, many authors devote their studies to try to expand and define the concept of semantic field. After several publications around the theory of semantic fields, Lyons (1977) developed and exposed his own “theory of meaning” seeking to update the concept and define it:

Lexemes and other units that are semantically related, whether paradigmatically or syntagmatically, within a given language-system can be said to belong to, or to be members of, the same (semantic) field; and a field whose members are [exclusively] lexemes is a lexical field. A lexical field is therefore a paradigmatically and syntagmatically structured subset of the vocabulary (or lexicon). (Lyons 1977: 268)

Lyons did make it clear that there existed a large number of paradigmatic relationships in semantic fields (synonymy, incompatibility, antonymy, or complementarity, among others) that provided a complex nature to these fields. This idea was supported in the following years by other influential authors such as Pottier (1963, 1964), Carrol (1963, 1965) or Lehrer (1969, 1970, 1974), who also contributed extensively to define the concept of semantic field. At the end of the 20th century, Corrales-Zumbado (1991) described the current panorama and emphasised once again the importance of differentiating, first, between synchronic studies and diachronic studies, and then the different tools that should be used in each case together with the considerations that must be made to conduct a study on each model. In addition, he emphasises that every source of information is valid since, in his own words, “[...] the important thing in lexical studies is to always have the maximum information and the largest amount of data” (my own translation from Corrales-Zumbado 1991: 85).<sup>36</sup>

Despite the efforts made by these many scholars, the theory of semantic fields is still a matter of discussion. With each new research, new Specialisations and appendices are introduced, old contradictions are discarded and new limitations appear. Unlike those early structuralist studies, the approach to semantic fields not only focuses on the internal description of their elements, but also takes into account their interrelations with their culture and the linguistic community that uses them, the level of development of the physical contexts within which they evolve, the reasons why these relationships occur or the geographic context where they take place, among others. All these factors help to

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<sup>36</sup> “[...] lo importante en estudios léxicos es tener siempre la máxima información y el mayor número de datos” (Corrales-Zumbado 1991: 85).

determine and expose nuances, notions, meanings and, above all, the semantic relationships that may hold a semantic field together.

### 3.2.3. *Semantic field, lexical field, and other important terminology*

When carrying out a diachronic study on a specific semantic field, scholars must observe the changes that this field has suffered over the period under study. This is undertaken through the systematic analysis of all the semantic relations that may form the semantic field. But as exposed in Section 3.2.2 above, trying to determine the extension of its paradigm has caused much controversy among scholars. In Crespo's (2013: 64) words, "[t]he most confusing element of semantics is the distinction between the adjectives 'lexical' and 'semantic': authors tend to use these terms ambiguously, even interchangeably". Thereby, this section delves into stating the distinction between semantic and lexical fields so as to make clear which are the boundaries of our semantic field and the terminology that we use along our study.

There has never been a clear-cut distinction between semantic field and lexical field. For many years, semanticists have attempted different definitions to set the boundaries of each term, although there has never been much agreement among them. As a result, we have decided to follow Lyons's (1977) definition, presented in Section 3.2.2 above. For Lyons, the difference eradicates in the lexical units that make up a field. In his definition, a semantic field can be constituted by a wide range of lexical units, such as lexemes, stems, compounds, or idioms, whereas are the only lexical units that can appear on a lexical field are lexemes. In accordance with Lyons (1977), Lipka (1980: 94) claims that lexemes are used "to denote both simple and complex lexical items made up of lexical morphemes". Therefore, a lexical field comprehends the entire group of words which are linked through inflection under the same root. As an example, the lexeme *war* includes words such as *war*, *wars*, *warrior* and *warry*, which belong to the same lexical field. On the other hand, *war*, *warfare*, *battle*, *at arms*, or *fight* are related through semantic relations (explained in Section 3.2.4), that is, they belong to the same semantic field, but not to the same lexical field.

In order to properly differentiate between the items of a semantic field, it is also necessary to introduce the terminology of those elements that form each of the lexical units of a field. Let us part from the difference between *lexeme* and *lemma*. While *lexeme*

refers to “the abstract unit underlying such sets of grammatical variants” (Crystal 2011, s.v. *lexeme*) (i.e., a group of words which are linked through inflection), *lemma* is regarded as a “dictionary entry; more generally referred to as a headword [...] an abstract representation, subsuming all the formal lexical variations which may apply” (Crystal 2011, s.v. *lemma*). In addition, a lexeme can consist of different morphemes, which are the basic indivisible units carrying meaning. For instance, the word *war* would be the lemma of the lexeme including *war*, *wars*, *warry* or *warring*, whereas *wars* would be formed by the morphemes *war* (indicating the root) and *-s* (indicating the plural).

Nevertheless, if we address the basic components of a semantic field (as opposed to those of a lexical field), words are related through semantic relations rather than morphologically. Therefore, these basic components of a semantic field are not lexemes or morphemes, but sememes. According to Lamb (1964: 57), *sememes* are “structural units” which are “units of meaning” themselves. Bloomfield (1926: 155) was the first to introduce this term, and according to him, a sememe is the meaning of a morpheme. It could result ambiguous to have two terms referring to the same unit. However, in the morphological level, morphemes “cannot in turn be analyzed into smaller recurrent (meaningful) forms” (Bloomfield 1926: 155). To break a morpheme further down, we would have to jump into the phonological level, although phonemes have no meaning *per se*. On the contrary, in the semantic level, sememes are the “sequences of phonemes” that “have meaning; and these meanings are the sememes” (Lamb 1964: 57), and can ultimately be divided into semes. *Seme* is a term introduced by Eric Buyssens in the 1930s and later developed by Bernard Pottier (1980: 169) as “[t]he fundamental semantic distinguishing characteristic of a sememe, in relation to a small set of terms actually available and probably used by the speaker in a communication circumstance.”<sup>37</sup> For example, the sememe *arms* contains two semes: *arm* (generic seme identifying the semantic paradigm of a sememe) and *-s* (specific seme indicating plural number).

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<sup>37</sup> Le fondamentale trait distinctif sémantique d’un sémème, relativement à un petit ensemble de terme réellement disponibles et vraisemblablement utilisables chez le locuteur dans une circonstance donnée de communication. (Pottier 1980: 169)

### 3.2.4. *Semantic relationships*

All lexical units of a language fall into a narrow range of meanings, which form a specific semantic field and can combine with each other to generate new denotations. The combination process depends largely on how their conceptual information is related. We will consider the term *semantic relations* just as Murphy (2003: 8) employs it, that is, for “relations defined by [...] paradigmatic semantic relations among words”, not contemplating “phrasal or sentential relations such as paraphrase, entailment, and contradiction”. In his book, Murphy (2003) claims that there are a number of properties that rule the establishment of the different types of semantic relations between the lexical units, and he lists these properties as follows:

1. **Productivity:** New relational links among words can be generated.
2. **Binarity:** Some relations relate only pairs of words, although larger sets of words may be semantically available for the relation (e.g., *black/white* rather than *black/gray/white*).
3. **Variability:** Which word(s) a particular word is related to varies according to which sense of the word is used and the context in which it is used.
4. **Prototypicality and canonicity:** Some word sets better exemplify a relation than others, and some word sets (especially some antonym pairs) seem to have special status as canonical examples of a relation.
5. **Semi-semanticity:** Semantic properties of words are not the only factors at work in relating words and judging semantic relations.
6. **Uncountability:** The number of semantic relation types is not objectively determinable.
7. **Predictability:** Relations among words adhere to general patterns, indicating that semantic relations are rule governed.
8. **Universality:** The same semantic relations are relevant to the description of any language’s lexicon. (Murphy 2003: 26)

These properties found the basis by which semantic relations occur. In this regard, Murphy proposes a principle that allows the enquiring mind to understand the relation between two lexical units. He names this principle *Relation by Contrast*, and “it holds that items are related if they are minimally different in contextually appropriate ways” (2003: 26). For instance, if the relation between the pair *war/battle* is considered, there must be some semantic similarities that hold the two lexical units together, although there must also be one distinctive trait (what Murphy (2003: 26) calls *minimal difference*) that identifies them as different units. Consequently, he provides Table 5 below where different examples are showcased.

**Table 5.** Instantiations of Relation by Contrast (Murphy, 2003: 45)

Relation	Relates	Similarity	Incompatibility	Example
synonymy	words	meaning, syntactic category, register, etc.	word form	COUCH=SOFA= DIVAN=SETTEE= DAVENPORT . . .
antonymy	words	semantic category, categorization level, register, morphology, etc.	sense	RISE/FALL HAPPY/SAD LIFE/DEATH
categorial opposition	categories	semantic field, categorization level	categorization criterion	RISE/GO DOWN HAPPY/SAD HAPPY/ANGRY
hyponymy	categories or names of categories	semantic category	level of categorization	BIRD>{ROBIN/ SWIFT/SWAN . . .}
meronymy	categories or names of categories	same object	level of completeness	HOUSE>{WALL/ ROOF/FLOOR/ DOORS . . .}
grammat. paradigm	words	lexeme, inflectional category type	inflection	DRINK-DRANK- DRUNK

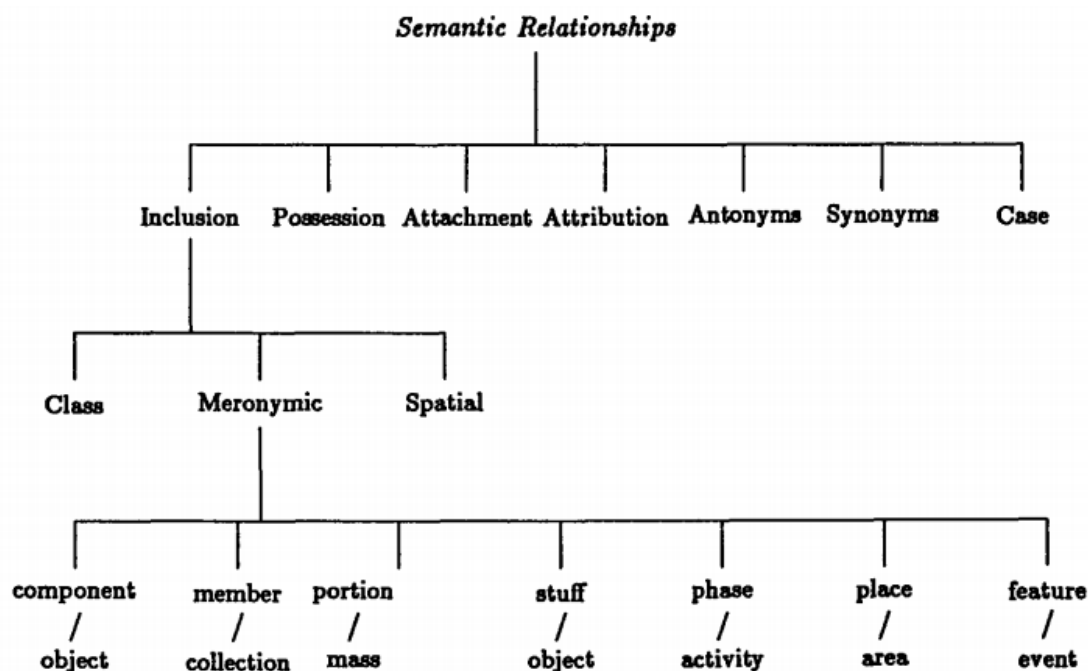
We can observe that Murphy distinguishes six different types of semantic relations, namely *synonymy*, *antonymy*, *categorial opposition*<sup>38</sup>, *hyponymy*, *meronymy* and *grammatical paradigm*<sup>39</sup>. Also, in the headings we can observe the variables that Murphy takes into account in his principle to distinguish between relations. The *Relation* column is reserved for the specific semantic relation deduced from the contrast, *Relates*

<sup>38</sup> “*antonym* refers specifically to the opposition of words, and *opposite* applies to any binary relation” (Murphy 2003: 46).

<sup>39</sup> “*Grammatical paradigms* represent another type of lexical relation” (Murphy 2003: 44), i.e., difference in the inflectional category types.

is used for the type of units that are related, *Similarity* for those features shared by the units, *Incompatibility*, refers to the minimal difference between units, and *Example* shows instances of each relation.

Following the principle of *Relation by Contrast*, all semantic relations that form the specific semantic field of a word can be determined and exposed by forming a conceptual map. This map is known as *semantic network*, a term first introduced in by the anthropologist Charles O. Frake (1964) in his *Notes on Queries in Ethnography*. Through these relations it depicts the entire scope of any semantic field. Nonetheless, semantic relations can be of two natures, syntagmatic and paradigmatic, a distinction initially proposed by Saussure in 1916. In a brief overview to Saussure's approach, Scheible and Im Walde (2014: 112) explain *syntagmatic semantic relations* as those "successive linguistic elements that combine with each other as [group or] 'syntagma'" (e.g., *defeat-opponent* or *win-battle*), and, in contrast, they define *paradigmatic semantic relations* as "elements that can be found in the same position in a syntagma, and which could be substituted for each other" (e.g. *war-peace* or *sword-weapon*). In other words, syntagmatic relations occur at a phrase or sentence level, whereas paradigmatic relations occur at a word level. All in all, both types of semantic relations can converge a wide range of linguistic units (namely, morphemes, phonemes, clauses, or sentences). Notwithstanding, the focus of this research is on the relations between words, thus, only paradigmatic relations will be considered in this PhD thesis. Likewise, there is a wide variety of paradigmatic semantic relations. After compiling the types of paradigmatic semantic relations proposed by different authors in the late 80s, Storey (1992: 457) suggests the following taxonomy given in Figure 18:

**Figure 18.** Types of Semantic relationships<sup>40</sup>

Storey (1992) acknowledges seven different main relations, namely *possession* ('the ownership relationship'), *attachment* ('one entity type is connected or joined to another'), *attribution* ('the relationship between an object and its attribute'), *antonymy*, *synonymy*, *case*, and *inclusion* which, in turn, encompasses three more minor relations (*class*, *meronymy*, and *spatial*). It is worth pointing out how Storey (1992) disregards the *hyponymy/hypernymy* relation by seemingly considering it as a type of *meronymy* inside the sublabel *member*, while any other taxonomies would regard it as a separate type. For instance, although Murphy (2003: 446) does define hyponymy as a "relation of inclusion", particularly a "generic-specific relation", whose converse is hypernymy, he considers that "[h]yponyms and meronyms are semantically similar to their respective hypernyms and holonyms, in that each refers to a part of the larger thing" (2003: 43). Hence, he considers that both relations are at the same level, that is, within this relation of inclusion, a hyponym refers to a type, whereas meronym refers to a part. For example, a hyponym of *shield* is *round shield*, *kite shield* or *buckler* (a type-of relation), but a meronym of *shield* is *boss*, *bouche* or *enarmes* (a part-of relation). In this regard, we would like to make clear that for the aims of this study, we will address hypernymy and meronymy as separate terms because of their importance in terminology work.

<sup>40</sup> Taken from Storey (1992: 45); based on Landis *et al.* (1987), Winston *et al.* (1987), and Chaffin *et al.* (1988).

Furthermore, we consider hyponymy as the backbone of ontology-based terminological studies since it is the point of departure for all conceptual hierarchies.

### 3.2.5. *Semantic change*

Once the parameters that conform the reach of a given semantic field have been set and defined, the process of semantic change can be properly addressed in this section. Semantic change plays an important role when it comes to forming a semantic field. Many of the words of a field suffer changes in meaning along their history that can ultimately make them fall in or out of that semantic field. Therefore, this section will address the possible changes that may alter a semantic field and its constituents, especially those regarding metaphorical and metonymical change.

Semantic change is a phenomenon that occurs in any language at all times. It is undeniably a diachronic phenomenon, since change can only be observed over time. All words in a language have different senses and connotations, which can suffer additions, reductions, or alterations over time. Thus, accurately describing this phenomenon has been a matter of discussion among scholars since the early 20th century. Bloomfield (1926: 163) attempted an early and vague description of the *semantic change* regarding it as an “analogic change of words” which could be “contaminative, adaptive or proportional”. Since then, many authors have attempted to provide a more satisfactory definition of *semantic change* focusing on different perspectives such as its linguistic and social nature, the causes it derives from, or the consequences it entails. Nevertheless, it has been nearly impossible to predict when semantic change occurs. In this regard Redondo-Moyano (2014: 6) states that “[t]he study of semantic change has also been concerned with the direction observed in some of its types, focusing on the possibility of predicting their occurrence. Unfortunately, it is not possible to make reliable predictions in this area”. Instead, most efforts have focused on describing why semantic change occurs. Some authors, such as Meillet (1906), highlighted the importance of linguistic, social and historical factors in the process of semantic shift. Others, such as Sperber (1930), consider psychological causes as another pillar for these changes. Crespo (2013) synthesised Ullmann’s (1962) thoughts on this topic in Table 6 below:

**Table 6.** Causes of semantic change according to Ullmann (1962; taken from Crespo 2013: 76)



1. Linguistic causes		
2. Historical causes	- Specialization	
3. Social causes	- Generalisation	
4. Psychological causes	4.1. Emotional factors	
	4.2. Taboo (euphemism)	4.2.1. Fear
		4.2.2. Tact
	4.2.3. Decorum	
5. Foreign influences		
6. Need of new names		

As we can see, Ullmann discerns between six different causes depending on the factor from which the change originates. “Linguistic causes” relate to changes due to vagueness and imprecision of sense, flexibility of meaning, instability of form-content relationship or analogies. In the “Historical causes” the referent is transformed over the course of time due to historical events whereas “Social changes” emerge from advancements in society. The “Psychological causes” are those that reflect the emotional sensibility of speaker or the influence of different cultural taboos. Crespo, nevertheless, disagrees with the last two, *foreign influences* and *need of new names*, claiming that both could be included under the *social* label, since they originate from social factors. Likewise, in her own proposal, Crespo (2013) also combines the social and historical causes under the same label thus suggesting only a threefold approach, namely linguistic causes, socio-historical causes, and psychological causes.

Regardless of the origin of the change, there has also been much debate regarding the consequences of these causes. Semantic change has traditionally been studied from two perspectives, namely *semasiology* or *onomasiology*. Traugott (2017: 2) defines *semasiology* as a form-to-function approach where the focus falls onto “how meaning changes, while form remains relatively constant. The question is: What meanings are associated with a word, how are the meanings related, and how did they arise over time?” On the contrary, she regards *onomasiology* as a function-to-form approach to semantic change, where “attention is paid to sense relations that hold between the items in an inventory, and to which forms come to express a certain concept”. These two perspectives set the ground for change observation. In fact, many of the different types of semantic change proposed by the many authors that have been studying this discipline in depth

over the last century spring from them. Crespo (2013) again provides a very complete overview of the types of semantic changes proposed by the different authors that have addressed this topic in below:

**Table 7.** Classification of types of semantic change from a sociolinguistic point of view (Crespo 2013: 35)

<i>WILLIAMS (1975)</i>	<i>HUGHES (1988)</i>	<i>BERNDT (1989)</i>	<i>MILLWARD (1996)</i>
Reduction Expansion Metaphor Metonymy Shift Synecdote Weakening Euphemism Popular etymology Semantic replacement Errors	Distortion Dysphemism Emotional intensification Verbicide Opposite shift Popular etymology Semantic replacement Improvement Deterioration	Substitution Extension Regrouping Popular etymology Semantic replacement Specialisation Generalisation Figurative use of an existing form Euphemism Improvement Deterioration Stylistic use of terms	Generalisation Specialisation Improvement Deterioration Strengthening Weakening Abstraction Concretion Connotative meaning shift Denotative meaning shift
<i>ANTTILA (1989)</i>	<i>ROOM (1991)</i>	<i>GEERAERTS (1997)</i>	<i>FORTSON (2003)</i>
Extension Restriction Pejorative evaluation	Functional transference Restriction Deterioration Expansion Associated transference Abstraction Improvement Weakening Scientific accuracy False etymology Reinforced meaning	Specialisation Generalisation Metonymy Metaphor Improvement Deterioration Analogical changes	Metaphoric extension Metonymic extension Broadening Narrowing Melioration Pejoration

As seen in Table 7 above, every author provides a personal taxonomy of semantic change. However, not all of them are equally relevant for this study and, consequently, only those changes pertinent to our analysis will be addressed. It can be deduced that, despite the amount of literature, no general consensus was reached among the scholars dealing with it. Each new author tried to shed new light on the number of types of semantic change, but, in the words of Luján (2010: 288), “[i]n spite of the efforts, none of them is wholly satisfactory – the divisions are not exhaustive and the various criteria employed frequently overlap. A particular change of meaning can thus be at the same time an instance of specialization and pejoration”. Anyhow, we can also observe how some concepts (e.g., metaphor, metonymy, generalisation, specialisation, pejoration, melioration), although not always under the same label, are repeated among many

authors. More recently, Hickey (2010: 15) pointed out how “change on the meaning level of language is largely dominated by two forces: metaphor and metonymy”; Luján (2010: 289-90) regards metaphor and metonymy as the two major semasiological changes; and Traugott (2013: 10-11) also includes *metaphorization* and *metonymization* among the main consequences of semantic change in her studies. Consequently, although there exist a wide variety of types, it is generally accepted that some of them are much more frequent and common than others. Notwithstanding, it is clear that for a general analysis of a whole semantic field we must bear in mind that the semantic shift of a word’s meaning can originate from different and simultaneous causes, and that different and simultaneous semantic shifts can affect the same word. Therefore, in order to thoroughly analyse semantic change in the semantic field of [WAR], we must consider all the aforementioned possibilities.

### 3.3. Conclusions to Chapter 3

As seen in Section 3.1, language contact in medieval England transformed the Anglo-Saxon society into a multilingual one, where many of its inhabitants could make use of the different languages available to interact with the different cultures that coexisted in the Island. Code-switching became common and, in time, it saw its way into the English literature. It also facilitated the borrowing processes, which nurtured the vernacular in many semantic fields with words from Latin, Scandinavian or French origin. Likewise, loanwords and hybrids played a key role in encouraging semantic change since the influence of foreign concepts provoked that the vernacular adapted to new realities.

In turn, Section 3.2 has established what is a semantic field and exposed the principles that bind all the words together inside a field, thus, providing us with the necessary parameters that delimit the semantic field of [WAR]. Also, a thorough display of the triggers for semantic change and their outcomes has been laid out for us to be aware of all the possible types of shifts we may encounter in our analysis.

Chapter 3 has made clear that the phenomenon that put all these pieces into motion in medieval England was warfare. Therefore, it should be the focus of our study to analyse to what extent language contact and semantic change affected the semantic field of [WAR] in the period under study.





## **Chapter 4. Methodology and materials**

This chapter focuses on the description of the procedures followed when developing our study, as well as on all the tools used in the process. However, to properly understand the choice of this methodology, it is necessary to first justify the choice of the elements analysed in our research. To this aim, we have divided this chapter into four major sections. Section 4.1 delves into explaining the selection criteria. Then, Section 4.2 provides a description of the source materials used to perform the data extraction process. Section 4.3 focuses on providing a sequenced explanation of our procedure as well as on justifying some considerations taken along the process. Lastly, Section 4.4 serves as a closing commentary to the present chapter.

### **4.1. Selection criteria**

The analysis carried out in this dissertation essentially revolves around the lexical contribution and the semantic changes that the borrowing processes entail. Nevertheless, although all these processes have been taken into consideration when extracting the vocabulary for our analysis, a series of decisions had to be made beforehand in order to contextualise and narrow our search. These affect the selection of historical period (Section 4.1.1), the choice of texts (Section 4.1.2) and the type of lexicon analysed (Section 4.1.3).

#### ***4.1.1. Selection of the historical period***

Our main interest is to expose the lexical changes suffered within the semantic field of [WAR] in medieval England. Therefore, the first step was to delimit the historical moment in which the English language suffers the greatest influx of words from other languages, that is the leap between Old English and Middle English (from the 9th to the 13th century). As seen in Chapter 2, along this period, contact between Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Old Norse and Old French (both its Norman and Central varieties) created that amalgam of lexicon that led to a huge relexification that enriched the English language.

Given that the main aim of this dissertation is to identify how war affected the English vocabulary, we have selected the two most bellicose periods in the history of England as the target of our analysis, namely Old and Middle English (from the 7th to the

15th century). As seen in Section 2.1 above, the string of foreign invasions suffered by the British Isles since the moment the Roman Empire landed on British shores up to the moment when the Normans lost their hegemony on British soil, English was in contact with a wide variety of foreign languages, especially Latin, Old Norse and French (both in its Norman and Central varieties). This situation of language contact helped to shape the English language.

When a new term is borrowed from a foreign language, it tends to be used first in the oral domain and then in writing. In other words, texts are more conservative and reticent to change than oral speech. That is the reason why, since we only have access to written texts, we decided to analyse the whole Middle English period as some of the borrowings that were introduced in the language in Old English would only surface in the Middle Ages.

#### ***4.1.2. Selection of the texts***

The second step was to determine which texts were most suitable in order to create a specific corpus for a study of such nature. Linguistic corpora are “structured collections of texts specifically compiled for linguistic analysis” (Kennedy 1998: 3). As none of the multiple corpora available would meet our needs, we had to create a specialised *ad hoc* corpus of Old and Middle English texts dealing with the semantic field of [WAR]. As a result, it was also necessary to divide this corpus into two sub-corpora, namely the Old English sub-corpus and the Middle English sub-corpus. The former would show our semantic field free of foreign influences, while the latter would already display these new meaning shifts and lexical incorporations.

Thus, our starting point was to consider all those texts that could refer to warfare terminology in Old English. Initially, this excluded all ecclesiastical texts (e.g., sermons or hagiographies), legal works, chronicles and others, to focus only on the Anglo-Saxon epic. Under the “Discovering Literature: Medieval” section of its website,<sup>41</sup> the British Library provides an introduction to the epic texts fitting within our criteria, in which Bintley (2018) first points out that:

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<sup>41</sup> Taken from <[www.bl.uk/medieval-literature](http://www.bl.uk/medieval-literature)>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

The literature of the Anglo-Saxons (c. 450–1100) is abundant in heroic, or epic, poetry: narrative poems which recount the deeds of heroic figures who overcome significant challenges in the pursuit of goals that were deemed virtuous by the standards of the day. (Bintley 2018, para.1)

Bintley’s (2018) section continues with a detailed list of these heroic poems, which include some independent texts and some manuscripts found in the collection of the *Exeter Book* (c. 1000). This list could initially conform the basis of our Old English sub-corpus. Nevertheless, although Bintley mentions a poem included in *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (namely “The Battle of Brunanburh”), it is not the only poem appearing in these annals. These chronicles also contain other minor poems that follow the tradition of the Anglo-Saxon epic too. Thus, we consider that they are as well worthy of study, since they maintain the recursive characteristics of alliterative poetry. In addition to poetry, there is one Old English text that, though in prose, also makes reference to the Viking incursions occurred in this period: *Sermo Lupi ad Anglos*. Taking all this into consideration, the final list of texts from the Old English sub-corpus is given below. The list provides the titles of the texts analysed, the abbreviations that I will use in Chapter 5 to refer to these texts, the dates of composition, the number of lines and words per text, and a brief summary of the stories narrated in the material selected.

- I. *Beowulf* (BEOW) (c. 700-750 AD). The surviving manuscript composition date ranges from 975 to 1025, 3,182 lines and 17,376 words. Written by an anonymous author, it is the longest and oldest poem preserved in Old English. It is divided into three parts that relate the adventures of a Scandinavian hero named Beowulf. First, he aids Hrothgar, the king of the Danes, in defeating the monster Grendel. In the second part, Beowulf also slays Grendel’s mother when she comes seeking revenge for her son’s death. In the third part, some fifty years later, it narrates Beowulf’s death after winning a battle with a dragon which also wounded him fatally.
- II. *Finnsburg Fragment* (FFRAG) (unknown), also narrated in *Beowulf*, 48 lines and 306 words. This portion of the poem narrates how a doomed marriage results in a bloody fight where neither side wins, a battle in which Hnæf and his 60 retainers are besieged at “Finn’s fort” and attempt to hold off their attackers.
- III. *Waldere* (WALD) (c.1000 AD), part of a larger lost poem surviving in two fragments (A and B), accumulating 32 and 31 lines respectively, and 747



words altogether. It tells the legend of Walter (Waldere) of Aquitaine (a very popular story in the Middle Ages), who falls in love with Hildegyth, and together steal a treasure from the court of Attila. In the first fragment, Waldere is encouraged to march to battle by Hildegyth speech. In the second part, Waldere defies and taunts his rival, Guthhere, into battling him.

- IV. *The Battle of Maldon* (BMALD) (c. 1000 AD), 325 lines and 2,082 words. The poem retells the fall of earl Byrhtnoth during a Viking attack on the banks of the Blackwater River near Maldon.
- V. “Deor” (DEOR) (unknown), included in the *Exeter Book* (c. 1000), 42 lines and 225 words. This poem is a lament where Deor compares his misfortunes with those of various figures from Germanic mythology, reconciling his own troubles with the troubles these figures faced.
- VI. “Widsith” (WIDS) (c. 6th century AD), included in the *Exeter Book* (c. 1000), 143 lines and 845. This manuscript represents largely a listing of the people, kings, and heroes of Europe and their main deeds from the Heroic Age of Northern Europe.
- VII. “The Battle of Brunanburh” (BBRUN) (AD 937), included in *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, 66 lines and 321 words. This poem commemorates the victory of the armies of the allied kingdoms of Wessex and Mercia over the combined forces of Scots and Vikings on the Wirral peninsula.
- VIII. *Sermo Lupi ad Anglos* (SLUPI) (c1010-1016 AD), written by Archbishop Wulfstan of York, 2,076 words. Although this text is a homily written in prose, Wulfstan makes direct references to the disasters of war caused by the spoils of the Vikings in English soil.

The following five texts are those minor poems found in *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. Due to their reduced length, they have been grouped as one in our study under the tag *the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle Poems* (ASCP):

- IX. “The Capture of the Five Boroughs” (AD 942), 13 lines and 65 words. This poem records how King Edmund’s conquest of Mercia freed the Five Boroughs (Derby, Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, and Stamford) from the Norsemen’s yoke.
- X. “Coronation of King Edgar” (AD 973), 20 lines and 132 words.

- XI. “Death of King Edgar” (AD 959), 37 lines and 247 words.
- XII. “Death of Alfred” (AD 1036), 25 lines and 199 words.
- XIII. “Death of King Edward” (AD 1065), 34 lines and 172 words.

All in all, we analysed 13 texts accumulating a total of 4,008 verses in the poems, which, in addition to the 2,076 words from *Sermo Lupi*, accumulate a total of 24,549 words that forms our Old English sub-corpus. However, not all the words are equally eligible for our study, since only those words related to the semantic field of [WAR] are valid. Table 8 below shows the distinction in numbers of the total number of words in each text against the words extracted from them. Additionally, the last row provides their totals in our Old English sub-corpus.

**Table 8.** Results for total number of words vs. extracted words in the Old English texts

OLD ENGLISH TEXT	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	NUMBER OF WORDS ANALYSED
ASCP	799	70
BBRUN	363	72
BEOW	17,376	2,096
BMALD	2,082	308
DEOR	172	16
FFRAG	297	37
SLUPI	2,252	65
WALD	363	32
WSITH	845	53
TOTAL	24,549	2,742

Moving on to the Middle English period, a quick sweep in any anthology of medieval English literature makes it clear that the number of texts preserved from this period is much higher than from Old English. As explained in Section 2.2.4 above, despite the considerable supremacy of Old French and Latin in the literary sphere in the first years after the Norman Conquest, English gradually regained its position as a language of literary prestige. In the 14th century, the wide productivity and development of the vernacular in literature are illustrated in the large number of works that are preserved from this time-span. Furthermore, flicking through a few of these works, we soon realise that Middle English texts are visibly much longer than those from Old English. To cite an example, regarding alliterative heroic poetry, the longest surviving poem from Old English is *Beowulf*, with 3,182 lines, while in Middle English *Layamon's Brut*

accumulates 16,095 lines. The explanation was perfectly logical. According to Moisl (1981: 216), “[t]he Anglo-Saxons, in common with other Germanic peoples, maintained in the form of orally transmitted narrative traditions [...] cultivated by a court poet known to the Anglo-Saxons as *scop*”. The recursive use of alliteration, like the French-influenced rhyme (later used in some of the Middle English texts analysed in this dissertation), was in origin a mnemonic aid that facilitated the transmission of these works. In contrast, cultivated medieval literature was generally transmitted in written form, which facilitated the composition of longer works and allowed the use of more stylistic devices.

An additional difference between Old English and Middle English literature has to do with the text types from these two periods: all over Europe, new genres and themes were emerging in medieval times, and these, in turn, were a reflection of a change in society. In our goal of studying the semantic field of [WAR], we observed how there is a transition from the Germanic epic formula to that of the French romance. The Germanic epic, with its great battles and heroic figures, served the purpose of showing examples of the code of honour followed by the warriors of that society that worshiped war, in order to inspire and motivate others to follow the same path. Alternatively, the romance is born in the Late Medieval Europe at the heart of an aristocratic court, in the former region of Occitania in southern France, now regarded as Occitan and Provençal literature; its main objective was entertaining the courtiers with stories of adventure, chivalry and courtly love. It is worth noting the inclusion of the female element since, unlike the previous period, women were then a large sector of the target audience of this new literature. To provide a clear example, one of the most recurrent themes of the time, both in England and in France was, without a doubt, the myth of Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Dedicating entire romances to the adventures of Lancelot, Gawain, or Percival, this theme made King Arthur one of the most famous literary topics around the world. This topic is regarded in English literature as the *Matière de Bretagne* or “the Matter of England”, which “persists as an accepted term to refer to several Middle English romances” and that “was formed by analogy to the three classifications of romance coined by the twelfth-century French poet Jean Bodel: ‘Matter of France’, ‘Matter of Britain’ and the ‘Matter of Rome the Great’” (Campbell 1983: 4). Additionally, these differentiating characteristics between the literature of both periods were also considered as possible catalysts for loanwords since, together with the incorporation of the French romance

topics, a large number of new concepts that had not been used until that moment landed in the English language.

Consequently, and considering the differences and similarities between the two periods under study, we had to discern which Middle English texts would fit our criteria. In the first place, with the objective of analysing only those texts that made reference to warfare terminology, only romances were originally contemplated. Nevertheless, the large number of works obtained after applying this filter made it necessary to narrow down the selection of texts so as to have a manageable number of words to analyse. In this way, we discarded all those works that, although written on English soil, were originally composed in French or Anglo-Norman (such as *Sir Degaré* or *Le Fresne*), since the original text might have influenced to a greater or lesser extent the English translation of the poems (in other words, the translators of these texts might have retained words from the source language in the target text). Likewise, early Scottish poetry from the Lowlands (such as *The Brus*) was rejected so as to avoid any influences from Scottish Gaelic. After applying this filter, the number of results reduced significantly.

Also, in order to include the Arthurian topic in this study, we had several interesting texts at hand that fell within this parameter, such as *Ywain and Gawain* or *La morte d'Arthur*. Nonetheless, to prevent this theme from monopolising our study, we decided to choose only what are, perhaps, the two most relevant works of alliterative Arthurian poetry: *Layamon's Brut* and *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. Additionally, we also wanted to contemplate works that used the couplet verse instead of the alliterative one with the intention of comparing the contribution that non-alliterative literature made to our semantic field, as in the case of *Sermo Lupi Ad Anglos* in Old English. Moreover, in spite of belonging to the same genre (i.e., romance), these texts also had to deal with the *Matière de Bretagne*. Maintaining a certain hegemony in the selected topic would allow all texts to make reference to the same context, namely the reality of Great Britain in this period. In this fashion, we included the romances of *King Horn* (in the three versions that are preserved), *Havelok the Dane* and *Sir Orfeo*. The list below shows the selected texts alongside their most relevant information:

- *Brut* (LB) (c1190-1215 AD), written by the English priest Layamon, 16,096 lines. Largely based on the Wace's Anglo-Norman *Roman de Brut*, this poem

represents the first historiography of England written in English since *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

- *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* (SGGK) (late 14th century AD), unknown, 2,530 lines. It retells how, after accepting the Green Knight's challenge, Gawain embarks on a journey to fulfil his promise in which his chivalry and loyalty are tested.
- *King Horn* (KH) (mid-13th century AD), author unknown, preserved in 3 different manuscripts: MS. Harley 2253 at the British Library, London; MS. Laud. Misc 108 at the Bodleian Library, Oxford; and MS. Gg. iv. 27.2 at the Cambridge University Library. They accumulate 1,546, 1,570, and 1,531 lines respectively. Based on the Anglo-Norman *Romance of Horn*, this poem narrates the adventures of an exiled Horn before returning home with an army of Irish knights to reclaim his rightful throne from the Sarracens who killed his parents.
- *Havelok the Dane* (HD) (mid-13th century AD), author unknown, 3,000 lines. This romance is a complex two-story-arched poem which tells the events of how Havelock rescues Goldborow and becomes the king of both Denmark and England.
- *Sir Orfeo* (SO) (c. late 13th or early 14th century AD), author unknown, 604 lines. It relates the adventures of Orpheo, the King of England, to retrieve his wife from the Otherworld King.

Thus, we accumulate a total of five texts, two alliterative and three couplet poems, which add up to a total of 22,232 verses. Table 9 below shows the total number of words contained in these verses compared to the number of words extracted from each text, as well as the total amount of analysable words in the Middle English sub-corpus.

**Table 9.** Total number of words vs. extracted words in the Middle English texts

MIDDLE ENGLISH TEXT	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	NUMBER OF WORDS ANALYSED
HD	17,701	571
KH	22,092	992
LB	137,914	10,253
SGGK	20,991	757
SO	3,743	130
TOTAL	202,441	12,641

As Table 9 shows, the number of words analysed in Middle English is visibly larger compared to the 2,742 words from the Old English sub-corpus. Although this difference in analysable items may seem too disparate, there are valid reasons for this choice. The first is that, unavoidably, the average Middle English text is longer than the Old English one. Consequently, it may be argued that fewer Middle English manuscripts should have been included in the analysis in order to match the samples from the previous period. Nevertheless, the texts that have been selected for this Middle English sub-corpus represent those better suited for our purposes, and also counting with a more reduced number of texts would leave the door opened for falling into the idiosyncrasies of the authors, thus making the word choice less variable and objective. Lastly, as demonstrated in Section 4.1.3 below, having more analysable verses in Middle English does not increase drastically the number of analysable items at hand. If we compare this figure in both periods, it can be observed that the items belonging to the semantic field of [WAR] in the Old English sub-corpus add up a total of 287 words, while those from Middle English accumulate 350 words, which represents less than a 20% difference. Therefore, the number of words analysed per period is rather balanced.

Finally, despite not being able to include all the texts that would form a complete corpus of warfare literature in these two periods, we considered the 18 selected texts to be sufficient in order to establish a wide corpus that allows the extraction of valid vocabulary related to the semantic field of [WAR] so as to develop an analysis with the required features. With that purpose, before closing this section, Table 10 below offers a contrastive analysis of the data selected for the two periods under study.

**Table 10.** Analysable data from the selected Old and Middle English texts

PERIOD	OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH
Number of poems	13	5
Number of lines	4,008	22,232
Total number of words	2,742	12,641
Number of words analysed	287	352

#### 4.1.3. Selection of the terms analysed

The third and last of our step was to establish which vocabulary would fit within our study. To begin with, it was extremely important to define this variable properly in order to ensure that the results were as accurate as possible. If we wanted to analyse the semantic field of [WAR], this central word had to be defined first so as to be clear about all the elements that belong to its semantic field. In the first place, this definition had to match our historical context and therefore any modern definition, expression or meaning of *war* had to be rejected. To avoid falling into any misleading definition, it was necessary to resort to tools that could offer this sort of information. Consequently, the best course of action was to trust the exceptional help of the OED. According to this dictionary, the term *war* was borrowed from the Norman term *werre* (compared to Central French *guerre*) in AD 1222, meaning ‘confusion, discord, strife’ (OED, s.v. *war*, n.1). Through *relexification* (see Section 3.1.4 above), this borrowing replaced the original Old English term *gewin(n)*. This provided us with the two keywords that would form the centre of our conceptual map in each of the periods under study (namely, *gewin(n)* for Old English and *werre* for Middle English). Taking these terms as a starting point allowed us to begin locating those words that belong to the same lexical field. The second part of the information that the OED entry offers are the different meanings this word has had along its history. The first meaning describes it as: ‘Hostile contention by means of armed forces, carried on between nations, states, or rulers, or between parties in the same nation or state; the employment of armed forces against a foreign power, or against an opposing party in the state’ (OED, s.v. *war*, n.1, 1). To start, if we focus only on content words used in this definition, we can highlight the concepts *hostile*, *contention*, *armed*, *forces*, *nations*, *states*, *rulers*, *parties*, *foreign*, *power* and *opposing*. To establish a first classification as an index, these concepts were grouped according to their grammatical category, differentiating seven nouns (which indicate the type of event and its participants) and four adjectives (which define the nature of the event). In addition,

although our study will not focus on grammatical words, the term *against* also emphasises the idea that there must irreparably be at least two participants involved. Following the indications of the semantic field theory, it was clear that the niche to be analysed had to necessarily include these concepts, their derivatives (including any kind of word formed from them through affixation, compounding, or hybridisation) and all those words that were somehow semantically related to them. Therefore, we considered in our study different types of disputes, military ranks, troop divisions, emplacements, military strategies and tactics, types of offensive and defensive military equipment, injuries, actions of warlike nature that such disputes imply, and the qualifiers that are used to describe its nature. Nevertheless, we must not forget that war was a way of life during the Middle Ages. As explained in Section 2.2 above, the entire governmental system of the different periods, both before and after the Norman Conquest, was designed and organised around war, to summon armies, to move them from one place to another and to maintain them. Fulfilling this task fell on behalf of the rulers and, consequently, being in charge of any noble title entailed, by extension, military tasks. For this reason, official positions and titles of nobility were also contemplated under our scope of analysis. Subsequently, as will be further discussed in Section 4.3 below, the first division that can be established within our semantic field would be between those items with military nature and those with an authority one.

The next step in the investigation, was to select the words which were eligible for our analysis from the total number of words from each sub-corpus. In Hilpinen's (2012: 259) words: "[t]he length of a manuscript can be measured by counting word tokens, but a person's vocabulary can be measured by counting word types". Following Peirce's (1974) labelling, when we refer to a word as a particular instance in a text, we will use the term *token*, especially referring to those terms from the semantic field of [WAR] as *war-related tokens*. For any word as a concept or kind we will refer to it as a *war-related type*. For instance, in the case of *king*, this word shows a total of 2,446 occurrences (war-related tokens) in all 18 texts of our corpus. Nevertheless, when addressing to the number of different words comprehended in our semantic field, all occurrences for *king* can only be analysed as one kind (war-related types). Accordingly, as a closure to this section, Table 11 below shows these two figures in contrast for each of the periods.



**Table 11.** Total number of war-related tokens vs. total number of war-related types in the Old and Middle English texts related to the semantic field of [WAR]

PERIOD	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TOKENS	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TYPES
Old English	2,742	287
Middle English	12,641	352

As the table shows, the total number of tokens analysed in each subcorpus differs enormously (2,742 in Old English vs. 12,641 in Middle English), but the final number of war-related types per period is rather balanced (287 and 352, respectively). The complete lists of Old and Middle English war-related types are given in Annex I and Annex II, respectively.

#### 4.2. Source Materials

This section first describes the dictionaries and glossaries consulted for this paper (Section 4.2.1) and then explains in detail the COMEET tool used for the corpus analysis (Section 4.2.2).

##### 4.2.1. *The OED and other dictionaries*

Although the OED was the main source of information, other dictionaries and glossaries were consulted to identify the meanings of the terms analysed. For the sake of clarity, these materials are listed in Table 12 below.

**Table 12.** Consulted online source materials<sup>42</sup>

SOURCE	LINK
<i>Oxford English Dictionary</i>	<a href="https://www.oed.com/">https://www.oed.com/</a>
<i>Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary</i>	<a href="https://www.oed.com/thesaurus">https://www.oed.com/thesaurus</a>
<i>Etymonline</i>	<a href="https://www.etymonline.com/">https://www.etymonline.com/</a>
<i>Historical Thesaurus of English</i>	<a href="https://ht.ac.uk/">https://ht.ac.uk/</a>
<i>Bosworth-Toller Anglo-Saxon Dictionary</i>	<a href="https://bosworthtoller.com/">https://bosworthtoller.com/</a>
<i>Old English Translator</i>	<a href="https://www.oldenglishtranslator.co.uk/">https://www.oldenglishtranslator.co.uk/</a>
<i>Middle English Dictionary</i>	<a href="https://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/middle-english-dictionary/dictionary">https://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/middle-english-dictionary/dictionary</a>

<sup>42</sup> The information given in the remainder of this section is taken from the webpages provided in Table 12.

<i>Old English Reader</i>	<a href="http://www.oereader.ca/">http://www.oereader.ca/</a>
<i>Old English Aerobics</i>	<a href="http://glossary.oldenglishaerobics.net/">http://glossary.oldenglishaerobics.net/</a>
<i>Glossary of Beowulf and Finnsburg Fragment</i>	<a href="http://heorot.dk">http://heorot.dk</a>
<i>Glossary of The Battle of Maldon</i>	<a href="http://research.uvu.edu">http:// research.uvu.edu</a>
<i>Middle English Glossary</i>	<a href="http://www.librarius.com/gy.htm">http://www.librarius.com/gy.htm</a>

#### 4.2.1.1. *The OED and the HTOED*

One of our extrinsic objectives was to test the efficacy of a fairly recent tool for diachronic studies such as the *Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth HTOED). This thesaurus is an extension of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), which is generally acknowledged as the authority on the English language. In contrast to other contemporary dictionaries, which are solely concerned with current definitions, the OED represents in itself an account of the past and present of the English language's entire lexical stock. This 150-year-old dictionary represents a vast source of meanings, history and pronunciations exemplified through over 3 million quotes ranging from classic literature and specialised publications to recent film screenplays and recipe books.

When the members of the Philological Society of London decided, in 1857, that existing English language dictionaries were incomplete and deficient, and called for a complete re-examination of the language from Anglo-Saxon times onward, they knew they were embarking on an ambitious project. However, even they didn't realize the full extent of the work they initiated, or how long it would take to achieve the final result. (History of the OED, n.d.)

In 1879, the Society agreed to collaborate on a *New English Dictionary* (as the OED was then known) with the Oxford University Press and James A. H. Murray. The first steps of the project resulted in continuous members disagreements, financial problems and the discouraging thought of the herculean task<sup>43</sup>. Nevertheless, although the project proceeded slowly, many lexicographers and editors were entangled in the process of compiling and updating the content. Minor milestones were reached over the years, such as its first publication in fascicles finishing in 1928, the publication of its first supplement in 1933, or its first CD-ROM edition in 1992. Immersed in the electronic age since 2000, the online version of the OED has made all this immense content available

<sup>43</sup> Recently portrayed in the 2019 biopic *The Professor and the Madman*, based on the 1998 book *The Surgeon of Crowthorne*, by Simon Winchester.

for consultation in only a few clicks, which allows complex investigations into word origins or quotations that would have been otherwise impossible to carry out by merely using the print edition.

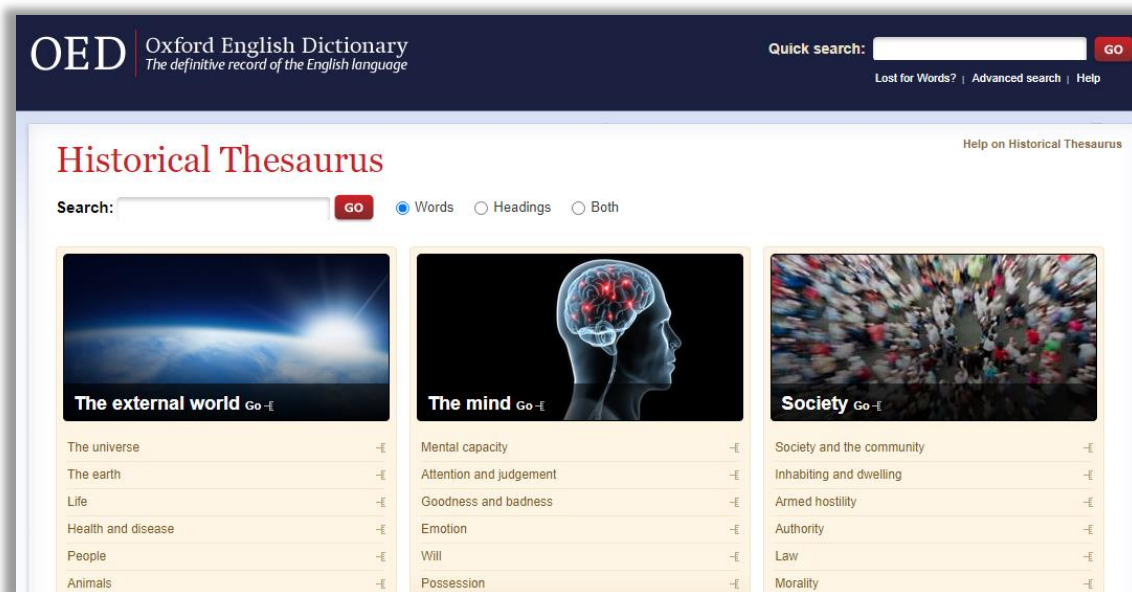
This incredible source of information also allowed to shape what would become the first historical thesaurus ever published. The HTOED is the result of the work of a large number of researchers who, since the mid-20th century, have devoted their efforts to collecting and organising the entire lexicon of the English language. When presenting this project to the Philological Society, Samuels (1965) highlighted the need for a tool of these characteristics:

Such a work would tell us how many and which words were available, to each writer in the past periods, for the expression of a given notion-and it would provide the basic material necessary for detecting and solving all the problems of “semantic fields” in English, notably the connections, in each field, between semantic shift, verbal obsolescence and innovation. (Samuels 1965: 40)

After long years of compilation and numerous investigations carried out to support and prove the validity of the collected data, the HTOED was finally published in 2009, consisting of two volumes: one representing the index and the other the thesaurus itself, totalling 4,000 pages. Nonetheless, while it is a remarkably complete and accurate tool as a reference source, when conducting a study with numerous data, the need to constantly jump from one volume to another, plus the added difficulty of getting the desired meaning at the first attempt, the data extraction process becomes a herculean task. Alternatively, this thesaurus has its online version, which is much more accessible.

Instead of showing words in alphabetical order, the HTOED organises them according to their meaning into three broad categories: external world, mind and society, as shown in

Figure 19 below. These “raw” categories are, in turn, divided into various sub-fields.

**Figure 19.** HTOED categorical classification (online version home page)

A simple entry in the search engine provides us with all the information about the desired term along with the different meanings it has had throughout history. For instance, if we look for the term *war*, the HTOED displays the results according to the category its meanings belong to, as shown in Figure 20 below.

**Figure 20.** List of the different meanings of the term *war* according to their categorical classification in the HTOED

Additionally, another click on the word links us directly to its entry in the OED, where we will find all the information necessary for its analysis: from the most common information that can be found in the physical OED (grammatical category or current pronunciation) to the most specific data (etymology, current usage value or attestation date), as displayed in Figure 21 below.

**Figure 21.** Entry page for the term *war* in the OED (online version)

The screenshot displays the OED website interface. At the top, there are navigation links for 'ABOUT', 'COMMUNITY', and 'BLOG'. The main header features the 'OED' logo and the text 'Oxford English Dictionary: The definitive record of the English language'. A search bar is present with a 'GO' button. Below the header, the page title is 'Quick search results' and it indicates 'Showing 1-4 of 4 results in 4 entries'. A 'Widen search?' section provides links to 'phrases (385)', 'definitions (2017)', 'etymologies (407)', 'quotations (22161)', and 'full text (14903)'. The results are sorted by 'Entry', 'Frequency', or 'Date'. Three entries are visible:

Entry	View full entry	Count
1. <u>war</u> , <u>n.</u> <sup>1</sup>	<a href="#">View full entry</a>	81122
2. <u>war</u> , <u>n.</u> <sup>2</sup>	<a href="#">View full entry</a>	1687
3. <u>war</u> , <u>v.</u> <sup>1</sup>	<a href="#">View full entry</a>	1154

Each entry includes a brief definition and a 'View full entry' link. The first entry is: '...Hostile contention by means of armed forces, carried on between nations, states, or rulers, or between parties in the same nation or state; the employment of armed forces against a foreign power,...'. The second entry is: '...The Banyan-tree...'. The third entry is: '...transitive. To make war upon. Obsolete...'. On the right side, there is a 'Refine your search' section with options for Subject, Language of Origin, Region, Usage, Part of Speech, Date of First Citation, and First Cited in.

However, to be completely sure of the validity of the extracted data, it was prudent to contrast our results in more than just one source. Consequently, we filtered the data through other tools that, as the HTOED, were also available online and could provide as well a fast and satisfactory result. The following paragraphs focus on properly describing these electronic resources.

#### 4.2.1.2. *Other dictionaries*

As a general consultation tool to learn the etymology of a word we find *Etymonline*. This tool represents a simple search engine, fully developed by Douglas Harper. Curiously, *Etymonline* was not born from the work of an expert linguist, nor was it intended to become a tool capable of meeting the specialised needs of scientific research. In any case,

Harper's personal interests and, as he calls them, his "worst qualities"<sup>44</sup> (namely, obsessiveness, impudence, narcissism; Harper 2017, para. 4)), have made this tool an extremely reliable source of reference. In the "sources" section of the webpage there is a complete list of all the sources which the author has relied on for the compilation of this etymological dictionary, highlighting *An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English* (Weekley 1967), *A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language* (Klein 1987), *Oxford English Dictionary* (second edition), *Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology* (Barnhart 1988), *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Englischen Sprache* (Holthausen 1917), and *Dictionary of American Slang* (Kipfer and Chapman 2010). It is an especially useful source to check the etymology of words with detailed information about their earliest attestation, acquired forms or cognates in other languages, as seen in Figure 22 below.

**Figure 22.** Entry page for the term *war* in *Etymonline*

The screenshot shows the Etymonline website interface. At the top, there is a search bar with the word "war" entered. Below the search bar, the text "Advertisement" and "752 entries found" is visible. The main content area displays the entry for "war (v.)" with the definition: "to make war on," mid-12c.; see **war** (n.). Related: *Warred*; *warring*. Below this, there is a link for "Related entries & more". Another "Advertisement" label is present below the first entry. The second entry is for "war (n.)" with a detailed etymology: "late Old English *wyrre*, *werre* "large-scale military conflict," from Old North French *werre* "war" (Old French *guerre* "difficulty, dispute; hostility; fight, combat, war;" Modern French *guerre*), from Frankish *\*werra*, from Proto-Germanic *\*werz-a-* (source also of Old Saxon *werran*, Old High German *werran*, German *verwirren* "to confuse, perplex"), from PIE *\*wers-* (1) "to confuse, mix up". Cognates suggest the original sense was "to bring into confusion." Below this, there is a paragraph explaining that Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian *guerra* also are from Germanic; Romanic peoples turned to Germanic for a "war" word possibly to avoid Latin *bellum* (see **bellicose**) because its form tended to merge with *bello-* "beautiful." There was no common Germanic word for "war" at the dawn of historical times. Old English had many poetic words for "war" (*wig*, *guð*, *heaðo*, *hild*, all

<sup>44</sup> Taken from

<[https://www.etymonline.com/columns/post/bio?utm\\_source=etymonline\\_footer&utm\\_medium=link\\_exchange](https://www.etymonline.com/columns/post/bio?utm_source=etymonline_footer&utm_medium=link_exchange)>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

Unfortunately, *Etymonline* has some relevant shortcomings. On the one hand, only the current English translation is shown. Also, it does not include any complete definitions to allow an accurate distinction between the different meanings of the word. On the other hand, it focuses exclusively on the current vocabulary of the English language, and although it includes some archaic or poetic words, it is not very useful to search for terms that are already obsolete in the language.

Alternatively, if our focus falls only on a particular period, the options available are quite varied. In the case of Old English, there are several tools with different potentially useful functions. The most reliable one is the online version of the *Thesaurus of Old English* from the University of Glasgow. This tool is a supplement to the HTOED for terminology unique to the Old English period, 700-1150 AD. In it, words are distributed in the same way as in the HTOED (see Figure 23



below). However, because it only collects the Anglo-Saxon lexicon, the search for terms becomes much faster and more accessible since we can directly discard those meanings that do not belong to this period.

**Figure 23.** Entry page for the term *war* in the *Thesaurus of Old English*

The screenshot shows the website 'A THESAURUS OF OLD ENGLISH'. The navigation bar includes 'Home', 'Browse', 'Search', and 'About the Thesaurus'. A search bar contains the text 'Quick Search' and 'Add #'. Below the navigation bar, the page displays 'SELECT CATEGORY' and a message: 'You performed a quick search for war'. A 'Refine your search' button is visible. The results section indicates 'There are a total of 29 results.' and lists 'WORD RESULTS:' and 'CATEGORY RESULTS:'. The word results include: 'Land :: Shore, bank :: Coast, seashore wār', 'Land :: Sand, gravel wār', and 'Plants/flowers (alphabetical order) :: Seaweed wār'. The category results include: 'To go, progress, travel (usually on land) :: Vehicle :: Chariot :: War chariot', 'Bad feeling, sadness :: Anxiety :: Worldly care :: Care caused by war', 'Bad feeling, sadness :: Hatred :: Hate that leads to war', 'A saying, speech, statement :: Ill tidings :: Tidings of war', 'A fellow, companion, associate, comrade :: A companion in war', 'War', and 'War :: Warlike, martial :: Bold in war'.

Another complete tool is the *Bosworth-Toller Anglo-Saxon Dictionary*, the online version of the eponymous dictionary. In 2001, Sean Crist began digitalising the original *An Anglo-Saxon dictionary: Based on the manuscript collections of the late Joseph Bosworth. Supplement* (Toller & Bosworth, 1921) as part of his Germanic Lexicon Project, and since then a large number of private individuals and institutions have contributed to the realisation of the project. A search in this dictionary provides us with information very similar to that found in the HTOED with the grammatical category, the declension or the conjugation of the word, as well as a corpus with examples of its actual

use in the texts of the period (see Figure 24 below), but it also provides a list of words semantically related, which came in particularly helpful for our analysis.

**Figure 24.** Entry page for the term *gewin* in *Bosworth-Toller Anglo-Saxon Dictionary* (online version)



It should also be noted that the results are displayed alphabetically including all the possible compounds that the root word has had, making it relatively easy to observe the collocations of the term. As a negative point, as it was the case with *Etymonline* this tool only shows the direct translation into current English without providing complete definitions that allow the different meanings of the word to be clearly distinguished. Despite this downside, it represents a very useful tool for this type of study. Moreover, one can only extract information on the Old English lexicon, therefore, becoming impractical for the whole study.

The next interesting tool available is the *Old English Translator*. It is a bidirectional translator between Present-day and Old English, developed by Phil Barthram. It represents a project in constant development, although, as its developer acknowledges, it is not 100% perfect. As was the case with Harper and his *Etymonline*, Barthram is not a linguist by profession; his fields are mathematics, mechanical engineering, and program engineering. Nevertheless, in the “Contact me” section of his page he confesses that his hobby is Old English and the development of the *Old English Translator*. Since his retirement in 2006 he has dedicated himself to “turn grammar rules

into structures in a computer program”<sup>45</sup> (Barthram n.d., para. 4), among other projects. Barthram considers that when repeatedly entering lexicon of Old English the queries in digital dictionaries do not return a correct result, since the dictionaries do not usually include all the declensions of the word. Therefore, the interested party must predict the root to obtain a valid result. Thus, the strength of this program lies in the algorithm that it uses to translate the words. When conducting a search, the software cross-references the typed letter combination considering both accents and long vowels, or even special characters (e.g. <þ>, <ð>, or <æ>). In this manner, we can obtain the desired result despite the possible spelling variants that the source texts may present. Furthermore, in the case of nouns, adjectives or verbs, the *Old English Translator* retrieves the results in the form of a table showing the grammatical category of the word and its possible translations into current English (see Figure 25 below).

**Figure 25.** Entry page for the term *war* in *Old English Translator*

The screenshot shows the 'Old English Translator' website interface. At the top, there is a navigation bar with 'Home' and 'Translat' (partially visible). The main header features a logo of a helmet and the text 'Old English Translator' and 'Old English to Modern English Translator'. Below the header, there is a search bar with the word 'war' entered. Underneath the search bar are three buttons: 'To Modern English', 'To Old English', and 'Reset'. A message indicates the word was successfully translated from cache in 0.02 CPU seconds. The results are presented in two tables. The first table is for the word 'camp' (Strong Masculine Noun), with the entry 'camp m a contest war battle certarnen pugna bel-lum' in red bold. The second table is for the word 'gŭþ' (Strong Feminine Noun), with the entry 'gŭð f war battle fight bellum' in red bold. Both tables show grammatical categories (Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative) and their corresponding Old English forms in singular and plural.

camp	Singular	Plural
<b>Nominative</b>	(the/that se) CAMP	(the/those þā) CAMPas
<b>Accusative</b>	(the/that þone) CAMP	(the/those þā) CAMPas
<b>Genitive</b>	(the/that þæs) CAMPes	(the/those þāra) CAMPa
<b>Dative</b>	(the/that þæm) CAMPe	(the/those þæm) CAMPum

gŭþ	Singular	Plural
<b>Nominative</b>	(the/that séo) Gŭþ	(the/those þā) Gŭþa
<b>Accusative</b>	(the/that þā) Gŭþe	(the/those þā) Gŭþa
<b>Genitive</b>	(the/that þære) Gŭþe	(the/those þāra) Gŭþa

Another helpful feature is that, when consulting an Old English word, it highlights the term that we have entered in red bold format in the table, revealing in a graphic and

<sup>45</sup> Taken from <<https://www.oldenglishtranslator.co.uk/contactme.htm>>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

clear way the declension to which the searched word belongs to, or the verb tense respectively (see Figure 26 below).

**Figure 26.** Entry page for the term *gub* in *Old English Translator*

The screenshot shows the 'Old English Translator' website interface. At the top, there is a navigation bar with 'Home' and 'Translator' links. Below the navigation bar, the text 'Old English Translator' is displayed in a stylized font. The main content area features a search box with the text 'Translate this word:' followed by an input field containing 'gub'. Below the search box are three buttons: 'To Modern English', 'To Old English', and 'Reset'. The search results are displayed in a table format, showing the word 'GŪþ' as a 'Strong Feminine Noun' with the meaning 'War battle fight bellum'. The table lists the singular and plural forms for the Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, and Dative cases.

	Singular	Plural
<b>GŪþ</b>	(the/that séo) <b>GŪþ</b>	(the/those þā) GŪþa
<b>Nominative</b>	(the/that þā) GŪþe	(the/those þā) GŪþa
<b>Accusative</b>	(the/that þære) GŪþe	(the/those þāra) GŪþa
<b>Genitive</b>	(the/that þære) GŪþe	(the/those þæm) GŪþum
<b>Dative</b>		

Conversely, we cannot consider the results obtained as completely valid since the people from whom contributions and corrections have been received are not mentioned anywhere. Therefore, it cannot be demonstrated that the available material has been reviewed by expert linguists and it is consequently relegated as a secondary reference tool.

As the last tool for the Old English period, we find the *Old-Engli.sh Dictionary*. Developed by Richard Zimmermann, this tool is an online version of Mary Lynch Johnson's doctoral thesis *A Modern English - Old English Dictionary* (1927). It is a unidirectional dictionary from Old to Present-day English the interface of which allows us to search for the initial letter of the word including the special characters <þ>, <ð>, and <æ>. Once we click on the desired letter, the results appear in alphabetical order including information corresponding to the grammatical category, the declension or the verb tense. Moreover, it also includes spelling variants of the root word. However, despite the fact that the information obtained can be considered valid as it is a research work, perhaps the interface chosen by the developer is not the most efficient once since it does not avoid having to scroll down to search for the specific word, thus it does not differ much from a printed dictionary (see Figure 27 below). Nonetheless, browsers nowadays include their own search tool, which allows us to fill this gap.

**Figure 27.** Entry page for letter *a* in *The Old-Engli.sh Dictionary*

The screenshot shows the homepage of the Old-Engli.sh Dictionary. At the top, there is a banner with the title "Old Engli.sh" and the subtitle "The Portal to the Language of the Anglo-Saxons". Below the banner is a navigation menu with links: Home, OE Language, OE Miscellanea, My Research, Links, and Contact. The main content area features a green sidebar on the left with the text "Old-Engli.sh Dictionary" and "About this dictionary:". The main text area contains the title "The Old-Engli.sh Dictionary" and a welcome message. Below the welcome message is a table of letters: A, Æ, B, C, D; E, F, G, H, I; K, L, M, N, O; P, R, S, T, Ð/þ; U, V, W, X, Y. Below the table is a scrollable area showing the entry for the letter 'a'.

**Old-Engli.sh Dictionary**

**About this dictionary:**

This is an online version of Mary Lynch Johnson's (1897-1984) PhD Dissertation *A Modern English - Old English Dictionary*. It was written in 1917 and first published in 1927. Johnson based much of her work on John R. Clark Hall's *A Concise Anglo-Saxon Dictionary for the Use of Students* (1916). She worked as a professor of English at Meredith College, Raleigh, North Carolina.

**The Old-Engli.sh Dictionary**

Welcome to the Old-Engli.sh Dictionary Page! It provides a free, comprehensive, accurate and easily searchable Old English to Modern English dictionary. It is ideally suited to translate Anglo-Saxon texts for beginners and advanced learners alike.

A	Æ	B	C	D
E	F	G	H	I
K	L	M	N	O
P	R	S	T	Ð/þ
U	V	W	X	Y

**a** [] *prep* w.a. to, for; ~ **worulda woruld** to an age of ages

**á** [ā] 1. *adv* always, ever, at all, continuously, for ever; ~ **on écnisse**, ~ **butan ende** world without end; at any time; in any degree; 2. *see* **æ**

**á-** [ä-] *verb prefix* 1. forth away; 2. *see* **on-**; 3. *see* **ymb-**; 4. makes pronouns

In the Middle English period, although the number of source materials was not so diverse, the available tools are more than capable of providing perfectly valid information for a study with our needs. One of the most valuable sources found online was the archive of the Gutenberg Project. This project makes an incredible contribution to the scientific community with the digitisation of texts of all kinds, of which Diachronic Linguistics is no exception. Among its archives there can be found classic works such as *A Dictionary of the First or Oldest Words in the English Language: From the Semi-Saxon Period of A.D. 1250 to 1300*, by Coleridge (1862), *A concise dictionary of Middle English from AD 1150 to 1580*, by Mayhew, *et al.* (1888) and Tolkien's *A Middle English Vocabulary* (1922). Thanks to the work of Project Gutenberg, these well-known and widely used reference works in this field are available to any individual who wishes to consult them in electronic book form. Additionally, any program for reading electronic books has an integrated search engine that facilitates the identification of specific words in a given text.

Notwithstanding, the most complete and accessible source any researcher can utilise is the *Middle English Compendium* (MEC hereafter), published by the University

of Michigan Library. The MEC is the digital version of the *Middle English Dictionary* (MED), first published in print in 1952 by the University of Michigan, and represents the largest database for the Middle English lexicon between 1100 and 1500. The MEC encompasses circa 3 million citations drawn from the preserved sources from the period, which is why almost any search carried out should retrieve a satisfactory result. Rather than being arranged chronologically, the entries are organised from concrete to figured meanings and from simpler to more complex. First, any simple search will retrieve a list with all the entries related to the browsed word. Then, when clicked upon, the tool provides information related to grammatical category of the term, its etymology, the different forms adopted (including those with spelling errors found in the manuscripts) and, finally, the different meanings of the word and its citations in the corpus texts (see Figure 28 below).

**Figure 28.** Entry page for the term *werre* in the *MEC*

The screenshot displays the Middle English Compendium (MEC) website interface. At the top, the logo for the University of Michigan Library is visible next to the title 'Middle English Compendium'. Below the title, there are navigation tabs for 'Dictionary', 'Bibliography', and 'Quotations'. A search bar contains the word 'werre' and a 'Search' button. On the left side, there is a 'Limit your search' section with a 'Part of Speech' dropdown menu. The dropdown is open, showing a list of parts of speech with their respective counts: noun (6), adjective (4), verb (2), adverb (1), conjunction (1), and gerund (1). Below this, there is a 'Subject Labels' dropdown menu. The main content area shows the search results for 'werre'. It indicates '1 - 14 of 14' results, sorted by 'Relevance', with '20 per page'. The first result is for 'wer(re)n.', which is a noun with 268 quotations in 9 senses. The definition provided is: '(a) Large-scale military conflict between countries, peoples, rulers, etc. or between factions or forces within a single country, war, warfare;—also pl.; **wer faringe**, q.v.; **open (pleine) wer**, open...'. The second result is for 'werre-faringe ger.', which has 1 quotation in 1 sense.

However, we must take into consideration that in their webpage the MEC authors warn us that “like all dictionaries it needs to be taken as a careful assembling of incomplete evidence rather than as a final authority, to be used with caution, and with due regard to the likelihood of error and inconsistency”<sup>46</sup> (MEC n.d., para. 8). Moreover, and in accordance with our intention to check the data extracted from the source texts in the

<sup>46</sup> Taken from <<https://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/middle-english-dictionary/about>>, accessed on 28/05/2021.

various databases found, they recommend, due to the multilingualism of medieval England, consulting other similar sources such as dictionaries of other languages contemporary to Middle English, as well as contrasting the results with dictionaries from the previous and later periods, taking into account the evolutionary line of the lexicon.

In addition to the aforementioned dictionaries and with the hopes of not leaving any factor out of the way, we also considered as a possibility to make use of any available online glossaries. After an exhaustive search on the web, a few glossaries were found. First, and by far the most complete one, is the *Old English Reader*. Based on the *Old English Reader* by Murray McGillivray (2011), it is a site in development which collects (at least partially) most of the Old English prose and poetry texts. By clicking on the desired text, we get access to the digitalised text in Old English version, together with the glossary. Its simplistic interface hides a particularly helpful resource: all words in the text are hyperlinked to their entry in the glossary, thus, facilitating a unique time-saving search. Additionally, the glossary includes the grammatical category, the translation/s of the word, and some additional case forms and verb tenses (see Figure 29 below).

**Figure 29.** Glossary of *The Battle of Maldon* at the *Old English Reader*

**The Battle of Maldon**  
Ed. Murray McGillivray. Online Corpus of Old English Poetry (OCOEP). Edition in progress. This file last updated 24/6/08.

brocen wurde.<sup>1</sup>  
Het þa hyssa hwæne hors forlætan,  
feor afýsan, and forð gangan,  
hiegan to handum and to<sup>1</sup> hige godum.  
5 Ða<sup>1</sup> þæt Offan mæg ærest onfunde,  
þæt se eorl nolde yrho gepolian,  
he let him þa of handon leofne fleogan

**Glossary**

**a, o, oa** *adv*: always, ever, eternally  
**aethan** *wk verb*: destroy  
**Aaron** *prop name*: Haran (forms: **Aarone** *dat sing*, **Arones** *gen sing*)  
**abacan** *Class 6 str verb*: bake (forms: **abacæ** *imper sing*)  
**abal** *neut? noun*: power, might  
**abbod** *masc noun*: abbot (forms: **abbude** *dat sing*)  
**abbudisse** *fem noun*: abbess (forms: **abbudissan** *dat/gen sing*)  
**Abel** *prop noun*: Abel (forms: **Abele** *dat sing*, **Abeles** *gen sing*)

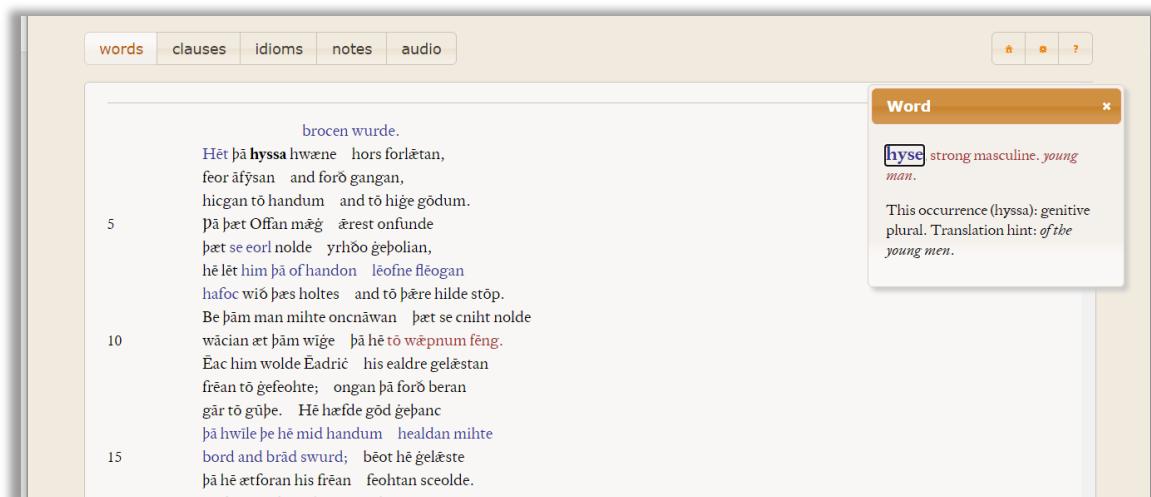
**Not Found**  
The requested URL /Maldnotes.htm was not found on this server.

Another similar tool is the *Old English Aerobics*. Much like the *Old English Reader*, this site is also based on a book, *Introduction to Old English* by Peter S. Baker (2012). It contains supplementary materials to the book in the form of on-line versions of all the texts in the book's anthology, exercises and a glossary. Once a text is accessed,



clicking on a word will display a message box including as well the grammatical category, the suggested translation/s, case forms and verb tenses respectively (see Figure 30 below).

**Figure 30.** Glossary of *The Battle of Maldon* at the *Old English Aerobics*



In addition, we found individual glossaries belonging to two Old English texts, namely *Beowulf* (including the *Finnsburg Fragment*) and *The Battle of Maldon*. Unfortunately, in the case of Middle English, no satisfactory results were obtained. The only source that could fit our criteria, was the *Middle English Glossary*. However, it is mainly based on Chaucer's works, and thus not very helpful for our study.

Finally, several official translations of the selected texts published were also consulted both on paper and in digital version to contrast the information and help us in case complicated questions were faced, such as exceptional uses of words or translational doubts that could arise.

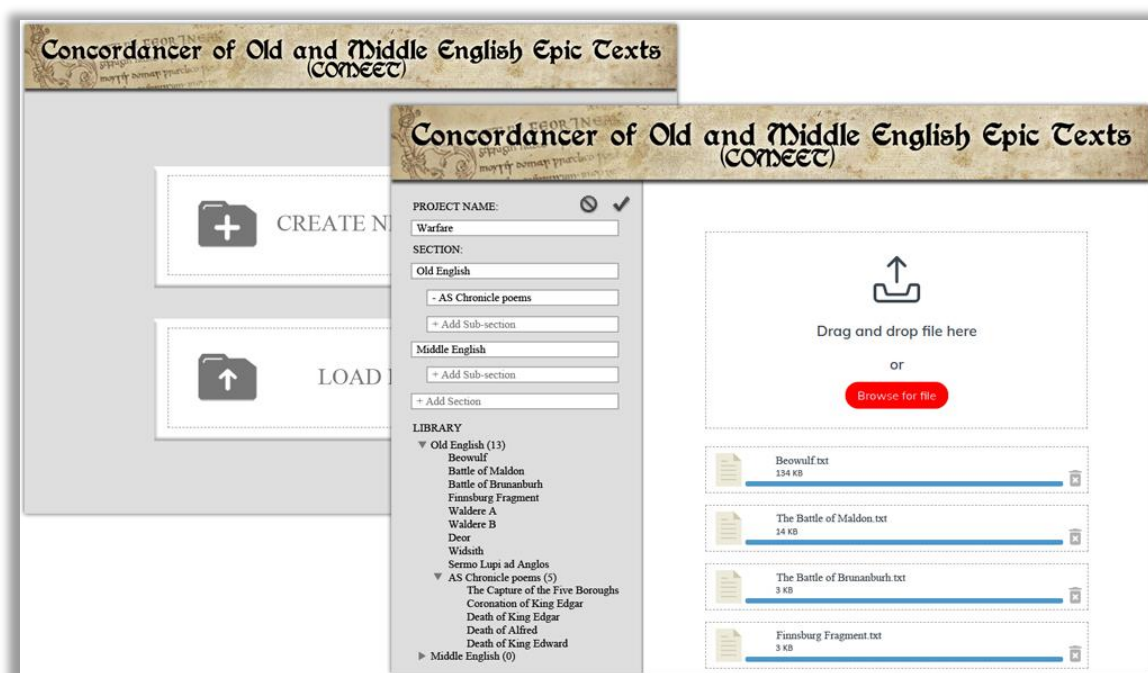
#### 4.2.2. *The COMEET tool*

The last tool we used for our research is not available online as it is not a marketed product. This study required a tool that could adapt to our criteria in order to extract the data in the most reliable way. The available programs (i.e., Lextutor, WordSmith or AntConc), although their features could adapt to our needs, did not result in user-friendly fast-data-managing tools. One may find workarounds for most of the issues, but it turned the compiling task into a rather lengthy process. For this reason, we contacted the services

of the local company Digital Square<sup>47</sup>, a new and emerging company in the field of digital project development that is fully adaptable to the needs of the client. First, their incalculable collaboration provided us with the necessary advice to then develop jointly a personalised tool that met our needs, the *Concordancer of Old and Middle English Epic Texts* (hereafter COMEET). This tool was based on the features offered by other existing concordance tools, albeit it includes a more user-friendly interface that allows a quicker processing of the data along with some exclusive options which make it perfect for our purposes presented below.

The first option it provides is to create a new project (or corpus) by uploading our texts and compiling our database, or we can also load a pre-existing corpus. If a new project is created, the application permits a fast import of texts in “.txt” format. A particular feature is that, if desired, one can arrange the uploaded texts into sections. This can be simultaneously managed and seen in the sidebar section “library” (see Figure 31 below).

**Figure 31.** Main screen and New Project screen of COMEET



All texts must be carefully formatted beforehand for the application to provide accurate results. Nevertheless, once our project is created and the electronic corpus is

<sup>47</sup> Available at <[www.digitalsquare.es/](http://www.digitalsquare.es/)>.

established, the most interesting functionality of this tool comes in the search and data management screen. Unlike other available tools, the interactive sidebar allows the selection of the texts we want to conduct the search on. Moreover, COMEET includes buttons to type the special characters <þ>, <ð>, and <æ>. The typing options also allow us to play with the spelling, by using “\*” when necessary, so as to retrieve the different variants of each element at once (i.e., root word, derivatives, verb tenses, or possible alternative spelling variants). Also, it permits multiple simultaneous searches by separating elements with a “;”. For instance, let us consider the word *hláford* in the Old English period. After the initial vocabulary search in the text, three spelling variants for this item were found, namely *hlaford*, *hláford* and *hláford*. By typing “hlaf\*;hláf\*” we carried out both searches at once and found the occurrences for all the different variants of the word, which added a total of 26 results (see Figure 32 below).

Figure 32. Search and data management screen in COMEET

The screenshot shows the 'Concordancer of Old and Middle English Epic Texts (COMEET)' interface. The search bar contains 'hláf\*;hlaíf\*'. The search results are displayed in a table with the following columns: TEXT, LINE, PREV., OCCURENCE (26 results), NEXT, and DISCARD?. The results list various Old English texts and their corresponding line numbers where the search term was found.

TEXT	LINE	PREV.	OCCURENCE (26 results)	NEXT	DISCARD?
Bw	267	◀	Wé þurh holdne hige <b>hláford</b> þinne	▶	✖
Bw	2283	◀	<b>hláford</b> sinne ðá wæs hord rásod,	▶	✖
Bw	2375	◀	þæt hé Heardréde <b>hláford</b> waére	▶	✖
Bw	2634	◀	þonne wé gehéton ússum <b>hláforde</b>	▶	✖
Bw	2642	◀	hwate helmberend þeah ðe <b>hláford</b> ús	▶	✖
Bw	2778	◀	--ecg wæs iren-- eald <b>hláfordes</b>	▶	✖
Bw	2935	◀	in Hrefnesholt <b>hláfordléase</b>	▶	✖
Bw	3142	◀	hæleð hiofende <b>hláford</b> léofne	▶	✖
Bw	3179	◀	<b>hláfordes</b> hryre, heorðgenéatas:	▶	✖
BM	135	◀	þæt gewundod wearð wigena <b>hlaford</b> ;	▶	✖
BM	189	◀	he gehleop þone eoh þe ahte his <b>hlaford</b>	▶	✖
BM	224	◀	he wæs ægðer min mæg and min <b>hlaford</b> ."	▶	✖
BM	240	◀	on wlanca þam wicge, þæt wære hit ure <b>hlaford</b> ;	▶	✖
BM	251	◀	þæt ic <b>hlafordleas</b> ham sidie,	▶	✖

As seen above, the results of our search were retrieved in a subsequent list with detailed information for each occurrence: the text and the line where they can be found

and their context. Further options allow us to display the previous and following verse/sentence of each occurrence in order to read and analyse the whole context of the word and verify its validity. Finally, another exclusive feature COMEET offers is to discard any unwanted occurrences that do not fit our criteria. Thus, once the results are filtered, the application includes a button to export the valid data onto a spreadsheet that can later be downloaded for manipulation.

### **4.3. Practical procedure and considerations**

This section describes the steps we followed when conducting our study. The first task was to establish the approach to the texts. As seen in Section 4.1.2 above, each text has a different origin and date of composition and they do not all belong to the same author. Thus, these very varied characteristics made it impossible for us to extract key information such as, for example, identifying and isolating idiosyncrasies from the authors (only possible in the case of having several works by the same author), or establishing the evolutionary line of each word. For instance, since not enough surviving texts from the same area and topic were at our disposal, we could not identify the synchronic variants of the word to then compare them with the variants of the following period. Consequently, it was necessary to simplify the ambitions of this dissertation by focusing on that information which we could indeed extract from the tools at hand.

Second, to carry out the extraction of vocabulary, it was necessary to know what type of vocabulary the chosen semantic field included. To accomplish this, we followed the taxonomy provided by the HTOED, which locates the term *war* within label n.12 “society> armed hostility [...]”, as seen in

Figure 33.

**Figure 33.** Labels 9-17 of the term *war* in the HTOED

9.	society > society and the community > dissent > contention or strife > [noun] > an act or instance of ► <b>war</b> (a1300)
10.	society > society and the community > dissent > contention or strife > contend [verb (intransitive)] ► <b>war</b> (c1460)
11.	society > society and the community > dissent > contention or strife > carry on (a contest, fight, etc.) [verb (transitive)] > contend with ► <b>war</b> (c1230)
12.	society > armed hostility > war > [noun] ► <b>war</b> (1154)
13.	society > armed hostility > war > [noun] > a war ► <b>war</b> (a1300)
14.	society > armed hostility > war > wage war [verb (intransitive)] ► <b>war</b> (c1230)
15.	society > armed hostility > war > wage (war) [verb (transitive)] ► <b>war</b> (1390)
16.	society > armed hostility > war > wage (war) [verb (transitive)] > wage war against or upon ► <b>war</b> (1154)
17.	society > armed hostility > war > war as profession or skill > [noun] ► <b>war</b> (a1375)

Additionally, we also included those figures that could exercise military dominance at this time, such as *king*, which the HTOED locates under label n.17 “society> authority [...]” (see Figure 34).

**Figure 34.** Labels 14-20 of the term *king* in the HTOED

14.	society > society and the community > social class > nobility > title > title or form of address for persons of rank > [noun] > titles applied to royalty > for a king or ruler > placed before name ► <b>king</b> (eOE)
15.	society > society and the community > social class > nobility > title > title or form of address for persons of rank > [noun] > mock title ► <b>king</b> (1823)
16.	society > inhabiting and dwelling > inhabited place > a building > parts of building > framework of building > [noun] > roof-beam > rafter > posts ► <b>king</b> (1811)
17.	society > authority > [noun] > those in authority > person in authority > person in supreme authority > in sphere or class ► <b>king</b> (OE)
18.	society > authority > rule or government > sole rule > rule as monarch [verb (intransitive)] > as king ► <b>king</b> (?1576)
19.	society > authority > rule or government > sole rule > rule over as monarch [verb (transitive)] > rule over as king ► <b>king</b> (1600)
20.	society > authority > rule or government > ruler or governor > sovereign ruler or monarch > king > [noun] ► <b>king</b> (eOE)

In this way, the HTOED entries provide the starting point for our data collection process by establishing two clear sub-fields under the labels “armed hostility” and

“authority”. Therefore, all those words that fell within these labels were considered as valid terms for our study. Nonetheless, in order to properly classify this vocabulary within the established labels, it was necessary to rely again on the semantic organisation used in the HTOED. The thesaurus displays words through a branching structure stuck together by the different semantic relationships, as can be seen in Table 13 below.

**Table 13.** Branching structure of the semantic classifications of the entries in the HTOED

HYPERNYM	
	[noun]
	[adjective]
	[adverb]
	[verb]
	distinguishing seme 1
	distinguishing seme 2
	[noun]
	[adjective]
	[adverb]
	[verb]
	distinguishing seme 1
	distinguishing seme 2
	...

This structure shows the hypernym as a headword. Then, the next first sub-levels are established by words either associated through synonymic/antonymic relations or which belong to the same lexical field. They are organised according to their grammatical category and following the order noun, adjective, adverb and verb. The following levels are established by those distinguishing semes that originate from the semantic relationship of hyponymy with the hypernym. Furthermore, each of these hyponyms may, in turn, become the hypernym of its own subcategory and branch out as many times as necessary, maintaining the same structure.

If this structure is extrapolated to our semantic field, the first hypernym would be [WAR], while the most common distinguishing semes would be represented by the two aforementioned labels: [ARMED HOSTILITY] and [AUTHORITY]. Since all the words collected in our semantic field relate to either of these two distinguishing semes, for the sake of clarification, we have decided to name these two major elements *hypersemes* hereafter, as opposed to other minor distinguishing semes inside the labels of [ARMED

HOSTILITY] and [AUTHORITY]. The further classification of the lexicon depended much on the type of semantic relation that linked the analysed words to their hypernyms (namely, hyponymy, metonymy or metaphor, as discussed in Section 3.2.4). Consequently, a first draft of our semantic field would appear as follows in Table 14:

**Table 14.** Example of the structure of the semantic field of [WAR] (as understood in our study)

[WAR]	
	[noun]
	[adjective]
	[adverb]
	[verb]
[ARMED HOSTILITY]	
	[noun]
	[adjective]
	[adverb]
	[verb]
	distinguishing seme 1
	distinguishing seme 2
	...
[AUTHORITY]	
	[noun]
	[adjective]
	[adverb]
	[verb]
	distinguishing seme 1
	distinguishing seme 2
	...

Once the possible structure of our semantic field was clear, it was also necessary to establish a textual order that would allow the maximum possible work ergonomics when conducting our search. Therefore, we considered that the best approach was to start with the Old English period to retrieve the vocabulary in its original form and then move forward to Middle English so as to include the expected new loanwords and meaning shifts. Then, the extraction process was divided into three phases that would be repeated in both periods: reading and first extraction phase, verification phase and variant location and accounting phase. Let us consider these phases individually:



## a) Reading and first extraction phase

The first phase was, in all probability, the most important of all, since an error here would pose a problem for the veracity of the results. For this reason, we worked together with the lexicographic tools at our disposal explained in Section 4.2.1 above, making sure that each lexical word had been properly evaluated and classified according to our criteria. This is where the HTOED provided us with the most valuable assistance, since it could help us determine whether the selected word fit within the established hypersemes. Furthermore, in order to locate a specific lemma in the HTOED we had to know the last spelling that the word had taken in the language. For example, in the case of the lexeme *cyning* in the HTOED, we must first perform the search in the OED that will recognise this form and will direct us to the entry for the lemma *king*. When accessing this entry, the HTOED retrieves a list of 20 meanings for *king* (as seen in Figure 34 above). If only those that fell within our pre-established hyperseme of [AUTHORITY] are to be considered, the list is reduced to five meanings, among which we find the exact required meaning: “society> authority > [noun]> those in authority> person in authority> person in supreme authority> in sphere or class> king”. Consequently, once a word (or at least one of its meanings) is considered as valid, this is transferred into a database noting the basic information needed from each one, namely its grammatical category, etymology, dating, and its currentness. However, the most relevant information for the correct location of the vocabulary was the possible spelling variants of each word. Retaking the example of *cyning*, the OED collects 109 different variants for this single word. Even though many of them are accompanied with excellent information for validation or discarding, such as their dialect or the period to which they belonged, it unavoidably implied that we had to carry out an individual search for each of these spelling variants, which is why all these variants were also transferred to our database. After conducting this process with all the extracted lexicon, we obtained the total number of war-related types that would make up our first draft for subsequent analysis.

It should be noted that, after applying this first filter, some problems of discrepancies between our information and the information provided by the OED were found. This was the case of some words that, despite seeming valid due to their form and context, did not return any results in the OED. In order to find a solution, we had to consider what could be the source of the problem, which, in the first instance, led us to

think that these discrepancies could be due to uncollected forms of the words or an error in the search engine of the OED. In this case, the second phase could shed some light on the issue at hand.

b) Verification phase

The second phase started with the intention of justifying the validity of our results. Thus, these results were cross-referenced by using the other sources at our disposal, explained in Section 4.2.1.2. As expected, in most cases the results were identical and, thus, considered as valid for our study. Furthermore, most of the discrepancies observed after the previous filter were also solved since these sources provided a common root that allowed us to find the correct entry in the OED. It was only in a few cases that we had to settle for the information provided by these tools as it was not possible to find any match in the OED. Perhaps, the biggest problem occurred with the appearance of terms that retrieved information different from that found in the OED, for example, different translations, meanings or, in the worst case, no reference to the word at all. In these cases, we had to rely on the veracity of the official translations, although not always with a satisfactory result. In some of these cases (perhaps for the same reason) the author had made a free translation without managing to elucidate our problem. Nevertheless, all this information was also added to our database for further analysis.

c) Variant location and accounting phase

Finally, this last phase implied filtering all the retrieved data through our analysis tool, the COMEET. As explained in Section 4.2.2, COMEET allows us to carry out multiple queries; therefore, it was possible to analyse all the variants of each of our war-related types at the same time. Let us retake the case of *king*. After searching for the 109 spelling variants identified in the OED, only nine of them were found in the texts. It should be remembered that our tool allows us to search by the root of the words, so our results also included all cases of declensions. All in all, the results retrieved are distributed as shown in Table 15:

**Table 15.** Variant spellings of the word king in the Old and Middle English texts analysed

OLD ENGLISH		MIDDLE ENGLISH	
variant	occurrences	variant	occurrences
<i>cing</i>	1	<i>keng</i>	1
<i>cyning</i>	63	<i>king</i>	2,080
<i>king</i>	1	<i>kingg</i>	7
<i>kingc</i>	1	<i>kyng</i>	118
<i>kyng</i>	1		
<i>kyning</i>	6		
<i>kyningc</i>	1		
total	74	total	2,206

Several conclusions can be extracted from this table. Firstly, in Middle English the word has notably unified its spelling, going from seven to four forms and no form is spelt with <c>, which was the original spelling of the word. Secondly, while in the 12 Old English texts the word *king* only records 74 war-related tokens, in the five Middle English texts it is attested 2,206 times. Moreover, if we compare these figures with the total number of war-related tokens registered in each period (2,742 in Old English and 12,641 in Middle English) we can also extract another relevant conclusion. In the case of Old English, the 74 tokens represent 2.69% of the total, while the 2,260 of Middle English represent 18.01% (by far, the most frequently attested word). This indicated the importance of this word within the genre and, in general, of which vocabulary is used to deal with the topics of each period. While in Old English *king* is just occasionally used, in Middle English it becomes the most important word of the semantic field.

After repeating this process with all the entries collected, the results obtained in the first two phases were refined. Therefore, we were able to discard ineligible items (such as homographs or other non-valid meanings of the word), to then identify and validate those meanings that we were looking for since our tool provided the full context in which the word occurred. To provide another graphic example, Table 16 below displays the results for the lexeme *lord*, where only those items adjusting to the meaning in the HTOED within the label “society > authority > [noun] > those in authority > person in authority > lord” were regarded as valid:

**Table 16.** Spelling variants for the word *lord* in the Old and Middle English text analysed

OLD ENGLISH		MIDDLE ENGLISH	
variant	occurrences	variant	occurrences
<i>hlaford</i>	7	<i>læuard</i>	1
<i>hláford</i>	18	<i>læuerd</i>	14
<i>hláfurd</i>	1	<i>lauard</i>	1
		<i>lauer(d)</i>	181
		<i>lord</i>	77
		<i>louer(d)</i>	46
		<i>louered</i>	2

As shown in the table, the ME forms show important changes in spelling which, in turn, represent changes in phonology. Thus, for example, there is an apheresis of the initial /h/ because this sound was eventually lost; on similar lines, the change from <f> to <v> in middle position represents the voicing of /f/ in voiced contexts. Also, most of the variants appear in Layamon's *Brut*, which exemplifies the lack of spelling consistency even in the same work. Nevertheless, the most important change from Old to Middle English has to do with the frequency of this word. While in Old English all 26 registered tokens for *lord* (0.99% of the total) were kept for the analysis, this was not the case in Middle English. Initially, 322 tokens for *lord* (2.56% of the total) were found in the text of this period. Nonetheless, 28 of them had to be discarded as the word at issue had undergone some of the semantic changes discussed in Section 3.2.5 above, namely metaphoric / specialisation / melioration shifts, provoked by the use of *lord* in its religious meaning, which the HTOED classifies under "the world> the supernatural> deity> Christian God > [noun] > lord (OE)". The COMEET proved highly efficient in this kind of situations, since having the context of the word permitted us to distinguish between its different meanings, to then discard those that did not fit in the semantic field of [WAR]. Thus, once all items were filtered, the results could be saved and stored in a spreadsheet for further consultation and data treatment.

Lastly, we began with the last part of our study in which we could present the results and draw conclusions: the comparison of periods. In this phase several considerations had to be taken into account. First of all, the differences between periods had to be pondered. Although the texts belonged to the same genre (namely, epic genre), they did not deal with exactly the same topics as they reflected the historical events of their time. In addition, the number of items at our disposal also varied notably, being

much more numerous in the case of Middle English. In turn, this larger amount of data came from a smaller number of texts, and therefore they were more likely to display idiosyncrasies from their authors, which could in turn result in less terminological richness. Finally, our Old English corpus included all the texts that could somehow reference the semantic field of [WAR], while in the case of Middle English, for time reasons, it had not been feasible to include all the available texts in a single study.

Another consideration to take into account is the possibility of finding elements in one of the two periods that did not have a correspondence in the other. For instance, a word in Old English that, despite having managed to survive up to Present-day English (as the OED would indicate), did not appear in the texts of Middle English. Likewise, we could find in the Middle English sources a word from an Anglo-Saxon root that, in turn, had not appeared among the data from Old English. Therefore, these examples, although they could be considered in the quantitative results, could not be fully present for qualitative conclusions. Despite the setbacks that these considerations might entail, we had a large amount of material to work with and achieve satisfactory results after comparing the periods (see Annexes I and II).

To conclude, we must bear in mind that all the observations made in this dissertation are based on the data obtained with the material collected in our corpus, which, especially in the case of Middle English, do not represent the totality of the surviving texts of this genre. Thus, the figures that presented in this analysis can be considered very close to reality, and under no circumstances should be regarded as an absolute. This study merely attempts to describe the lexical-semantic reality of this period from an initial perspective and it leaves an open door to be supplemented with additional material in the future.

#### **4.4. Conclusions to Chapter 4**

The three sections in this chapter have provided a full description of the methodology used in our study. Section 4.1 describes the scope of our study: First, the historical timeframe for the investigation has been limited to the Old and Middle English periods; in addition, we have established a corpus of texts that deal with the subject of war to, finally, extract from them the vocabulary that constitutes our semantic field of [WAR]. Also, a detailed account of the source materials used to treat the data has been provided

in Section 4.2, placing special emphasis on the HTOED. Finally, Section 4.3 has thoroughly described the process followed to conduct our analysis with the help of the COMEET tool, a tool especially tailored for this study with the potential to become a perfect companion for corpus studies. As a result, all the data has been filtered through this apparatus and has been accurately classified for the subsequent analysis of the results obtained in Chapter 5 below.



## **Chapter 5: A corpus-based analysis of the semantic field of [war] in Old and Middle English poetry**

In an attempt to describe the scope and evolution of the semantic field of [WAR] in the period under study, this chapter focuses first on the structure of our semantic field according to the data extracted (Section 5.1), and then on the consequences of borrowings in this semantic field (Section 5.2). Then, a general overview of the semantic change undergone by our semantic field in Middle English will be provided (Section 5.3). Finally, Section 5.4 will serve as a closure where the results obtained in our study will be contrasted to the current status of this semantic field in Present-day English.

### **5.1. The structure of the semantic field of [WAR] in Old and Middle English: a quantitative analysis**

The structure of every semantic field is a complex and unique matrix of intertwined terms and meanings, as Trier (1931), Porzig (1934), and Ipsen (1924) demonstrated (see Section 3.2.2). As much as languages are living beings that evolve over time, so are semantic fields. As a result, any effort to establish finite boundaries to any semantic field is meaningless. For this reason, this section tries to describe the structure of the semantic field of [WAR] after it became modified by language contact in the Old and Middle English periods (see Chapters 2 and 3).

As seen in Section 4.3, the core of our semantic field is the term *war*, and it develops around the two main hypersemes (i.e., major distinguishing semes) labelled by the HTOED as [ARMED HOSTILITY] and [AUTHORITY]. Each of these hypersemes, in turn, expands into different levels held together by some of the semantic relations explained in Section 3.2.4 above, namely synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy or meronymy, and they may undergo some of the semantic changes seen in Section 3.2.4, i.e., metaphor, metonymy, generalisation, specialisation, melioration, or pejoration. Therefore, this section is further divided into three subsections to present the results extracted from the corpus data. Thus, Section 5.1.1 presents the Normalised Frequencies of the war-related tokens extracted from the texts of each sub-corpus followed by a subsequent interpretation of the data. In Section 5.1.2, these tokens are transformed into war-related types so as to learn the exact number of analysable words. Finally, Section 5.1.3 shows the different classifications in which these words have been arranged (i.e., word class,



Currentness, and language of origin) and the explanation of the data obtained. For clarification, the numbers in this study are measured in two different scales. Percentages (%) are used when comparing items within the same text. In turn, Normalised Frequencies (hereafter NFs) are used when contrasting texts or periods due to the unbalanced number of words between them. The list of texts analysed and the abbreviations used to refer these texts given in Section 4.1.2 above are displayed below for ease of reading.

### **Old English texts**

<i>The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle Poems</i>	ASCP
<i>The Battle of Brunanburh</i>	BBRUN
<i>The Battle of Maldon</i>	BMALD
<i>Beowulf</i>	BEOW
<i>Deor</i>	DEOR
<i>The Finnsburg Fragment</i>	FFRAG
<i>Sermo Lupi ad Anglos</i>	SLUPI
<i>Waldere</i>	WADL
<i>Widsith</i>	WIDS

### **Middle English texts**

<i>Havelock the Dane</i>	HDANE
<i>King Horn</i>	KHORN
<i>Layamon's Brut</i>	LBRUT
<i>Sir Gawain and the Green Knight</i>	SGGK
<i>Sir Orfeo</i>	SORFEO

#### **5.1.1. War-related terms**

The first step in our analysis was to identify in our corpus those words related to the semantic field of [WAR], as they represent the basis for our analysis.

Table 17 and Table 18 present the total number of words per text, the total number of war-related tokens (warfare related terms), and the NFs of warfare terms per text.

**Table 17.** NFs of war-related tokens for the texts in the Old English sub-corpus

TEXT	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TOKENS	NFs
ASCP	799	70	87.6
BBRUN	363	71	195.5
BEOW	17,376	2,096	120.6
BMALD	2,082	303	145.5
DEOR	172	16	93.0
FFRAG	297	37	124.5
SLUPI	2,252	65	28.8
WADL	363	32	88.1
WIDS	845	53	62.7
TOTAL	24,549	2,742	111.6

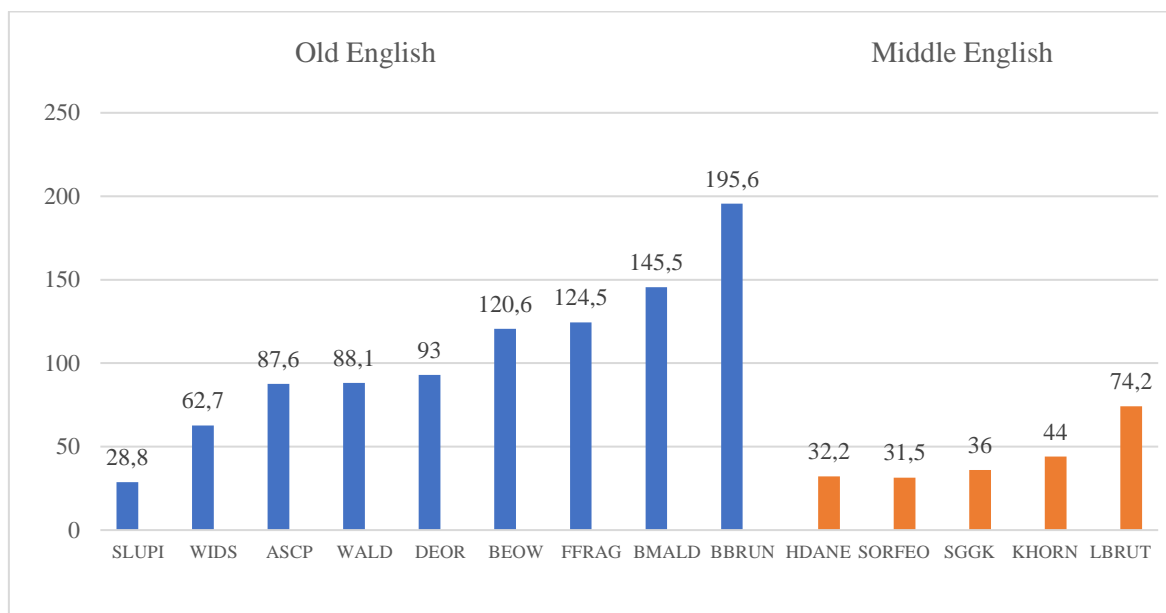
As we can see, in the case of Old English, the NF of war-related tokens in the Old English sub-corpus is 111.6. Thus, if we consider the entire Old English subcorpus as a whole, this figure would represent the frequency of words that refer to our semantic field, as well as the average that indicates the contribution the texts make to our study. For instance, while BEOW is the longest text and visibly contains the highest number of war-related tokens, it is BBRUN the one that presents the highest frequency of occurrences (NF195.5), which means that the contribution of BBRUN to our semantic field is also the highest, whereas BEOW is relegated to being the fourth position (NF120.6). On the contrary, although DEOR is the shortest text and the one with fewer war-related tokens, it is SLUPI the text with the lowest NF, and thus the text that contributes less to our semantic field. Likewise, we can see that, apart from BBRUN and BEOW, BMALD and FFRAG are also above our average, which makes sense since these four poems narrate mainly bellicose situations. In contrast, DEOR, WADL, ASCP, WIDS, and SLUPI are below the average, with different degrees of contribution, from highest to lowest respectively, which would match the fact that they deal with a wider range of topics and not just war. However, despite their minor contributions in terms of numbers, these texts still contain highly valuable semantic information, which will be presented in Section 5.1.2 below.

Let us continue with the Middle English set of data, which is presented in Table 18.

**Table 18.** NFs of war-related tokens for the texts in the Middle English sub-corpus

TEXT	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TOKENS	NFS
HDANE	17,701	570	32.2
KHORN	22,092	973	44.0
LBRUT	137,914	10,223	74.2
SGGK	20,991	756	36.0
SORFEO	3,743	118	31.5
TOTAL	202,441	12,641	62.4

As the table shows, the NF in the Middle English sub-corpus is 62.4. In this case, only one text (i.e., LBRUT) exceeds this figure (NF74.2), while the rest of the texts are well below the average. An explanation may be again found in the main topic of this early text which, as seen in Section 4.1.2 above, is a sort of historical chronicle of the events that occurred in England up to the days of King Arthur and, consequently, relates many of the warlike confrontations that supposedly occurred during this time. In addition, this poem was composed sometime between 1190-1215 and, therefore, it is not yet fully influenced by the new literary fashions imported by the Normans. Contrarily, the remaining texts represent romances that focus on the hero's adventures and narrate all the events that he undergoes. Concerning their theme range, the medieval romances include other topics apart from those of a warlike nature, such as courtly love or the supernatural (although particularly BEOW also deals with the latter). Figure 35 below provides a contrastive analysis of the NFs of warfare terms in Old and Middle English.

**Figure 35.** NFs for the texts of Old and Middle English

At first glance, it can be observed how, despite containing much shorter texts, the lexical contribution of the Old English sub-corpus is much higher than that of Middle English. On the contrary, while the Old English texts range from NF195.6 to NF28.8, in the case of Middle English this range is comprehended between NF74.2 and NF32.2. This means that the use of warfare terms differs greatly from that in the Old English texts, where the NFs are much more dissimilar. Nonetheless, the lower NFs in Middle English can be attributed to a greater variation in the subject matter of the texts compared to that of Old English. Furthermore, it is quite remarkable that the text with the lowest NF of Old English, SLUPI with NF28.8, is really close to that of Middle English, HDANE with NF32.2. Let us remember that the total number of words in SLUPI, 2,252, is quite far from that of HDANE, with 22,092 words.

This leads us to consider to what extent the length of a text affects the extension of the semantic field. The answer lies not on the number of war-related tokens but on the number of war-related types. For instance, let us consider the example of the term *king*, which is registered in all the texts of our corpus. Regarding the war-related tokens, it collects 74 tokens in Old English (12 texts) and 2,372 in Middle English (5 texts). Nevertheless, despite appearing in all 18 texts, and since the word does not suffer any relevant semantic change from one period to the other, all 18 occurrences registered by the COMEET tool in our database should be regarded as only one war-related type. Nevertheless, since our study consists of a comparative analysis between the Old and

Middle English sub-corpora, the results must also be presented separately. In accordance with these guidelines, Table 19 below shows the results for both periods in contrast alongside their NFs.

**Table 19.** Results for total number of war-related tokens and total number of war-related types in the Old and Middle English sub-corpora

SUB-CORPUS	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TOKENS	TOTAL NUMBER OF WAR-RELATED TYPES	NFs OF WAR-RELATED TYPES WITHIN THE SUB-CORPUS
Old English	2,742	287	105
Middle English	12,641	352	28

As we can see, the 2,742 total number of war-related terms from Old English represent 287 different war-related types (NF105). Likewise, the Middle English sub-corpus presents 352 war-related types (NF28) from the 12,641 war-related tokens. The huge difference in the NFs of both sub-corpora implies a much lower frequency of war-related terms in the Middle English sub-corpus. Notwithstanding, it is the difference in war-related types that reveals the most interesting information. Compared to the vast difference in war-related tokens clearly observed between both periods, the difference between the total number of war-related types is only slightly higher in Middle English, with just 65 more items. In fact, as will be presented in detail in Section 5.3 below, many war-related types are repeated in both periods or have been replaced by a new word in Middle English. This information reveals that the more material we examine, the more war-related tokens we can extract to carry out the analysis. Nevertheless, it also demonstrates that having a notably larger stock of words does not necessarily imply having a proportionally wider variety of war-related types related to the same semantic field. It is also important to highlight at this point that 107 terms are shared by both hypersems. Therefore, if we consider our corpus as a whole, we can conclude that our entire semantic field consists of 532 original types.

To conclude this section, we have established the reach of the semantic field of [WAR] within our corpus, as well as the exact number of war-related types that constitute both of our sub-corpora. Therefore, these data can be analysed and contrasted so as to extract the part of this lexicon that was newly adopted, and also which part of this

semantic field changed from one period to the next in the form of borrowings or semantic shifts.

### 5.1.2. *A three-fold classification of the war-related types analysed*

The last step in this quantitative analysis was to present the data according to the varied relevant information provided by the source materials. Hence, we have divided this section into three subsections. 5.1.2.1 shows the war-related types of each period arranged according to their word class. Subsection 5.1.2.2 presents the data according to their Currentness. Finally, subsection 5.1.2.3 organises the information based on their language of origin.

For consultation, these data are displayed in detail in Annex III, where all the registered items are arranged first into periods, Old and Middle English, and then into hypersemes respectively, [ARMED HOSTILITY] and [AUTHORITY]. In addition, all the war-related types in the semantic field of [WAR] have been included alongside the different taxonomies subsequently explained. For the sake of clarification, the list below explains the format employed to present our data throughout this analysis:

- i) Hypersemes are presented within [] and in block caps (e.g. [HYPERSEME])
- ii) Subfields (or distinguishing semes) are presented within [] and in small caps (e.g. [subfield])
- iii) Categories in the tables are presented within “” (e.g. “category”)
- iv) Terms are presented in italics (e.g. *term*)
- v) Meanings are presented within ‘ ’ (e.g. ‘meaning’)

#### 5.1.2.1. *Word class*

We begin this part of the quantitative analysis by highlighting the relevance of the parts of speech that make up our semantic field. Let us bear in mind that during the extraction process we only took into consideration content words, and therefore only the results of nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives and adverbs are displayed. Due to their semantic load, these word classes are more prone to be affected by semantic change or borrowing processes. Therefore, Table 20 below presents the frequency with which content words are used in our corpus in raw numbers.

**Table 20.** Word classes of the terms analysed

PERIOD		OLD ENGLISH				MIDDLE ENGLISH			
HYPERSEME		ARMED HOSTILIT	AUTHORIT Y	TOTAL	%	ARMED HOSTILIT	AUTHORIT Y	TOTAL	%
WORD CLASS	NOUN	170	37	207	72.1	178	54	232	65.9
	VERB	64	7	71	24.7	82	13	95	26.9
	ADJECTIVE	6	3	9	3.1	15	3	18	5.1
	ADVERB	0	0	0	0.0	3	4	7	1.9
TOTAL		240	47	287		278	74	352	
PERCENT. WITHIN THE SUBCORPUS		83.6	16.3			78.9	21.1		

Two main conclusions may be derived from the table. On the one hand, there is a sharp contrast between the two hypersemes in the two periods under analysis: [ARMED HOSTILITY] represents around 80% of the total, while [AUTHORITY] only 20%. Notwithstanding, it is interesting to see how, regardless of their contribution to the semantic field, both hypersemes follow the same internal distribution. Which leads us to the second conclusion. We observe how, in both cases, nouns and verbs are much more common in my data than adjectives and adverbs. This comes as no surprise if we take into account that (i) nouns and verbs are the most common class of words in many languages (see Hockett 1966, Sapir 1978 and Luuk 2010: 350, among many others) and (ii) adjectives and adverbs were not fully developed yet, thus, those located in our corpus are inflected forms of nouns and verbs.

The analogous distribution of the hypersemes in both periods is also relevant if we take into account that the Middle English sub-corpus, with 12,641 tokens, has only 65 more war-related types than Old English, with 2,742 tokens. We observe how all the categories show an increase in the number of war-related types in Middle English. But before rushing into drawing conclusions, it should be remembered that, as argued in Section 5.1.2 above, although Middle English provided more material for analysis, a semantic field does not necessarily increase exponentially when including more sources. Notwithstanding, although the contribution of adjectives and adverbs can be disregarded, the case of nouns and lexical verbs should be briefly commented. On the one hand, they are by far the categories with more war-related types in both periods. Besides, as seen in Sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.4 above, nouns are key when forming a semantic field and they represent the core of the semantic relationships of its components. Verbs have also



contributed substantially. In some of our instances these verbs are frequently derived from the same root as a noun that is also registered in the corpus (e.g., ME *fight* [n.]/ ME *fighten* [v.], ‘to fight’). In other occurrences the verb acts as a cohesive element between nouns (e.g., OE *feallan*/ ME *fellen*, ‘to fell, kill in battle’). At first, logic prompts us to think that, when dealing with the classes with more occurrences, it is not surprising that they are also the ones that increase the most from one period to the next. However, if we delve a little deeper into the information available and compare these figures with the linguistic loans that have been integrated, we realise that, although the difference in figures is even in these categories, the etymology of its components appears to be quite dissimilar.

In the case of verbs, we observe that there are 16 war-related types which either represent borrowings from other languages (such as *comaunden* ‘to command’, *corounen* ‘to crown’, *crushen* ‘to crush’, *defenden* ‘to defend’, *hurten* ‘to hurt’, *regnen* ‘to rule’, *skirmen* ‘to skirmish’, *vengen* ‘to avenge’) or originate in Middle English from foreign elements by derivation (*begilen* and *bitraien*, both meaning ‘to betray’) or conversion (*thrallen* ‘to enslave’ and *werren* ‘to make war upon’). This figure is quite close to the 24-word-type difference in verbs between periods, so we could justify that this increase in Middle English is most relevant due to these lexical incorporations.

Nonetheless, if we make the same observation in the case of nouns, a total of 87 war-related types fall into the same parameters: three derivatives from foreign elements (namely *abatailment* ‘battlement’, *corouning* ‘crowning’, *forsnes* ‘force’), and 84 borrowings (to name a few, *armur* ‘armour’, *batayle* ‘battle’, *castel* ‘castle’, *conqueste* ‘conquest’, *coroune* ‘crown’, *defens* ‘defense’, *enemi* ‘enemy’, *launce* ‘lance’, *pes* ‘peace’, *squire* ‘squire’, or *trecherie* ‘treachery’). If we apply the same logic as with verbs, this would indicate not only that the difference between periods is due to incorporations from other languages, but also that loanwords have succeeded in replacing many other Old English nouns. This represents a clear example of relexification process (see Section 3.1.4) in Middle English nouns. Consequently, although other sociolinguistic or literary perspectives must also be considered (i.e., dialectology, composition context, or idiosyncrasies), we can definitively assert that the incorporation of new terms is one of the most relevant variables to take into account when justifying the increase in figures in our semantic field.

Let us move towards the scarce presence of adjectives and adverbs related to our semantic field. In fact, although not very frequent in Middle English either, we even lack

examples of adverbs in the Old English sub-corpus. Regarding the latter, it could be argued that the absence of adjectives and adverbs may be due to these word classes not being yet fully developed or common. In the words of Fuster-Márquez and Calvo-García de Leonardo (2012: 27) “IE adjectives did not constitute a different word-class, they were nominal roots. In PGmc [Proto-Germanic], adjectives ‘became an autonomous category, and grew a complex new inflectional pattern. Eventually two separate declensions developed, called *strong* (or *definite*) and *weak* (or *indefinite*)’ (Lass, 1994: 146)”. Notwithstanding, it should be noted that the alliterative verse is used as a stylistic resource in most of the texts from our corpus. This structure requires a large number of content words that facilitate the alliteration of stressed syllables. Consequently, since the use of adjectives and adverbs is key to qualify nouns and verbs, it was logical to assume the presence of a greater number of these elements in our results, and hence the lack of more examples of these word classes was certainly unexpected. Table 21 below displays the comparison between Old and Middle English adjectives and adverbs.

**Table 21.** Adjectives and adverbs found in the sub-corpora of Old and Middle English

WORD CLASS	OLD ENGLISH		MIDDLE ENGLISH	
	[ARMED HOSTILITY]	[AUTHORITY]	[ARMED HOSTILITY]	[AUTHORITY]
Adj.	<i>bealo</i> ‘bale’ <i>dihtig</i> ‘brave’ <i>gram</i> ‘hostile’ <i>hréþig</i> ‘triumfant’ <i>sizelāes</i> ‘defeated’ <i>wund</i> ‘wounded’	<i>drihtlice</i> ‘noble’ <i>eðel</i> ‘noble’ <i>fréolic</i> ‘free’	<i>armed</i> ‘armed’ <i>bale</i> ‘bale’ <i>batild</i> ‘fortified’ <i>ded</i> ‘dead’ <i>doughty</i> ‘brave’ <i>feied</i> ‘made an enemy’ <i>fell</i> ‘fatal’ <i>gered</i> ‘gared’ <i>griðful</i> ‘peaceful’ <i>helmed</i> ‘bale’ <i>scharp</i> ‘sharp’ <i>stelen</i> ‘of steel’ <i>swicful</i> ‘treacherous’ <i>swikel</i> ‘treacherous’ <i>vileinous</i> ‘villainous’	<i>fréolic</i> ‘free’ <i>free</i> ‘free’ <i>rial</i> ‘royal’
Adv.	-	-	<i>dædliche</i> ‘deadly’ <i>fendliche</i> ‘fiendly’ <i>griðliche</i> ‘peacefully’	<i>drihtliche</i> ‘nobly’ <i>freli</i> ‘freely’ <i>knightli</i> ‘knightly’ <i>rially</i> ‘royally’

As we can observe, in the case of Old English adjectives the corpus search retrieved only nine war-related types, six within [ARMED HOSTILITY] and three in [AUTHORITY]. In Middle English, however, we notice how this amount is doubled, in part due to borrowings from other languages. On the one hand, the hyperseme [AUTHORITY] contains three war-related types: *fréolic* and *free* from Old English and an Anglo-Norman loan, *rial*. On the other, under [ARMED HOSTILITY] nine Old English war-related types were registered: *bale*, *ded*, *doughti*, *feied*, *helmed*, *scharp*, *stelen*, *swicful* and *swikel*; and six new incorporations, with *batild*, *fell*, *vileinous*, of Romance origin, *griðful*, of Scandinavian origin, and finally *armed*, *gered*, which were formed in Middle English by adding the Anglo-Saxon participle morpheme *-ed* to roots of Anglo-Norman and Scandinavian origin, respectively.

The case of adverbs is quite extraordinary in that it does not record any war-related types in Old English. Therefore, we can only analyse the results from Middle English.

For instance, five of the adverbs attested originate in Old English, *drihtliche*, *dædliche*, *fendliche*, *frelī* and *knightli*; while the other two are formed in Middle English, *griðliche* and *rially*, derived from roots of Scandinavian and Anglo-Norman origin, respectively, by adding the suffix *-li(ce)*, which is the old form of Present-day English *-ly*.

To conclude, as expected, the semantic field of [WAR] is fed mainly by nouns and verbs with a vast difference with respect to adjectives and adverbs. The first two categories together account for almost 95% of the war-related types registered in the study, while the last two present a hardly relevant percentage, with only 5%. Moreover, although some instances of borrowed items are observed in Middle English adjectives and adverbs, the increase is not relevant enough as to affirm that borrowings had a meaningful impact on these word classes.

#### 5.1.2.2. *Currentness*

The second relevant information provided by the source materials was that regarding the currentness of the word types registered in the semantic field of [WAR] in the period under study. By *currentness* we understand the state in which our lexicon may be found in Present-day English. Thus, the aim of this section is to display, according to the information retrieved from our corpus, how much of this lexicon has changed from Old to Middle English and from Middle English to Present-day English. These data were provided by the HTOED. To this end, during the extraction process we added this information to the registered occurrences of our database and, then, we classified the results into four categories as shown in Table 22 below: “In current use” indicates whether or not the war-related type is still active in the language; “Obsolete word” refers to those war-related types that are no longer in use; “Obsolete meaning” is used for those war-related types that have survived in the current language but whose meaning in the analysed texts has fallen into disuse; finally, “Other use” regarding those war-related types whose meaning has been specialised or narrowed and as a consequence, they are currently only used with an archaic, historic or poetic character.

Taking the external history of England into account, we could expect a drastic change in the lexis of the language from Old to Middle English. Were it due to the great influence of other cultures, the leap from the Early to the High Middle Ages, or the Norman Conquest, we know that the English language underwent a radical relexification:

Many of those borrowings replaced native terms, which is one of the reasons why OE may be so obscure to us: while OE seems to have been highly Germanic (only 3% out of the 30,000 words in OE was non-Germanic), 80-85% of that vocabulary has not made it up to our days (see van Gelderen 2006: 73 and Baugh and Cable 2005: 49). (Rodríguez-Abruñeiras and Romero-Barranco 2021: 80)

As Table 22 below shows, relexification can also be observed in our semantic field as there has been a shift between the categories of “In current use” and “Obsolete word” from Old to Middle English.

**Table 22.** Classification of war-related terms according to their Currentness

PERIOD		OLD ENGLISH				MIDDLE ENGLISH			
		ARMED HOSTILITY	AUTHORITY	TOTAL	%	ARMED HOSTILITY	AUTHORITY	TOTAL	%
HYPERSEME									
CURRENTNESS	IN CURRENT USE	50	5	55	19%	126	29	155	44%
	OBSOLETE MEANING	19	5	24	8%	27	9	36	11%
	OBSOLETE WORD	161	31	192	67%	100	25	122	35%
	OTHER USE	10	6	16	6%	25	11	36	10%
TOTAL		240	47	287		278	74	350	

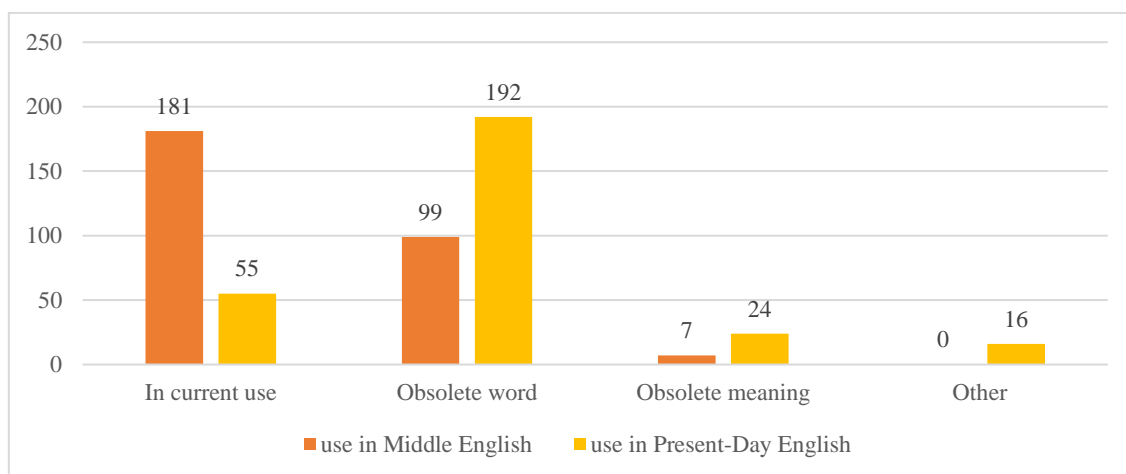
The data obtained in the Old English sub-corpus behave in a similar way in both hypersemes. We appreciate that the “Obsolete word” category is by far the most numerous in both cases, 192 war-related types in total (67% of the total). In turn, only 55 war-related types (19% of the total) have managed to survive up to our days. The remaining 10% belongs to words halfway between these two major categories, where some items have suffered semantic change and others are only kept in special registers (namely, historical, archaic or poetic registers). As expected, we see that nearly 70% of the lexicon that made up this semantic field in Old English has become completely obsolete today due to the relexification process, while roughly 30% is still in use, in one way or another.

Focusing on the results for Middle English, we notice how the data collected in this period is, initially, quite different from the previous period. The large obsolescence tendency in Old English reduces to 35% in Middle English, while the number of war-related types still in use today has increased to 44%. To begin with, in both hypersemes (unlike in the Old English sub-corpus) the category with more words is “In current use”,

while “Obsolete word” is relegated to a second place. This means that most of the words used in our Middle English subcorpus are still in use at present. Moreover, the difference between these two categories has been drastically reduced, with only a difference of 33 war-related types (9.4% of the total). The categories of “Obsolete meaning” and “Other use” display similar amounts in this sub-corpus as both represent 10.5% of the total, albeit they behave differently in each hyperseme: whereas there are more words with obsolete meanings in [ARMED HOSTILITY], it is “Other use” the one with more war-related types in [AUTHORITY]. Perhaps, also these results were partly to be expected since, being the intermediate period in the history of this language, the balance between current and obsolete words had to stabilise at some point. Nonetheless, the most relevant matter was to determine to what extent this shift of tendency occurred due to the effects of language contact. If we turn to our database for the answer, we discover how 68 out of 155 (43.9%) Middle English war-related types in current use are borrowings from French, Old Norse or Latin. In addition, we also noticed an increasing tendency in the number of words for “Obsolete meanings” and “Other use” categories, which indicates a clear pattern of semantic change affecting 20.86% of the Middle English sub-corpus. Therefore, it is evidenced that the incorporation of borrowings and the increase in semantic shifts observed are a clear indicator that we are at the verge of the relexification process of the Anglo-Saxon lexicon, caused by the historical events in which England was immersed in during this period.

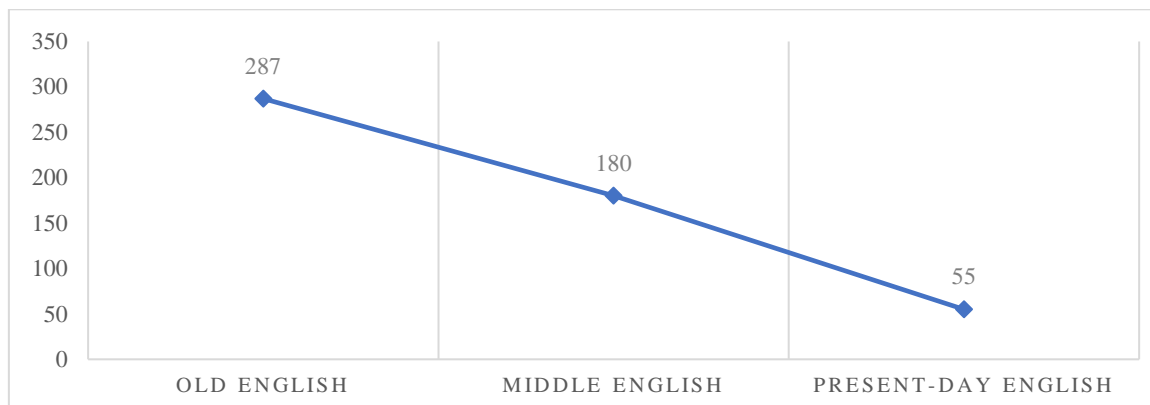
Anyhow, to be even more precise, we shall consider how much of the Old English vocabulary was still in use in Middle English and then contrast it with its currentness. To this end, Figure 36 below shows the data from both periods confronted.

**Figure 36.** Comparison between the Currentness of the Old English war-related types in Middle English and in Present-day English



As expected, the differences are outstanding and especially visible between the categories of “In current use” and “Obsolete word”. As the contact with foreign languages grew during Middle English, more and more Old English words fell into disuse; they either suffered a change in meaning, were replaced by borrowings or became completely obsolete. Nevertheless, if we consider the total of Old English war-related types, 287, only 35% (99 war-related types) became obsolete in Middle English. On the other hand, the remaining 65% was still in use, albeit seven of these terms lost the meaning that linked them to our semantic field. The information collected by the OED also helps in asserting that the 16 words that are currently considered archaic, poetic or historical were still regularly used in Middle English. Thus, Figure 37 represents a timeline that visually illustrates the evolution of the Old English warfare lexicon as we approach the present day.

**Figure 37.** Diachronic evolution of the Currentness of Anglo-Saxon war-related types from Old English to Present-day English



The descending line represents only the words that were in full use in each of the periods. The figure shows how the decline is quite steady and, despite the sharp difference between both ends, no abrupt changes are registered from one period to the next. If we look at the difference between the first two periods, we observe that Middle English suffered a diminution of 107 war-related types, while if the same calculation is applied between Middle and Present-day English, we obtain a difference of 125 war-related types.

For an accurate comparison it would be necessary to analyse how much of this lexicon survived into Modern English. Nonetheless, it is highly likely that the resulting figure would be roughly halfway between the numbers of Middle and Present-day English. Therefore, if this difference of 125 war-related terms is divided in half, we can obtain a referential guideline, which returns a difference of 62.5 war-related types. As observed this resulting figure is no way near the difference of 107 terms between Old and Middle English. This leads us to believe that, although the decline of the Anglo-Saxon lexicon in our semantic field was constant throughout the history of this language, the period covered by our study was undoubtedly the one experiencing the most significant change. Nevertheless, as we have been able to observe in the entries provided by the consulted sources, a remarkable number of words are still recorded in the Modern English period. Consequently, for a more accurate answer, our assumption should definitely be verified in an extension of the present study.

Another valuable piece of information that the data in Table 22 can provide is that of how many of these war-related types are registered in both periods, and the result is immediately noticeable. With a total of 105 repeated war-related types, this figure represents 36.7% of the Old English war-related types and 30% of those from Middle



English. However, if we transform the war-related types back into tokens, we see how this figure becomes even more striking. In Old English, the 105 war-related types are converted into 1,437 tokens, and they represent 52.4% of the total lexicon collected in this sub-corpus, while in Middle English the resulting 9,274 tokens make up 73% of the lexicon. It is, therefore, surprising to see how in the case of Middle English, despite all the semantic shifts, lexical incorporations and newly formed words, this Anglo-Saxon vocabulary still represents such a high percentage in the semantic field of the [WAR].

In conclusion, it is worth noting that, despite the large number of obsolete words from Old English that we find in today's lexicon, according to their entries in the OED most of them were still in use during Middle English and much of the Modern English period, and that they only fell into disuse in relatively recent times. Although these terms may have been replaced by others today, perhaps, it is possible that this decrease is also an indication that these words no longer reflect the reality of our world due to meaningful changes in the military world. For instance, the term *knight*, which was once so closely associated with this semantic field during the Middle Ages, now only refers to an honorary title with no connection to warfare. Notwithstanding, any matters concerning semantic change will be exposed in depth in Section 5.3 below.

#### 5.1.2.3. *Language of origin*

The present section assesses to which extent the semantic field of [WAR] was affected by the additions of new lexicon. It should be remembered that there are two main processes to expand the vocabulary of a language, namely borrowing and word-formation processes. Table 23 below displays the data collected in raw numbers according to the language of origin of the war-related types that constitute our semantic field in both sub-corpora separately. As stated in Section 4.2.1 above, the etymology of these borrowings was checked in the relevant lexicographical source materials, mainly the HTOED and the MED. Also, as seen in Section 3.1.4, it is important to recall the appearance of hybrids in both Old and Middle English, formed through derivation and compounding. Therefore, in spite of containing a foreign element, these hybrids were formed in the English language and, in consequence, they have initially been included as Old or Middle English words. Nonetheless, Section 5.2.3 below will delve further into explaining them in detail. Accordingly, all the data not falling into the categories of Old or Middle English refer directly to loanwords.

**Table 23.** Source languages of the Old and Middle English terms<sup>48</sup>

PERIOD		OLD ENGLISH		MIDDLE ENGLISH	
HYPERSEME		ARMED HOSTILITY	AUTHORITY	ARMED HOSTILITY	AUTHORITY
LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN	OLD ENGLISH	233	45	169	44
	MIDDLE ENGLISH	-	-	18	6
	ANGLO NORMAN	-	-	26	8
	CENTRAL FRENCH	-	-	45	11
	OLD NORSE	4	1	11	4
	LATIN	3	0	3	2
	UNKNOWN	-	-	4	0
TOTAL		240	47	278	74

Starting with the Old English data, we observe how a clear dominance of the original Anglo-Saxon words stands out in both hypersemes, representing more than 97.3% of the total war-related types, and with little room for loanwords. In fact, only eight of the registered war-related types (2.7%) are loanwords from Latin (three) and Old Norse (five). Nevertheless, a brief explanation of the differences in war-related types from these foreign languages is necessary. As explained in Section 2.1.1, the Anglo-Saxon language had several periods of Latin influence. The first Anglo-Saxon settlers had a substratum inference of Latin in their language from previous contact with the language of the Romans, but also incorporated in early stages many words present in Britannia from their contact with Britons. Two out the three words registered in our corpus belong to this period (i.e., *ceaster* ‘walled town’ and *weall* ‘wall, defensive structure’). Also, as result of the Christianization of England in the 7th century, the vernacular received a second wave of Latinisms, from which *segen* (‘banner’) was borrowed in c900. In contrast, the Scandinavian influence started in the 9th century. As seen in Section 2.1.3, all Scandinavian borrowings were incorporated before the 12th century. Thereby, some items were expected to show in texts from the Late Old English period. Concretely, four Scandinavian barbarisms are found in our corpus (namely, *dreng* ‘free tenant [partly military, partly servile]’, *præl* ‘slave’, *knorr* ‘small Viking ship, galley’, and *scathe*

<sup>48</sup> The symbol “-” in Table 23 means that this language was not in use in Old English.

‘harm, pain’). Both foreign codes affected mostly the spoken register rather than the written one. Consequently, Latin was longer in contact with Anglo-Saxon and therefore Latin barbarisms had more chances of being assimilated than those from Old Norse origin. Nevertheless, Latin arrived in the British Isles mostly as the language of religion and education (as mentioned in Section 2.1.1.2), while the contact with Vikings implied mostly continuous hostilities between both sides. Therefore, it is understandable that, despite their reduced presence, the number of Scandinavian words in our corpus is similar to those of Latin origin.

In turn, the situation of total dominance of the vernacular changes drastically in the Middle English sub-corpus. We know that the influences received by the English language after the Norman Conquest increased substantially compared to those in the previous period (as seen in Section 2.1.4.3). Thus, it is logical to expect that our semantic field would also be affected in the same way. Table 24 below provides information on the languages that acted as source languages for the Middle English borrowings.

**Table 24.** Percentages for the provenance of the Middle English war-related types

HYPERSEME/ ORIGIN	OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	ANGLO- NORMAN	FRENCH	OLD NORSE	LATIN	UNKNOWN
ARMED HOSTILITY	61.2% (171)	6.5% (18)	9.4% (26)	16.6% (45)	4.0% (11)	1.1% (3)	1.4% (4)
AUTHORITY	58.7% (43)	8.0% (6)	10.7% (8)	14.6% (11)	5.3% (4)	2.6% (2)	0% (0)
TOTAL	60.6% (214)	6.8% (24)	9.7% (34)	15.9% (56)	4.2% (15)	1.4% (5)	1.1% (4)

At first glance, both hypersemes seem to behave similarly, with only minor variations in their percentages. We should also mention that loanwords from the same languages have been found in both hypersemes, as well as a consistent contribution of vocabulary in their different subfields (see Annex III for a detailed list of these data). Given that both hypersemes in Old English were homogeneous, we may infer that, regardless of their percentage, the new additions influenced both factions of our semantic field in a similar way in both periods. This consistency is remarkable in such a tumultuous time for the lexicon, as it shows that the whole field was heading in the same direction, without showing more influences in one subfield than another. However, since each of

these languages contributed in different ways, we proceed to explain the effect of each separately, starting with those languages that had a major impact and working our way down to the least influential ones.

Concerning the French influence in Middle English, as seen in Section 2.1.4, the two varieties of French that affected the vernacular, namely Anglo-Norman and Central French, divided this period into two, early and late Middle English. Therefore, our data have been equally divided so as to present both waves of French influence separately. As Table 24 shows, we find a total of 34 Anglo-Norman war-related types that account for a substantial 9.7%. The largest contribution is found within the hyperseme [ARMED HOSTILITY] with 26 war-related types, while [AUTHORITY] presents only eight war-related types. Regarding their Currentness, it should be noted that 25 out of the 34 war-related types, namely 73.5%, are still in use today. Alternatively, from the 13th century, the second wave of French influence, i.e., the Central French variety, represents the largest input of loans in the Middle English sub-corpus. The 56 forms identified in our sample account for 15.9% of all attested war-related types, and they are divided into 45 war-related types under [ARMED HOSTILITY] and 11 under [AUTHORITY]. Furthermore, as was the case with Anglo-Norman, the number of French words in current use in Present-day English increases to about 62.5% with 35 war-related types. If both varieties are accounted for together, the impact of French on the Middle English vocabulary rises to 25.6% of all war-related types. Thereby, we can confirm that the lexical contribution of French was irrefutable when it came to nourishing the semantic field of [WAR] with new terms since it was the language that provided, by far, a greater lexical contribution.

All things considered, despite the fact that French is in origin a Romance language, we should not forget that the Franks were a Germanic tribe, and so were the Normans. Therefore, regardless of having assimilated Vulgar Latin as their first language, at that time, Old French (especially in its Northern variety) and Middle French (in its Central variety), had a strong Germanic component in its vocabulary. If we take one step further in the etymology of the French words, we realise that a Germanic substrate is also found among the war-related types of our semantic field, as shown in Table 25 below.

**Table 25.** Distinction between Germanic and Latin origin of French loanwords in the Middle English sub-corpus

BRANCH/ ORIGIN	MIDDLE ENGLISH	ANGLO-NORMAN	FRENCH	TOTAL
LATIN	8	30	39	77
GERMANIC	2	3	11	16
UNKNOWN	0	1	6	7
TOTAL	10	34	56	100

As we can see, our corpus registers a total of 100 borrowings from French including hybrids. Only seven of these words have an uncertain or unknown origin. Therefore, 94% of them can be divided between those of Latin and Germanic origin. Consequently, although almost 80% of these loans have (as might be expected) a Latin origin, we must not underestimate that 16% of them derive from a Germanic root, with words like *arsoun* ('saddle bow'), *baner* ('banner'), *beguilen* ('betray'), *bastel* ('betray'), *cote* ('coat of mail'), *crushen* ('to crush'), *frushen* ('smash'), *garysoun* ('garrison'), *garyte* ('garret'), *gile* ('treachery'), *hauberk* ('hauberk'), *hurten* ('to hurt'), *rewarde* ('reward'), *skirmen* ('to skirmish'), *werre* ('war') and *werren* ('to make war'). In addition, it is important to note that most of them are still in use in Present-day English. Thereby, it is made clear that, although the Latin influence is undeniably palpable in these loans, the Germanic element was not exempt from participation. In fact, this war-related type of Germanic substrate can be found in other Romance languages, such as Spanish or Catalan, where there are cognates of the words present in this study such as Spanish *cota*, *esgrimir*, *garita* or *guerra*, among many others.

Moving forward, there are 24 war-related types that originated in Middle English through derivation, compounding or conversion. While 10 of them have an Old English root, the remaining 14 contain a foreign one (analysed in Section 5.2.3 below). These represent more than 50% of the newly formed words in Middle English, which include 10 borrowings that come from French while only four originate in Old Norse. This fact helps proving that the hybridisation process played an important role in the creation of new lexicon in this period.

The next language in our database is Old Norse. Table 24 shows that the 15 war-related types registered account for 4.2% of the total. As explained in Section 2.1.3, the Scandinavian influence ceased in the 13th century. Also, Section 4.1.2 showed how, with the exception of LBRUT, the rest of the selected texts date from the mid-13th century

onwards. Thus, albeit some of these words are recorded for the first time in written form in these texts, undeniably, they were already in use in oral registers or, perhaps, even in some texts that have not survived to the present. Notwithstanding, the process of assimilation of a word can vary greatly depending on how common the semantic field to which it belongs is and its frequency of use within it. Subsequently, its late appearance can be easily justified. It is even probable that the Scandinavian settlers ultimately adopted English as their own language. In Burridge's (2004) words:

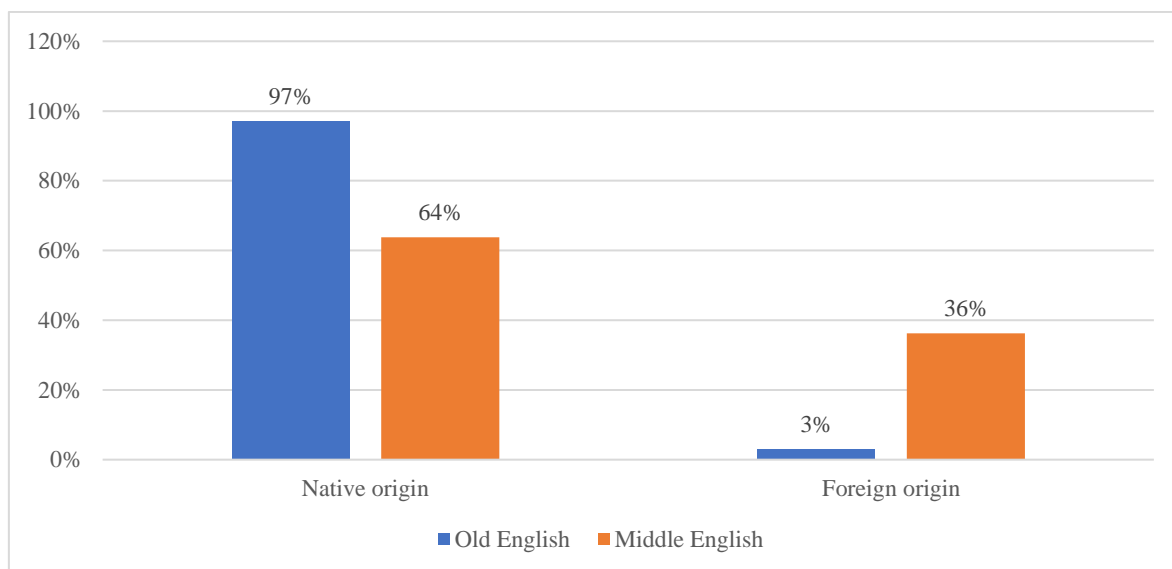
First, [...] Scandinavian and English existed side by side with more or less equal prestige. Second, the languages must have been very close - so close in fact, that it's actually difficult to assess the true extent of the Scandinavian contribution. There could have been many more borrowings. (Burridge 2004: 87)

The case of Latin, despite presenting a slightly lower percentage, is quite similar to that of Old Norse. As we can see in Table 24 above, the five war-related types registered in our sub-corpus only represent 1.4% of the total. Two Latin-derived words were found in the Middle English texts that entered the language during (late) Old English (i.e., *maister* 'master' and *quarcerne* 'prison'), but they represent non-attested forms of this semantic field in that sub-corpus and, thus, also deserve a mention. All this considered, the lack of a wider range of Latin war-related types in the Middle English sub-corpus indicates the low impact of this language in terms of warfare lexicon.

Finally, the last group of terms is that of war-related types whose origin is unknown or uncertain. There are four war-related types of unknown origin which are found only in the [ARMED HOSTILITY] hyperseme: *brunt* ('charge'), *comel* ('encampment'), *killen* ('to strike, deal a blow') and *remen* ('rush into battle'). In the case of the first two, the OED suggests a possible Scandinavian origin due to its morphological similarity with other words, albeit according to the OED there exist no other recorded forms that confirm these theories. For the term *killen*, the HTOED suggests a possible unattested Old English form, *cyllan*. Finally, the case of *remen* is only recorded in LBRUT, often along with or as a textual variant of *resen* (also 'rush into battle'), which is attested in Old English. These examples demonstrate the difficulty of the researcher's work, which is often limited to the possibilities offered by the surviving texts. This frequently translates into mere conjectures that, as in these instances, provide no conclusive answers. Fortunately for our study, they represent just 1.1% of the total, so their presence has no significant impact on our findings.

It becomes apparent that the Middle English sub-corpus presents a substantial number of changes that exemplify the impact that the warlike situations lived in England during this period had over the lexicon of the vernacular. Notwithstanding, to really appreciate the impact of these incorporations we must contrast the results of both periods. To start with, it can be agreed that a case-by-case confrontation is pointless since there is no direct French influence on Old English. Nonetheless, if we were to analyse jointly those influences that do appear in both periods, namely Scandinavian and Latin, only a minimal difference would be observed. Their percentages show a lexical contribution of 3% in the case of Old English, whereas this percentage increases to 5.1% in Middle English. This difference of 2.1% reinforces the idea that loanwords should be considered as a whole to reach a meaningful conclusion. Figure 38 below shows a general comparison of the provenance of words in our semantic field of [WAR] in both periods under study by dividing the data into native and foreign words.

**Figure 38.** Comparison of the provenance of words in the semantic field of [WAR] in the Old and Middle English sub-corpora



As we can appreciate, the Old English sub-corpus remains almost unaltered by foreign influences on its lexicon. Only 3% of this vocabulary belongs to Old Norse and Latin, while the rest is purely Anglo-Saxon in nature. The important featuring change is that the Middle English sub-corpus presents a reduction of 33% of native words. In fact, we registered a total of 36% of words from foreign languages, namely Scandinavian, Latin and French.

Nonetheless, if these war-related types are translated back into tokens, we observe how the 127 total foreign war-related types (including hybrids) account for 1,237 war-related tokens, which in turn represent only 9.7% of the total 12,641 war-related tokens of the Middle English sub-corpus. This shows how, although the presence of foreign words in Middle English period is highly significant, their frequency of use is not so. This can have two possible interpretations. First, these words were just settling down in the language and, thus, their usage was not yet widely extended. Second, they could represent specific words that have rather specialised meanings which restrict their appearance in the texts. Nonetheless, let us not forget that these foreign languages also played a crucial role in the word-formation processes, which is why some terms are hybrids resulting from the combination of a foreign affix plus a native lexeme, or *vice versa*.

On the other hand, if we observe in our database the year in which these incorporations were first attested in the English language, we can see how 18.6% of these loans (65 war-related types) were incorporated before AD1300, which means that most of them entered as a direct consequence of the Norman and Scandinavian conflicts. Also, we must reinforce the idea that, regardless of its attestation date, it is highly probable that the word was already in use long before in oral registers than in writing, which would imply that the provided percentage could still increase notably had we had recorded oral resources from this period.

As a summary, it should be noted that each new loanword that was integrated into the English language represented an equal decrease in the supremacy of the original Anglo-Saxon lexicon that we observed in the previous period. However, this information becomes even more remarkable when considering the total percentage that these lexical additions represented in the stock of this semantic field, 36% of the lexicon. Thus, we can affirm that the impact of the loans in the semantic field of [WAR] was extremely noteworthy. Moreover, the importance of the French influence in Middle English must be emphasised not only in terms of linguistic loans, but also in the new word-forming processes.

## **5.2. The impact of borrowings in the Middle English sub-corpus**

Section 5.1.3.3 has shown the important contribution that borrowings made to the semantic field of [WAR] in the Middle English sub-corpus in terms of quantity. In turn, the present section will be devoted to an in-depth analysis of those words that made their



way into the English language as shown in our corpus. To start, Section 5.2.3 shows the frequency of borrowings, first, in our corpus in general and, then, in the different subfields of our semantic field. Therefore, the following two sub-sections present the registered borrowings accordingly. That is, Section 5.2.2 focuses specifically on *loanwords* and their etymology, whereas Section 5.2.3 deals with the composition of the registered *hybrids*. Nonetheless, if the aspect observed is the semantic contribution of the borrowing, they can be classified into *cultural* and *core* borrowings according to Myers-Scotton (2002). Consequently, in Section 5.2.4, we present these items rearranged to display this information.

### **5.2.1. Borrowings in use: frequency in the semantic field of [WAR]**

Section 5.1.3.3 above discussed the origin of the war-related types conforming the semantic field of [WAR] by differentiating those with a native origin from those with a foreign provenance. We discovered that 36% of these war-related types belong to languages such as Latin, Old Norse or French, which accumulated a total of 1,237 tokens. However, the next logical question is to discern which of these borrowings are the most common within the semantic field of [WAR]. Table 26 below displays a list of the 19 borrowings that appear more than 10 times in our corpus arranged in order of frequency.

**Table 26.** Borrowings in the Middle English sub-corpus<sup>49</sup>

ROOT	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ORIGIN	EARLIEST ATTESTATION IN THE OED	MOST COMMON IN	TOKENS
<i>castel</i>	n	castle	ONF	c1000	LBRUT	163
<i>caiser</i>	n	kaiser, emperor	ON	c1175	LBRUT	161
<i>grið</i>	n	peace	*ON	c1000	LBRUT	139
<i>tour</i>	n	tower	*Lat	c1000	LBRUT	120
<i>swain</i>	n	squire	ON	a1150	LBRUT	65
<i>gered</i>	adj	armed, equipped	ME	c1325	LBRUT	39
<i>coroune</i>	n	crown	Lat + AN	c1000	HDANE	37
<i>saught</i>	n	peace	*ON	1038-50	LBRUT	34
<i>gisel</i>	n	hostage	ON	a1400	LBRUT	32
<i>dreng</i>	n	free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant	*ON	a1000	LBRUT	31
<i>armes</i>	n	arms, weapons	AN	a1250	SGGK	29
<i>clusen</i>	v	to confine, besiege	OF	C1275	LBRUT	19
<i>scathe</i>	n	harm, pain	ON	OE	LBRUT	18
<i>baroun</i>	n	baron	OF	a1300	HDANE	16
<i>gere</i>	n	gear	ON	c1200	LBRUT	14
<i>armed</i>	adj	equipped with weapons	ME	c1300	SORFEO	13
<i>werre</i>	n	war	ONF	a1122	LBRUT	13
<i>niðing</i>	n	nithing, villain	ON	OE	LBRUT	11
<i>prince</i>	n	prince	AN	c1225	SGGK	10

Although several interesting observations can be extracted from the table above, perhaps, the most remarkable fact is the scarce presence of terms of French origin. As seen in Section 5.1.2.3 above, the French borrowings entail 25.6% of all war-related types, representing the highest influential language in our corpus. Nevertheless, summing up the Anglo Norman, Old Northern French and Old French war-related types in this list, we find only five terms. In contrast, despite their low frequency regarding war-related types, there is a higher presence of Old Norse terms, with nine items in the list. According to Skaffari (2009: 151), “Norse ceased to be an independent language by, approximately, the late 11th century” therefore “all Norse loanwords must in practice have been adopted by speakers of English dialects before the ME period”. Following Baugh and Cable (2005: 146), Middle English begins in AD1150. Thereby, if we check the attestation date provided by the HTOED in the table, we observe how, apart from *gisel* (c1200) and *gere*

<sup>49</sup> “\*” in Table 26 at the beginning of a language abbreviation means that, according to the HTOED, this term was first attested in Old English but it was not present in our Old English sub-corpus.

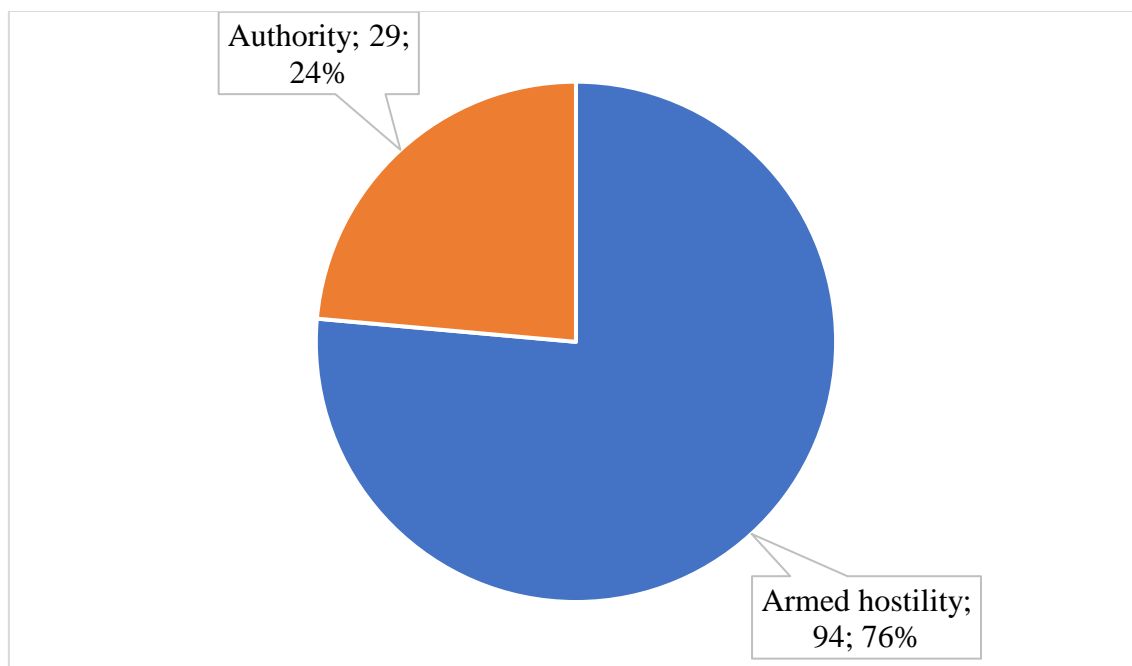
(c1400), the remaining Norse-origin words were attested before the start of Middle English. Consequently, this notable contrast between Old Norse and French words implies that since the Scandinavian words were adopted earlier in the language they were more widely used at this time. We can also assert that most of these words are already obsolete in Present-day English and have been replaced by their French counterparts, such as Old Norse *grith* / Old French *peace* or Old Norse *swain* / Old French *squire*. Nonetheless, as shown by their raw frequency, it is likely that during early Middle English these Norse-origin borrowings were more widely used than the French ones, since the Romance ones were not yet fully integrated in the language. However, another valid explanation could be given by the composition date of our source texts. LBRUT, composed between 1190 and 1215, is by far the longest of our Middle English poems, and so the high number of occurrences registered in this poem could alter our interpretation of this borrowings' frequency of use in this sub-corpus.

It is also noteworthy the significant difference in tokens of the first four words (namely, *castel*, *caiser*, *grið*, and *tour*) compared to the rest of the list. All four forms accumulate over 120 tokens each, while the fifth war-related type (*swain*) registers only 65, making them, by far, the most recurrent borrowings in the whole corpus. If we turn again to their attestation dates, it can be observed how Old Northern French *castel*, Old Norse *grið*, and Latin *tour* were first attested before Middle English, while Old Norse *kaiser* was registered within the first years of the period (1175), which also indicates an earlier use of the word, at least in oral registers. In contrast, with the exception of the Old Norse borrowings *saught* (1038-50), *dreng* (a1000), *scathe* (OE) and *niðing* (OE), the remaining borrowings were first attested once Middle English had already begun. As a result, we can agree that the first four war-related types were early borrowings that became well established long before the analysed texts of our corpus were composed and, thus, their chances of usage were much higher than the rest. A deeper explanation to understand the reasons for the incorporation of these terms is provided in Section 5.2.4 below.

The next element of analysis in this study concerns the contribution that borrowings made to different sub-fields of our semantic field. The first distinction that we made was the division of the semantic field of [WAR] according to the distinctive semes, or tags, provided by the HTOED. As explained in Section 4.3, the two most common tags observed among the extracted terms were those of [ARMED HOSTILITIES]

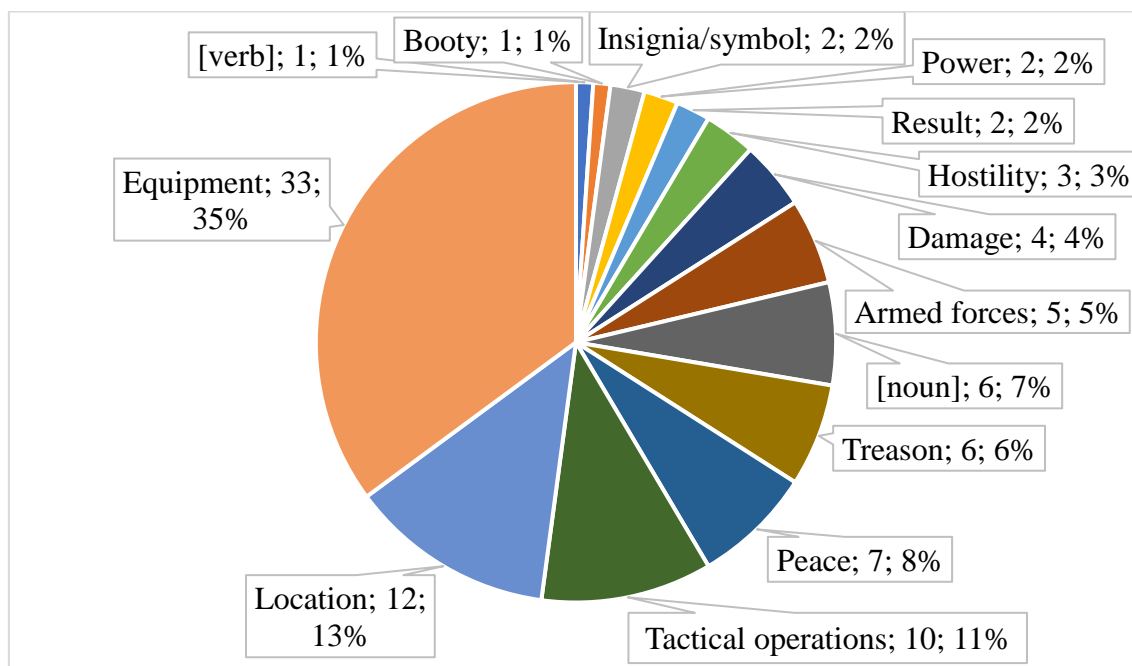
and [AUTHORITY]. For the sake of clarity, other minor tags such as [injury] or [death], which were not originally collected under the aforementioned tags by the HTOED, have been regrouped according to their semantic relation under the hyperseme that best suited this relation. The division into subfields is fully displayed in Annex III. Let us first observe the distribution of borrowings into hypersemes in Figure 39 below.

**Figure 39.** Division of borrowings into hypersemes



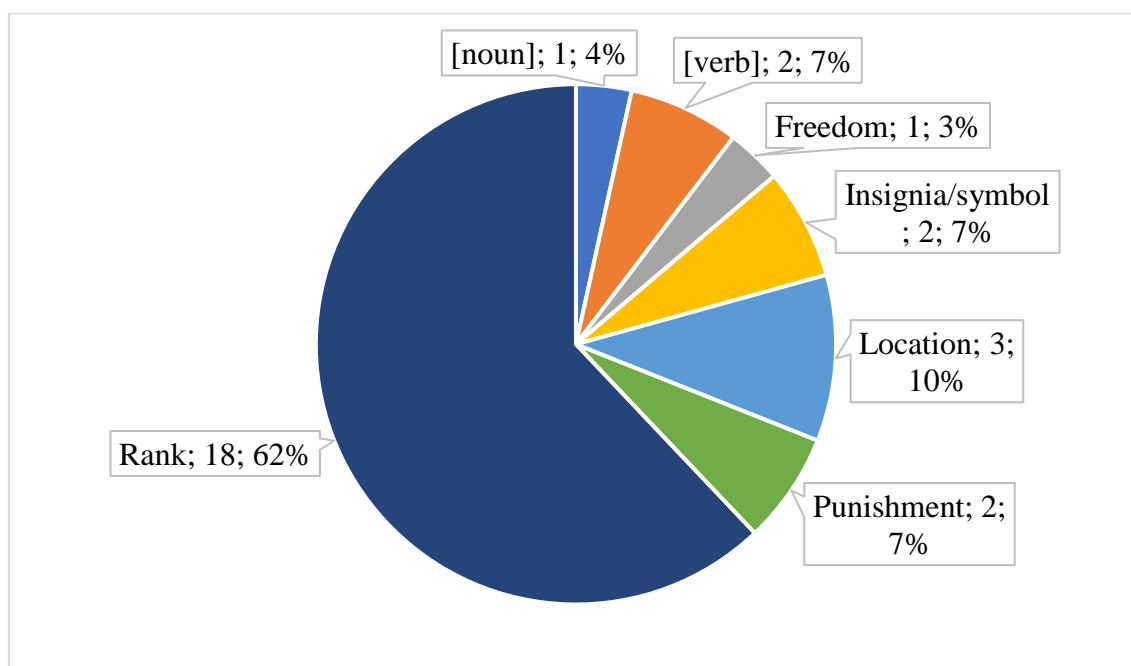
The borrowings in our corpus are distributed unevenly among the two hypersemes. [ARMED HOSTILITY] visibly dominates this distribution comprising 76% of the semantic field with 94 war-related types. In contrast [AUTHORITY] contains only 29 war-related types that account for the remaining 24% of the field. This was already the general tendency observed in Table 20, Table 22, and Table 23 above as [ARMED HOSTILITY] contains in general a higher number of words. As observed, this difference between both hypersemes is analogous when speaking about borrowings.

If we delve a little deeper into our results, it can be observed in Figure 40 that, disregarding those subfields that are minimally affected by foreign incorporations (i.e., less than five new words), the majority range between five and 12 war-related types.

**Figure 40.** Division of the borrowings pertaining to [ARMED HOSTILITY] into subfields

These fields included terms related to [treason] (*treacherie, treisoun, or begilen*), [peace] (*grið, saught or pes*), [tactical operations] (*defens, assault, or recouen*) or [location] (*castel, tour, or prisoun*). Nevertheless, there is one field that stands out in terms of relative size. With 33 borrowings, [equipment] is by far the most affected subfield in both hypersems including all kinds of military equipment, which range from different war-related types of weapons and defensive gear to horses and parts/accessories (e.g. *club(b)e, launce, armour, gere, monture or seynt*). Therefore, the developments in warfare equipment can be seen as an important source of new vocabulary.

Moving on to [AUTHORITY], in Figure 41 we observe how there is also a vast difference in the distribution of items in this hyperseme.

**Figure 41.** Division of the borrowings pertaining to [AUTHORITY] into subfields

While in [ARMED HOSTILITY] the 94 borrowings are distributed into 14 different subfields, the 29 borrowed items in [AUTHORITY] are divided into just seven. Just the 18 war-related types in [rank] subfield account for 62% of the borrowings in this hyperseme, while the other six subfields together constitute the remaining 38%. The subfield [rank] comprises categories such as ruler (e.g., *baroun*, *prince*, *duk*, *leg(g)e*), vassal (*swain* or *squier*) and slave (*thral*). The remaining 11 war-related types are spread through the other subfields, which comprise the war-related types *dreng*, *coroune*, *fau coun*, *rialm*, *palays*, *regne*, *coruning*, *thrallen*, *vengen*, *coronen*, and *regnen*. As in the case of [equipment], the different terms used for military officials, landlords and their subjects also constitute a big nucleus of borrowings in this period. Thus, we can affirm that both the people involved in warfare situations and the gear they used were highly affected by incorporations from other languages.

### 5.2.2. *Loanwords in use in the Middle English sub-corpus*

In our study, loanwords represent the most prolific method for incorporating new lexicon into the semantic field of [WAR] in both Old and Middle English. As a result, this section delves into explaining the etymology of this type of borrowings and the impact they had on the different subfields of our semantic field. The sections that follow provide a classification of these items into Latin, Norse and French-derived words.

5.2.2.1. *Latin-derived words*

The English language experienced several periods of Latin influence along its history, as seen in Section 2.1.1.2 above: the Romanisation of Britain, the Christianisation of Anglo-Saxons and Vikings, and the Norman Conquest implied a direct contact between Latin (either in its classical, ecclesiastical or medieval forms) and the vernacular, which opened the door for many Latin terms to be incorporated in the English lexicon. Most of these terms are related to topics such as religion and education. Nonetheless, some borrowings also refer to the semantic field of [WAR], although to a lesser extent. Due to Latin influence occurring in different periods, the date of attestation of the examples found in our corpus ranges from early Old English (some Latinisms already present in the first Germanic dialects) to Late Middle English. Accordingly, Table 27 below includes all the Latin-derived words found in both the Old and Middle English sub-corpora.

**Table 27.** Latin-derived words in the semantic field of [WAR]

LEMMA	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
<i>ceaster</i>	n	walled town	Lat <b>castra</b>	a855
<i>coroune</i>	n	crown	Latin <b>corona</b> + AN <b>corone</b>	OE + c1100
<i>maister</i>	n	high official, ruler, governor	Latin <b>magister</b> + AN <b>maistre</b>	OE + c1100
<i>pysan</i>	n	a piece of metal or mail attached to the helmet extending over the neck and upper breast	Lat. <b>pissane</b>	1345
<i>quarcerne</i>	n	prison	Latin <b>carcer</b>	OE
<i>segen</i>	n	banner, standard	Lat <b>signum</b>	c900
<i>tour</i>	n	tower	Lat. <b>turris</b> + AN <b>tour</b>	c897 + a1300
<i>wall</i>	n	wall, defensive structure	Lat <b>vallum</b>	OE

As seen in Section 5.1.3.3, our corpus registered only eight war-related types of Latin origin, two in Old English and six in Middle English. *Ceaster*, *quarcerne*, *segen*, and *wall* were already present in the Anglo-Saxon period. As suggested by the HTOED, *ceaster*, which was adopted by the Angles and Saxons during their conquest of Britain, referred to any former Roman encampments and is currently present in the toponymy of many towns and cities of England, such as Colchester, Doncaster, Manchester or Rochester. Also, the HTOED suggests that *quarcerne* is probably a transmission error of Old English *carcern* ‘prison’. Alternatively, although *coroune*, *maister* and *tour* were already attested in Old English, they display spelling variations which imply a reinforcement of their French cognates at a later period. Thus, only *pysan* can be properly considered as a Middle English borrowing.

In terms of lexical contribution, half of these words belong to the subfield [location] (*ceaster*, *quarcerne*, *tour*, and *wall*), which implies that it is the subfield with a larger input of Latin-derived words, while the other half are found in [insignia/symbol] (*coroune* and *segen*), [equipment] (*pysan*), and [rank] (*maister*). Nonetheless, regarding its Currentness, five out of these eight words are still in use in Present-day English. This is a rather surprising fact taking into account that they were borrowed at such an early stage of the language. Conversely *ceaster*, *quarcerne* and *segen* have become obsolete since they have either been replaced by another term, or they no longer represent concepts or ideas in use nowadays. It is also the case of the latest incorporation, *pysan*, which remains as an archaic word since it is no longer part of the defensive gear of contemporary soldiers.

In conclusion, the contribution of Latin-derived words to the semantic field of [WAR] was barely noticeable and, albeit some few borrowings surviving until Present-day English, they cannot be regarded as a key element in this analysis.

#### 5.2.2.2. *Norse-derived words*

The next language with a higher index of incorporations is Old Norse. With 16 items, three registered in Old English and 13 in Middle English, Norse loanwords are slightly more numerous than Latin ones. We must point out here that two Old Norse loanwords in the Old English sub-corpus, namely *scathe* and *thral*, are attested in both periods and therefore they can only be regarded as one single war-related type. The remaining 14 Old Norse loans are presented in



below. It is also worth remembering that, as seen in Section 2.1.3, the language of the Vikings arrived in England at the end of the 8th century and ceased its influence upon the vernacular by the mid-11th century. This means that, despite Table 28 below shows attestation dates that go beyond the end of the Viking Age, all Old Norse borrowings should have been incorporated by the start of Middle Ages, at least in oral registers.

**Table 28.** Norse-derived words in the semantic field of [WAR]

LEMMA	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
<i>birr</i>	n	a charge in battle, an attack, a fight	ON <b>byrr</b>	a1325
<i>brinie</i>	n	coat of mail	ON <b>brynja</b>	c1175
<i>caiser</i>	n	Kaiser, emperor	ON <b>kaiser</b>	c1175
<i>club(be)</i>	n	club	ON <b>klubba</b>	c1275
<i>cnear(r)</i>	n	small ship, galley (of the Northmen)	ON <b>knorr</b>	937
<i>dreng</i>	n	Free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant	ON <b>drengr</b>	a1000
<i>gere</i>	n	gear	ON <b>gervi, gǫrvi</b> (probably)	C1200
<i>gisel</i>	n	hostage	ON <b>gisl</b>	a1400
<i>grið</i>	n	peace	ON <b>grið</b>	a1000
<i>niðing</i>	n	Nothing, villain	ON <b>níðingr</b>	OE
<i>saught(e)</i>	n	peace	ON <b>sæht, saht</b>	1038-50
<i>scathe</i>	n	harm, pain	ON <b>skaðe</b>	OE
<i>swain</i>	n	squire	ON <b>sveinn</b>	a1150
<i>thral</i>	n	slave	ON <b>þræll</b>	c950

In line with the case of Latin loanwords, half of the words in Table 28 were already registered in Old English, like the aforementioned *scathe* and *thral*, although some others are not attested in our sub-corpus, namely *cnear(r)*, *dreng*, *grið*, *niðing*, or *saught(e)*. However, the other half made their first appearance from the 12th century onwards, viz. *birr*, *brinie*, *kaiser*, *club(be)*, *gere*, *gisel*, and *swain*.

If we now look at how much of this Scandinavian lexicon is still present in Present-day English, the figure is very low compared to that of Latin, since only *gere* and *club(be)* are regularly in current use, while *niðing*, *scathe*, *caiser*, *dreng*, and *thral* have historical or archaic use. Thus, the remaining seven borrowings are currently out of use. A particularly outstanding case is the disappearance of *grið* (OED, s.v. *grith*, n. ‘peace’) and *saught(e)* (OED, s.v. *sought*, n. ‘peace’). As we saw in the previous section, these roots formed derivatives in other word classes, both in Old and Middle English, which together accumulate more than 205 tokens in our corpus and represent 1.6% of the total on their own. Therefore, we can assert that both terms were fairly recursive words, at least within our semantic field. For this reason, it is surprising that they fell into disuse and were substituted by the Anglo-Norman loanword *pes*, which appears only once in SGGK, as seen in the example below in bold.

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<p>Ȝe may be seker bi þis braunch þat I bere here          Þat I passe as in <b>pes</b>, and no plyȝt seche;          (<i>Sir Gawain and the Green Knight</i>, lines 225-6)</p>	<p>You may believe by this branch that I am bearing here          that I pass as one in <b>peace</b>, no peril seeking.          (Tolkien 2006: 24)</p>

Concerning the contribution of Norse-derived words to the sub-fields of our corpus, we observe that they present a dissimilar distribution within the two hypersemes. For instance, [ARMED HOSTILITY] contains nine items which spread along five subfields: [noun] (*birr*), [damage] (*scathe*), [peace] (*grið* and *saught(e)*), [armed forces] (*gisel* and *niðing*), and [equipment] (*brinie*, *club(be)* and *gere*). Conversely, [AUTHORITY] contains four other war-related types that belong to just two subfields, namely [freedom] (*dreng*) and [rank] (*caiser*, *swain*, and *thral*). Altogether, the Norse contribution to the field is quite remarkable since it affected 33% of the subfields in our corpus.

Finally, a case particularly worth mentioning is the etymology of the word *dien*. The main source materials consulted, OED and MED, do not agree on its etymology. The MED plainly suggests a Scandinavian origin of the word with no further comments (MED, s.v. *dien*, v., ‘die’), whereas the OED exposes different etymologies (OED, s.v. *die*, v., ‘die’), but always sustaining the existence of the word in the English language as far back as Old English. As a result, since at least an explanation is offered in the OED, we decided to follow their suggestion and not include *dien* as an Old Norse loanword. Notwithstanding, this word adds up 328 tokens in our corpus which represents 2.6% of the total. If considered as valid, its frequency of use would have been the highest in Table 28

above. Unquestionably, this would have noticeably altered the results for the Norse-derived words presented in this sub-section.

By and large, regardless of the significant contribution Norse borrowings made during the Early Middle English period, only a small percentage of these words managed to survive or, at least, adapt to the evolution of this semantic field. Consequently, the Currentness these terms have in today's warfare lexicon can only serve as a reminder of what reality was at the time of the Viking Age.

### 5.2.2.3. *French-derived words*

The two distinct periods of French influence upon the semantic field of [WAR] proved similarly fruitful in terms of lexical contribution, as seen in Section 5.1.3 above. Considered together, French borrowings accounted for 25.4% of the words in this semantic field. If only loanwords are analysed, Anglo Norman influence left a total of 34 loans while Old French loanwords add up 56 war-related types. Thus, we present these data in Table 29 and Table 30 below alongside the relevant comments for each period.

**Table 29.** Anglo-Norman-derived words in the semantic field of [WAR]

ME FORM (LEMMA)	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
<i>armes (ames)</i>	n	arms; weapons	> OF <b>arms</b>	a1250
<i>armur (armour)</i>	n	armour	<b>armoure, armeure</b>	c1300
<i>arsoun (arson)</i>	n	saddle bow	<b>arsun, arçoun</b>	c1300
<i>aventaille (aventail)</i>	n	aventail	<b>aventail, OF esventail</b>	c1374
<i>bastel (bastille)</i>	n	bastion	<b>bastile</b>	c1400
<i>defenden (defend)</i>	v	to defend	<b>defender, defendre</b>	c1250
<i>defens (defence)</i>	n	defense	<b>defens</b>	?a1325
<i>fell (fell)</i>	adj	deadly, mortal, fatal	> OF <b>fel</b>	c1300
<i>gouernor (governor)</i>	n	governor	<b>governor</b>	a1325
<i>legion (legion)</i>	n	legion	> OF <b>legion</b>	c1275
<i>melly (mêlée)</i>	n	battle, melee	> OF <b>mellee</b>	1341
<i>mounture (monture)</i>	n	mount	<b>monture</b>	c1400
<i>palays (palace)</i>	n	palace	> OF <b>palais</b>	c1300
<i>patroun (patron)</i>	n	patron, ruler, protector	> OF <b>patron</b>	c1300
<i>paunce (paunce)</i>	n	armor of plate or mail worn to protect the body	<b>pance</b>	1333
<i>paytrure (paytral)</i>	n	breast plate	alteration of <b>paitrel</b>	c1400
<i>pes (peace)</i>	n	peace	<b>pes</b>	?a1160
<i>pinacle (pinnacle)</i>	n	pinnacle	<b>pinacle</b>	c1330
<i>plate (plate)</i>	n	plate, piece of armour	> OF <b>plate</b>	a1275
<i>point (point)</i>	n	point or edge of a weapon	<b>point</b>	?c1225

<i>polein (poleyn)</i>	n	a separate piece of armor protecting the knee	<b>polein</b>	1388
<i>prince (prince)</i>	n	prince	> OF <b>prince</b>	c1225
<i>prisoun (prison)</i>	n	prison	<b>prisoun</b>	c1210
<i>pruese (prowess)</i>	n	prowess	<b>pruesse</b>	c1300
<i>rasour(e) (razor)</i>	n	razor	> OF <b>rasor</b>	c1300
<i>regne (reign)</i>	n	reign	> OF <b>reigne</b>	a1300
<i>regne (reign)</i>	v	to reign	<b>regner</b>	c1300
<i>rein (rein)</i>	n	rein	<b>raine</b>	1297
<i>rewarde (reward)</i>	n	reward	<b>rewarde</b>	1340
<i>rial (rial)</i>	adj	royal	<b>rial</b>	c1330
<i>rialm (rialm)</i>	n	realm	variant of <b>realm</b>	c1400
<i>rounci (rouncy)</i>	n	horse, steed	> OF <b>roncin</b>	c1300
<i>treisoun (treason)</i>	n	treason	<b>treysoun, tresun, treson</b>	?c1225
<i>vileini (villainy)</i>	n	villainy	<b>vile(i)nie, vilainye, vilanie</b>	?c1225

Anglo-Norman influence accounts for slightly more than 10% of the total of our semantic field. The greatest contribution is found in the hyperseme [ARMED HOSTILITY] with 25 war-related types, of which 12 belong to the subfield [equipment]: *armur*, *arsoun*, *aventaille*, *mounture*, *paunce*, *payttrure*, *plate*, *point*, *polein*, *rasour(e)*, *rein*, and *rounci*. In contrast, the other 14 words are evenly divided among the remaining subfields: *barbican*, *bastel*, *defend*, *defens*, *fell*, *legion*, *melly*, *pes*, *pinacle*, *prisoun*, *pruesse*, *rewarde*, *treisoun*, and *vileini*. Alternatively, eight war-related types appear in [AUTHORITY], of which four belong to [rank], with *gouernor*, *patrounes* and *prince*; three more to [locations], with *palays*, *regne* and *rialm*; and 1 to [command], the verb *regne*.

Regarding their frequency of use, it should be noted that 25 out of the 34 war-related types, namely 70%, are still in use today. Only the words *aventaille*, *payttrure*, and *polein* are regarded as historical terms, while the meaning of the adjective *fell* in this period (OED s.v. *fell*, adj., ‘deadly, mortal, fatal’) has become obsolete. Thus, only six of the registered war-related types have fallen into disuse in Present-day English. Let us continue with borrowings from Old French.

**Table 30.** Old French-derived words in the semantic field of [WAR]

ME FORM (LEMMA)	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
<i>admiral (admiral)</i>	n	admiral	<b>admirall</b>	c1275
<i>anlas (anlace)</i>	n	anlace, short two-edged knife or dagger	<b>alenaz</b>	1297
<i>assaut (assault)</i>	n	assault	<b>assaut</b>	a1250
<i>baner (banner)</i>	n	banner	<b>banere</b>	C1225

<i>barat (barrat)</i>	n	fighting, strife	<b>barat</b>	c1225
<i>barbican (barbican)</i>	n	barbican	<b>barbecane</b>	a1300
<i>barnage (baronage)</i>	n	baronage	<b>barnage</b>	a1300
<i>baroun (baron)</i>	n	baron	<b>barun</b>	a1300
<i>batayle (battle)</i>	n	battle	<b>bataille</b>	1297
<i>bauderik (baldric)</i>	n	baldric	<b>baldrei, baudrei</b>	c1300
<i>blasoun (blazon)</i>	n	blazon, coat of arms	<b>blazon</b>	c1325
<i>bourdis (bourdis)</i>	n	onslaught (in battle)	<b>bordis</b>	1303
<i>brace (brace)</i>	n	piece of armour covering the arm	<b>bracel</b>	c1400
<i>carnel (crenel)</i>	n	crenel	<b>crenel</b>	1481
<i>castel (castle)</i>	n	castle	< ONF <b>castel</b>	c1000
<i>champion (champion)</i>	n	champion	<b>champion, champiun</b>	c1225
<i>chef (chief)</i>	n	chief	<b>chef, chief</b>	1297
<i>chevalerie (chivalry)</i>	n	chivalry	<b>chevalerie</b>	1297
<i>clusen (close)</i>	v	to confine, besiege	<b>clos- &lt;clore</b>	C1275
<i>comaunden (command)</i>	v	to command	<b>comander</b>	c1330
<i>conquest (conquest)</i>	n	conquest	<b>conquest</b>	?c1150
<i>cote (coat)</i>	n	coat of mail	<b>cote</b>	c1300
<i>cowters (coutere)</i>	n	elbow-protection	<b>coute</b>	?a1400
<i>crushen (crush)</i>	v	to crush	<b>croissir</b>	1398
<i>cuisse (cuisse)</i>	n	armour for protecting the front part of the thighs	<b>cuisseaux</b>	c1330
<i>duk (duke)</i>	n	duke	<b>dux, ducs</b>	1129
<i>enemi (enemy)</i>	n	enemy	<b>enemi</b>	c1340
<i>faucoun (falcon)</i>	n	falcon, hawk	<b>faucon, falcun</b>	a1250
<i>frushen (frush)</i>	v	to smash	<b>fruissier, froisier</b>	c1300
<i>garysoun (garrison)</i>	n	garrison	<b>garison</b>	1297
<i>garyte (garret)</i>	n	Watchtower, garret	<b>garite</b>	1340
<i>gile (guile)</i>	n	treachery	<b>guile</b>	?c1225
<i>gisarm(e) (gisarme)</i>	n	halberd	<b>gisarme, gisarne</b>	a1325
<i>glaive (glaive)</i>	n	Spear/sword	<b>glaive</b>	1297
<i>greuez (greave)</i>	n	greave	<b>greve</b>	c1400
<i>hauberk (hauberk)</i>	n	hauberk, coat of mail	<b>hauberk</b>	1297
<i>hurten (hurt)</i>	v	to hurt	<b>hurte(r)</b>	c1175
<i>launce (lance)</i>	n	lance	<b>launce</b>	c1290
<i>leg(g)e (liege)</i>	n	liege	<b>lige, liege</b>	1297
<i>rescouen (rescue)</i>	v	to rescue	<b>rescouer</b>	c1300
<i>sabatou (sabatoun)</i>	n	piece of protective armour for the upper side of the foot	< Prov. <b>sabató</b>	c1330
<i>segge (siege)</i>	n	siege	<b>sege, siege, seige</b>	?c1225
<i>seisen (seize)</i>	v	to seize, capture	<b>saisir, seisir</b>	c1290
<i>sergeaunt (sergeant)</i>	n	sergeant	<b>segent, serjant</b>	c1200
<i>seynt (ceint)</i>	n	sach, belt for the sword	<b>ceint</b>	a1350
<i>skirmen (skirmish)</i>	v	to skirmish	<b>eskirmir, eskermir, eschermir</b>	?c1225
<i>sovereign (sovereign)</i>	n	sovereign	<b>soverain, souverain</b>	c1290
<i>squier (squire)</i>	n	squire	<b>esquire, escuier</b>	c1290
<i>strife (strife)</i>	n	strife	<b>estrif</b>	a1225
<i>tabernacle (tabernacle)</i>	n	tabernacle	<b>tabernacle</b>	1297

<i>talevace (talevace)</i>	n	round shield	<b>talevas, talvas</b>	c1300
<i>traitour (traitor)</i>	n	traitor	<b>traitor</b>	?c1225
<i>trecherie (treachery)</i>	n	treachery	<b>trecherie, tricherie</b>	?c1225
<i>vengen (venge)</i>	v	to take vengeance	<b>vengier, venger</b>	1303
<i>vileinous (villainous)</i>	adj	villainous	<b>villeneus</b>	?a1366
<i>werre (war)</i>	n	war	< ONF <b>werre</b>	a1122

As seen in Section 3.1.4, after the restoration of the English language at court in the 14th century, French continued to be used as a language of social prestige and also for business and administrative purposes. It is in this period that we find the second wave of French influence, this time from Central French, which represents the largest input of loans in this period, and possibly in the history of the English language. The 56 loanwords registered in our study represent 16% of the total, and these are divided into 45 terms within [ARMED HOSTILITY] and 11 terms within [AUTHORITY].

The percentage of words of French origin in the hyperseme [ARMED HOSTILITY] also represents 16.2% of the total and its war-related types are distributed unevenly under its subfields. For example, the largest category, as in the case of the Anglo-Norman, is that of [equipment] with 15 samples, including offensive, defensive and parts or accessories: *anles, arms, bauderik, brace, cote, cowters, cuisse, gisarm(e), glaive, greues, hauberk, launce, sabaton, seynt, and talevace*. Another eight war-related types belong to the [tactical operations] subfield, which includes verbs and nouns: *assaut, clusen, comaunde, crushen, frushen, rescoue, segge, and skirmen*. We also found five forms relating to [locations]: *carnel, castel, garysoun, garyte, and tabernacle*, while there are four synonyms that belong to [noun]: *barat, batayle, strife, and werre*. Finally, the remaining 10 war-related types are distributed evenly among [damage], *robbery* and *bourdis*; [hostility], *vileinous* and *enemi*; [insignia / symbol], *baner* and *blasoun*; [participants], *champion* and *sergeaunt*; and [result], *sixen* and *conqueste*.

Alternatively, the percentage in the hyperseme of [AUTHORITY] is 15.1%. Out of the 11 elements that compose it, nine belong to [rank]: *admiral, barnage, baroun, chef, chevalerie, duk, leg(g)e, sovereign, squier*; one to [punishment], the verb *vengen*; and one to [insignia / symbol], the noun *faucoun*, which, especially during Old English and early Middle English, represented a symbol of rank and power, as was the horse.

Finally, the percentage of words in current use in Present-day English rises again around 70% with 41 war-related types. Concerning those terms with restricted usage,

there are four borrowings (*baroun*, *cowters*, *cuisse*, and *leg(g)e*) that, according to the OED, are considered historical words, whereas *glaive* is regarded as a poetic word. In contrast, *admiral*, *blasoun*, *brace*, *clusen*, *duk*, *gile*, and *sergeaunt* have lost the meaning that related them to this semantic field, while the remaining borrowings (*anlas*, *barat*, *bourdis*, *frushen*, *gisarm(e)*, *sabaton*, *seynt*, *tabernacle*, and *talevace*) are currently obsolete.

Thus, we may claim that, as in the case of Anglo-Norman, the lexical contribution of French was decisive in terms of nourishing our field with new vocabulary. In fact, French was the most influential language and the one that, by far, provided a greater lexical contribution to the English language accounting for over a quarter of the war-related types in the semantic field of [WAR].

### ***5.2.3. Hybrids in use in the Middle English sub-corpus***

As seen in Section 3.1.4 above, some corpus examples include an item of foreign origin combined with a native element. These are known as *hybrids*. Within the most common word-formation processes, there are three major categories to take into account, namely compounding, derivation and conversion (or zero-derivation). These have proved relevant to our analysis. All three processes are virtually at the same level in terms of production in most languages of Germanic origin, and so were they in Old English. Torre-Alonso (2013: 45) explains the morphological structure of Old English complex nouns by analysing the productivity of the affixation, compounding, zero-derivation and inflection processes in terms of feeding the lexicon of this language. He exposes the large recursiveness of affixes, both prefixes (*be-ceorfan* or *for-wegan*) and suffixes (*cyne-dom* or *hett(e)-end*) in order to form derivatives. In addition, he explains how these elements were frequently compounds of units that could also be found as independent lexemes (*déað-cwalu* or *þeoden-stol*). All in all, and especially in the period under study, the morphological structure of derived and compound words was very diffuse, and was an important subject of discussion within the scientific community in the second half of the 20th century (Torre-Alonso 2011: 258). Compounds, on the one hand, deserve a special mention due to their importance in the composition of alliterative poetry. Let us remember that one of the most remarkable resources in the literature of the Anglo-Saxon period was the use of the rhetorical figures known as *kennings*, very present in other literatures such as the Nordic sagas of Norway or Iceland. These elements were compound words that



established a semantic relationship, generally metaphorical or metonymic, that replaced the original lexeme. For instance, in *Beowulf* there are several kennings to refer to the concept of *sea* such as: *hron-rād* ‘the way of the whales’ (line 10), *swan-rād* ‘the way of the swans’ (line 200) or *seġl-rād* ‘the way of the sails’ (line 1,429).

Although some examples have been found in the Old English sub-corpus, these word-forming processes have been key to identifying hybrids that were formed in Middle English. Table 31 below collects all the hybrids found in our corpus.

**Table 31.** Hybrids in use in the semantic field of [WAR]

ME FORMA (LEMMA)	WORD CLASS	MEANING	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
<i>abatailment</i> ( <i>battlement</i> )	n	battlement	ME derivative < OF <b>bataille</b> + <b>-ment</b> .	c1400
<i>armed</i> ( <i>armed</i> )	adj	equipped with weapons	ME derivative < OF <b>armer</b> / Lat <b>armare</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	C1300
<i>batild</i> ( <i>battled</i> )	adj	battled, fortified, walled	ME derivative < OF <b>bataille</b> + <b>-ed</b>	c1386
<i>begilen</i> ( <i>begile</i> )	v	to betray, deceive	ME derivative < OE <b>be</b> + OF <b>guile</b>	?c1225
<i>bitraien</i> ( <i>betray</i> )	v	to betray	ME derivative < OE <b>be</b> + OF <b>traïr</b>	C1250
<i>corounen</i> ( <i>crown</i> )	v	to crown	ME conversion < OF <b>coroun</b>	?c1200
<i>coruning</i> ( <i>crowning</i> )	n	crowning	ME derivative < AN <b>corone</b> + OE <b>-ing</b>	a1250
<i>forsnes</i> ( <i>forceness</i> )	n	force, strength	ME derivative < OF <b>force</b> + ME <b>-nesse</b>	C1400
<i>gered</i> ( <i>gared</i> )	adj	armed, equipped	ME derivative < ON <b>gera</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	a1325
<i>grīðful</i> ( <i>grithful</i> )	adj	peaceful	ME derivative < ON <b>grīð</b> + OE <b>-ful</b>	?c1225
<i>grīðliche</i> ( <i>grithly</i> )	adv	peacefully	ME derivative < ON <b>grīð</b> + OE <b>-lice</b>	c1275
<i>griþien</i> ( <i>grith</i> )	v	to make peace	OE derivative ON <b>grīð</b> + OE <b>-ian</b>	c1000
<i>liðend</i> ( <i>liðend</i> )	n	sailor, pirate	OE derivative ON <b>lið</b> + OE <b>-end</b>	?
<i>lidmann</i> ( <i>lidmann</i> )	n	sailor, pirate	OE compound ON <b>lið</b> + OE <b>man</b>	?
<i>rially</i> ( <i>rially</i> )	adv	royally	ME derivative < AN <b>rial</b> + OE <b>-ly</b>	a1387
<i>sælid</i> ( <i>sælid</i> )	n	seafarer, pirate	OE compound < OE <b>sæ</b> + ON <b>lið</b>	?
<i>saughtenen</i> ( <i>saught</i> )	v	to make peace	OE derivative < ON <b>sæht</b> , <b>saht</b> + OE <b>-an</b>	c1000
<i>saughtnesse</i> ( <i>saughtness</i> )	n	peace	OE derivative < ON <b>sæht</b> , <b>saht</b> + OE <b>-nesse</b>	c1000
<i>thrallen</i> ( <i>thrall</i> )	v	to enslave	ME conversion < ON <b>þrál</b>	c1275
<i>werren</i> ( <i>war</i> )	v	to wage war	ME conversion < OF <b>werre</b>	1154

It is visible how the Old English sub-corpus contains far fewer examples of hybridisation (3) than the Middle English one (17). The reasons can be of varied nature. First, it is possible that there are no attested records of these elements in the Old English sub-corpus while they are recorded in the Middle English one. Again, these words could have been in use in oral registers before being recorded in writing. Alternatively, the two main foreign influences that the Anglo-Saxon language received before the Norman Conquest were Latin and Old Norse, especially in the Late Old English period. As explained in Section 3.1, the assimilation of foreign elements into a language may take a considerable amount of time, and even longer for them become productive in the vernacular. In turn, while our Middle English sub-corpus already records more instances

of Latin and Old Norse terms, the direct and extended English-French contact situation caused the incorporation of many French borrowings. As a result, having longer exposure to foreign languages facilitated the assimilation of borrowings and, thus, the increase of hybrids in the Middle English sub-corpus. The number of hybrids found in our corpus suggest that this foreign lexical stock was widely used by the authors of the time and, thus, regarded as English words. Rodríguez-Puente (2020: 147-8) exemplifies this by comparing the use of *-ness* and *-ity* in early Middle English, and states that, “[I]ike other foreign derivational morphemes, *-ity* was predominantly used with foreign bases, though it progressively gained productivity in terms of tokens and types towards the end of the ME period” and suggests that, “due to the influence of French and Latin as languages of prestige”, these affixes were no longer considered as foreign elements.

When it comes to the Old English hybrids, six forms show a mixture of native and non-native elements. Interestingly, the Old Norse form *líð* is present in three of them, two compounds and one derivational form instances (i.e., *líðend*, *lidmann*, and *sealíð*, all three meaning ‘sailor, pirate’). The other three, although only present in the Middle English sub-corpus, also show an Old Norse root, *gríð* or *saught* (both meaning ‘peace’). Therefore, they must have been incorporated around the same period as *líð*. Certainly, they are not the only words in the corpus that use these word-forming processes. As Rodríguez-Abruñeiras and Romero-Barranco (2021: 79) state, “[a] very common native resource to create new words is compounding. OE vocabulary was associative and consisted of large word families in which lexical items were easily identified as being related. This was especially so because of the commonplace use of compounds”. Our corpus registered many war-related elements that are only recorded as parts of a compound, such as *cene-* ‘royal’, *heað-* ‘battle’, *heoru-* ‘battle’ or *tír-* ‘glory’. Also, the Old English suffix *-end* is found in many examples: *garberend* ‘lancer’, *hettend* ‘enemy’, *rædend* ‘ruler’, *sceotend* ‘archer’, *wealdend* ‘ruler’, or *wígend* ‘warrior’. Thus, a larger number of hybrids would be expected in this period. Nonetheless, it is also outstanding that only Old Norse elements account for all the hybrids found in this sub-corpus and no Latin-rooted hybrids are registered. A possible interpretation is that, while Latin had been longer in the England, the Old English-Old Norse intelligibility made it easier for these items to combine.

The case of Middle English hybrids is significantly different. The 17 accounted hybrids contain elements from various languages. Apart from the three Old English

hybrids formed through derivation (i.e., *gríðien*, *saughtenen*, and *saughtnesse* ‘to make peace’), we also find *gríðful* (‘peaceful’), *gríðliche* (‘peacefully’) *gered* (‘equipped with for war’) are also derivatives from an Old Norse element. Likewise, *thrallen* (‘to enslave’) is formed through conversion from the Old Norse borrowing *þrál* (‘slave’). Regarding the French element, two Anglo Norman hybrids formed through derivation are found, namely *corouning* (‘corouning’) and *rially* (‘royally’), while the rest of the elements originate directly from the continental French variety. On the one hand, *corounen* (‘to crown’) and *werren* (‘to make war’) were formed through conversion, whereas *abatailment* (‘battlement’), *armed*, *batild* (‘fortified’), *beguile* (‘treachery’), *bitraien* (‘betray’) and *forsnes* (‘force’) were formed through derivation.

In conclusion, the 20 elements in Table 31 prove that hybridisation was a recurrent process in the English language. This means that vernacular was capable of adapting and being flexible enough as to assimilate foreign elements into its repertoire, integrating them into its morphology in order to describe the new concepts and ideas that came from other languages.

#### 5.2.4. *The contribution of borrowings to the semantic field of [WAR]*

As introduced in Section 5.1.3, the low frequency of use of foreign war-related tokens in the corpus (9.8%) could be due to two possible factors. First, some borrowings could have been fairly recent to the language and, as a consequence, not yet fully established within the lexicon. This implies that Old English words were still resisting a substitution process and the native and foreign elements were coexisting in the Middle English period. On the other hand, some other borrowings could have been imported to cover quite restricted meanings or to designate specific concepts, which reduced their usage chances within our corpus. Consequently, this section is devoted to the analysis of this division of borrowings into *import* or *cultural borrowings* (Section 5.2.2.1) and *substitution* or *core borrowings* (Section 5.2.2.2). Finally, Section 5.2.2.3 offers a brief comment on those core borrowings coexisting with native words in this period.

##### 5.2.4.1. *Cultural borrowings: new words in the English language*

This first division of cultural borrowings represents those terms that were incorporated into the English language to designate ideas or concepts that were new to the vernacular. By this means, the first filter that we applied to our data was that these terms should not

have any synonym at this point in time, not just in our corpus, but in the whole lexicon of the language. This was thoroughly carried out with the help of the HTOED. Then, as a second filter, we had to make sure which portion of this vocabulary entered the language during Old English and which in Middle English, so the attestation date was also key to provide valid results. This information was also provided by the HTOED and then transferred to our database. Table 32 below displays these data accordingly.

**Table 32.** Cultural borrowings in the Middle English sub-corpus

LEMMA	WORD CLASS	MEANING	LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE
abatailment	n	battlement, fortification	ME	derivative < OF <b>bataille</b> + <b>-ment</b> . The form with a- is only registered in SGGK	c1400
admiral	n	admiral	OF	OF <b>admirall</b> / Lat. <b>admiralis</b>	c1275
anlas	n	anlace, short knife	OF	<b>alenaz</b>	1297
arsoun	n	saddle bow	AN	<b>arsun, arçoun</b>	c1300
aventaille	n	aventail	AN	<b>aventail, OF esventail</b>	c1374
barnage	n	baronage	OF	<b>barnage</b>	a1300
baroun	n	baron	OF	<b>barun</b>	a1300
bastel	n	bastion	AN	<b>bastile</b>	c1400
batild	adj	battled, fortified, walled	ME	derivative < OF <b>bataille</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	c1386
bauderik	n	baldric	OF	<b>baldrei, baudrei</b>	c1300
blasoun	n	blazon, coat of arms	OF	<b>blazon</b>	c1325
bourdis	n	onslaught	OF	<b>bordis</b>	1303
brace	n	piece of the armour that covers the arm	OF	<b>bracel</b>	c1400
caiser	n	kaiser, emperor	ON	<b>kaiser</b>	c1175
carnel	n	crenel	OF	<b>crenel</b>	1481
castel	n	castle	OF	ONF <b>castel</b>	c1000
coroune	n	crown	Lat.	Latin <b>corona</b> + AN <b>corone</b> > OE	OE
corounen	v	to crown	ME	conversion < OF <b>coroun</b>	?c1200
coruning	n	crowning	ME	derivative < AN <b>corone</b> + OE <b>-ing</b>	a1250
cowters	n	elbow-protection	OF	<b>coute</b>	?a1400
<i>crushen</i>	v	to crush	OF	<b>croissir</b>	1398
cuisse	n	armour for protecting the front part of the thighs	OF	<b>cuisseaux</b>	c1330
dreng	n	free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant	ON	<b>drengr</b> > IOE <b>dreng</b>	a1000
duk	n	duke	OF	<b>dux, ducs</b>	1129
fauoun	n	falcon	OF	<b>faucon, falcun</b>	a1250
fell	adj	deadly, mortal, fatal	AN	> OF <b>fel</b>	c1300
garysoun	n	garrison	OF	<b>garison</b>	1297

garyte	n	watchtower, garret	OF	<b>garite</b>	1340
gere	n	gear	ON	<b>gervi, gørvi</b> (probably)	C1200
gisarm(e)	n	halberd	OF	<b>gisarme, gisarne</b>	a1325
gisel	n	slave	ON	<b>gísl</b>	a1400
glaive	n	spear/sword	OF	<b>glaive</b>	1297
greuez	n	greave	OF	<b>greve</b>	c1400
hauberk	n	hauberk, coat of mail	OF	<b>hauberk</b>	1297
melly	n	battle, melee	AN	> OF <b>mellee</b>	1341
palays	n	palace	AN	> OF <b>palais</b>	c1300
paunce	n	armor of plate or mail worn to protect the body	AN	<b>pance</b>	1333
payttrure	n	breast plate	AN	alteration of <b>paitrel</b>	c1400
pinacle	n	pinnacle	AN	<b>pinacle</b>	c1330
plate	n	plate, piece of armour	AN	> OF <b>plate</b>	a1275
polein	n	a separate piece of armor protecting the knee	AN	<b>polein</b>	1388
prisoun	n	prison	AN	<b>prisoun</b>	c1210
pysan	n	a piece of metal or mail attached to the helmet extending over the neck and upper breast	Lat.	<b>pissane</b>	1345
quarcerne	n	prison	Lat.	(probably alteration of) <b>carcer</b> > OE	OE
rasour(e)	n	razor	AN	> OF <b>rasor</b>	c1300
rein	n	rein	AN	<b>raine</b>	1297
rounci	n	horse, steed	AN	> OF <b>roncin</b>	c1300
sabaton	n	piece of protective armor for the upper side of the foot	OF	> Prov. <b>sabató</b>	c1330
sergeaunt	n	sergeant	OF	<b>segent, serjant</b>	c1200
skirmen	v	to skirmish	OF	<b>eskirmir, eskermir, eschermir</b>	?c1225
sovereign	n	sovereign	OF	<b>soverain, souverein</b>	c1290
tabernacle	n	tabernacle	OF	<b>tabernacle</b>	1297
talevace	n	round shield	OF	<b>talevas, talvas</b>	c1300
tour	n	tower	Lat.	Lat. <b>turris</b> + AN <b>tour</b>	c1000
vileini	n	villainy	AN	<b>vile(i)nie, vilainye, vilanie</b>	?c1225
vileinous	adj	villainous	OF	<b>villeneus</b>	?a1366

As we can observe, the first filter retrieved a total of 55 war-related types, which represent 45.8% of the borrowings in our corpus. After applying the second filter, we found five war-related types that entered the language before the Norman Conquest. According to the HTOED, *quarcerne* (HTOED s.v. *quartern*, n.) is only attested in

LBRUT and, despite appearing only in the Middle English sub-corpus, it seems to be a possible alteration of Old English *carcern* (< Latin *carcer* ‘prison’). It is also important to note that this word would eventually be replaced by the Anglo-Norman term *prisoun* (‘prison’), thus becoming obsolete in this period. A similar case is that of the term *dreng* (ON *drengr* ‘free tenant’), which appeared in written records around AD1000. In fact, it is registered in our Old English sub-corpus in BMALD (in bold):

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
Forlet ða <b>drenga</b> sum daroð of handa, ( <i>The Battle of Maldon</i> , line 149)	‘Then some dreng let go a dart from his hand’ (my own translation).

The word is not considered obsolete and it designates ‘A free tenant (specially) in ancient Northumbria, holding by a tenure older than the Norman Conquest, the nature of which was partly military, partly servile’ (OED s.v. *dreng*, n., 1a.). Nonetheless, it is regarded as a historical word, thus, not very frequent. A more common alternative to designate a low rank noble in the British peerage system would be that of the Anglo-Norman borrowing *baroun* (a1200).

Much different are the cases of *coroun* (‘crown’), *tour* (‘tower’) and *castel* (‘castel’). According to the HTOED, all three terms originate from Latin and were present in Old English, although no attestations are found in our Old English sub-corpus. Notwithstanding, these words received a reinforcement in Middle English from their French cognates. For instance, Old English *corona* and *torr* were orthographically affected by their Anglo-Norman counterparts and turned into Middle English *coroun* and *tour*. As we can see in the table, the term *coroun* also developed derivatives in Middle English with the Anglo-Norman spelling, namely *corounen* (v. ‘to crown’) and *corouning* (n. ‘crowning’), becoming a rather recursive word. In the case of *castel*, the original Old English spelling was maintained, while the meaning evolved from Old English ‘camp’ to Middle English ‘fortified building’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n. 2 and 3.a). Thereby, these Anglo-Norman alterations of the terms validated them for our classification. It is also interesting to highlight the presence of two semantically close hybrids also originating in Middle English: the adjective *batild* (‘fortified’) and the noun *abatailment* (‘fortification’). The term *batild* is a derivative of the borrowed Old French lexeme *bataille* combined with the Old English suffix *-ed*. In contrast, although the term *abatailment* is also a derivative (the registered form with <a-> is only attested in SGGK), in this case it combines two items

borrowed from Old French, namely *bataille* plus *-ment*. Consequently, the remaining 47 borrowings represent naturally cultural loanwords.

If we analyse to what extent these cultural borrowings nourished the subfields of our semantic field, some interesting conclusions can be extracted. [ARMED HOSTILITY] is the most benefited hyperseme, where [equipment] and [locations] stand out with 22 and 13 borrowings, respectively. In the case of the former, 15 out of 22 terms represent defensive equipment, while the remaining seven term are divided into offensive equipment (four and monture (three). The high number of words which refer to defensive gear reflects the development of the knight's armour in the Middle Ages and their common use in the literature of the period, in which we often see references or descriptions of the knight's garments (as seen in Figure 14 above).

Likewise, the 13 borrowings in [fortification] are equally noteworthy. The recurrence of these terms denotes the importance of fortifying burgs, towns and cities in this period and the emergence of the medieval castles. Let us bear in mind that fortifications played an important role in medieval Europe. The Norman conquest brought these castles into England to be used as war weapons:

In war, a castle's main duty consisted in the holding of territory. When a castle was captured, its lord lost his hold on his local property and so did his sovereign. Conversely – since a castle could be an instrument of conquest as well as of defence – if an invader built a castle (or took one from the enemy), he obtained territory. The Norman Conquest is an example of the later process; the Anglo-Saxons had no castle – which facilitated, if it did not actually make possible, their overthrow. (King 2019: 11)

Castle-building required constant innovations for both attackers and defenders to take profit of these fortifications, hence the incorporation of many structural additions designed with this end. An excellent example is the extract from SGGK below, in which sir Gawain arrives at Bertilak's castle and the author describes what he sees ([fortification] terms in bold):



MIDDLE ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN VERSION
<p>Pe <b>walle</b> wod in þe water wonderly depe,  Ande eft a ful huge heȝt hit haled vpon  lofte  Of harde hewen ston vp to þe tablez,  <b>Enbaned</b> vnder þe <b>abataylment</b> in þe  best lawe;  And syþen <b>garytez</b> ful gaye <b>gered</b>  bitwene,  Wyth mony luflych loupe þat louked ful  clene:  A better <b>barbican</b> þat burne blusched  vpon neuer.  And innermore he behelde þat <b>halle</b> ful  hyȝe,  <b>Towres</b> telded bytwene, <b>trochet</b> ful þik,  Fayre fylyolez þat fyȝed, and ferlyly  long,  With <b>coruon</b> coprounes craftyly sleȝe.  Chalkwhyth chymnees þer ches he innoȝe  Vpon <b>bastel</b> rouez, þat blenked ful quyte;  So mony <b>pynakle</b> payntet watz poudred  ayquere,  Among þe <b>castel carnelez</b> clambred so  þik,  Pat pared out of papure purely hit semed.  (lines 787-802)</p>	<p>The wall waded in the water wondrous  deeply,  and up again to a huge height in the air it  mounted,  all of hard hewn stone to the high cornice,  fortified under the battlement in the best  fashion  and topped with fair turrets set by turns about  that had many graceful loopholes with a good  outlook:  that knight a better barbican had never seen  built.  And inwards he beheld the hall uprising,  tall towers set in turns, and as tines clustering  the fair finials, joined featly, so fine and so  long,  their capstones all carven with cunning and  skill.  Many chalk-white chimneys he chanced to  espy  upon the roofs of towers all radiant white;  so many a painted pinnacle was peppered  about,  among the crenelles of the castle clustered so  thickly  that all pared out of paper it appeared to have  been. (Tolkien 2006: 40)</p>

In the case of [AUTHORITY], there are five cultural borrowings referring to the [rank] subfield, namely *admiral*, *barnage*, *baroun*, *caiser*, *duk*, and *sovereign*. The appearance of such words implies the importance of new designations to those people in authority positions. For instance, the social division the French made in their nobility system caused the incorporation of French noble titles such as *duk* or *baroun* (and *barnage*) into a less stratified English society. These terms were absorbed by the British culture and they are now part of the British Peerage ranking, together with native terms like Old English earls. *Admiral*, *caiser* and *sovereign*, in turn, were also used to designate ‘a ruler, military commander, or prince’. The first two, are registered in LBRUT designating rulers of different cultures: *admiral* (line 13810) refers to the ruler of Babylonia, while *caiser* (line 3731) refers to the Emperor of the ancient Roman Empire.

From an etymological standpoint, the fact that only six of these cultural borrowings are either Norse-derived words (i.e., *caiser*, *dreng*, *gere*, and *gisel*) or Latin-derived words (*pissane* and *quarcerne*) is particularly noteworthy, whereas the vast

majority (88.9%) originate from French. This supports again the idea that advancements in medieval warfare developed mainly in France. From there they extended to other cultures as, in our case, England, importing new concepts or ideas for which the English did not have a native counterpart.

#### 5.2.4.2. Core borrowings: alternatives for the native terms

The second division focuses on those borrowings that either coexisted with or replaced terms for which the Anglo-Saxon language already had a word in use. Consequently, when browsed in the HTOED, the registered term should retrieve at least one synonym that was present in the language before its borrowed counterpart was incorporated. The results are displayed in Table 33 below, where the original Old English words are listed in the “replaced word” column.

**Table 33.** Core borrowings in the Middle English sub-corpus<sup>50</sup>

ME FORM	WORD CLASS	MEANING	LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN	ETYMOLOGY	ATTESTATION DATE	REPLACED WORD
<i>armed</i>	adj	armed	ME	derivative < OF <b>armer</b> / Lat <b>armare</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	C1300	= weaponed / geared
<i>armes</i>	n	arms	AN	< OF <b>arms</b>	a1250	= weapons
<i>armur</i>	n	armour	AN	<b>armoure, armeure</b>	C13000	= gear
<i>assaut</i>	n	assault	OF	<b>assaut</b>	a1250	= rese
<i>baner</i>	n	banner	OF	<b>banere</b>	C1225	= segne† / beacon† / = mark†
<i>barat†</i>	n	battle	OF	<b>barat</b>	c1225	= camp† / = win†
<i>batayle</i>	n	battle	OF	<b>bataille</b>	1297	= camp† / = win†
<i>begilen</i>	v	to betray	ME	derivative < OE <b>be</b> + OF <b>guile</b>	?c1225	= beswican†
<i>birr†</i>	n	attack	ON	<b>byrr</b>	a1325	= rese
<i>bitraien</i>	v	to betray	ME	derivative < OE <b>be</b> + OF <b>trair</b>	C1250	= beswican† / = begilen
<i>brinie†</i>	n	coat of mail	ON	<b>brynja</b> > OE <b>byrne</b>	c1175	= hringnet† / = searonet†
<i>champion</i>	n	champion	OF	<b>champion, champiun</b>	c1225	= rink†
<i>chef</i>	n	chief	OF	<b>chef, chief</b>	1297	= head*
<i>chevalerie</i>	n	chivalry	OF	<b>chevalerie</b>	1297	= cnihtad
<i>club(be)</i>	n	club	ON	<b>klubba</b>	c1275	tree*†
<i>clusen</i>	v	to besiege	OF	<b>clos-</b> > <b>clore</b>	C1275	= besittan†
<i>comaunde</i> <i>n</i>	v	to command	OF	<b>comander</b>	c1330	= bidan†

<sup>50</sup> The “\*” in Table 33 means that this word is not attested in our corpus.

The “=” in Table 33 means that this word is contemporaneous with the lemma.

The “†” in Table 33 means that this word or the meaning in the semantic field of [WAR] is currently obsolete.

<i>conqueste</i>	n	conquest	OF	<b>conquest(e)</b>	?c1150	= sige†
<i>cote</i>	n	coat of mail	OF	<b>cote</b>	c1300	= hringnet† / = searonet† / = brinie†
<i>defenden</i>	v	to defend	AN	<b>defender, defendre</b>	c1250	= beorgan† / = scilden / = werian†
<i>defens</i>	n	defence	AN	<b>defens</b>	?a1325	= beorg*† / = scyld /
<i>enemi</i>	n	enemy	OF	<b>enemi</b>	c1340	= foe
<i>forsnes†</i>	n	power	ME	derivative < OF <b>force</b> + ME <b>-nesse</b>	C1400	= strength* / = might*
<i>frushen†</i>	v	to crush	OF	<b>fruisier, froisier</b>	c1300	= rese
<i>gered</i>	adj	geared, armed	ME	derivative < ON <b>gera</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	a1325	= weaponed / = armed
<i>gile</i>	n	treachery	OF	<b>guile</b>	?c1225	= wraku† / = swic†
<i>gouemor</i>	n	governor	AN	<b>governor</b>	A1325	= heretoga†
<i>grið†</i>	n	peace	ON	<b>grið</b> < OE <b>grið</b>	a1000	= frið†
<i>griðful†</i>	adj	peaceful	ME	derivative < ON <b>grið</b> + OE <b>-ful</b>	?c1225	= frið (adj.) †
<i>griðliche†</i>	adv	peacefully	ME	derivative < ON <b>grið</b> + OE <b>-lice</b>	c1275	friðlic(e)* †
<i>griðien†</i>	v	to make peace	ON	<b>grið</b> < OE <b>griðian</b>	c1000	= friðian†
<i>hurten</i>	v	to hurt	OF	<b>hurte(r)</b>	c1175	= harm / mar
<i>launce</i>	n	lance	OF	<b>launce</b>	c1290	= ord† / = gar† / = spear
<i>leg(g)e</i>	n	liege	OF	<b>lige, liege</b>	1297	= lord
<i>legion</i>	n	legion	AN	< OF <b>legion</b>	c1275	= trume†
<i>maister</i>	n	master	Lat.	<b>magister</b> > OE <b>magester, magister</b>	OE	= ealdor† / = lord
<i>mounture</i>	n	mount	AN	<b>monture</b>	C1400	= radhors
<i>niðing</i>	n	villain	ON	<b>níðingr</b>	IOE	= villain*
<i>patrounes</i>	n	patron	AN	> OF <b>patron</b>	c1300	drihten† / = master / = lord
<i>pes</i>	n	peace	AN	<b>pes</b>	?a1160	= frith†
<i>point</i>	n	edge of a blade	AN	<b>point</b>	?c1225	= ord† / = egge
<i>prince</i>	n	prince	AN	> OF <b>prince</b>	c1225	= atheling†
<i>pruese</i>	n	prowess	AN	<b>pruesse</b>	c1300	= dáed
<i>regne</i>	n	reign	AN	< OF <b>reigne</b>	a1300	= ricdom† / = kingdom / = realm
<i>regne</i>	v	to rule	AN	<b>regner</b>	c1300	= ricdom† / = kingdom / = realm
<i>rescouen</i>	v	rescue	OF	<b>rescouer</b>	c1300	= liesan*† / = hreddan*†
<i>rewarde</i>	n	reward	AN	<b>rewarde</b>	1340	= yield*†
<i>rial†</i>	adj	royal	AN	<b>rial</b>	c1330	cyne cynn*†
<i>rially†</i>	adv	royally	ME	derivative < AN <b>rial</b> + OE <b>-ly</b>	a1387	cyne cynn*†
<i>rialm†</i>	n	realm	AN	(variant of) <b>realm</b>	c1400	= ricdom† / = kingdom / = realm
<i>saught(e)†</i>	n	peace	ON	<b>sæht, saht</b> > OE <b>seht, seahht</b>	1038-56	= frið† / = grið†

<i>saughtene</i> <i>n†</i>	v	to make peace	ON	<b>sæht, saht</b> > OE <b>sehtan</b>	c1000	= friðian†
<i>scathe</i>	n	harm	ON	<b>skaðe</b>	OE	= harm / mar
<i>segge</i>	n	suege	OF	<b>sege, siege, seige</b>	?c1225	= besittan†
<i>seisen</i>	v	seize	OF	<b>saisir, seisir</b>	c1290	gewin*† / = cacchen*
<i>seynt†</i>	n	ceint	OF	<b>ceint</b>	a1350	= gyrdle*
sovereign	n	sovereign	OF	<b>soverain, souverain</b>	c1290	= waldend† / = lord / = masister
<i>squier</i>	n	squire	OF	<b>esquire, escuier</b>	c1290	= cniht† / = swain†
<i>strife</i>	n	strife	OF	<b>estrif</b>	a1225	= geflit†
<i>swain†</i>	n	swain, servant	ON	<b>sveinn</b>	a1150	= cniht†
<i>thral</i>	n	slave	ON	<b>þræll</b> > OE <b>þræl</b>	c950	= theow*†
<i>thrallen†</i>	v	to enslave	ME	conversion < OE <b>þræl</b>	c1275	= theow*†
<i>traitour</i>	n	traitor	OF	<b>traitor</b>	?c1225	= swikel†
<i>trecherie</i>	n	treacherie	OF	<b>trecherie, tricherie</b>	?c1225	= swicdom†
<i>treisoun</i>	n	treason	AN	<b>treysoun, tresun, treson</b>	?c1225	= swicdom†
<i>vengen</i>	v	to avenge	OF	<b>vengier, venger</b>	1303	= wreak†
<i>werre</i>	n	war	OF	> ONF <b>werre</b>	a1122	= gewinn†
<i>werren†</i>	v	to make war	ME	conversion < OF <b>werre</b>	1154	= gewinn†

The remaining borrowings that did not fit in the first classification appear, thus, in this table, where the 68 items displayed account for 54% of the total borrowings in our corpus. After analysing the results retrieved, we can claim that most of the core borrowings had a synonym with which they coexisted through all Middle English, with the exception of *club(be)*, *griðliche*, *rial*, and *rially*. This is highly significant for several reasons. First, these terms had, to a certain extent, similar frequencies of use along the period. In fact, our corpus registers at least one of the pre-existing synonyms for 59 of the borrowed terms, while only eight of them present non-attested synonyms (*chef*, *forsnes*, *niðing*, *rescouen*, *rewarde*, *seynt*, *thral*, and *thrallen*). This should come as no surprise since, as pointed out in Section 5.1.3.2, only 75 out of the 287 war-related types registered in the Old English sub-corpus became obsolete in Middle English. However, if the results are compared to Present-day English, we learn that this situation of coexistence was not prone to last. Only 27 of these borrowings present synonyms that are still in use today. As a result, around 60% of the synonyms in use in Middle English have become completely obsolete and replaced by foreign terms.

The second reason is inextricably linked to the first one. The Alliterative Revival could have been a cause for the incorporation of core borrowings, since authors required a wide range of vocabulary to adapt their verses to the Specialisations of the alliterative

poetry. While in Old English the most recursive word-forming method was that of compounding (viz., *kennings*), Middle English had the advantage of coexisting with several languages which could provide a variant for the desired term if required. Therefore, the appearance of synonyms from foreign languages is easily justifiable. As commented in Section 5.2.2, a most remarkable example is that of the three coexisting synonyms for ‘peace’ at this time, namely Old English *frið*, Old Norse *gríð*, and Old French *pes*. In order to provide a definitive view on this issue, Table 34 below presents the normalisation of core borrowings in the texts of Middle English, where the texts have been ordered chronologically.

**Table 34.** Percentages of core borrowings in the Middle English sub-corpus

TEXT	WAR-RELATED TYPES	BORROWING TYPES	CORE BORROWINGS	PERCENTAGE WITHIN THE TEXTS
LBRUT (c1190-1215)	221	34	19	8.6%
HDANE (13th c.)	87	28	13	14.9%
KHORN (mid-13th c.)	159	47	32	20.1%
SORFEO (late 13th c.)	36	18	9	25.0%
SGGK (late 14th c.)	148	80	42	28.4%

Several interpretations can be extracted from the data above. The first and most expected conclusion is that, as the frequencies show, the later the text, the highest percentage of core borrowings it contains. This reflects the steady settlement process of the imported words in the vernacular. In turn, only LBRUT and SGGK were alliterative poems. Let us remember that our initial hypothesis was that alliterative texts would present more core borrowings than the non-alliterative ones. Nevertheless, as observed in the table, although this is true for SGGK, it is not so for LBRUT. Nonetheless, the distance in time in their composition dates can also provide a clue. We must take into account that, as the period went on, so did the progressive increase of source languages the authors had at hand. As a consequence, the “Gawain Poet” had a wider range of options from which to borrow items for his work at the end of the 14th century than Layamon did at the end of the 12th century. In fact, it can also be argued that LBRUT still follows, to some extent, the Old English compounding tradition in the search for alliterative variants, since the only cases of compound words found in this sub-corpus belong to this early poem, such

as *here-* (‘army/battle’, as in *here-zeonge*, *here-mærke*, *here-ðringes*, or *here-toʒe*.) or *kine-* (‘royal’, as in *kine-ærde*, *kine-bern*, *kine-lond*, or *kine-wurðe*).

Furthermore, not even these core borrowings had a permanent status in the English language. While 45 of these war-related types have managed to survive until the present days, *niðing*, *scathe*, *leg(g)e*, and *thral* are now only regarded as historical or archaic words. Alternatively, *clusen*, *gered*, *gile* and *maister* have currently lost the meanings that related them to our semantic field (as explained in Section 5.3 below), whereas the remaining 18 are no longer in use (i.e., *barat*, *birr*, *brinie*, *forsnes*, *frushen*, *grið*, *griðful*, *griðliche*, *griþien*, *rial*, *rially*, *rialm*, *saught(e)*, *saughtenen*, *seynt*, *swain*, *thrallen*, and *werren*). As we can see in the “meaning” column in Table 33, these obsolete words have been substituted by other core borrowings, some of which are also registered in our corpus.

#### 5.2.4.3. *The alliterative verse vs. the French rhymed verse: a contrastive analysis of borrowings*

The last aspect to consider when dealing with borrowings in this dissertation was to analyse the possible influence that the alliterative verse may have had when incorporating barbarisms in the English language. In section 1.4 we hypothesised that the stylistic requirements of alliterative poetry could have caused Middle English authors to search for alliterative variants in other languages at hand. We must take into account that, as explained in section 4.1.2, the Middle English sub-corpus included three texts using the rhymed verse (HDANE, KHORN and SORFEO) and two using the alliterative verse (LBRUT and SGGK) so as to compare their results. Although the number of texts may seem rather limited to reach an informed conclusion, they will nevertheless serve as a guideline for further studies on this subject matter. Thus, it is the aim of Table 35 and **¡Error! No se encuentra el origen de la referencia.** below to show these data in raw numbers as well as in percentages.

**Table 35.** NFs of war-related tokens for the texts in the Middle English sub-corpus

TEXT	TYPE OF VERSE	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	WAR-RELATED TOKENS	BORROWINGS	NFs
HDANE	RHYMED	17,701	570	104	58.75
KHORN	RHYMED	22,092	973	85	38.47
SORFEO	RHYMED	3,743	118	34	90.83
LBRUT	ALLITERATIVE	137,914	10,223	568	41.18
SGGK	ALLITERATIVE	20,991	756	174	82.89

In general, we can already observe that the NFs of borrowings varies substantially in the different texts, ranging from NF38.47 in KHORN to NF90.83 in SORFEO. On the one hand, we see no direct correlation between the use of the alliterative verse and the incorporation of loanwords. In fact, both the texts using the rhymed verse and those using the alliterative one present lower and higher NFs alike. On the other hand, the two NFs provided represent a solid proof against our initial premise. KHORN and SORFEO (both rhymed) displays the lowest and highest NFs (NF38.47 and NF90.83 respectively), while the alliterative poems range in between, with LBRUT (NF41.18) showing the second lowest and SGGK (NF82.89) the second highest NFs. Nevertheless, it could be argued that these results could change if only word types were analysed instead of tokens. Accordingly, in Table 36 below, these data have been transformed into war-related types to see if there exists any significant difference that could somehow support our initial hypothesis.

**Table 36.** NFs of war-related types for the texts in the Middle English sub-corpus

TEXT	TYPE OF VERSE	TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS	WAR-RELATED TYPES	BORROWINGS	NFs
HDANE	RHYMED	17,701	57	26	14.68
KHORN	RHYMED	22,092	58	16	7.24
SORFEO	RHYMED	3,743	35	17	45.41
LBRUT	ALLITERATIVE	137,914	219	24	1.74
SGGK	ALLITERATIVE	20,991	148	78	37.15

As observed, although the NFs have suffered a little variation, there is no meaningful difference in terms of borrowing usage depending on the type of verse employed. In fact, it is LBRUT (NF1.74) the one text that presents the lowest NFs of all, while SORFEO (NF45.41) and SGGK (NF37.15) still show the highest and second highest NFs. Therefore, we can conclusively affirm that the choice of either verse type appears irrelevant when it came to incorporate barbarisms.

### 5.3. Semantic change as a consequence of the borrowing process

The final section of our research focuses on the other aspect that language contact implies: the semantic change of the lexicon. As seen in Section 5.2 above, part of the relexification process of the English language implied the incorporation of borrowings, the appearance of synonyms from different languages that coexisted with their native counterparts or, ultimately, replaced them. Nevertheless, foreign influences and the natural development of a language also caused part of this vocabulary to evolve in different ways. Skaffari (2009: 95) claims that “[a]lthough the connections between a language and society are most clearly visible in lexis, the interrelationship of language contact and semantic change is hardly straightforward in medieval England or elsewhere.” The ways in which the meanings of words are affected by language contact are often arbitrary and there is no way of predicting a behavioural pattern.

Section 3.2.5 exposed the mechanisms by means of which the Currentness of the lexicon of any language can be modified (namely, narrowing/widening, specialisation/generalisation, melioration/pejoration, metaphor and metonymy). The following subsections will delve deeper into the effects semantic change had upon the data from our corpus, mainly distinguishing two categories: “Obsolete meanings”, those war-related types whose current meaning excludes them from being eligible terms for the semantic field of [war], and “Other use”, those whose Currentness has moved from common to restricted usage. Notwithstanding, before commenting on these results, there is one term that, even though it does not belong to any of these two categories, deserves special attention. It is the term that names the semantic field under study and that, most certainly, best exemplifies the hypothesis of this research, i.e., the term *war*.

As seen in previous sections, the hyperseme [ARMED HOSTILITY] presented a great variety of synonyms. Let us also remember that the name of this hyperseme derived from the definition provided by the OED for the lemma *war*, which, ultimately, would become the main hypernym of our semantic field. If a quick search is carried out through the most complete online thesauri for the term *war*, the most repeated synonyms are (times repeated in brackets): *fight(-ing)* (5), *battle* (4), *combat* (4), *hostility(-ies)* (4), *conflict* (3), *struggle* (3), *warfare* (3), among many others with less instances. Therefore, any word comprised in our corpus that was defined in our source materials by any of these terms



could have also become the hypernym of this field. Consequently, it is necessary to ask how the term *war* got to this position with so many contenders in both periods.

To begin with, *werre* (OED, s.v. *war*, n.) is an Old French borrowing that arrived in the vernacular c1050, during late Old English. In addition, it was already a borrowing from Old High German *werra*, meaning ‘confusion, discord, strife’. Notwithstanding, in its first attestations, this term already fits the sense of ‘armed hostility’. Nevertheless, the English language already had some terms in use for this notion in Old English. Some of the best fitted candidates from our Old English sub-corpus are *camp*, *wiȝ* or *(ge)win(n)*, albeit they fell out of use in early Middle English. In fact, only LBRUT collects three instances of *(ge)win(n)*, while the other two are not recorded in the Middle English sub-corpus. Although we know that the term *win* is a frequently used noun now (also as a verb), it experienced a semantic shift through metonymy to denote ‘victory’ or ‘gain’.

Notwithstanding, there was another word that managed to survive from Old English to Present-day English, the term *fight*. In fact, while there are only six instances of this word in the Old English sub-corpus, we record 421 tokens in the Middle English subpart, thus, it is clear that it grew in popularity. Therefore, if English already had a word so widespread and used that was able to survive until the present-day, how is it that a loanword such as *war*, and not *fight*, became the nucleus of this semantic field? Perhaps the comments about the etymology of *war* in the OED can provide an explanation for this:

It is a curious fact that no Germanic nation in early historic times had in living use any word properly meaning ‘war’, though several words with that meaning survived in poetry, in proverbial phrases, and in compound personal names. The Romanic-speaking peoples, who were obliged to avoid the Latin *bellum* on account of its formal coincidence with *bello-* beautiful, found no nearer equivalent in Germanic than *werra*. In Old English the usual translation of *bellum* was *gewin*, struggle, strife. The continental Germanic languages later developed separate words for ‘war’: German *krieg* (whence Swedish, Danish *krig*), Dutch *oorlog*; Icelandic uses *ófriðr* ‘un-peace’. (OED, s.v. *war*, n. Etymology)

It is possible, then, that the Romance influence in this period also favoured the arrival of *war* into English, thus, altering its original meaning. This could, in turn, have triggered terms like *camp*, *wiȝ* or *(ge)win(n)* to fall out of use. On the other hand, the fact that *fight* was present in the English language from the beginning could also have made it easier for this term to become a more polysemic or even a more general word, which perhaps allowed *war* to be borrowed so as to cover that particular meaning. Be that as it

may, it is undeniable that language contact favoured the incorporation of a core borrowing such as *war* that coexisted in the English language with other synonyms, and even outlasted them. Furthermore, due to socio-cultural causes, the term also experienced a specialisation to cover a specific need in the target language. As a result, we consider that this term is in itself a one-word proof of the hypothesis established in this research that warfare facilitated the incorporation of new vocabulary in the English language.

### 5.3.1. *Obsolete meanings*

As presented in Section 3.1.2 above, 36 war-related types fall inside the category of “Obsolete meaning”, which accounts for 10.5% of this sub-corpus. Table 37 below displays a list of these terms arranged by the number of tokens in our corpus in descending order of frequency.

**Table 37.** War-related types with obsolete meanings in the Middle English sub-corpus arranged according to their Currentness

ME FORM	WORD CLASS	OBsolete MEANING	CURRENT MEANING	ATTEST. DATE	TOKENS	SEMANTIC CHANGE
<i>knight</i>	n	vassal	honorific title	OE	1084	melioration
<i>burgh</i>	n	castle, stronghold, fortified dwelling	city	OE	240	generalisation
<i>quellen</i>	v	to kill	subdue	OE	139	narrowing
<i>swain</i>	n	squire	country man / lover	a1150	65	metaphore
<i>dinten</i>	v	to strike with a weapon	to dent	OE	52	metonymy
<i>fallen</i>	v	to knock down	to kill, fell	OE	39	widening
<i>gered</i>	adj	armed, equipped	Connected with the motor by gearing.	OE	39	metaphore
<i>clusen</i>	v	to confine, besiege	to close	c1275	19	narrowing
<i>shroud</i>	n	garment, armour	burial cover	OE	15	specialisation
<i>swingen</i>	v	to deal a blow	to move backwards and forwards	OE	15	generalisation
<i>leien (1)</i>	v	to lay low, defeat, destroy	to lie, prostrate	OE	13	metaphor
<i>bord</i>	n	shield	board	OE	10	(metonymy) specialisation
<i>cherl</i>	n	freeman	villain	OE	8	pejoration
<i>sergeaunt</i>	n	sergeant	officer in law	c1200	8	specialisation
<i>duk</i>	n	leader of an army, ruler	title of nobility	1129	7	specialisation
<i>admiral</i>	n	military commander	commander in the navy	c1275	6	specialisation
<i>lording</i>	n	lord	young lord	OE	6	narrowing
<i>maister</i>	n	high official, ruler, governor	a person with the ability or power to control	OE	6	widening/generalisation
<i>birr</i>	n	a charge in battle, an attack, a fight	force of the wind	a1325	5	(metaphor) narrowing
<i>barnage</i>	n	the body of barons collectively	The dignity or rank of a baron	a1300	4	metonymy

<i>holden</i>	v	to capture, to seize	keep from falling	OE	4	(metonymy) narrowing
<i>leien</i>	v	To kill	to lay, postrate	OE	4	metaphorical
<i>stiken</i>	v	to stab, strike dead	deal a blow	OE	3	narrowing
<i>holden</i>	v	to do battle, to engage in a fight	keep from falling	OE	2	(metonymy) narrowing
<i>breiden</i>	v	to draw (a sword)	to intertwine, interweave; to embroider	OE	2	metaphor
<i>egge-tole</i>	n	weapon with blade	Any implement with a sharp cutting edge (restricted to industrial tools)	a1375	2	specialisation
<i>welden</i>	v	to command troops	to handle skilfully	OE	2	narrowing
<i>bil</i>	n	bill, broadsword, falchion	An implement used for pruning, cutting wood, lopping trees, hedges, etc.	OE	1	specialisation
<i>bit</i>	n	The cutting of a weapon	the act or action of biting	OE	1	(metaphor) narrowing
<i>blasoun</i>	n	shield	blazon, coat of arms	c1325	1	specialisation
<i>brace</i>	n	Piece of armour covering the arm	A carpenter's tool, having a crank handle	c1400	1	specialisation
<i>brunt</i>	n	Attack, charge	The shock, violence, or impact of an attack or onslaught	c1400	1	narrowing/specialisa tion
<i>grome</i>	n	vassal, squire	a man	OE	1	narrowing/specialisa tion
<i>cocker</i>	n	quiver	in <i>plural</i> . Each of a pair of any of various articles of clothing worn on the legs or feet, often for a specific purpose	OE	1	metaphor
<i>slen</i>	v	to set up a tent	to slay	OE	1	narrowing
<i>waggen</i>	v	to brandish a weapon	to oscillate	OE	1	narrowing

Not surprisingly, 73% of the words observed in the list above (26 terms) are native words present in Old English with the only exception of the Middle English compound *egge-tole*. Let us remember from Section 3.1.2 that during the early Middle English period, the vernacular became the L-code while Anglo-Norman was the H-code. Consequently, in a period with so many lexical incorporations, English was the language that was most susceptible to change. Nevertheless, as explained in Section 5.2 above, not even the new borrowings were free from change. Many of them entered the language to cover a particular need and, in doing so, they may have also displaced some native words. Yet these needs did not automatically have to be permanent since the requirements of a language evolve along with its culture. Thereby, some of these borrowings also had to adapt to the new times if they were to survive. The remaining 10 war-related types in the list above represent, thus, lexical incorporations that entered the language during Middle English.

In addition, we must also consider as a valid motivator for semantic change the word choice the authors had at this time. Lexical incorporations offered a wider range of synonyms, or near-synonyms, that allowed Middle English authors to code-switch

between English, Latin, Norse or French possible equivalents. Therefore, the most relevant cases will be commented on next.

1) *The medieval vassal*

Two of the war-related types with more tokens in Table 37 are *knight* and *swain*. Both have shared an intimate history along their semantic evolution. The term *knight* is one of the most repeated war-related types in the Middle English sub-corpus. As a consequence, it is important to comment together the emergence of the figure of the knight and the evolution of the lexeme itself. If we look at the earliest meanings found in the OED, we learn that this word was already present in Old English. The first attested meaning is ‘[a] boy, youth, lad’ (OED, s.v. *knight*, n., 1), only used in this early period. In its second meaning, dating from the 11th century, it already registers connotations of serfdom: ‘A boy or lad employed as an attendant or servant; hence, by extension, a male servant or attendant of any age’ (OED, s.v. *knight*, n., 2). It is for this reason that the instances for *knight* in the Old English sub-corpus will not refer to the figure of the medieval vassal. It is not until the 12th century that the OED collects the semantic Specialisation (see Section 3.3 above) of *knight*, denoting military service, i.e., ‘[w]ith genitive, or possessive pronoun: A military servant or follower (of a king or some other specified superior); later, one devoted to the service of a lady as her attendant, or her champion in war or the tournament; hence also figurative, and even applied to a woman’ (OED, s.v. *knight*, n., 3). The use of this word increases considerably in Middle English, becoming the second war-related type with more tokens. However, the development of history had this word evolve again and, although its meaning of military vassal is preserved today (largely due to literature and cinema), in time, *knight* came to denote ‘[o]ne upon whom a certain rank, regarded as corresponding to that of the medieval knight, is conferred by the sovereign in recognition of personal merit, or as a reward for services rendered to the crown or country’ (OED, s.v. *knight*, n., 4.b), ultimately becoming an honorary title. As a result, if we analysed the field of [WAR] in today’s reality, we would not find the word *knight* in its lexicon in its medieval sense unless it is used in literary registers.

In contrast, the term *swain* evolved in the opposite direction to *knight*, thus, experiencing a generalisation of meaning. Originally a borrowing from early Scandinavian, the first attested meaning for *swain* (OED, s.v. *swain*, n., 1) is ‘[a] young man attending on a knight; hence, a man of low degree’ (a1150-1575). A second meaning denoting ‘[a] male servant, serving-man; an attendant, follower’ (OED, s.v. *swain*, n., 2)

appeared a century later, thus losing any reference to age. It is not until the late 14th century that a third meaning, '[a] man; a youth; a boy' (OED, s.v. *swain*, n., 3), would retake this youth sense, only to deviate from that of serfdom. Consequently, despite evolving in opposite directions, both *knight* and *swain* shared the meaning of a lord's vassal during the period under study.

Interestingly, a third term was borrowed from Old French with a similar meaning, namely, *squire*, also attested in our corpus. The first meaning in the OED, which is still in use today, defines this term as '[i]n the military organization of the later Middle Ages, a young man of good birth attendant upon a knight; one ranking next to a knight under the feudal system of military service and tenure' (OED, s.v. *squire/esquire*, n., 1.a). Consequently, this core borrowing implied having yet a third synonymous alternative for the concept of a knight's vassal. In fact, although the English language already had *knight* and *swain* in stock, this loanword dating from c1290 was the one that outlasted its counterparts from the 17th century up to Present-day English.

## 2) *A killing strike*

When one pictures a medieval battlefield, the idea of the knight in his shiny armour swinging blows and felling his enemies comes hastily to the mind, as seen in Figure 14 above. Certainly, striking and killing are two inherent actions to any warfare scenario. Therefore, the appearance of *quellen* and *dinten* at the top of our list is far from odd. Besides, the case of "the medieval vassal" above has demonstrated the effect that the competence between synonymous alternatives during Middle English can have upon the frequency of use of a particular word or one of its meanings. Just within our corpus, several examples of words referring to the semantically related actions of 'kill' and 'strike' can be found, most of which are also listed in Table 37 above. This implies that the shifts between these two meanings were quite common.

Regarding the notion of 'strike', there is a total of six different Middle English verbs used in our corpus. While *swippen* became obsolete, the terms *dinten*, *killen*, and *swingen* experienced the loss of this sense during Modern English and, thus, are also displayed in Table 37. Only *smitten* and *striken* managed to maintain this meaning up to the present. Likewise, the concept of 'killing' is collected by four other verbs in the corpus. The terms *quellen*, *fallen* and *leien* are displayed in our list of "Obsolete

meanings” above, whereas *spillen* has become obsolete. All of them have been displaced by the surviving term, *killen*.

Nevertheless, due to its link to weapons, *killen* suffered a specialisation shift from ‘[t]o strike, hit’ (OED, s.v. *kill*, v., 1.a) to ‘[t]o put to death; to deprive of life; to slay, slaughter. In early use implying personal agency and the use of a weapon; later, extended to any means or cause which puts an end to life, as an accident, over-work, grief, drink, a disease, etc’ (OED, s.v. *kill*, v., 2). Likewise, *fallen* went through a semantic generalisation, in which originally meant ‘[t]o cause (a person or animal) to fall to the ground with a blow from the fists, a weapon, etc.’ (OED, s.v. *fell*, v., I.1.a) and later also developed the sense of ‘[t]o kill (a person or animal)’, although this meaning is currently regarded as rare (OED, s.v. *fell*, v., I.1.b). Contrarily, *swingen* went from ‘[t]o strike with a weapon or the hand’ (OED, s.v. *swing*, v.1, 1.a) to ‘[t]o draw out (a sword) with a vigorous movement (obsolete); [...] to wield (a weapon or implement), or move (a body held or grasped) with an oscillating or rotatory movement’ (OED, s.v. *swing*, v.1, 4) and finally ‘[t]o move freely backwards and forwards’ (OED, s.v. *swing*, v.1, 6). Therefore, this word suffered a generalisation regarding the swift movement of an object or a person. Nonetheless, the most common shift among these war-related types is narrowing. The term *quellen*, which at the time also had its current sense of ‘[t]o crush or overcome (a person or thing); to subdue, oppress; to reduce to submission, silence, etc.’ (OED, s.v. *quell*, v.1, 2), simply suffered a narrowing process through which it lost the senses of ‘[t]o kill, put to death (a person or animal); to strike so as to kill’ (OED, s.v. *quell*, v.1, 1.a) and ‘[t]o dash out; to strike down. Also (occasionally) simply: to strike, beat’ (OED, s.v. *quell*, v.1, 1.b). On the other hand, *leien* (‘to prostrate’) and *dinten* (‘to leave a dent’) developed their senses of ‘kill’ and ‘strike’ respectively during Middle English, but also ended up losing them after sometime during Modern English.

### 3) *A proper equipment*

As explained in Section 5.2.2 above, one of the subfields with more incorporations was that of equipment. The development of the knight’s armour was crucial in the borrowing process since many of the parts of this armour were new to the English culture, and so these concepts were imported by the Normans during Middle English. One of these borrowings also appears in our list above, the Old Norse term *gered*. This borrowing derived from the Old Norse noun *gervi*, *gørvi* (OED, s.v. *gear*, n.). As an adjective, it was the sole synonymous to the Old English *wépened* (c1000), until the arrival of another

borrowing from Anglo Norman/Old French, the hybrid *armed* (c1300). The influence of the French element in the subfield of equipment probably forced *gered* to mutate its meaning. Already as an English verb, this word suffered several metonymical shifts along history through its link with ‘clothing/equipment’ (OED, s.v. *gear*, v.1, 1-3) (i.e., to adorn; to array; to dress > to equip > to harness (a draught animal)). It was not until the Industrial Revolution in the 19th century that this word finally adopted its current shade of ‘[t]o put (machinery) into gear; to connect by gearing’ (OED, s.v. *gear*, v.1, 4).

A similar case is that of the Old English noun *scrúd* and its Old English verb *scrýdan*. Although the HTOED only collects the meaning of ‘clothes’ and ‘to clothe’ (OED, s.v. *shroud*, n., 1.a-b), the MED also relates these words to the sense of ‘armour’ (MED, s.v. *shroud*, n., 1). Therefore, the Middle English forms of the noun *shroud* (in Table 37) and the verb *shriden* (now obsolete) would also be synonyms of other words in our corpus, such as *wede* or the aforementioned borrowings of *gere* and *armur*. Nonetheless, *shroud* has experienced a specialisation shift from ‘[a] garment; an article of clothing’ to currently denote ‘[t]he burial attire for the corpse’ (OED, s.v. *shroud*, n., 2.a).

#### 4) Fortifications

A similar case to that of *knight*, *swain* and *squire* is the semantic relation between *burgh* and *castel*. The etymology of these two words undoubtedly brings many problems and confusion when it comes to determining whether they are valid items for our study. Let us consider the meanings that the OED provides for both words.

The term *burgh* is an original Anglo-Saxon word, whose first three definitions fit our purpose. The first and oldest meaning recorded is that of ‘[a] fortress, castle, or citadel’ (OED, s.v. *borough*, n., 1.a). Therefore, it is clear that, at least during Old English, we speak of a location with defensive military use. The second meaning, ‘[a] fortified town; a town possessing municipal organization; more generally, any inhabited place larger than a village. (cf. town)’ (OED, s.v. *borough*, n., 2.a), introduces the concept of ‘town’, although it still refers to a fortified place. The citations that appear in the entry place it between 893 and 1520AD, and, therefore, they are valid for our study. Finally, the third meaning defines ‘[a] town possessing a municipal corporation and special privileges conferred by royal charter; a town which sends representatives to parliament (the word is commonly restricted to towns which do not possess the more dignified title

of city)’ (OED, s.v. *borough*, n., 3.a), the earliest examples with this meaning are attested from 1400 onwards. The term clearly suffered a semantic generalisation that eventually made it fall out of the parameters of our research. Luckily the only text dating after 1400 is SGGK, which allowed us to be especially careful when analysing its eight instances in this text. Nevertheless, this also meant that the remaining instances of this word in our corpus could instantly be validated.

In contrast, the semantic evolution of *castel* is completely opposite to that of *burgh*. To begin with, the double arrival of the word in this language in two different periods is explained in the OED. The first entry that is collected is that of ‘(in singular) Used to render Latin *castellum* of the Vulgate, village’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n., I.1), and ‘(in plural) Used to render Latin *castra* camp’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n., I.2). Consequently, neither of the two meanings fits the purpose of our research. Notwithstanding, the second entry describes the evolution of *castel* due to the reinforcement of its Anglo-Norman counterpart (c1050–1070): ‘[a] large building or set of buildings fortified for defence against an enemy; a fortress, stronghold. Retained as a name for large mansions or country houses, which were formerly feudal castles’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n., II.3).

As described, while the semantic evolution of *burgh* comported a generalisation of meaning (‘fortress > fortified village > village’), *castel* suffered a semantic specialisation (‘village > fortified village > fortress’). This implies that any attestations of these terms in the Old English sub-corpus would represent a different war-related type to those attested in the Middle English one. With this in mind, let us compare in Table 38 the frequency of use of these terms in our texts.



**Table 38.** Comparison of *burgh* and *castel* in the Old and Middle English sub-corpora

OLD ENGLISH			MIDDLE ENGLISH		
TEXT	WORD	TOKENS	TEXT	WORD	TOKENS
BF	borough	1	HD	castle	13
Bw	borough	12	KH	castle	11
ASP	borough	2	LB	castle	130
De	borough	1	SGGK	castle	3
Wi	borough	1	SO	castle	6
			LB	borough	232
			SGGK	borough	8

While no instances of the word *castel* are recorded in Old English, *borough* appears in five of the texts. In turn, in Middle English, the most common word is *castle*, which appears in all five texts (136 tokens). However, although LBRUT and SGGK present examples of both terms, it is *borough* the most used war-related type (240 tokens). We must refer again to the fact that, although the word *castle* was first incorporated in Late Old English with the sense of ‘village’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n., I.1), it was not until the development of the medieval castles after the Norman Conquest that this term was reinforced by the French sense of ‘fortified town’ (OED, s.v. *castle*, n. 3), hence the lack of examples in Old English. Therefore, we can conclude that in Middle English the semantic evolution of these two words made them synonyms.

##### 5) *The medieval siege*

A direct consequence of the increase in fortified buildings during the Middle Ages was the development of a particular tactical operation widely extended during this time all over Europe: the siege. We can already see the use of this technique as early as in the Old English sub-corpus, in BEOW (in bold):

OLD ENGLISH VERSION	MODERN TRANSLATION
<b>besæt</b> ðá sinherge sweorda láfe wundum wérge [...] (lines 2,936-7)	Then with all his great host he <b>besieged</b> the survivors of his swords, weary of their wounds; [...] (Tolkien 2014: 98)

Nevertheless, the Old English verb *besittan* fell out of use in the 12th century due to the incorporation of the Old French loanword *seg(g)e*, thus, it represented a core borrowing (as seen in Section 5.2.4) which also developed the Middle English hybrid *besegen* (not attested in our corpus). In addition, Table 37 includes another borrowing from French,

*clusen*, that also developed the meaning of ‘confine, besiege’ during the 13th century (semantically related to the later Old French borrowing from the same root, *enclose* ‘[t]o surround (with walls, fences, or other barriers)’ (OED, s.v. *enclose*, v., 1.a). Nevertheless, this term has now suffered a narrowing of meaning and no longer collects this notion.

### 5.3.2. *Other uses: archaic, historical and poetic*

The last aspect that deserves mention is that of the restricted current usage of some of the words analysed. Our corpus collected a series of terms that have nearly fallen into disuse today since they refer to words only applied in historical or poetic registers or that are now considered archaic (sometimes only dialectical in some particular parts of Great Britain). Table 39 below displays the 35 war-related types from Middle English that belong to this classification and arranges them in alphabetical order. Some of the words have seen their usage reduced due to the competence with other synonyms, others due to historical factors (such as the concept or object described no longer representing a contemporary reality). Nonetheless, 12 of them managed to survive through semantic shifts (namely, *baroun*, *brand*, *caiser*, *cnaue*, *erl*, *erldom*, *glaiue*, *iren*, *nimen*, *sax*, *stede*, and *thein*).

**Table 39.** War-related types currently regarded as archaic, historical or poetic in the Middle English sub-corpus arranged alphabetically<sup>51</sup>

LEMMA	WORD CLASS	OBSOLETE MEANING	CURRENT MEANING	ATTEST. DATE	TOKENS	CURRENTNESS	SEMANTIC CHANGE
<i>anlas</i>	n	Anlace, short two-edged knife or dagger		1297	1	Archaic	-
<i>aventaille</i>	n	aventail		c1374	1	Historical	-
<i>baroun</i>	n	military rank > title + other meanings	baron	A1300	16	Historical	Specialisation
<i>bastel</i>	n	bastion		C1400	1	Historical	-
<i>batild</i>	adj	Battled, Fortified, walled		c1386	1	Poetic	-
<i>brand</i>	n	sword, blade	The mark made by burning with a hot iron.	OE	24	Poetic	Specialised
<i>caiser</i>	n	kaiser, emperor	The ruler of the German Empire	c1175	161	Historical	Narrowing
<i>cnaue</i>	n	servant	villain	OE	13	Archaic	Pejoration
<i>cowters</i>	n	elbow-protection		?a1400	1	Historical	-
<i>cuisse</i>	n	armour for protecting the front part of the thighs		c1330	1	Historical	-
<i>doughti</i>	adj	Doughty, brave, strong in combat		OE	11	Archaic	-

<sup>51</sup> “-” in the “semantic change” category means that the term has not suffered any semantic shift.

<i>dreng</i>	n	Free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant		a1000	31	Historical	-
<i>erl</i>	n	OE warrior > ME ruler	count	OE	255	Poetic	Specialisation
<i>erldom</i>	n	domain	Noble title	OE	6	Historical	Specialisation
<i>fere</i>	n	fellow soldier		OE	50	Archaic	-
<i>glaive</i>	n	lance or spear	Spear/sword	1297	6	Poetic	Metonymy
<i>helm</i>	n	helmet		OE	53	Poetic	-
<i>iren</i>	n	weapon made of iron, a sword	metal	OE	3	Poetic	Metonymy
<i>leg(g)e</i>	n	liege, vassal		1297	2	Historical	-
<i>mounture</i>	n	mount		C1400	1	Archaic	-
<i>niðing</i>	n	villain		?OE	11	Archaic	-
<i>nimen</i>	v	to capture	To walk with short light steps.	OE	103	Archaic	Narrowing
<i>paytrrure</i>	n	breast plate		c1400	2	Historical	-
<i>polein</i>	n	a separate piece of armour protecting the knee		1388	1	Historical	-
<i>pysan</i>	n	a piece of metal or mail attached to the helmet extending over the neck and upper breast		1345	1	Archaic	-
<i>rounci</i>	n	horse, steed		c1300	2	Historical	-
<i>sax</i>	n	knife	chopping tool	OE	3	Historical	Specialisation
<i>scathe</i>	n	harm, pain		?OE	18	Archaic	-
<i>smite</i>	n	smite, blow of a weapon		OE	4	Archaic	-
<i>stede</i>	n	OE stallion > ME war horse	horse	OE	80	Poetic	Generalisation
<i>thein</i>	n	vassal warrior	historical title	OE	106	Historical	Melioration
<i>thral</i>	n	slave		OE	4	Historical	-
<i>thralen</i>	v	to enslave		c1275	2	Historical	-
<i>vengen</i>	v	to take vengeance		1303	1	Archaic	-
<i>wepen</i>	v	to arm, to hold a weapon		OE	152	Historical	-

Nearly half of the war-related types above (15 terms) simply describe a concept from the past which is no longer present in our current reality. For this reason, it is also not surprising that all of them are cultural borrowings, since they were borrowed during this time span to fill a specific need which is no longer required at present. Alternatively, seven out of these 15 terms were relegated in use by more recurrent words (namely *fere*, *helm*, *mounture*, *smite*, *thral*, *vengen*, and *wepen*). Notwithstanding, the remaining 13 war-related types acquired this restricted use after suffering a semantic shift. The most remarkable cases are those of individuals related to the subfield [AUTHORITY > rank] and terms related to that of [ARMED HOSTILITY > equipment].

### 1) *Social status*

As explained in Section 4.3, the medieval society was highly intertwined with all matters related to warfare. As a result, the distinction of ranks within the military service included

also the figures that were in any position of authority at that time. However, as time went on and the military service became more a profession than social duty, most of these nobility titles and social ranks lost their relation with the semantic field of [WAR], or at least the meaning recorded in our corpus. Therefore, the terms that managed to survive suffered all kinds of semantic changes so as to adapt to the new times. Let us analyse the war-related types registered in our corpus, from the highest to the lowest ranks.

The term *caiser*, imported from Old Norse in c1175, originally designated the rank of an emperor and, although it frequently appeared as an alliterative variant of *king* (OED, s.v. *Kaiser*, n., 2), it denoted a superior dignity. In time, the term suffered semantic specialisation and came to refer, first, to '[t]he Holy Roman Emperor (eventually the 19th century Austro-Hungarian Emperor)' (OED, s.v. *Kaiser*, n., 1.b) and, then, to '[t]he ruler of the German Empire, 1871–1918' (OED, s.v. *Kaiser*, n., 1.c).

A similar case is that of the nobility titles of *erl* and *baroun*, which also experienced a specialisation of their original meanings. The term *erl*, and in consequence *erldom*, originally designated a man of noble birth below the rank of king, often used in poetry with the sense of 'warrior' (OED, s.v. *earl*, n., 1). During the time the Danelaw lasted, it coexisted with its Old Norse cognate, *jarl*, to designate '[a]n official equivalent in rank to ealdorman' (OED, s.v. *earl*, n., 2). After the Norman Conquest, the term was regarded as a synonym of the Latin term *comes* ('count'). Nowadays, we find *earl* 'in the modern Peerage ranking next below a marquess, and next above a viscount' (OED, s.v. *earl*, n., 3.b). On the other hand, *baroun* was an Anglo-Norman borrowing (a1200) used to refer to '[o]ne who held, by military or other honourable service, from the king or other superior' being the lowest grade in nobility (OED, s.v. *baron*, n., 1). Now (although in a wider sense it can also denote any person 'having power or influence in any sphere', OED, s.v. *baron*, n., 2.c) it is exclusively used to refer to the most important barons in Great Britain, the Lords of Parliament.

Likewise, the term *thein* was also used to refer to an important social rank in Anglo-Saxon times, although it has not survived as a nobility title in the Peerage ranking. Originally it meant '[a] servant, minister, attendant' (OED, s.v. *thane*, n., 1). Just like the term *erl*, it soon developed the sense of '[a] military attendant, follower, or retainer; a soldier' and in poetry '[a] warrior, a brave man.' (OED, s.v. *thane*, n., 2.a-b). Nonetheless, eventually *thanes* could acquire estates of the king or other superior by military service.

Hence, the term finally experienced a melioration moving from ‘an attendant’ to ‘a low rank landowner’, albeit it was several grades below that of an *ealdorman* or *eorl*.

Finally, we encounter the term *cnaue* (closely related to that of *niðing*, also in Table 37). As *knight*, *swain* or *squire* in Section 5.3.2 above, this term originally meant ‘[a] boy, a young man’ (OED, s.v. *knave*, n., 1), which later developed the notion of ‘[a]n attendant, page or other servant’ (OED, s.v. *knave*, n., 2). However, in the 13th century, it also suffered a pejoration in meaning to denote ‘[a] dishonest unprincipled man; a cunning unscrupulous rogue; a villain’ (OED, s.v. *knave*, n., 3.a); a sense which now maintains in its latest meaning of ‘[a] man or boy whose behaviour invites disapproval, but who is nonetheless likeable; a wag, a rogue’ (OED, s.v. *knave*, n., 3.b).

## 2) *Not just the armour*

If in Section 5.3.2 we talked about the knight’s armour, we must not forget the rest of the equipment a knight used. The sword was with most certainty the first weapon of choice for this medieval warrior. A sign of that is the six war-related types found in our corpus that refer to this weapon (namely *swerd*, *bil*, *brand*, *glaive*, *meche*, and *iren*). The loss of importance of this weapon within the semantic field of [WAR] made that this wide range of options turned out to be unnecessary. As a result, many of these words are now only used in literary registers. Such is the case of the terms *brand*, *glaive* and *iren* (listed above in Table 39). The war-related types *brand* and *iren* share some similarities as the sense of ‘sword’ first derived through metonymy. While *brand* refers to the act of burning, thus, the forge of such weapons, *iren* (‘iron’) refers to the material used to forge them. The metonymical sense of these words developed early in Old English and frequently used in poetry as alliterative variants for both Old English *swurd* and Middle English *swerd*. Alternatively, the term *glaive* is a loanword from Old French originally borrowed in 1297 to mean ‘[a] lance or spear’ (OED, s.v. *glaive*, n., 1.a). In the 15th century, this term developed the specialised sense of ‘[a] weapon consisting of a blade fastened to a long handle; a kind of halbert’ (OED, s.v. *glaive*, n., 2.a), as well as that of ‘[a] sword; *esp.* a broadsword’ through metonymy (OED, s.v. *glaive*, n., 3).

Regarding other weapons, we also find the term *sax* ‘[a] knife, short sword or dagger’ (OED, s.v. *sax*, n., 1). As seen in Section 2.2, this weapon was a common element in the warfare gear of both Anglo-Saxons and Vikings and widely used during the Middle Ages. Notwithstanding, in the 17th century the meaning of *sax* specialised and became

‘[a] chopping-tool used for trimming slates’ (OED, s.v. *sax*, n., 2). Consequently, the sense of ‘weapon’ is currently only used in historical contexts.

Lastly, Table 39 collects yet another war-related type, *stede*, that refers to the closest companion of the medieval knight: the horse. The Old English sub-corpus already presented five different war-related types that made direct reference to the horse as a mount (i.e., *blanca*, *eoh*, *hors*, *mearh*, and *wicg*). According to the OED, although the word *stede* was present in the language since the 10th century, it only appears in the Middle English sub-corpus. While the Old English term *stéda* originally meant ‘[a] stud-horse, stallion’ (OED, s.v. *steed*, n., 1.a), in Middle English and during early Modern English it developed a generalisation to denote ‘warhorse’ (OED, s.v. *steed*, n., 1.b). Notwithstanding, from the 16th century, this generalisation shift increased and it is only used in literature as ‘[a] horse, usually one for riding’ (OED, s.v. *steed*, n., 1.c), thus, being synonymous to another word of French origin, *rounci*, also listed above.

#### **5.4. Conclusions to Chapter 5: Borrowings and semantic change into perspective**

This section has demonstrated how crucial language contact proved in the evolution of the warfare lexicon in Middle English either as lexical incorporations or as semantic shifts. As seen in Section 5.1.3.2, only 20% of the Anglo-Saxon vocabulary referring to the semantic field of [WAR] can still be found in Present-day English, which means that the remaining 80% was affected by socio-cultural factors that triggered its change.

On the one hand, this change was motivated by the evolution of society and the need to describe new realities (cultural borrowings), such as the innovative medieval knight’s armour or the new fortifications built around the island, but also by the different status the languages in contact had inside the same territory (core borrowings): the coexistence of Scandinavian and French with the vernacular provoked the replacement of many native terms in the semantic field of [WAR].

On the other hand, many cases of semantic change were also detected. As seen in Section 5.3, much of this altered lexicon had a borrowed counterpart that provided a wide range of synonymous alternatives during Middle English. This circumstance favoured that in time, when the reality of this semantic field evolved, many of the terms evolved with it. Therefore, we can claim that, whether in the form of loanwords or hybrids, cultural or core borrowings, the contribution of foreign vocabulary implied a drastic relexification

of the original Old English warlike vocabulary, either by lexical substitution or semantic change.

## Chapter 6. Conclusions and further research

The purpose of the current study was to analyse the impact that language contact had on the semantic field of [WAR] in Old and Middle English, particularly in terms of borrowings and semantic change. In our case, we chose to study the semantic field of [WAR] in a period when armed conflicts were one of the most determining factors in shaping a culture and, by extension, its language. Middle English represents a crucial period for the evolution of this language, for it began with a war, the Battle of Hastings, and ended with another, the Hundred Years' War. To establish the bases of our study, we decided to take the Old English period as a reference in order to compare and see first-hand the changes suffered by the English language from one period to the next. As exposed in Section 1.4, several different research questions arose from this approach. Consequently, we proceed to answer these questions based on the results gathered and presented in the previous chapter.

RQ1 dealt with how the socio-historical situation of England in the late Old English and early Middle English periods contributed to shaping the lexicon of the semantic field of [WAR] in English, and it is by far the most profound research question since the linguistic phenomena involved in the evolution of a language are many and of varied nature. Nevertheless, the sociocultural aspects undergone by the English language in this period make language contact the main axis of this dissertation. The consequences of the contact with Scandinavian, French (in its Central and Norman variants) and Latin created over the centuries a rather rich multilingual society. Multilingualism in England gave rise to many communicative situations in which code-switching was present even in literary works, as shown in the texts of the period (see Section 3.1.3). But perhaps, as we explain below, the most notable result of this contact was the incorporation of a vast number of borrowings in the vernacular.

Many of these contact situations were triggered by the incessant presence of war, namely the Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest. Thus, it was expected that the semantic field of [WAR] resulted notably affected by the incorporation of borrowings and semantic change. Our corpus of texts was compiled according to this premise in which texts dealing with warfare topics were selected, namely the Anglo-Saxon epic poetry from Old English and the medieval romances from Middle English. When



analysing the results, the first observation that we deduced from the comparison of both periods was that there was little difference between the number of war-related types in both periods: while Old English presented 287 war-related types, Middle English recorded 352 items related to [WAR], thus leaving a difference of only 65 war-related types in our tool. These data were even more surprising if the total number of war-related tokens analysed in each period was contrasted, that is 2,742 tokens in Old English and 12,641 tokens in Middle English. Therefore, it was clear that our semantic field was not affected by the increase in analysable data, indicating that a field consists of a reduced group of words that are responsible for maintaining the semantic cohesion of a text. Nevertheless, it was also obvious that, no matter how small, there existed a noticeable increase that had to be justified. Thus, if having more words was not a determining factor, what other factors could drive this increase? Could the answer reside in the outcomes of linguistic contact?

By analysing and comparing the extracted vocabulary we were able to reach more conclusions. For example, both periods share 107 of their war-related types, which accounted for 37.2% of the war-related terms analysed in Old English and 30.3% in Middle English. Consequently, our entire field consisted of 532 original war-related types counting the lexicon of both periods. While all the selected texts had “armed encounters” as a common link, we know that both genres and topics changed noticeably from one period to the next. The Anglo-Saxon epic, of oral tradition, so deeply rooted in Old English and with its motifs of heroism, courage or self-improvement, was replaced by medieval romances that, although some tried to maintain the alliterative formula of the Anglo-Saxon period, they included new topics that became popular during the early Middle Ages, such as chivalry or courtly love. The texts were no longer intended to be transmitted orally, which was also an advantage for the authors of the time, who were able to compose longer and more elaborate works. Thereby, it could be argued that the lexical stock of Old English was not sufficient to cover the needs of these new literature topics in Middle English, and it was, thus, necessary to adopt borrowings from other languages to provide the English language with sufficient resources.

When we analysed the number of borrowings found in each period, the difference became quickly visible. While only eight (2.7%) of the extracted war-related types of this semantic field in Old English were borrowings from either Latin or Norse, this number

rose to 123 (35%) in Middle English. The results show that nouns and verbs are the dominant parts of speech by a wide margin, although some adjectives and adverbs were also registered, and even some foreign items in compounds and derived words. As a consequence, this research took into consideration not only loanwords (110 war-related types) but also hybrids (13 war-related types). Moreover, these words belonged not just to Latin or Old Norse, but also to French, in its two varieties (i.e., Anglo Norman and Central French) and altogether they accumulated a total of 1,237 tokens. Therefore, it was evident that the incorporation of elements from other languages was a resort that did not go unnoticed by the authors of the texts included in our corpus.

Although the incorporations from these languages were initially sufficient to cover much of the word-type difference between the two periods (65 war-related types), it was necessary to discriminate between core and cultural borrowings in order to discern between duplicated and new concepts. We detected a total of 67 terms, either full or partial synonyms, in many of the subcategories that constituted our field, such as the different words for concepts like *armed hostility*, *sword*, *death*, *warrior*, or *lord*. Alternatively, we found 57 war-related types mainly describing new equipment, locations or social ranks. Let us remember that the word-type difference between both periods was 65 terms. Consequently, we can argue that, albeit not entirely, almost all of the difference in war-related types from one period to the other could be explained by the incorporation of cultural borrowings, therefore, reinforcing the idea that these items were a product of language contact and also key to the development of this particular semantic field.

RQ2 considered how the influx of words from other languages affected this particular semantic field in English. As observed, the events that occurred in England from the 9th to 11th centuries (the Viking invasions and the Norman Conquest) had a significant impact on the vernacular to a greater or lesser extent. At the time of the contact with Scandinavians, the English language had an important status in the territory, and this prestigious position, along with the mutual intelligibility between speakers of both languages, probably prevented many terms from entering the language. In the case of the French influence, however, the English language experienced an obvious state of social ostracism as French dominated in all those high cultural aspects while the vernacular was practically relegated to a daily-life use. Consequently, the French element had a much larger presence in terms of loanwords. As expected, the foreign languages found in our

corpus correspond to this pattern and include loanwords as well as hybrids. While 90 out of the 123 foreign war-related types in Middle English came from French (either from Anglo-Norman or the Central variety), only 15 originate from Old Norse. The remaining ones belong either to Latin (five terms), or have an unknown origin (four terms).

As seen above, more than 50% of these borrowings represented concepts never covered before in Old English. We observed how the technological advances of the Middle Ages provided new concepts that had to be named and that were incorporated mostly from French, such as the emergence of the medieval castles and knights, or the adoption of many French noble titles that served also as military leaders. Thus, while the total number of loans in this period represents 35% of the lexicon of our field, the French borrowings alone account for 25.5%. This means that a quarter of the lexical stock of the semantic field of [WAR] belonged to this Romance language. On the whole, the greatest contribution of loans is observed in the subfields of [equipment] (30/78), [tactical operations] (12/40), [locations] (11/19) and [peace] (8/11) in the hyperseme [ARMED HOSTILITY], while the subfield [rank] (17/36) stands out in [AUTHORITY].

Alternatively, if we analyse which percentage these borrowings represent within the total number of words collected, this figure is significantly reduced. Barbarisms accumulate only 1,237 occurrences out of the 12,641 total number of words that we find in the Middle English sub-corpus, which in turn represents only 11.98% of the total. Hence, we can assert that, although the lexical additions accounted for more than a third of the total war-related types, in terms of frequency of use this figure was not so remarkable. We must bear in mind that 68 of the 123 borrowings had native full or part synonyms from Old English that in most cases had a higher frequency of use. As a consequence, we deduce that the vernacular still dominated this semantic field, while the foreign element was used mainly to designate those concepts that did not exist originally in the Anglo-Saxon world.

At this point, we can affirm that the situations of contact between the cultures involved directly affected the English language, although in different ways depending on the nature of the contact. In the case of Old Norse, we noticed a lesser impact due, perhaps, to the closeness between the two cultures, the intelligibility of both languages at this historical moment, or their more everyday character.

Contrarily, the case of French was very different. The cultures in contact were more dissimilar as were the languages of their speakers. The Norman government imported French to the upper echelons of society with which the distinction was extended to the social plane and caused the minorisation of the English language. As a consequence, the lexical contributions became more visible in academic and learned registers, where also Latin – through French – played a noteworthy role. As appreciated in this dissertation, literature was also widely affected. The meticulous preparation of the texts, probably, facilitated the incorporation of more barbarisms, which surely were not so present in oral and daily records, as it was the main aim of the Old English poetry.

Also highly interesting is the issue of semantic change. RQ3 raised the matter of which processes of semantic change underwent the native lexicon from Old English to Middle English in the face of the new incorporations, and which percentage of this vocabulary was either affected by this change or remained unaltered. During the analysis of the data, we noted that out of the 287 war-related types of Anglo-Saxon origin, only 55 (20%) are still in current use while 192 (67%) are now obsolete. In Middle English this number changed drastically. 155 (44%) out of the 352 war-related types registered are still in use while 125 (35.5%) are now obsolete, although most were still in use during much of Modern English. These numbers alone are clear indicators of the natural evolution of a language. But perhaps the most interesting figure is not that of alive/dead words, but that of words that mutated their meaning or Currentness. One of the examples provided in Chapter 5 was that of *knight*. We saw how during this time this word experienced a qualitative semantic transformation, a melioration, to adapt to the linguistic needs of the moment. This “ennoblement” altered its original Old English meaning, ‘a youngster or vassal’, to refer to the all-important figure of the medieval knight in Middle English. Notwithstanding, since knights are no longer part of the current warfare units, instead of falling out of use, this word continued to evolve until it was used to designate an honorary title in Present-day English. The semantic evolution of this term was probably influenced by its coexistence with two other foreign terms, Old Norse *swain* and OF *squire*. Both were borrowed also with the meaning of ‘vassal’, but ultimately shared a similar fate and are now regarded as historical or poetic terms.

Likewise, many are the semantic shifts listed in our study. The historical development of military tactics, armaments and, ultimately, war in general, could have

helped in the evolution of the vocabulary. A logical explanation is that, as in the case of *knight*, they have ceased to represent the current reality of this semantic field, and so these words were discarded from the language or forced to evolve throughout the new times. Thus, we must not forget the new elements that entered this linguistic equation. For instance, we also observed how some loanwords barely in use in Middle English would become the hypernyms of the subfields that we present in this study, as was the case of *war*, *battle*, *peace*, *treason*, *armour*, *gear*, *command* or *governor*. This implied that loanwords could also play an important role not just in replacing some native words, but also to the point of displacing them by modifying their meanings. The use of the HTOED was crucial to determine which words were directly related and affected by this phenomenon, as it displays all the synonyms or part-synonyms of a word. Moreover, we have also seen that our corpus registered a total of 68 core borrowings. This quantity represents 20% of the words in our sub-corpus, and it means that at least an equal part of the English-origin lexicon had indeed a registered synonym from a foreign language (some examples had more than one synonym, namely, OE *frith* / ON *grith* / OF *pes* ‘peace’). We should not forget either that some of the words in our corpus also had unattested synonyms, which would make the percentage higher.

As a result, and affecting native and borrowed terms indistinctively, a total of 36 war-related types (10.2%) present obsolete meanings while another batch of 35 types (9.9%) are now regarded as archaic, historical or poetic. Although no clear pattern was identified, many were the types of semantic change observed among the different subfields of our study. For instance, in [AUTHORITY / rank], as in the case of *knight*, many cases of melioration were detected in similar terms used to designate social ranks (i.e., *swain*, *duke* or *thain*), but also pejoration, as in the case of *churl* or *knave*. In turn, other terms suffered semantic generalisation, such as *admiral*, *baron*, or *sergeant*. Another valid example is that of [ARMED HOSTILITY / equipment], which was also widely affected by semantic change. Words like *bill*, *blazon*, *brace*, *edge-tool*, *shroud*, *sax* have suffered semantic specialisation, while *steed* generalised its meaning. *Brand* or *board* have seen their meanings specialised and words like *iron* or *glaiive* developed new meanings through metonymy. Lastly, a curious change was that of the terms *borough* and *castle* in [ARMED HOSTILITY / location], which interchanged their meanings over time through generalisation and specialisation, respectively. Thus, we can assert that 20% of the lexicon in the semantic field of [WAR] was directly altered by semantic change.

Finally, RQ4 rose the matter of the alliterative poetry playing an active role in the adoption and use of loanwords in the literature of the period. That is, what happens with the lexicon if contrasted in alliterative texts and texts with French rhyme? Are Alliterative Revival texts more likely to adopt loanwords because of the demands of the alliterative verse? Or, on the contrary, is it the freedom of the rhymed verse that facilitates its incorporation? As mentioned in Section 1.2, the alliterative verse was the primary stylistic instrument used in Anglo-Saxon poetry. Its lexical demands, unlike the final or French rhyme, required at least three alliterating stressed syllables throughout the verse. Thereby, our objective was to observe whether these requirements favoured the incorporation of loanwords from other languages in Middle English by analysing the use of barbarism in the Alliterative Revival poems as opposed to their use in poems using the rhymed verse.

As a starting point we took into consideration the Old English epic poetry. Since this kind of literature was almost free of foreign influences in its lexicon and made use of the alliterative verse, we concluded that there was a variety of vocabulary large enough to cover the needs of the alliterative verse. Nonetheless, the new topics in the Middle English literature together with the sociolinguistic changes suffered by the language and the requirements of the alliterative verse could have provoked that the poems of the Alliterative Revival benefitted from the appearance of loanwords in English, at least more than those using the rhymed verse.

The results were quite conclusive and did not give rise to speculation, making it clear that there was no direct correlation between the choice of verse and the intentional use of borrowings. In fact, we found out that the text with the smallest percentage of borrowings, LBRUT with 5.62%, made use of the alliterative verse and the one with the highest percentage, SORFEO with 28.81%, used the rhymed verse.

As a conclusion to this dissertation, this study has shown the relevance that borrowings and semantic change have had in the development of the semantic field of [WAR], and how both originate as a result of sociolinguistic phenomena such as language contact, multilingualism and code-switching. In our case, we can also affirm that warfare and the consequences that it entails were definitely a catalyst for the incorporation of new lexicon in the English language. Moreover, although this change began to be noticed throughout Old English, we know that its effects became much more visible from the Modern English period onwards.

Although the data analysed in this study was sufficient to draw valid conclusions, we are aware that some of the limitations of this dissertation can be overcome in future research. For example, we have reiterated throughout our research the impossibility of including all the Middle English texts that made reference to our semantic field. Therefore, we consider it necessary for these results to be supplemented by other complementary studies in order to obtain the complete data for this period and to observe if the figures we have provided undergo any significant changes. Likewise, extending this study to the Modern English period would also be equally beneficial to have a broader and more precise view of the evolution of this semantic area to this day.

Moreover, it would be interesting to see what happens if we choose another semantic field from the same period. In our case we have focused on the hypersemes [ARMED HOSTILITY] and [AUTHORITY] because of their close semantic relationship in this period. Nevertheless, there are other common topics in both periods that could be addressed, such as the supernatural, treasures, or travelling. During the vocabulary extraction process, we found much lexicon referring to the rewards obtained from the wars and adventures of heroes: treasures, rings, gold and silver, or the role of the ring-giver in the Anglo-Saxon period; monsters and fantastic creatures; or the comings and goings of the characters. Certainly, they were interesting themes that could have been well-integrated into ours, which, however, we had to discard as we had a sufficient amount of material to analyse with the two chosen hypersemes. Perhaps, a comparative study could be carried out between our results and those from another semantic field to observe which received a higher impact of borrowings which suffered more semantic changes or, contrarily, if both show similar results.

Finally, it would also be interesting to take more examples of works written in prose. We saw in this study how *Sermo Lupi ad Anglos*, although not essential in amount of information, did provide relevant data regarding the origin of words in Old English where we found many words to refer to the Vikings with Scandinavian elements present in both, compound words and derivatives, and in addition it was the text showing the highest NF of borrowings. Consequently, we believe that, after laying the foundations for the development of this semantic field from Old to Middle English, any information, no matter how small, can provide significant new data and it will be the sum of all that helps us to have a more detailed insight of this segment of the English language.

## Resumen

El objetivo de esta tesis es analizar cómo la guerra en la Inglaterra medieval sirvió como motor para la evolución lingüística de la lengua inglesa y, más específicamente, cómo los préstamos y los cambios semánticos afectaron al campo semántico de [WAR] ('la guerra'). Aunque se ha dedicado una gran cantidad de literatura al contacto lingüístico y sus resultados, esta área del lenguaje nunca antes se había abordado por completo.

Si comparamos el vocabulario de cualquier texto del inglés antiguo con un texto de inglés contemporáneo, rápidamente podemos observar diferencias notables. A pesar de que a simple vista se observan claros cambios ortográficos y gramaticales, quizás la más identificable sea el cambio de léxico. Para alguien ajeno a la lingüística histórica será difícilmente reconocer más de unas pocas palabras en el texto de inglés antiguo. Si analizamos el porqué, tenemos que remitirnos a la historia externa de la lengua inglesa para ver cuando se produjeron estos cambios.

Un resumen general de dicha historia nos cuenta como el primer milenio d.C. en Inglaterra fue un periodo extremadamente belicoso. Desde la llegada de las legiones romanas hasta la Conquista Normanda, este territorio ha sufrido multitud de conflictos de manos de pueblos muy diferentes que llegaron a las islas británicas por diferentes motivos y que indudablemente supusieron un contacto entre sus culturas y sus lenguas, tales como celta, latín, anglosajón, escandinavo antiguo, anglonormando y francés antiguo.

Por tanto, como se discute a lo largo de esta tesis, nuestra hipótesis principal sostiene que la guerra jugó un papel fundamental a la hora de poner las citadas lenguas en contacto en la Inglaterra medieval, y como consecuencia, fue un importante catalizador para que la lengua inglesa recibiese grandes cantidades de préstamos lingüísticos y, por ende, que este léxico también sufriese notables cambios semánticos.

Durante los últimos 20 años, han surgido numerosos estudios sobre la evolución de los campos semánticos en este periodo de la historia de la lengua inglesa. Muchos autores se han dedicado a estudiar su particular porción de la lengua anglosajona para ir, poco a poco, describiendo su evolución y así tener una idea cada vez más completa y precisa de los procesos seguidos. A fin de contribuir a dicho mapeado de la lengua, la presente disertación se centra en el campo semántico de la guerra, de alguna manera, complementando nuestra hipótesis central. Consideramos que, si la guerra fue un motor



del cambio, también las palabras, ideas y conceptos relacionados con ella serán en sí mismos pruebas de dicho cambio.

A fin de dar forma a esta disertación, y a raíz de nuestra hipótesis, se han formulado cuatro preguntas de investigación:

*Pregunta de investigación n°1:*

¿Cómo contribuyó la situación socio-histórica de Inglaterra en el inglés antiguo y el inglés medio temprano (ej., contacto lingüístico, multilingüismo, o la alternancia de código) a dar forma al léxico del campo semántico de la Guerra?

*Pregunta de investigación n°2:*

¿Cómo afectó el flujo de palabras de otras lenguas afectó a este particular campo semántico en el inglés?

*Pregunta de investigación n°3:*

¿Qué procesos de cambio semántico sufrieron los términos nativos del inglés antiguo al inglés medio, y del inglés medio al inglés contemporáneo? ¿Qué porcentaje de nuestro cambio semántico se vio alterado por los cambios semánticos y cual no?

*Pregunta de investigación n°4:*

¿Hasta qué punto influyó la poesía aliterativa en la adopción y uso de préstamos lingüísticos?

Para responder a estas preguntas es necesario abordar primero tanto el contexto histórico como el teórico en torno a los que se desarrolla nuestro estudio. Tal y como se menciona más arriba, con la llegada del Imperio Romano a Inglaterra en el primer milenio d.C., llegó la romanización del territorio que pasaría a llamarse Britania. Esta ocupación no estuvo exenta de conflictos y batallas contra las tribus celtas que ya habitaban en dicho territorio tales como el levantamiento de los icenos a las órdenes de la reina Boudica en el 60-61 d.C. (Gillespie 2018: 1). El avance de las legiones llevó a Roma a lograr cierto dominio estable en lo que hoy en día conocemos como Inglaterra, arrinconando a las tribus celtas hacia los territorios actuales de Cornualles, Gales o Escocia. La impronta romana se deja ver todavía en muchos topónimos como aquellos derivados de *castrum*

(*chester / caster / cester*), ‘campamento’, como *Chester, Doncaster, Manchester, Gloucester, Leicester, Worcester*; o de *vicus* (*wic / wick / wich / wych*), ‘granja’, como *Gatwick, Wickham, Aldwych, Ipswich, o Norwich*, entre otros.

Tras la caída del Imperio en el s. V d.C., la desprotección de los territorios antes controlados por Roma se hizo patente. Este hecho junto a la llegada de los hunos desde las estepas de rusia influyó a que las tribus germánicas del norte de Europa comenzasen a buscar nuevos territorios en los que vivir. Además, en los últimos años del Imperio, era una práctica común que las legiones estuviesen ya compuestas por mercenarios germánicos, los *foederati*. En Britania, los primeros anglos, jutos y sajones llegaron contratados por Roma, quienes, tras el declive del Imperio, aprovecharon para traer a sus familias a dicho territorio. De este modo, en poco más de medio siglo, Britania fue invadida por oleadas de estas tribus que se distribuyeron sin demasiados problemas a lo largo y ancho de la provincia romana. Este asentamiento germánico comprendía siete reinos (conocidos hoy en día como la Heptarquía) Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, y Northumbria (Algeo and Butcher 2013: 81), y quienes a pesar de conflictos menores entre estos reinos vivieron en relativa paz durante casi tres siglos. Tanto el periodo romano como el anglosajón sirvieron para establecer las bases de la cultura y la lengua que conocemos hoy. No obstante, el propósito de esta tesis es explorar en qué medida las invasiones escandinavas y la Conquista Normanda afectaron a la lengua anglosajona y, en particular, al campo semántico de la guerra.

Si bien es cierto que la cristianización de Inglaterra en el s. VI podría considerarse como el primer contacto real y directo del inglés antiguo con una lengua extranjera, los efectos de dicho contacto se notaron principalmente en contextos eclesiásticos. Por el contrario, la llegada de los vikingos supuso un cambio más vertebral. Desde el saqueo del monasterio de Lindisfarne, a finales del s. VIII y hasta la conquista normanda en el 1066, las incursiones vikingas fueron incesantes, llegando incluso a crear su propio reino en estas tierras conocido como *Danelaw* (la [tierra bajo] ley danesa). Puesto que ambas lenguas eran hasta cierto grado inteligibles, esta proximidad genética de hizo posible la comunicación entre sus hablantes. El contacto lingüístico dio paso a una población multilingüe donde ambas partes se beneficiaban de él. A raíz de estas relaciones, muchas palabras de carácter cotidiano escandinavas se abrieron paso dentro del stock léxico de la vernácula, por lo podemos encontrar numerosos préstamos lingüísticos del escandinavo antiguo que todavía hoy persisten y son de uso frecuente, como *call, die, egg, fellow, get,*

*give, ill, kid, leg, link, low, race, score, sister, skin, skirt, sky, take, trust, want, weak o window.*

La segunda gran influencia que observamos en la lengua inglesa es el francés. La conquista normanda en el 1066 representó un cambio mucho más radical en la cultura y la lengua inglesas que la influencia escandinava. Con la llegada de los normandos, el sistema feudal y la diferenciación entre clases (que ya iba tomando forma en el continente) entraron en activo en Inglaterra. Así pues, durante los más de doscientos años que duró el gobierno francés en suelo británico, el uso de la lengua anglosajona se vio reducido a un registro cotidiano mientras que el francés y el latín dominaban todos los registros formales. Además, en algunos casos los matrimonios mixtos y su asociación con la clase gobernante hizo que muchos ingleses aprendiesen esta lengua romance (Baugh y Cable 2005: 103-104). El aumento de individuos multilingües facilitó también la alternancia de lenguas, como podemos observar, por ejemplo, en el poema del inglés medio estudiado en esta tesis, *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. A su vez, este contacto tan estrecho provocó que muchos términos franceses se incorporase al stock léxico de la lengua inglesa. Hoy en día encontramos miles de préstamos provenientes del francés y que tocan temas tan diversos como la geografía, títulos nobiliarios, segmentos de la sociedad, administración, comercio y artesanía, ropa y decoración, comida y cocina, y también, términos militares (Hickey n.d., para. 18-28).

Las razones para la incorporación de tantos préstamos del escandinavo antiguo, del francés (tanto en su variante normanda como en la central) o del latín son muy diversas. Sin embargo, Myers-Scotton (2002) los clasifica en dos grandes grupos de acuerdo con la naturaleza de su incorporación: *cultural borrowings* (préstamos culturales) o *core borrowings* (préstamos básicos). Los préstamos culturales son aquellos tomados para designar una idea o concepto inexistente en la lengua receptora, mientras que los préstamos básicos duplican las palabras que ya existían en la lengua receptora, y o bien conviven como sinónimos o acaban por sustituirlas. Este cambio masivo de vocabulario en el inglés medio se conoce como *relexificación* (Fuster-Márquez and Calvo-García de Leonardo 2012: 64).

No obstante, los préstamos lingüísticos no son la única consecuencia directa del contrato entre lenguas. La convivencia de estos pares de sinónimos o duplicados en una misma lengua suele suponer, además, que se produzcan también cambios semánticos. Si

bien es cierto que pueden existir sinónimos totales, es mucho más común la existencia de sinónimos parciales. Es aquí donde casos de especialización, generalización, metáforas o metonimias (entre muchos otros) son frecuentemente visibles (Crespo 2013: 35). Dicha coexistencia provoca que o bien el término nativo o el barbarismo alteren su significado original para cubrir un matiz más restringido del concepto en cuestión. Sin embargo, también es posible que finalmente uno de los términos acabe por imponerse y hacer que el duplicado quede obsoleto. Por tanto, si nos centramos en analizar un campo semántico en específico (como se pretende en esta tesis), podemos afirmar que su integridad puede verse fácilmente alterada tanto a causa de la incorporación de préstamos lingüísticos como por los cambios semánticos provocados por dichas incorporaciones.

A lo largo de los últimos 20 años, los estudios sobre campos semánticos han sido un tema recurrente en la Lingüística Histórica. Uno de los enfoques más comunes para su estudio entre los grupos de investigación ha sido la Lingüística de Corpus, como es el caso de VARIENG (Research Unit for the Study of Variation, Contacts and Change in English; Universidad de Helsinki, Finland), VLCCG (Research unit for Variation, Linguistic Change and Grammaticalization, Universidad de Santiago de Compostela) o MuStE (Research Group for Multidimensional Corpus-Based Studies in English; Universidad de A Coruña), entre otros. Los estudios de corpus permiten crear una compilación de textos que sirven como material para la obtención de datos precisos. De esta manera, el presente estudio adopta también dicho enfoque para analizar el cambio léxico-semántico en el campo semántico de la guerra en el salto entre el inglés antiguo y el inglés medio.

Para realizar el estudio se han concretado tanto el periodo de estudio como los textos que conforman nuestro corpus, así como también los términos que analizamos. De este modo, acotamos nuestro estudio dentro del período de máxima exposición de la lengua inglesa ante la influencia de las culturas invasoras. Hablamos entonces del salto entre el inglés antiguo y el inglés medio, donde, a parte de las diferentes oleadas de latín (a raíz de la romanización de Britania o la llegada del cristianismo), encontramos las invasiones vikingas desde finales del s. VIII hasta la Conquista Normanda por parte del duque Guillermo de Normandía en el 1066. Sin embargo, para dar tiempo a que estas influencias se asentasen en la lengua y realmente ver sus efectos sobre el léxico inglés, se ha decidido extender el periodo de estudio hasta finales del inglés medio, tras la guerra de los 100 años, en el s. XV. Por su parte, los textos a elegir vienen marcados el propio

tema de estudio. Consideramos como válidos todos aquellos textos que de algún modo hagan referencia al campo semántico de la guerra. En el caso del inglés antiguo disponemos de 13 textos que acumulan un total de 24.549 palabras. Por el contrario, en el inglés medio contamos con 5 textos que suman un total de 202.441 palabras. Conjuntamente, los 18 textos de ambos periodos forman nuestro corpus completo, aunque para facilitar su comparación diferenciamos entre el subcorpus del inglés antiguo y el subcorpus del inglés medio. Del mismo modo, la selección de léxico también está determinada por su relación con nuestro campo semántico. Según Kleparksy and Rusinek (2007: 192) un campo semántico es aquel en el que las palabras están relacionadas entre sí bien por un elemento-raíz común o bien por una relación de significado. Por consiguiente, nuestro campo debe estar compuesto tanto por palabras que compartan raíz con el lexema [WAR] ‘guerra’ (incluyendo todas las clases de palabras de contenido como sustantivos, verbos, adjetivos o adverbios), como por aquellas cuyo significado vaya ligado a dicho concepto por cualquier relación semántica, como la sinonimia, antonimia, meronimia o hiponimia, entre otras.

Para llevar a cabo nuestro estudio, aparte de configurar nuestro corpus, se han establecido también aquellas herramientas que permitan tanto su extracción como su análisis. A fin de extraer y gestionar el vocabulario se precisaba de una herramienta (*‘concordancer’*) que precisase de ciertos requisitos para facilitar el tratamiento de los datos. Después de valorar las ventajas y desventajas de las opciones disponibles (como Lextutor, WordSmith o AntConc), se valoró crear una herramienta propia que se adecuase a las necesidades de este estudio y agilizase su uso. De este modo, conjuntamente con la empresa local de proyectos digitales Digital Square, se desarrolló la herramienta COMEET (*Concordancer of Old and Middle English Epic Texts*). Aunque basada en las características principales de las herramientas mencionadas, tiene una interfaz mucho más fácil de usar que permite una mayor agilidad en el tratamiento de datos y hace las tareas de extracción y procesado mucho menos tediosas.

Para el análisis de los datos se han utilizado todos los materiales en línea disponibles, como diccionarios vocabularios y traducciones. Sin embargo, esta tesis se apoya en gran medida en el HTOED (*Historical Theasurus of the Oxford English Dictionary*). Siendo el primer tesoro histórico de la lengua inglesa jamás publicado, el HTOED dispone de una gran cantidad de información que permite la realización de estudios como el presente. Una vez extraído el vocabulario de los textos, con esta

herramienta se han podido filtrar y validar todos aquellos términos que pertenecen al campo semántico de la guerra. Este tesoro permite ver todos los significados que ha adquirido una palabra a lo largo de su historia a partir de las fuentes originales, siempre proporcionando las citas de las que dicha información se ha extraído. No obstante, los resultados han sido filtrados por las otras herramientas disponibles (véanse, MEC [*Middle English Compendiu*], *Bosworth-Toller dictionary*, *Etymonline*, *Old English translator*, o *Old English reader*), a fin de cotejar la información y no caer en idiosincrasias.

Al extraer y analizar el vocabulario también se ha podido determinar la estructura de nuestro campo semántico. A parte de los términos que comparten un elemento-raíz con *war* (sustantivos, verbos, adjetivos y adverbios), el hiperónimo [WAR] se ramifica en dos hipónimos (o semas distintivos) mayores: [ARMED HOSTILITY] ‘hostilidad armada’ y [AUTHORITY] ‘autoridad’. Estos dos subcampos comprenden el resto de vocabulario de forma estratificada en otros semas distintivos menores. Por ejemplo, [ARMED HOSTILITY] contiene subcampos como “operaciones tácticas”, “combatientes”, “equipamiento”, o “muerte”, mientras que [AUTHORITY] comprende subcampos como “rango”, “territorios” o “castigo”. Así pues, si dividimos los términos por periodos, por un lado, encontramos 287 palabras en el corpus del inglés antiguo, por otro hallamos 352 palabras en el corpus del inglés medio. Y si tenemos en cuenta que 107 términos se hallan en ambos periodos, podemos afirmar que nuestro campo semántico se compone de un total de 532 palabras. De este modo, una vez fijado el léxico, se ha procedido al análisis de los resultados.

En primer lugar, el vocabulario ha sido analizado desde tres perspectivas diferentes: clase de palabra, *currentness* (‘estado actual de la palabra’), y lengua de origen. Si nos referimos a la clase de palabra, y como era de esperar, el campo semántico de la guerra se alimenta principalmente de sustantivos y verbos con una gran diferencia con respecto a los adjetivos y adverbios. Las dos primeras categorías juntas concentran casi el 95% de los tipos relacionados con la guerra registrados en el estudio, mientras que las dos últimas presentan un porcentaje poco relevante, con solo el 5%. Además, aunque se observan algunos casos de elementos prestados en adjetivos y adverbios del inglés medio, el aumento no es lo suficientemente relevante como para afirmar que los préstamos tuvieron un impacto significativo en estas clases de palabras.

En cuanto al *currentness*, o estado actual de la palabra, vale la pena señalar que, a pesar de la gran cantidad de palabras obsoletas del inglés antiguo que encontramos en el

léxico actual, según sus entradas en el OED, la mayoría de ellas todavía estaban en uso durante el inglés medio y gran parte del período del inglés moderno, y que solo cayeron en desuso en tiempos relativamente recientes. Aunque estos términos pueden haber sido reemplazados por otros en el inglés contemporáneo, tal vez, es posible que esta disminución también sea una indicación de que estas palabras ya no reflejan la realidad de nuestro mundo debido a cambios significativos en el mundo militar.

Por último, si hablamos de la lengua de origen, cabe señalar que cada nuevo préstamo que se integraba al idioma inglés representaba una disminución igual en la supremacía del léxico anglosajón original que observábamos en el período anterior. Así pues, nuestro corpus contiene un total de 134 préstamos lingüísticos, incluyendo a los híbridos. Sin embargo, este dato se vuelve aún más destacable al considerar el porcentaje total que estas incorporaciones léxicas representaron en el stock de este campo semántico, el 36% del léxico. Este porcentaje se desglosa en 25'6% de origen francés, 4'2% del escandinavo antiguo, 1'4% del latín, 1'1% de origen desconocido y, por último, un 3'7% de términos híbridos que contienen una raíz extranjera combinada con un morfema nativo. Así, podemos afirmar que el impacto de los préstamos en el campo semántico de la guerra fue sumamente notable. Además, se debe enfatizar la importancia de la influencia francesa en el inglés medio no solo en términos de préstamos lingüísticos, sino también en los nuevos procesos de formación de palabras.

En cuanto a la naturaleza del préstamo, hallamos un total de 55 préstamos culturales y 79 préstamos básicos. Los culturales se concentran principalmente en los subcampos de [equipamiento] (22), que reflejan la aparición de la armadura del caballero medieval o el uso del caballo para usos bélicos; y [localizaciones] (13) que demuestran la aparición de los castillos y el desarrollo de las fortificaciones. Por otro lado, los préstamos básicos representaban sinónimos de palabras ya existentes en la lengua vernácula. Si se comparan las frecuencias de uso de dichos préstamos con su variante nativa en el inglés medio, se observa claramente un uso mayor de la palabra inglesa. Sin embargo, si estos datos se comparan con el inglés contemporáneo podemos observar como en su gran mayoría, los préstamos han acabado por sustituir a sus homólogos ingleses (véase casos como *war/wie*, *defend/beorgan*, *peace/frith/grith*, *armour* o *coat/brinie*, *mount/radhorse* o *prince/atheling*).

Por tanto, podemos afirmar que la incorporación de préstamos lingüísticos estuvo motivada, por un lado, por la evolución de la sociedad y la necesidad de describir nuevas realidades (préstamos culturales), como la innovadora armadura del caballero medieval o las nuevas fortificaciones construidas alrededor de la isla, pero también por el diferente estatus de las lenguas en contacto tenían dentro del mismo territorio (préstamos básicos): la coexistencia de escandinavo y francés con la lengua vernácula provocó el reemplazo de muchos términos nativos en el campo semántico de la guerra.

Por otro lado, también se han detectado muchos casos de cambio semántico. Como se ha detallado arriba, gran parte de este léxico alterado tenía un homólogo prestado que brindaba una amplia gama de alternativas sinónimas durante el inglés medio. Esta circunstancia favoreció que, con el tiempo, cuando la realidad de este campo semántico evolucionó, muchos de los términos evolucionaron con él. De nuevo, como ejemplos más representativos, hacemos referencia tanto al caballero medieval como a las fortificaciones. Se ha observado como la palabra *knight* ha sufrido diversas modificaciones de significado por causas socioculturales y has pasado de significar ‘chico joven’ a la importante figura del ‘vasallo/caballero’ medieval, para acabar refiriéndose a un título honorífico en la actualidad. Por razones similares, la palabra *castle* se tomó prestada originalmente del latín para representar ‘villa’, y fue evolucionando hasta significar ‘pueblo fortificado’ y finalmente ‘fortaleza’. Sin embargo, al igual que *knight*, *castle* ha dejado de representar la realidad del campo semántico de la guerra, y hoy en día los castillos se refieren a grandes residencias equiparables a las mansiones.

Por lo tanto, podemos afirmar que, ya sea en forma de préstamos o híbridos, préstamos culturales o básicos, la contribución del vocabulario extranjero implicó una drástica relexificación del vocabulario bélico original del inglés antiguo, bien por sustitución léxica o bien por cambios semánticos.

Como conclusión, a fin de dar respuesta a nuestras preguntas de investigación, podemos afirmar que las situaciones sociolingüísticas a las que se vieron expuestos los participantes de los enfrentamientos bélicos de la Inglaterra medieval (como el contacto lingüístico, multilingüismo, o la alternancia de código), fueron esenciales para facilitar la incorporación de muchos préstamos lingüísticos en el campo semántico de la guerra, tanto



del escandinavo como del francés (y, aunque en menor medida, del latín). Hemos podido observar cómo mientras en el inglés antiguo solo un 3% del vocabulario de nuestro corpus era de origen extranjero, este porcentaje se vio incrementado hasta un 36% en el inglés medio. Del mismo modo, podemos afirmar que gran parte de estos préstamos (el 25%) provienen del francés. Es igualmente destacable el incremento de híbridos en el inglés medio, puesto que representa el nivel de flexibilidad de la lengua inglesa a la hora de incorporar léxico de otras lenguas y combinarlo con mecanismos morfológicos propios. Hemos podido observar también como el cambio semántico es otra consecuencia directa del contacto entre lenguas, ya que la coexistencia de palabras nativas con sinónimos extranjeros provocó que muchos de estos términos acabasen por alterar sus significados para sobrevivir en la lengua, aunque también es cierto que la evolución sociocultural de la guerra ha llevado a que otros tantos de estos términos hayan dejado de representar la realidad actual, y, si se conservan en el inglés contemporáneo, es en muchos casos como palabras poéticas, historias o arcaicas. Por último, otro de los objetivos principales de esta tesis era el de ver hasta qué punto pudo haber influido el uso del verso aliterativo en la incorporación de barbarismos en la lengua inglesa. Debido a que la mayoría de ellos eran préstamos básicos, se esperaba que esto fuese un factor determinante para que los autores aliterativos incorporasen estos préstamos a sus obras como variantes aliterativas. Sin embargo, el estudio comparativo de las obras del inglés medio ha demostrado de manera concluyente que no existe una correlación directa entre el uso del verso aliterado y el cambio lingüístico. Así pues, con este trabajo, esperamos contribuir a la investigación previa en otros campos semánticos, demostrando cómo, en efecto, la guerra fue un importante catalizador del cambio léxico-semántico en la lengua inglesa.

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## Annexes

### Annex I - Old English war-related types

OE Form (Lema)	Word class	Meaning	Language of origin	Etymology	Attestation date	Tokens	Currentness	Source	Hyperseme	Distinguishing seme 1	Distinguishing seme 2	Distinguishing seme 3	In texts
<i>ǣht (aéht)</i>	n	pursuit	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		BEOW
<i>ǣsc (ash)</i>	n	spear	OE		4	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BMALD
<i>ǣþeling (atheling)</i>	n	atheling, prince	OE	OE derivative > <b>ǣþel + -ing</b>	35	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BBRUN BEOW WALD
<i>aglêca (aglêca)</i>	n	enemy, fiend	OE		20	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW
<i>aldor (alder)</i>	n	chief, lord	OE		17	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BMALD
<i>áwyrðan (áwyrðan)</i>	v	to destroy	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>baldor baldor()</i>	n	hero, prince	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BEOW

<i>bana (bane)</i>	n	killer, slayer	OE		21	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	person	BEOW BMALD
<i>banan (bane)</i>	v	to kill	OE		4	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>bát (boat)</i>	n	boat, ship	OE		4	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		BEOW
<i>béacen (beacon)<sub>1</sub></i>	n	beacon	OE		2	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	location	part/accessory		BEOW
<i>béacen (beacon)<sub>2</sub></i>	n	banner, standard	OE		1	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	insignia/symbol			BEOW
<i>beadu ()</i>	n	battle	OE		19	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD WALD
<i>bealo (bale)</i>	adj	evil doing, destroying, injuring, hurting	OE		25	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	quality	ASCP BEOW
<i>beatan (beat)</i>	v	to beat, strike	OE		2	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>beceorfan (scurf?)</i>	v	to behead	OE	OE compound > <b>be</b> (deprive of) + <b>sceorfan</b>	2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	punishment	action		BEOW
<i>beorgan (bergh, berze, berwe)</i>	v	to protect	OE		22	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW SLUPI WALD
<i>beorn (berne)</i>	n	man, warrior	OE		32	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		ASCP BBRUN BEOW BMALD

<i>besittan</i> ( <i>besit</i> )	v	to besiege	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>beswice</i> ( <i>beswike</i> )	v	to betray	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	treachery	action		SLUPI
<i>bewæpnian</i> (-)	v	to disarm	OE	OE compound > <b>be</b> (deprive of) + <b>wæpen</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	action		BEOW
<i>bewerian</i> ( <i>biwere</i> )	v	defend, protect	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW
<i>bil(l)</i> ( <i>bil</i> )	n	sword	OE		23	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD WALD
<i>blanca</i> ( <i>blonk</i> )	n	horse	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	mount		BEOW
<i>blodwite</i> ( <i>bloodwite</i> )	n	bloodshed	OE	OE compound > <b>blod + wite</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>boga</i> ( <i>bow</i> )	n	bow	OE		4	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW BMALD
<i>bord</i> ( <i>board</i> )	n	shield	OE		26	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>bord-weal</i> ( <i>bord-weall</i> )	n	shield-wall	OE	OE compound > <b>bord + weal</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive		BEOW
<i>bregu</i> ( <i>bregu</i> )	n	lord, ruler, king	OE		9	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BBRUN BEOW

<i>brenting</i> ( <i>brenting</i> )	n	ship	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		BEOW
<i>bréotan</i> ( <i>brít</i> )	v	to destroy, cut down, kill	OE		5	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>brimmann</i> ( <i>brim-man</i> )	n	seaman, pirate	OE	OE compound > <b>brim + man</b>	2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD
<i>brinnan</i> ( <i>burn</i> )	v	to burn down	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	SLUPI
<i>burg</i> ( <i>borough</i> )	n	burg	OE		17	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	location	defensive		ASCP BEOW DEOR FFRAG WIDS
<i>byrne</i> ( <i>brinie</i> )	n	coat of mail	OE		30	In curren t use	Other use. Historica l	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>campe</i> ( <i>camp</i> )	n	battle, fight, war	OE		3	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>ceaster</i> ( <i>chester</i> )	n	walled town	OE	> Lat <b>castra</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	location	defensive		BEOW
<i>cempa</i> ( <i>kemp</i> )	n	warrior	OE		15	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>cene-</i> ( <i>kine</i> )	comp	kingly	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP
<i>ceorl</i> ( <i>churl</i> )	n	freeman	OE		8	In curren t use	Other use. Historica l	HTE	Authorit y	freedom	person	free man	BEOW BMALD

<i>cniht</i> ( <i>knight</i> )	n	knight	OE		3	Obsol ete meani ng	Obsolete mean ing	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	vassal	BMALD SLUPI
<i>corþer</i> ( <i>corþer</i> )	n	army, troop	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<i>crincgan</i> ( <i>cringe</i> )	v	to die in battle	OE		5	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>cumbol</i> ( <i>comel</i> )	n	banner, standard	OE		2	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	insignia/sy mbol			BBRUN BEOW
<i>cwealu</i> ( <i>quell</i> )	n	killing	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>cwellan</i> ( <i>quell</i> )	v	to kill	OE		6	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	ASCP BEOW SLUPI
<i>cynedóm</i> ( <i>kindom</i> )	n	kingdom	OE	compound > <b>cene-</b> <b>+ dom</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	land			BEOW
<i>cyneryce</i> ( <i>kinrik</i> )	n	kingdom	OE	compound > <b>cene-</b> <b>+ ric</b>	3	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	land			ASCP DEOR WIDS
<i>cyning</i> ( <i>king</i> )	n	king	OE		74	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BBRUN BEOW DEOR FFRAG WIDS
<i>daroþ</i> ( <i>daroþ</i> )	n	dart	OE		3	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW BMALD
<i>déaðwalu</i>	n	annihilation	OE	compound > <b>deoð</b> + <b>cwealu</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		BEOW

<i>deoð (death)</i>	n	death	OE		2	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		ASCP DEOR
<i>dīhtig (doughty)</i>	adj	Doughty, brave, strong in combat	OE		1	In current use	Other use. Archaic	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	quality		WIDS
<i>dreng (dreng)</i>	n	Free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant	ON		1	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BMALD
<i>drepan (drepe)</i>	v	to strike, kill	OE		3	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>drepe (drepe)</i>	n	blow of a weapon	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		BEOW
<i>drihten (drighin, drighthen, dright)</i>	n	lord	OE		52	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BBRUN BEOW BMALD DEOR WIDS
<i>drihtgesīð (drigh + gesith)</i>	n	band of retainers	OE	compound > <b>driht</b> + <b>gesīþ</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		FFRAG
<i>drihtguma (drigh + gome)</i>	n	lord	OE	compound > <b>driht</b> + <b>guma</b>	5	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BEOW
<i>drihtlice (drighlike)</i>	adj	noble	OE	derivative > <b>driht</b> + <b>lice</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	rank	quality		FFRAG
<i>dugeþ (douth)</i>	n	army	OE		16	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW BMALD SLUPI WIDS
<i>ealgian (ealgian)</i>	v	to protect, defend	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BBRUN

<i>ecg (edge)</i>	n	edge of a weapon	OE		40	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>eðel (ethel)</i>	adj	noble	OE		5	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Authority	rank	quality		ASCP WIDS
<i>eðel (ethel)</i>	n	Noble, chieftain warrior	OE		11	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>eodor (eodor)</i>	n	protector, prince	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BEOW
<i>eah (eah)</i>	n	war-horse	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	mount		BEOW
<i>eorl (earl)</i>	n	earl, nobleman, count	OE		75	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BBRUN BEOW BMALD DEOR WIDS
<i>eorlscipe (earlship)</i>	n	nobility, lordship	OE	derivative > <b>eorl</b> + <b>scipe</b>	1	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Authority	rank			WIDS
<i>eorod (road)</i>	n	cavalry, army, legion	OE	compound > <b>eah</b> + <b>rād</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BBRUN
<i>fæhp (fæhp)</i>	n	feud, hostility	OE		23	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW BMALD
<i>færsceaþa (færsceaþa)</i>	n	enemy	OE	OE compound > <b>fær</b> + <b>sceaþa</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BMALD



<i>feallan (fall)</i>	v	to fall in battle, to die	OE		11	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW BMALD
<i>feld (field)</i>	n	battlefield	OE		3	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	location	battlefield		BBRUN BMALD
<i>fengel (fengel)</i>	n	prince, king	OE		4	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BEOW
<i>feoht (fightt)</i>	n	fight	OE		6	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>feohtan (fight)</i>	v	to fight	OE		13	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	action	synonym		BEOW BMALD FFRAG SLUPI WALD
<i>feol (file)</i>	n	file	OE		1	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	part/accessory		BMALD
<i>féond (fiend)</i>	n	fiend	OE		29	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD WALD
<i>fēpa (fépa)</i>	n	infantry	OE		7	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW BMALD
<i>fillan (fell)</i>	v	to fell, kill	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	SLUPI
<i>flan (flane)</i>	n	arrow	OE		6	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW BMALD
<i>fleam (fleam)</i>	n	flight	OE		3	MED. In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape		BEOW BMALD

<i>fleogan (fly)</i>	v	to fly, flee	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape	action	BMALD
<i>fléon (flee)</i>	v	to flee	OE		8	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape	action	BEOW BMALD WALD
<i>fléot (fleet)</i>	n	ship, fleet	OE		9	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		B Brun BEOW BMALD
<i>flíeman (fleme)</i>	v	to flee	OE		2	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape	action	B Brun BMALD
<i>flitan (flite, flyte)</i>	v	to contend, fight	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	action	synonym		BEOW
<i>flotmen (fleet + man)</i>	n	sailors, pirates	OE	OE compound > <b>fléot + man</b>	1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		SLUPI
<i>folctogan (folc-togan)</i>	n	folk-leader	OE	OE compound > <b>folk + toga</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	rank	person	ruler	BEOW
<i>forgrýndan (forgrýndan)</i>	v	to destroy	OE	OE derivative > <b>for + grýndan</b>	3	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>forrædan (forrædan)</i>	v	to betray	OE	OE derivative > <b>for + rædan</b>	2	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	treachery	action		SLUPI
<i>forspildan (forspildan)</i>	v	to destroy	OE	OE derivative > <b>for + spildan</b>	1	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	SLUPI
<i>forstandan (forstandan)</i>	v	to oppose, defend	OE	OE derivative > <b>for + standan</b>	1	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW
<i>forwegan (forwegan)</i>	v	to kill	OE	OE derivative > <b>for + wegan</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BMALD

<i>forwyrčan</i> ( <i>forwyrčan</i> )	v	to destroy	OE	OE derivative > <b>for</b> + <b>wyrčan</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	SLUPI
<i>franca</i> ( <i>franca</i> )	n	spear	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BMALD
<i>fréa</i> ( <i>fréa</i> )	n	lord, ruler	OE		30	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BEOW BMALD
<i>freca</i> ( <i>freke</i> )	n	warrior	OE		9	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW
<i>freogan</i> ( <i>free</i> )	v	to free, liberate	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Authorit y	freedom	action		BMALD
<i>freolic</i> ( <i>freely</i> )	adj	freely	OE		2	Obsol ete mean ing	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Authorit y	freedom	quality		ASCP
<i>frīð</i> ( <i>frīth</i> )	n	peace	OE		6	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	peace	make peace		ASCP BEOW BMALD WIDS
<i>fyrð</i> ( <i>fyrð</i> )	n	war, army	OE		10	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW BMALD
<i>fyrð-</i> ( <i>fyrð</i> )	comp.	war, army	OE		8	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<i>gár</i> ( <i>gar</i> )	n	spear	OE		32	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		B Brun BEOW BMALD
<i>gárberend</i> ()	n	lancer		OE compound + derivative > <b>gár</b> + <b>beran</b> + <b>end</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BMALD

<b><i>gealgian</i></b> ( <i>gealgian</i> )	v	to defend	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BMALD
<b><i>geatwe</i></b> ( <i>geatwe</i> )	v	equipment	OE		9	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	synonym		ASCP BEOW
<b><i>gebyrga</i></b> ( <i>gebyrga</i> )	n	protector	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW
<b><i>gedígan</i></b> ( <i>gedígan</i> )	v	to pass through safely, survive	OE		9	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape	action	BEOW
<b><i>gedriht</i></b> ( <i>gedriht</i> )	n	company, troop	OE		9	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW WIDS
<b><i>geferan</i></b> ( <i>yfere</i> )	n	fellow soldier	OE		2	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BMALD
<b><i>geflit</i></b> ( <i>flit</i> , <i>flyte</i> )	n	quarrel	OE		2	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW
<b><i>gefyllan</i></b> ( <i>yfell</i> )	v	to fell, kill	OE		3	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BBRUN BEOW
<b><i>gehnégan</i></b> ( <i>gehnégan</i> )	v	to subdue	OE		3	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	result	action		BEOW
<b><i>gehnést</i></b> ( <i>gehnést</i> )	n	battle, conflict	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN
<b><i>gehyld</i></b> ( <i>i-hald</i> , <i>i-hold</i> )	n	protection	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive		BEOW
<b><i>genéat</i></b> ( <i>geneat</i> )	n	comrade, vassal	OE		9	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	vassal	BMALD

<b><i>genesan</i></b> ( <i>genesan</i> )	v	to survive	OE		5	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	escape	action	BEOW FFRAG
<b><i>geoguð</i></b> ( <i>youth</i> )	n	young warriors	OE		10	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<b><i>gesīð</i></b> ( <i>gesith</i> )	n	comrade, companion	OE		13	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	vassal	BEOW DEOR WIDS
<b><i>gestealla</i></b> ( <i>gestealla</i> )	n	comrade, companion	OE		7	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	vassal	BEOW
<b><i>getoht</i></b> ( <i>getoht</i> )	n	battle, conflict	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BMALD
<b><i>gewáde</i></b> ( <i>gewáde</i> )	n	armour	OE		13	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW
<b><i>geweald</i></b> ( <i>geweald</i> )	n	control, command, rule	OE		10	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	action			BEOW
<b><i>gewinna</i></b> ( <i>i- winne</i> )	n	warrior	OE		3	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW SLUPI
<b><i>gram</i></b> ( <i>grame</i> )	adj	hostile	OE		4	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	hostility	quality		BEOW
<b><i>gróm</i></b> ( <i>groom</i> )	n	retainer, squire	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	vassal	BEOW
<b><i>gúð</i></b> ( <i>gúð</i> , <i>guf</i> )	n	war, battle, fight	OE		45	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<b><i>gúð-</i></b> ( <i>gúð</i> , <i>guf</i> )	comp.	war, battle, fight	OE		52	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG

													WALD
<i>guma</i> ( <i>gome</i> )	n	male, warrior	OE		9	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BBRUN BEOW BMALD WIDS
<i>gumstóle</i> ( <i>gome</i> + <i>stool</i> )	n	throne	OE	OE compound > <b>guma + stól</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	insignia/sy mbol			BEOW
<i>gyrwan</i> ( <i>gear</i> )	v	to equip, gear up	OE		14	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	action		BEOW
<i>hæleð, heþeð</i> ( <i>heleth</i> )	n	warrior	OE		41	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		ASCP BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG WIDS
<i>hættian</i> ( <i>hat</i> )	v	to scalp	OE		1	Obsol ete mean ing	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	ASCP
<i>haga</i> ( <i>hedge</i> )	n	enclosure, entrenchment	OE		2	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	location	defensive		BEOW
<i>haldan,</i> <i>healdan</i> ( <i>hold</i> )	v	to rule, to control	OE		36	In curren t use	In current use	HTE	Authorit y	action	command		BEOW WIDS
<i>hamer,</i> <i>hamor</i> ( <i>hammer</i> )	n	hammer	OE		1	In curren t use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BBRUN
<i>head-</i> ( <i>head</i> )	comp.	battle	OE		47	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW FFRAG WALD WIDS

<i>hearra, herra (her, herre)</i>	n	liege, lord	OE		2	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BMALD
<i>héawan (hew)</i>	v	to hew, strike with a cutting weapon	OE		7	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BMALD SLUPI WIDS
<i>helm (helm)</i>	n	helmet	OE		43	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW FFRAG
<i>heorðwerod (heorð-werod)</i>	n	band of retainers		OE compound > <b>heorð + werod</b>	1	In current use	Obsolete word	DOE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BMALD
<i>heoru- (heoru)</i>	comp.	sword	OE		12	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW
<i>here (here)</i>	n	army	OE		15	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BBRUN BEOW BMALD SLUPI
<i>here- (here)<sub>1</sub></i>	comp.	army	OE		5	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<i>here- (here)<sub>2</sub></i>	comp.	war, battle	OE		15	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW
<i>heresceorp (heresceorp)</i>	n	war dress	OE	OE compound > <b>heorð + sceorp</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		FFRAG
<i>hergað (hergað)</i>	n	booty	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	spoils			SLUPI
<i>hete (hete)</i>	n	hostility	OE		9	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	hostility	synonym		BEOW
<i>hettend (hettend)</i>	n	enemy	OE	OR derivative > <b>hete + end</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BBRUN

<i>hild (hild)</i>	n	battle, war	OE		33	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG WALD
<i>hild- (hild)</i>	comp.	battle, war	OE		48	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW
<i>hiredmann (hiredman)</i>	n	band of retainers, troop	OE	OR compound > <b>hired + man</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BMALD
<i>hláford (lord)</i>	n	lord	OE		25	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BEOW BMALD DEOR SLUPI WALD
<i>hlem (hlem)</i>	n	clash of battle	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		BEOW
<i>hléo (lee)</i>	n	protection	OE		23	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive		ASCP BEOW DEOR WIDS
<i>hnitan (note)</i>	v	to strike, clash	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>hors (horse)</i>	n	horse	OE		2	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	mount		BEOW
<i>hráw (raw)</i>	n	corpse	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete meaning	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death		BBRUN BEOW
<i>hráfyl (hráfyl)</i>	n	slaughter	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	death		BEOW



<i>hréosan</i> (reose)	v	to fall in battle	OE		5	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>hréþig</i> (hréþig)	adj	triumphant	OE		3	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	result	quality		BEOW
<i>hringlocan</i> (ring + lock)	n	mail coat	OE	OE compound > <b>hring + locan</b>	2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BMALD
<i>hringnet</i> (ring + net)	n	coat of mail	OE	OE compound > <b>hring + net</b>	2	In current use	Other use. Poetic	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW
<i>hýðan</i> (hide)	v	to destroy	OE		1	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW
<i>hýnðu</i> (hýnðu)	n	harm, injury	OE		5	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	DOE	Armed hostility	damage	death		BEOW
<i>hyrde</i> (herd)	n	herd, guardian	OE		18	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW FFRAG
<i>hyse</i> (hyse)	n	young warrior	OE		8	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BMALD FFRAG
<i>íren</i> (iron)	n	weapon made of iron, sword	OE		24	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW BMALD
<i>knorr</i> (knorr)	n	small ship, galley (of the Northmen)	ON	ON <b>knorr</b>	2	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		BBRUN
<i>lácán</i> (lake)	v	to fight	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	action	synonym		BEOW
<i>lædan</i> (lead)	v	to lead	OE		1	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	command	action	BMALD

<i>liðend</i> ( <i>liðend</i> )	n	sailor, pirate	OE	OE derivative > ON <b>lið + OE -end</b>	12	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BEOW
<i>lidmann</i> ( <i>líth</i> + <i>man</i> )	n	sailor, pirate	OE	OE compound > ON <b>lið + OE man</b>	2	In curren t use	Other use. Historica l	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD
<i>lind</i> ( <i>lind</i> )	n	shield	OE		13	Obsol ete meani ng	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>loga</i> ( <i>loga</i> )	n	traitor	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	treachery	person		SLUPI
<i>mægslaga</i> ( <i>mæg + slay</i> )	n	manslaughter	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>mannslean</i> ( <i>man + slay</i> )	v	manslaughter	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>mannslaga</i> ( <i>man + slay</i> )	n	manslaughter	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>manslyhtas</i> ( <i>man +</i> <i>slaught</i> )	n	manslaughter	OE		1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		SLUPI
<i>méar</i> ( <i>mare</i> )	n	horse	OE		11	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	mount		BEOW
<i>méce</i> ( <i>méce</i> )	n	sword	OE		18	In curren t use	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BBRUN
<i>merran</i> ( <i>mar</i> )	v	to damage, to destroy	OE		1	In curren t use	Other use. Archaic	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BMALD

<i>morð</i> ( <i>morth</i> )	n	murder	OE		12	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		BEOW SLUPI
<i>mundbora</i> ( <i>mundbora</i> )	n	protector	OE	OE compound > <b>mund + bora</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		ASCP
<i>naca</i> ( <i>naca</i> )	n	ship	OE		5	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		BEOW
<i>nerian</i> ( <i>nerian</i> )	v	to save, protect	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW
<i>nīð</i> ( <i>nīthe</i> )	n	evil, hostility	OE		33	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	hostility	synonym		ASCP BEOW
<i>nīð-</i> ( <i>nīthe</i> )	comp.	evil, hostility	OE		8	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	hostility	synonym		ASCP BEOW
<i>ofercuman</i> ( <i>overcome</i> )	v	defeat, overpower	OE	OE derivative > <b>over + cuman</b>	5	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	result	action		ASCP BEOW DEOR
<i>onscyt</i> ( <i>on- scyt</i> )	n	attack, assault	OE	OE derivative > <b>on + scyt</b>	2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		SLUPI
<i>ord</i> ( <i>ord</i> )	n	point or edge of a weapon	OE		12	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	part/acces sory		BEOW BMALD WALD WIDS
<i>óretmecg</i> ( <i>óretmecg</i> )	n	warrior, combatant	OE	OE compound > <b>oret + mæcg</b>	3	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW
<i>óretta</i> ( <i>óretta</i> )	n	champion, warrior	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW
<i>orlege</i> ( <i>orlege</i> )	n	strife, war	OE		5	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW

<i>rædend</i> ( <i>rædend</i> )	n	ruler	OE	OE derivative > <b>ræd + end</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP
<i>raéswa</i> ( <i>raéswa</i> )	n	prince, leader	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	BEOW
<i>rand</i> ( <i>rand</i> )	n	shield	OE		19	Obsol ete mean ing	Obsol ete mean ing	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW BMALD
<i>ræafian</i> ( <i>reave</i> )	v	to rob, plunder, reave	OE		4	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW SLUPI
<i>reofere</i> ( <i>reaver</i> )	n	reaver	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		SLUPI
<i>ric</i> ( <i>rik</i> )	n	kingdom	OE		18	In curren t use	Obsol ete word	HTE	Authorit y	land			ASCP BEOW DEOR WIDS
<i>ricsian</i> ( <i>rix</i> )	v	to rule	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	HTE	Authorit y	action	command		BEOW
<i>rinc</i> ( <i>rinc</i> )	n	warrior	OE		26	In curren t use	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD
<i>ripan</i> ( <i>rip</i> )	v	to plunder, rob	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	SLUPI
<i>rypere</i> ( <i>reap</i> )	n	plunderer, robber	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		SLUPI
<i>saca</i> ( <i>sake</i> )	n	adversary, opponent, foe	OE		3	In curren t use	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW

<i>sacan (sake)</i>	v	to fight, contend	OE		3	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	action	synonym		BEOW
<i>sacu (sake)</i>	n	fighting, battle, conflict, quarrel	OE		17	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW
<i>sælid (sea + lith)</i>	n	seafarer, pirate	OE	compound > OE <b>sæ</b> + ON <b>lið</b>	2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD
<i>sæmann (seaman)</i>	n	seafarer, pirate	OE	OE compound > <b>sæ</b> + <b>man</b>	3	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD SLUPI
<i>særinç (sea + rinc)</i>	n	seafarer, pirate	Oe	OE compound > <b>sæ</b> + <b>rinc</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD
<i>sax (sax)</i>	n	knife, dagger	OE		3	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW
<i>scathe (scathe)</i>	n	harm, pain	ON	ON <b>skaðe</b>	3	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	synonym		ASCP BEOW BMALD
<i>sceaft (shaft)</i>	n	shaft	OE		24	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	part/accessory		BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>scealc (shalk)</i>	n	retainer, warrior	OE		4	In current use	Other use. Poetic	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD
<i>sceaþa (sceaþa)</i>	n	enemy	OE		14	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD
<i>scéotan (shoot)</i>	v	to shoot	OE		1	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>scéotend ()</i>	n	archer, shooter	OE	OE derivative > <b>scéot</b> + <b>end</b>	2	In current use	In current use	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW

<i>sceþþan</i> ( <i>sceþþan</i> )	v	to ravage	OE		2	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>scild, scyld</i> ( <i>shild</i> )	n	shield	OE		15	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>scip, scyp</i> ( <i>ship</i> )	n	ship	OE		12	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	vessel		ASCP BBRUN BEOW BMALD SLUPI
<i>scyldan</i> ( <i>shiedl</i> )	v	to shield, protect	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW
<i>scyld-weal</i> ( <i>shield-wall</i> )	n	shield-wall	OE	OE compound > <b>scyld + weall</b>	2	In curren t use	Other use. Poetic	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive		BEOW
<i>searo (searo)</i>	n	armour, equipment, weapons	OE		16	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	synonym		BEOW
<i>searo-</i> ( <i>searo</i> )	comp.	armour	OE		14	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	B&T	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW
<i>secg (segge)</i>	n	male, warrior	OE		34	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BBRUN BEOW BMALD DEOR WALD
<i>segen</i> ( <i>senye</i> )	n	banner, standard	Lat	*Lat <b>signum</b>	2	In curren t use	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	insignia/sy mbol			BEOW
<i>sibb (sib)</i>	n	peace between rulers	OE		9	Obsol ete word	Obsol ete word	HTE	Armed hostility	peace	make peace		BEOW WIDS

<i>sige (size)</i>	n	victory	OE		26	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE (size)	Armed hostility	result			ASCP WALD
<i>sige- (size)</i>	comp	victory	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE (size)	Armed hostility	result		ah>victory	BEOW WIDS
<i>sigeleas (size + less)</i>	adj	vanquished, defeated	OE	OE compound > <b>size + less</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	result	quality		SLUPI
<i>sigon (sye)</i>	v	to march	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive	action	BEOW
<i>slean (slay)</i>	v	to slay, kill	OE		23	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	ASCP BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>slyht (sleight)</i>	n	battle, conflict	OE		3	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage			BEOW
<i>spere (spear)</i>	n	spear	OE		2	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BMALD
<i>spillan (spill)</i>	v	to kill, destroy	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BMALD
<i>staélan (staélan)</i>	v	to avenge	OE		3	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	punishment	action		BEOW SLUPI
<i>straél (streale)</i>	n	arrow	OE		3	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW
<i>strúdung (strúdung)</i>	n	robbery, pillage	OE		1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		SLUPI
<i>swebban (sweb)</i>	v	to put to death, kill	OE		2	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW

<i>sweltan</i> ( <i>swelt</i> )	v	to die in battle	OE		7	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death	action	BEOW BMALD
<i>sweng</i> ( <i>swing</i> )	n	strike, blow of a weapon	OE		8	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	offensive		BEOW
<i>swerd</i> ( <i>sword</i> )	n	sword	OE		66	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW BMALD FFRAG WALD WIDS
<i>swica</i> ( <i>swike</i> )	n	traitor	OE		4	Obsol ete word	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	treachery	person		SLUPI
<i>swicdom</i> ( <i>swikedom</i> )	n	treachery	OE	OE derivative > <b>swic + dom</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	treachery			SLUPI
<i>syrc</i> ( <i>sark</i> )	n	mail coat	OE		5	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	defensive		BEOW
<i>teóhan</i> ( <i>tee</i> )	v	to draw (a sword)	OE		46	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	action		BEOW
<i>þein</i> ( <i>thane</i> )	n	thane	OE		50	In curren t use	Other use. Historica l	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	BEOW BMALD
<i>þéoden</i> ( <i>þéoden</i> )	n	lord	OE		1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BEOW BMALD WIDS
<i>þeodenstol</i> ( <i>þeodenstol</i> )	n	throne	OE	OE compound > <b>þéoden + stol</b>	1	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	insignia/sy mbol			WIDS
<i>þirlan</i> ( <i>thirl</i> )	v	to pierce	OE		4	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	injury	action	FFRAG



<i>þræl (thrall)</i>	n	slave	OE	> ON <b>þræl</b>	3	In current use	Other use. Historical	HTE	Authority	rank	person	slave	SLUPI
<i>þreát (þreát)</i>	n	company, troop	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<i>þrymm (thrum)</i>	n	Army, band of soldiers	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		ASCP WIDS
<i>þurhwadan (þurhwadan)</i>	v	to go through, pierce	OE	OE compound > <b>þurh + wadan</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	damage	injury	action	BEOW
<i>tír- (tir)</i>	comp.	glory	OE		2	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	result		social class > insignia	ASCP
<i>tréwa (truce)</i>	n	truce	OE		1	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	peace	make peace		BEOW
<i>truma (trume, trome)</i>	n	troop	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW
<i>wæl (wal)</i>	n	death, slaughter	OE		59	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	death		BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>waépn (weapon)</i>	n	weapon	OE		23	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BBRUN BEOW BMALD
<i>weal (wall)</i>	n	wall, defensive structure	OE	> Lat <b>vallum</b>	2	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	location	part/accessory		BBRUN BMALD
<i>wealdan (wield)<sub>1</sub></i>	v	to wield, to brandish	OE		14	In current use	In current use		Armed hostility	equipment	action		BEOW
<i>wealdan (wield)<sub>2</sub></i>	v	to control, have power over, rule, wield, possess	OE	mix of two verbs <b>wealdan + wieldan</b>	40	In current use	In current use	HTE	Authority	action	command		ASCP BEOW BMALD

													WALD WIDS
<i>wealdend</i> ( <i>waldend</i> )	n	lord, ruler	OE	OE derivative > <b>weald + end</b>	12	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authorit y	rank	person	ruler	ASCP BEOW
<i>weard</i> ( <i>ward</i> )	n	warden	OE		39	In curren t use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD
<i>weardian</i> ( <i>ward</i> )	v	to ward, guard	OE		6	In curren t use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW
<i>weorþscipe</i> ( <i>worship</i> )	n	honour in battle, glory	OE	OE derivative > <b>weorþ + scip</b>	1	In curren t use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	result			ASCP
<i>werian</i> ( <i>were</i> )	v	to defend, protect	OE		9	In curren t use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive	action	BEOW WALD WIDS
<i>werod</i> ( <i>wered</i> )	n	band, troop, company of retainers	OE		16	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	troop		BEOW BMALD
<i>wicg</i> ( <i>widge</i> )	n	horse	OE		6	In curren t use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	mount	riding	BEOW
<i>wícing</i> ( <i>viking</i> )	n	Viking, sailor, pirate	OE		10	In curren t use	Other use. Historica l	HTE	Armed hostility	at sea	pirate		BMALD SLUPI WIDS
<i>wíg</i> ( <i>wi</i> )	n	war, fight	OE		35	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			B Brun BEOW BMALD WALD WIDS
<i>wíg-</i> ( <i>wi</i> )	comp.	war, fight	OE		20	Obsol ete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW BMALD

<i>wiga (we)</i>	n	warrior	OE		50	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		BEOW BMALD WALD
<i>wigend (wigend)</i>	n	warrior	OE	OE derivative > <b>wiġ</b> + <b>end</b>	14	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	participants	warrior		ASCP BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<i>wihagan (wig-haga)</i>	n	war-hedge (= shield-wall)	OE	OE compound > <b>wiġ</b> + <b>haga</b>	1	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	B&T	Armed hostility	tactical actions and operations	defensive		BMALD
<i>winn (win)</i>	n	fight, strife, war	OE		14	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BMALD
<i>winnan (win)</i>	v	to contend, fight, struggle	OE		7	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	action	synonym		BMALD FFRAG
<i>wracu (wreak)</i>	n	vengeance, revenge	OE		7	In current use	Obsolete word	HTE	Authority	punishment			ASCP BEOW DEOR
<i>wrecan (wreak)</i>	v	to avenge	OE		16	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Authority	punishment	action		BEOW WIDS
<i>wrecend (wrecend)</i>	n	avenger	OE		1	In current use	Obsolete word	B&T	Authority	punishment	person		BEOW
<i>wróht (wrought)</i>	n	quarrel, strife	OE		3	Obsolete word	Obsolete word	HTE	Armed hostility	synonym			BEOW
<i>wudu (wood)</i>	n	wooden shaft, spear	OE		3	In current use	Obsolete meaning	HTE	Armed hostility	equipment	offensive		BEOW
<i>wund (wounded)</i>	adj	wounded	OE		4	In current use	In current use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	injury	quality	BEOW

<b>wund</b> <i>(wound)</i>	n	wound	OE		27	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	injury		BEOW BMALD FFRAG
<b>wundian</b> <i>(wound)</i>	v	to wound	OE		1	In curren t use	In curren t use	HTE	Armed hostility	damage	injury	action	BMALD

## Annex II – Middle English war-related types

ME Form (Lema)	Word class	Meaning	Language of origin	Etymology	Attestation date	Tokens	Currentness	Source	Macrosemi	Distinguishing semi 1	Distinguishing semi 2	Distinguishing semi 3	In texts
<i>abatailment</i> ( <i>battlement</i> )	n	battlement	ME	ME derivative < OF <b>bataille</b> + <b>-ment</b> . The form with a- is only registered in SGGK	c1400	1	In current use	MED. HTE without prefix	armed hostility	location	defensive		SGGK
<i>admiral</i> ( <i>admiral</i> )	n	admiral	OF	OF <b>admirall</b> / Lat. <b>admiralis</b>	c1275	6	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	military		LBRUT KHORN
<i>ahnie</i> ( <i>own</i> )	v	to gain control of, conquer	OE	OE <b>agnian</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>anlas</i> ( <i>anlace</i> )	n	Anlace, short two-edged knife or dagger	OF	OF <b>alenaz</b> (<MEC; HTOED: unknown)	1297	1	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE
<i>anwald</i> ( <i>onwald</i> )	n	rule	OE	OE <b>anweald</b>	OE	5	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	noun / synonym	command		LBRUT
<i>armed</i> ( <i>armed</i> )	adj	equipped with weapons	ME	ME derivative < OF <b>armer</b> / Lat <b>armare</b> + OE <b>-ed</b>	C1300	13	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	adjective		KHORN SGGK SORFEO
<i>armes</i> ( <i>arms</i> )	n	arms; weapons	AN	AN >OF <b>arms</b>	a1250	29	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE KHORN SGGK SORFEO
<i>armur(e)</i> ( <i>armour</i> )	n	armour	AN	AN <b>armoure</b> , <b>armeure</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>arsoun</i> ( <i>arson</i> )	n	saddle bow	AN	AN <b>arsun</b> , <b>arçoun</b>	c1300	2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	part / accessory	SGGK

<i>arwe (arrow)</i>	n	arrow	OE	OE <b>arewe</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>assaut (assault)</i>	n	assault	OF	OF <b>assaut</b>	a1250	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		SGGK
<i>aventaille (aventail)</i>	n	aventail	AN	AN <b>aventail</b> , OF <b>esventail</b>	c1374	1	Other use. Historical	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>ax (axe)</i>	n	axe	OE	OE <b>æx</b>		25	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>bale (bale)</i>	adj	evil doing, destroying, injuring, hurting	OE	OE <b>balu</b>	OE	12	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	quality	adjective	LBRUT
<i>baner (banner)</i>	n	banner	OF	OF <b>banere</b>	c1225	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	insignia / symbol	noun		SGGK SORFEO
<i>barat (barrat)</i>	n	fighting, strife	OF	OF <b>barat</b>	?c1225	3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		SGGK
<i>barbican (barbican)</i>	n	barbican	OF	OF <b>barbacane</b>	a1300	1	In current use		armed hostility	location	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>barnage (baronage)</i>	n	the domain of a baron	OF	OF <b>barnage</b>	a1300	4	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	noun		KHORN HDANE
<i>baroun (baron)</i>	n	baron	OF	OF <b>barun</b>	a1300	16	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE LBRUT SORFEO
<i>bastel (bastille)</i>	n	bastion	AN	AN <b>bastile</b>	c1400	1	Other use. Historical	HTE	armed hostility	location	defensive		SGGK
<i>batayle (battle)</i>	n	battle	OF	OF <b>bataille</b>	1297	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		SGGK

<i>batild</i> ( <i>battled</i> )	adj	Battled, Fortified, walled	ME	ME derivative < OF <b>bataille + -ed</b>	c1386	1	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	location	adjective		SORFEO
<i>bauderik</i> ( <i>baldric</i> )	n	baldric	OF	OF <b>baldrei</b> , <b>baudrei</b>	c1300	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>begile</i> ( <i>beguile</i> )	v	to betray, deceive	ME	ME derivative < OE <b>be + OF guile</b>	?c1225	4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	verb		KHORN
<i>berne</i> ( <i>berne</i> )	n	male soldier	OE	OE <b>beorn</b>		117	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT SGGK
<i>betray</i> ( <i>betray</i> )	v	to betray	ME	ME derivative < OE <b>be + OF traïr</b>	C1250	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	verb		KHORN
<i>bid</i> ( <i>bid</i> )	v	to bid, command	OE	OE <b>biddan</b>	OE	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	leadership	HDANE
<i>bil</i> ( <i>bill</i> )	n	Bill, broadsword, falchion	OE	OE <b>bil</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT SGGK
<i>birr</i> ( <i>birr</i> )	n	a charge in battle, an attack, a fight	ON	ON <b>byrr</b>	a1325	5	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		SGGK
<i>bit</i> ( <i>bit</i> )	n	The cutting of a weapon	OE	OE <b>bite</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		SGGK
<i>blasoun</i> ( <i>blazon</i> )	n	blazon, coat of arms	OF	OF <b>blazon</b>	c1325	1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	insignia / symbol	noun		SGGK
<i>blod</i> ( <i>blood</i> )	n	blood	OE	OE <b>blod</b>		7	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound		SGGK
<i>blod-gite</i> ( <i>blod-gita</i> )	n	bloodshed	OE	OE compound < <b>blōd + gyte</b>		6	Obsolete word	MED	armed hostility	damage	death		LBRUT
<i>blonk</i> ( <i>blonk</i> )	n	steed, horse	OE	OE <b>blanca</b>		11	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	noun	LBRUT
<i>bord</i> ( <i>board</i> )	n	shield	OE	OE <b>bord</b>		10	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		LBRUT
<i>boue</i> ( <i>bow</i> )	n	bow	OE	OE <b>boga</b>		7	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE

<i>bourdis</i> ( <i>bourdis</i> )	n	Onslaught (en batalla)	OF	OF <b>bordis</b>	1303	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death		SORFEO
<i>brace</i> ( <i>brace</i> )	n	Porción de armadura que cube el brazo	OF	OF <b>bracel</b>	c1400	1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>brand</i> ( <i>brand</i> )	n	sword, blade	OE	OE <b>brand, brond</b>		24	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT SGGK
<i>brastlien</i> ( <i>brastile</i> )	v	to clatter	OE	OE <b>brastlian</b>	OE	23	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>breiden</i> ( <i>braid</i> )	v	to draw (a sword)	OE	OE <b>bregdan</b>	OE	2	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	verb		LBRUT
<i>brethen</i> ( <i>brete</i> )	v	to perish in battle	OE	OE (a) <b>bréoðan</b>	OE	5	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT
<i>bridel</i> ( <i>bridle</i> )	n	bridle of a horse	OE	OE <b>bridel</b>		6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	part / accessory	SGGK
<i>brigge</i> ( <i>bridge</i> )	n	drawbridge	OE	OE <b>brycg, bricg</b>		55	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	part / accessory		LBRUT SGGK
<i>brinie</i> ( <i>brinie</i> )	n	coat of mail	ON	ON <b>brynja</b> > OE <b>byrne</b>	c1175	2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>brunt</i> ( <i>brunt</i> )	n	Attack, charge	Unkn own	Unknown. Of uncertain origin. Perhaps a word inherited from Germanic. Perhaps a borrowing from early Scandinavian.	c1400	1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		SGGK
<i>burgh</i> ( <i>borough</i> )	n	castle, stronghold, fortified dwelling	OE	OE <b>burg</b>		240	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	location	defensive		LBRUT SGGK
<i>caiser</i> ( <i>kaiser</i> )	n	kaiser, emperor	ON	ON <b>kaiser</b>	c1175	161	Other use.	HTE	authority	rank	military		HDANE LBRUT



							Historical						
<i>camp (camp)</i>	n	battle, fight, war	OE	OE <b>camp</b>		28	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		LBRUT
<i>carnel (crenel)</i>	n	crenel	OF	OF <b>crenel</b>	1481	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>castel (castle)</i>	n	castle	OF	ONF <b>castel</b>	c1000	163	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	defensive		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>champioun (champion)</i>	n	champion	OF	OF <b>champion, champiun</b>	c1225	5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		HDANE
<i>chef (chief)</i>	n	chief	OF	OF <b>chef, chief</b>	1297	3	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>cherl (churl)</i>	n	freeman	OE	OE <b>ceorl</b>		8	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	freedom	individual		HDANE
<i>chevalerie (chivalry)</i>	n	chivalry	OF	OF <b>chevalerie</b>	1297	1	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	noun		SGGK
<i>cleave (cleave)</i>	v	to cleave	OE	OE <b>cléofan, cléofan</b>	OE	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	LBRUT
<i>club(be) (club)</i>	n	club	ON	ON <b>klubba</b>	c1275	6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT
<i>clusen (close)</i>	v	to confine, besiege	OF	OF <b>clos- &lt;clore</b>	C1275	19	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>cnaue (knave)</i>	n	squire	OE	OE <b>cnapa</b>		13	Other use. Archaic	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		LBRUT
<i>kniȝt (knight)</i>	v	to knight	OE	OE conversion of <b>cnihht</b>		6	In current use	HTE	authority	verb	appointing		KHORN

<i>comel</i> ( <i>comel</i> )	n	encampment	Unkn own	Unknown. Of uncertain origin. Perhaps a word inherited from Germanic. Perhaps a borrowing from early Scandinavian.	c1275	6	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	camp		LBRUT
<i>commaund</i> ( <i>command</i> )	v	to command	OF	OF <b>comander</b>	c1330	4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	leadership	SGGK
<i>conqueste</i> ( <i>conquest</i> )	n	conquest	OF	OF <b>conquest(e)</b>	?c1150	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	result	noun		SGGK
<i>coroun</i> ( <i>Crown</i> )	v	to crown	ME	ME conversion < OF <b>coroun</b>	?c1200	3	In current use	HTE	authority	verb	appointin g		LBRUT SORFEO
<i>coroune</i> ( <i>crown</i> )	n	crown	Lat	Latin <b>corona</b> + AN <b>corone</b> > OE		37	In current use	HTE	authority	insignia / symbol	noun		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>coruning</i> ( <i>crowning</i> )	n	crowning	ME	ME derivative < AN <b>corone</b> + OE - <b>ing</b>	a1250	1	In current use	HTE	authority	noun / synonym	appointin g		HDANE
<i>cote</i> ( <i>coat</i> )	n	coat of mail	OF	OF <b>cote</b>	c1300	6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>cowters</i> ( <i>coutere</i> )	n	elbow-protection	OF	OF <b>coute</b>	?a1400	1	Other use. Historica l	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>crush(en)</i> ( <i>crush</i> )	v	to crush	OF	OF <b>croissir</b>	1398	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	HDANE
<i>cuisse</i> ( <i>cuisse</i> )	n	armour for protecting the front part of the thighs	OF	OF <b>cuisseaux</b>	c1330	1	Other use. Historica l	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK

<i>déad (dead)</i>	adj	dead	OE	OE <b>déad</b>		352	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	adjective	LBRUT SORFEO
<i>ded (death)</i>	n	death	OE	OE <b>deoth</b>		101	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death		KHORN C LBRUT
<i>dedli (deadly)</i>	adv	deadly	OE	OE derivative < <b>déad</b> + <b>-lice</b>		1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	adverb	LBRUT
<i>defend (defend)</i>	v	to defend	AN	AN <b>defender,</b> <b>defendre</b>	c1250	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	defensive	SGGK
<i>defens (defence)</i>	n	defense	AN	AN <b>defens</b>	?a1325	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	defensive		SORFEO
<i>die (die)</i>	v	to die	ME	ME <b>dēzen, dēghen</b>	c1135	328	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	KHORN LBRUT
<i>dinten (dint)</i>	v	to strike with a weapon	ME	ME <b>dynt</b>		52	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>doughti (doughty)</i>	adj	Doughty, brave, strong in combat	OE	OE <b>dihtig</b>		11	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	adjective		LBRUT
<i>douthe (douth)</i>	n	army, host	OE	OE <b>dugað</b>		89	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT SGGK
<i>draz (draw)</i>	v	to draw out a sword	OE	OE <b>drag</b>		10	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	verb		SGGK SORFEO
<i>dreng (dreng)</i>	n	Free tenant, partly warrior, partly servant	ON	ON <b>drengr</b> >OE <b>dreng</b>	a1000	31	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	freedom	individual		HDANE LBRUT
<i>drepen (drepe)</i>	v	to strike, kill	OE	OE <b>drepan</b>		4	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	HDANE

<i>driht (driht)</i>	n	lord	OE	OE <b>drihten</b>		7	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		LBRUT
<i>drihtliche (drihtly)</i>	adv	lordly	OE	OE <b>drihten</b>		13	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	adverb		LBRUT
<i>duk (duke)</i>	n	duke	OF	OF <b>dux, ducs</b>	1129	7	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		LBRUT SGGK
<i>egge (edge)</i>	n	edge of a weapon, the weapon itself	OE	OE <b>ęcg</b>		6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT SGGK
<i>egge tole (edge tool)</i>	n	weapon with blade	OE	OE compound < <b>ęcg + tól</b>	a1375	2	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>enemi (enemy)</i>	n	enemy	OF	OF <b>enemi</b>	c1340	4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	individual		KHORN SGGK
<i>erl (earl)</i>	n	Earl, nobleman, count	OE	OE <b>eorl</b>		255	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE LBRUT SORFEO
<i>erldom (earldom)</i>	n	realm, county shire	OE	OE derivative < <b>eorl + -dom</b>		6	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	location	noun		HDANE LBRUT
<i>ethel (ethel)</i>	n	Noble, chieftain warrior	OE	OE <b>eðel</b>		39	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		LBRUT SGGK
<i>fallen (fall)</i>	v	to kill, fell	OE	OE <b>fellan</b>		39	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT SGGK
<i>faucon (falcon)</i>	n	falcon, hawk	OF	OF <b>faucon, falcun</b>	a1250	3	In current use	HTE	authority	insignia / symbol	noun		SORFEO
<i>feied (feied)</i>	adj	made an enemy, put at enmity	OE	OE <b>gefāh</b>		7	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	hostility	adjective		LBRUT
<i>felde (field)</i>	n	battlefield	OE	OE <b>feld</b>		8	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	noun		KHORN

<i>fell (fell)</i>	v	to fall in battle, to die	OE	OE <b>feallan</b>		124	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	KHORN LBRUT
<i>fell (fell)</i>	adj	deadly, mortal, fatal	AN	AN > OF <b>fel</b>	c1300	6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	adjective	SGGK
<i>fend (fiend)</i>	n	fiend	OE	OE <b>féond</b>		36	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	individual		HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>feng (fang)</i>	v	to capture, conquer	OE	OE <b>fón</b>		11	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		LBRUT
<i>feondliche (fiendly)</i>	adv	in a fiendish manner	OE	OE derivative < <b>féond + -lic</b>		49	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	adverb		LBRUT
<i>feondscipe (fiendship)</i>	n	enmity, hostility	OE	OE derivative < <b>féond + scipe</b>		2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	noun		LBRUT
<i>ferd (ferd)</i>	n	Military expedition, army	OE	OE <b>fýrd</b>		377	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		HDANE LBRU
<i>ferē (ferē)</i>	n	fellow soldier	OE	OE <b>gefēra</b>		50	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		KHORN C
<i>fight (fight)</i>	n	fight	OE	OE <b>feoht</b>		11	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		HDANE KHORN SGGK
<i>fight (fight)</i>	v	to fight	OE	OE <b>feohtan</b>		421	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	verb	noun		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>fighting (fighting)</i>	n	fighting	OE	OE derivative < <b>feohtan + -ing</b>		2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		KHORN
<i>flan (flay)</i>	v	to flay	OE	OE <b>fléan</b>		79	In current use	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		KHORN LBRUT
<i>flemen (flemen)</i>	v	to banish, exile	OE	OE <b>flíeman</b>		32	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		LBRUT

<i>flete (fleet)</i>	n	fleet	OE	OE <b>fléot</b> (cf. OE <b>flyte</b> )		2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	sea	noun		HDANE LBRUT
<i>flon (flon)</i>	n	arrow	OE	OE <b>flán</b>		13	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT SGGK
<i>fo (foe)</i>	n	foe	OE	OE <b>fag</b>		34	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	individual		HDANE LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>fordon (fordo)</i>	v	To destroy, annihilate	OE	OE derivative < <b>for</b> + <b>-dón</b>		43	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT
<i>forsnes (forceness)</i>	n	Force, strength	ME	ME derivative < OF <b>force</b> + ME <b>-nesse</b>	c1400	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	power	noun		SGGK
<i>freedom (freedom)</i>	n	freedom	OE	OE <b>frēo</b>		2	In current use	HTE	authority	freedom	noun		LBRUT
<i>free (free)</i>	adj	free	OE	OE <b>frēo</b>		21	In current use	HTE	authority	freedom	adjective		LBRUT
<i>free (free)</i>	v	to set free	OE	OE <b>frēan</b>		35	In current use	HTE	authority	freedom	verb		LBRUT
<i>freely (freely)</i>	adv	freely	OE	OE derivative <b>frēo</b> + <b>lice</b>		15	In current use	HTE	authority	freedom	adverb		LBRUT
<i>freli (freely)</i>	adj	freeborn	OE	OE derivative <b>frēo</b> + <b>lic</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	freedom	adjective		LBRUT
<i>freoscip(e) (freeship)</i>	n	freedom	OE	OE derivative <b>frēo</b> + <b>scipe</b>		5	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	freedom	noun		LBRUT
<i>frið (frið)</i>	n	Frith, peace	OE	OE <b>frið</b>		37	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		LBRUT
<i>frushen (frush)</i>	v	to smash	OF	OF <b>fruissier</b> , <b>froisier</b>	c1300	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	HDANE
<i>gadeling (gadeling)</i>	n	comrade	OE	OE <b>gædeling</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT

<i>garysoun</i> ( <i>garrison</i> )	n	garrison	OF	OF <b>garison</b>	1297	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	defensive		SGGK
<i>garyte</i> ( <i>garret</i> )	n	Watchtower, garret	OF	OF <b>garite</b>	1340	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	defensive		SGGK
<i>gateward</i> ( <i>gateward</i> )	n	gate keeper	OE	OE compound < <b>geat + weard</b>		3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		KHORN
<i>gere</i> ( <i>gear</i> )	n	gear	ON	ON <b>gervi, gørvi</b> (probably)	c1200	14	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	noun		HDANE LBRUT
<i>gered</i> ( <i>geared</i> )	adj	armed, equipped	ME	ME derivative <ON <b>gera + OE -ed</b>		39	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	adjective		LBRUT SGGK
<i>gile</i> ( <i>guile</i> )	n	treachery	OF	OF <b>guile</b>	?c1225	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	noun		SORFEO
<i>ginge</i> ( <i>ging</i> )	n	army	OE	OE <b>genge</b>		19	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>gisarm(e)</i> ( <i>gisarme</i> )	n	halberd	OF	OF <b>gisarme,</b> <b>gisarne</b>	a1325	5	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE SGGK
<i>gisel</i> ( <i>yisel</i> )	n	hostage	ON	ON <b>gísl</b>	a1400	32	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT
<i>glaive</i> ( <i>glaive</i> )	n	Spear/sword	OF	OF <b>glaive</b>	1297	6	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE
<i>gome</i> ( <i>gome</i> )	n	Male, warrior	OE	OE <b>guma</b>		112	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>gouernor</i> ( <i>governor</i> )	n	governor	AN	AN <b>governor</b>	a1325	1	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>greuez</i> ( <i>greave</i> )	n	greave	OF	OF <b>greve</b>	c1400	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK

<i>grið (grith)</i>	n	peace	ON	ON <b>grið</b> < OE <b>grið</b>		139	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		LBRUT
<i>griðful (grithful)</i>	adj	peaceful	ME	ME derivative < ON <b>grið</b> + OE <b>-ful</b>		5	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	adjective		LBRUT
<i>griðien (grith)</i>	v	to make peace	ON	ON <b>grið</b> < OE <b>griðian</b>		9	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	verb		LBRUT
<i>griðli (grithly)</i>	adv	peacefully	ME	ME derivative < ON <b>grið</b> + OE <b>-lice</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	adverb		LBRUT
<i>grome (groom)</i>	n	vassal, squire	ME	ME <b>grom</b> . Perhaps unattested OE <b>gróm</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		KHORN
<i>hald, held, hold (hold)<sub>1</sub></i>	v	to rule, to control	OE	OE <b>haldan, healdan</b>		37	In current use	HTE	authority	verb	command		LBRUT SGGK
<i>hald, held, hold (hold)<sub>2</sub></i>	v	to capture, to seize	OE	OE <b>haldan, healdan</b>		4	Obsolete meaning. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>hamer (hammer)</i>	n	hammer	OE	OE <b>hamer, hamor</b>		1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE
<i>hald, held, hold (hold)<sub>3</sub></i>	v	to do battle, to engage in a fight	OE	OE <b>haldan, healdan</b>		38	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	verb	noun		LBRUT
<i>harm (harm)</i>	n	harm	OE	OE <b>hearm</b>		34	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	noun		LBRUT
<i>harm (harm)</i>	v	to harm	OE	OE <b>hearmian</b>		50	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	LBRUT
<i>hæþel (hathel)</i>	n	warrior nobleman	ME	ME alteration fo <b>apæl</b> + used as noun for adj. <b>apæl</b> in alliterative poetry		25	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		SGGK
<i>hauberk (hauberk)</i>	n	hauberk, coat of mail	OF	OF <b>hauberk</b>	1297	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>haure (haure)</i>	n	spy	OE	OE <b>hāwere</b>		5	Obsolete word.	MED	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT



							Not in HTOED							
<i>heleð (heleth)</i>	n	warrior	OE	OE <b>hæleð, heleð</b>		12	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual			LBRUT
<i>helm (helm)</i>	n	helmet	OE	OE <b>helm</b>		53	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive			HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>helmed (i-helmed)</i>	adj	protected with helmet	OE	OE derivative < <b>helm + -ed</b>		2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	adjective			LBRUT
<i>here (here)</i>	n	army	OE	OE <b>here</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop			HDANE
<i>here- (here)</i>	comp.	troop, warfare	OE	OE <b>here</b>		35	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop			LBRUT
<i>here-feng (here-feng)</i>	n	booty	OE	OE compound < <b>here + feng</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	booty	noun			LBRUT
<i>here-gume (here-gome)</i>	n	soldier	OE	OE compound < <b>here + gume</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual			LBRUT
<i>here-kempe (here-kempe)</i>	n	soldier	OE	OE compound < <b>here + kempe</b>		7	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual			LBRUT
<i>here-marke (here-mark)</i>	n	standard	OE	OE compound < <b>here + marke</b>		9	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	insignia / symbol	noun			LBRUT
<i>here-toze (heretoga)</i>	n	captain, general	OE	OE <b>here</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	rank			LBRUT
<i>herzian (harry)</i>	v	To harry, plunder, overrun with an army	OE	OE <b>hergian, herian</b>		9	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	verb			LBRUT
<i>herre (her)</i>	n	liege, lord	OE	OE <b>hearra, herra</b>		22	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	ruler			LBRUT
<i>hew (hew)</i>	v	to hew, strike with a cutting weapon	OE	OE <b>héawan</b>		40	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>hilt (hilt)</i>	n	hilt	OE	OE <b>hilt(e)</b>		5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory			LBRUT SGGK

<i>hired (hired)</i>	n	Company of retainers, army	OE	OE <b>híred</b>		154	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT
<i>hit (hit)</i>	v	to hit, strike	OE	OE <b>hittan, hyttan</b>		3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>horn (horn)</i>	n	warhorn	OE	OE <b>horn</b>		31	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		LBRUT SGGK
<i>horse (hors)</i>	n	horse	OE	OE <b>hors</b>		91	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	noun	HDANE LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>hurt (hurt)</i>	v	to hurt	OF	OF <b>hurte(r)</b>	c1175	6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	SGGK
<i>igon (i-go)</i>	v	to invade, to conquer	OE	OE derivative < <b>ge-</b> + <b>gan</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		LBRUT
<i>iron (iren)</i>	n	weapon made of iron, sword	OE	OE <b>iren</b>		3	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>keep (kepe)</i>	v	keep from harm, protect	OE	OE <b>cépan</b>		1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	defensive		SORFEO
<i>kemp (kemp)</i>	n	warrior	OE	OE <b>cempa</b>		68	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		HDANE LBRUT
<i>kille(n) (kill)</i>	v	to strike a blow	Unkn own	Unknown. Perhaps unattested OE <b>cyllan</b>	?c1225	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT SGGK
<i>kine-benche (kine-benche)</i>	n	throne	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>benc</b>	c1275	1	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	insignia / symbol	noun		LBRUT
<i>kinedom(e) (kindom)</i>	n	kingdom	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>dom</b>	c1275	31	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		LBRUT
<i>kine-helm (kine-helm)</i>	n	crown	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>helm</b>	c1275	11	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	insignia / symbol	noun		LBRUT
<i>kine-lond (kine-land)</i>	n	kingdom	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>land</b>	c1275	86	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		LBRUT

<i>kine-riche</i> ( <i>kinrik</i> )	n	kingdom	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>rice</b>	c1275	35	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		LBRUT
<i>kine-stole</i> ( <i>kine-stool</i> )	n	throne	OE	OE compound < <b>cene-</b> + <b>stól</b>	c1275	1	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	insignia / symbol	noun		LBRUT
<i>king</i> ( <i>king</i> )	n	king	OE	OE <b>cynnng</b> , <b>cinig</b> , <b>cininc</b>		2372	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>kingdom</i> ( <i>kingdom</i> )	n	kingdom	OE	OE derivative < <b>cyning</b> + <b>-dom</b>		3	In current use	HTE	authority	location	noun		SORFEO
<i>knif</i> ( <i>knife</i> )	n	A knife-like weapon	OE	OE <b>cníf</b>		25	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE KHORN SGGK
<i>knizt</i> ( <i>kinght</i> )	n	knight	OE	OE <b>cniht</b>		1084	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>knighthod</i> ( <i>knighthood</i> )	n	knighthood	OE	OE derivative < <b>cniht</b> + <b>-hád</b>		9	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	noun		KHORN
<i>knightli</i> ( <i>knightly</i> )	adv	knightly	OE	OE derivative < <b>cniht</b> + <b>-líc</b>		2	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	adverb		SGGK
<i>koker</i> ( <i>cocker</i> )	n	quiver	OE	OE <b>cocer</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		LBRUT
<i>launce</i> ( <i>lance</i> )	n	lance	OF	OF <b>launce</b>	c1290	5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>lede<sub>1</sub></i> ( <i>lede</i> )	n	army, retainers	OE	OE <b>léod</b>		375	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT
<i>lede<sub>2</sub></i> ( <i>lede</i> )	n	Knight, vassal	OE	OE <b>léod</b>		15	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		LBRUT SGGK

<i>leden (lead)</i>	v	to command, lead, rule	OE	OE <b>lǣdan</b>		35	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	leadership	HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>leg(g)e (liege)</i>	n	liege	OF	OF <b>lige, liege</b>	1297	2	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>legioun (legion)</i>	n	legion	AN	AN > OF <b>legion</b>	c1275	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT
<i>leien<sub>1</sub> (lay)</i>	v	To kill	OE	OE <b>leegan</b>		4	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT
<i>leien<sub>2</sub> (lie)</i>	v	to lay low, defeat, destroy	OE	OE <b>a)licgan, licgean</b>		13	Obsolete meaning	MED. HTE witho ut prefix	armed hostility	result	verb		LBRUT
<i>lord (lord)</i>	n	lord	OE	OE <b>hlaford</b>		322	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>lording (lording)</i>	n	lord	OE	OE derivative < <b>hlaford + ing</b>		6	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE
<i>lordschyp (lordship)</i>	n	lordship	OE	OE derivative < <b>hlaford + scipe</b>		1	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	noun		SGGK
<i>maister (master)</i>	n	high official, ruler, governor	Lat	Latin <b>magister</b> > OE		6	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE SORFEO
<i>mearre (mar)</i>	v	to damage, to destroy	OE	OE <b>merran</b>		9	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT SGGK
<i>meche (meche)</i>	n	sword	OE	OE <b>mēce</b>		3	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT

<i>melly</i> ( <i>mêlée</i> )	n	battle, melee	AN	AN > OF <b>mellee</b>	1341	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		SGGK
<i>met</i> ( <i>meet</i> )	v	To meet in combat, fight	OE	OE <b>metan</b>		5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	verb	noun		LBRUT
<i>morð</i> ( <i>morth</i> )	n	murder	OE	OE <b>morð</b>		11	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death		LBRUT
<i>mounture</i> ( <i>monture</i> )	n	mount	AN	AN <b>monture</b>	c1400	1	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	noun	SGGK
<i>murðen</i> ( <i>murder</i> )	v	to murder	OE	OE <b>myrðran</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	LBRUT
<i>nīðing</i> ( <i>nīðing</i> )	n	Nothing, villain	ON	ON <b>nīðingr</b>	?	11	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		KHORN LBRUT
<i>nimen</i> ( <i>nim</i> )	v	to capture	OE	OE <b>niman</b>		103	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>ord(e)</i> ( <i>ord</i> )	n	point or edge of a weapon	OE	OE <b>ord</b>		13	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		KHORN LBRUT
<i>ourecome</i> ( <i>overcome</i> )	v	to conquer, defeat	OE	OE derivative < <b>ofer + cuman</b>		42	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		LBRUT
<i>palays</i> ( <i>palace</i> )	n	palace	AN	AN > OF <b>palais</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	authority	location	noun		SGGK
<i>patrounes</i> ( <i>patron</i> )	n	patron, ruler, protector	AN	AN > OF <b>patron</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>paunce</i> ( <i>paunce</i> )	n	armor of plate or mail worn to protect the body	AN	AN <b>pance</b>	1333	2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>payttrure</i> ( <i>paytral</i> )	n	breast plate	AN	AN alteration of <b>paitrel</b>	c1400	2	Other use.	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK

							Historical						
<i>pes (peace)</i>	n	peace	AN	AN <b>pes</b>	?a1160	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		SGGK
<i>pic (pike)</i>	n	pike	OE	OE <b>pic</b>		6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT
<i>pinacle (pinacle)</i>	n	pinnacle	AN	AN <b>pinacle</b>	c1330	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>plate (plate)</i>	n	plate, piece of armour	AN	AN > OF <b>plate</b>	a1275	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>point (point)</i>	n	point or edge of a weapon	AN	AN <b>point</b>	?c1225	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>polein (poleyn)</i>	n	a separate piece of armor protecting the knee	AN	AN <b>polein</b>	1388	2	Other use. Historical	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>prince (prince)</i>	n	prince	AN	AN > OF <b>prince</b>	c1225	10	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>prisoun (prison)</i>	n	prison	AN	AN <b>prisoun</b>	c1210	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	prison		HDANE SGGK
<i>pruesse (prowess)</i>	n	prowess	AN	AN <b>pruesse</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	power	noun		KHORN
<i>pysan (pisane)</i>	n	a piece of metal or mail attached to the helmet extending over the neck and upper breast	Lat	Lat. <b>pissane</b>	1345	1	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>quarcerne (quartern)</i>	n	prison	Lat	Latin <b>carcer</b> > OE		2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	prison		LBRUT

<i>quecchen</i> ( <i>quetch</i> )	v	to brandish	OE	OE <b>cweccan</b>		6	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	verb		LBRUT
<i>quellen</i> ( <i>quell</i> )	v	to kill	OE	OE <b>cwellan</b>		139	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>rasour(e)</i> ( <i>razor</i> )	n	razor	AN	AN > OF <b>rasor</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>regne (reign)</i>	n	reign	AN	AN > OF <b>reigne</b>	a1300	1	In current use	HTE	authority	location	noun		KHORN SORFEO
<i>regne (reign)</i>	v	to reign	AN	AN <b>regner</b>	c1300	3	In current use	HTE	authority	verb	command		KHORN
<i>rein (rein)</i>	n	rein	AN	AN <b>raine</b>	1297	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	part / accessory	SGGK
<i>remen</i> ( <i>remen</i> )	v	to rush into battle	Unkn own	Unknown. Only in LBRUT. Maybe textual variant of <b>ræsan</b>		11	Obsolete word	MED	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>reppen</i> ( <i>reap</i> )	v	to slash, to tear	OE	OE <b>ripan</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>rescoue</i> ( <i>rescue</i> )	v	to rescue	OF	OF <b>rescouer</b>	c1300	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	rescuing	SGGK
<i>reven (reave)</i>	v	to reave, plunder	OE	OE <b>reafian</b>		5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	verb		LBRUT
<i>reving</i> ( <i>reaving</i> )	n	plunder	OE	OE derivative < <b>reafian + ing</b>		3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	noun		LBRUT
<i>rewarde</i> ( <i>reward</i> )	n	reward	AN	AN <b>rewarde</b>	1340	4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	booty	noun		SGGK
<i>rial (rial)</i>	adj	royal	AN	AN <b>rial</b>	c1330	1	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	adjective		SGGK

<i>rialli (rially)</i>	adv	royalty	ME	ME derivative < AN <b>rial</b> + OE <b>-ly</b>	a1387	1	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	adverb		SGGK
<i>rialm (rialm)</i>	n	realm	AN	AN variant of <b>realm</b>	c1400	2	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		SGGK
<i>riche (riche)</i>	n	kingdom	OE	OE <b>ric</b>		10	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		HDANE KHORN
<i>richedom (richedom)</i>	n	kingdom	OE	OE derivative < <b>ric</b> + <b>dom</b>		12	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	location	noun		LBRUT
<i>rimen (rime)</i>	v	to take (a territory)	OE	OE <b>rȳman</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>rink (rink)</i>	n	warrior	OE	OE <b>rink</b>		12	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT SGGK
<i>rix (rix)</i>	v	to rule	OE	OE <b>ricsian</b>		9	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	verb	command		LBRUT
<i>rounci (rounci)</i>	n	horse, steed	AN	AN > OF <b>roncin</b>	c1300	1	Other use. Historical	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	noun	SGGK
<i>rushen (rush)</i>	v	to rush into battle	OE	OE <b>rāsan</b>		42	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>sabaton (sabaton)</i>	n	piece of protective armor for the upper side of the foot	OF	OF Prov. <b>sabató</b>	c1330	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		SGGK
<i>sadel (saddle)</i>	n	saddle	OE	OE <b>sadel</b>		8	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	part / accessory	SGGK
<i>saught(e) (saught)</i>	n	peace	ON	ON <b>sæht, saht</b> > OE <b>seht, seht</b>		34	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		LBRUT
<i>saught(e)nesse (saughtness)</i>	n	peace	OE	OE derivative < ON <b>seht/saht</b> + OE <b>nys</b>		10	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		LBRUT
<i>saughten (saught)</i>	v	to make peace	ON	ON <b>sæht, saht</b> > OE <b>sehtan</b>		7	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	verb		LBRUT
<i>sax (sax)</i>	n	knife	OE	OE <b>seax</b>		3	Other use. Historical	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT



<i>sayse (seize)</i>	v	to seize, capture	OF	OF <b>saisir, seisir</b>	c1290	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		HDANE
<i>scathe (scathe)</i>	n	harm, pain	ON	ON <b>skaðe</b>	?	18	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	damage	noun		HDANE LBRUT
<i>sceote (shoot)</i>	v	to shoot	OE	OE <b>scéotan</b>		17	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT SGGK
<i>sharp (sharp)</i>	adj	sharp	OE	OE <b>scearp</b>		10	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	adjective		SGGK
<i>schend (shend)</i>	v	to destroy, harm	OE	OE <b>scendan</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	HDANE
<i>scutte (scutte)</i>	n	archer	OE	OE <b>scytta</b>		1	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT
<i>seg(g)e (siege)</i>	n	siege	OF	OF <b>sege, siege, seige</b>	?c1225	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		SGGK
<i>sergeaunt (sergeant)</i>	n	sergeant	OF	OF <b>segent, serjant</b>	c1200	8	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	rank		HDANE
<i>seynt (ceint)</i>	n	sach, belt for the sword	OF	OF <b>ceint</b>	a1350	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		SGGK
<i>shaft (shaft)</i>	n	shaft	OE	OE <b>sceaft</b>		20	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		LBRUT SGGK
<i>sheld (shield)</i>	n	shield	OE	OE <b>sceld, scild, scyld</b>		113	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>shelden (shield)</i>	v	to shield, to protect	OE	OE <b>scildan</b>		8	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	defensive	HDANE LBRUT

<i>sheldtrom</i> ( <i>sheltron</i> )	n	army	OE	OE compound < <b>scild + truma,</b> <b>scyld + truma</b>		5	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT SORFEO
<i>ship</i> ( <i>ship</i> )	n	ship	OE	OE <b>scip, scyp</b>		80	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	sea	noun		KHORN LBRUT
<i>shriden</i> ( <i>shriden</i> )	v	to gear up, to dress with armour	OE	OE <b>scrýdan</b>		9	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	equipment	verb		LBRUT
<i>shroud</i> ( <i>shroud</i> )	n	garment, armour	OE	OE <b>scrúd</b>		15	Obsolete meaning	MED	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		LBRUT
<i>sibba</i> ( <i>sibb</i> )	n	peace between rulers	OE	OE <b>sibb</b>		20	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		KHORN LBRUT
<i>sithe</i> ( <i>scythe</i> )	n	scythe	OE	OE <b>síðe</b>		3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE
<i>skirmish</i> ( <i>skirmich</i> )	v	to skirmish	OF	OF <b>eskirmir,</b> <b>eskermir,</b> <b>eschermir</b>	?c1225	2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>slaught</i> ( <i>slaguter</i> )	n	slaughter	ME	ME <b>slaht</b>	a1225	14	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death		LBRUT
<i>slen</i> ( <i>slay</i> )	v	to slay	OE	OE <b>sléan</b>		334	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>slen</i> ( <i>slay</i> )	v	to set up a tent	OE	OE <b>sléan</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	location	verb		LBRUT
<i>smerte</i> ( <i>smart</i> )	n	physical pain	ME	ME <b>smeorte</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	noun		HDANE KHORN
<i>smerten</i> ( <i>Smart</i> )	v	to cause physical pain, hurt	OE	OE <b>smeortan</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	HDANE KHORN

<i>smite (smite)</i>	n	smite, blow of a weapon	ME	ME conversion < OE <b>smitan</b>		4	Other use. Archaic	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		LBRUT
<i>smīten (smite)</i>	v	to smite, to deal a blow	OE	OE <b>smitan</b>		109	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT SGGK
<i>sned (sned)</i>	n	shaft of a scythe	OE	OE <b>snæd</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT
<i>soverain (sovereign)</i>	n	sovereign	OF	OF <b>soverain, souverain</b>	c1290	1	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		SGGK
<i>sparen (spare)</i>	v	to spare, to leave someone unhurt	OE	OE <b>sparian</b>		3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	verb		LBRUT
<i>sper(e) (spear)</i>	n	spear	OE	OE <b>spere</b>		79	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE KHORN LBRUT
<i>spillen (spill)</i>	v	to slay, to kill	OE	OE <b>spillan</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death	verb	HDANE
<i>squier (squire)</i>	n	squire	OF	OF <b>esquire, escuier</b>	c1290	8	In current use	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		KHORN SGGK SORFEO
<i>stede (steed)</i>	n	steed, horse	OE	OE <b>stéda</b>		80	Other use. Poetic	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	montura	noun	HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>stel (steel)</i>	n	steel of a weapon, or the weapon itself	OE	OE <b>táli, steeli, stéli, stýle</b>		14	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		SGGK
<i>stel (steel)</i>	adj	made of steel	OE	OE <b>stýlen</b>		23	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	adjective		LBRUT
<i>strele (strele)</i>	n	arrow	OE	OE <b>stráel</b>		1	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		LBRUT

<i>strife (strife)</i>	n	strife	OF	OF <b>estrif</b>	a1225	7	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		HDANE
<i>strike (strike)</i>	n	strike, blow of a weapon	ME	ME conversion < OE <b>strícan</b>	c1300	8	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		SGGK
<i>striken (strike)<sub>1</sub></i>	v	to strike, to attack	OE	OE <b>strícan</b>		5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	SGGK
<i>striken (strike)<sub>2</sub></i>	v	to stab	OE	OE <b>stician</b>		3	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	LBRUT
<i>sturmen (storm)</i>	v	to storm, to attack	OE	OE <b>styrman</b>		2	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>swain (swain)</i>	n	squire	ON	ON <b>sveinn</b>	a1150	65	Obsolete meaning	HTE	authority	rank	vassal		HDANE LBRUT
<i>swerd (sword)</i>	n	sword	OE	OE <b>swerd</b>		157	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>swicful (swicful)</i>	adj	treacherous	OE	OE derivative < <b>swic + ful</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	adjective		LBRUT
<i>swik(e) (swike)</i>	n	treachery	OE	OE <b>swic</b>		31	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	noun		LBRUT
<i>swike (swike)</i>	n	traitor	OE	OE <b>swica</b>		35	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	individual		HDANE LBRUT
<i>swike (swike)</i>	v	to betray	OE	OE <b>swícan</b>		56	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	verb		HDANE KHORN LBRUT
<i>swikel (swikel)</i>	adj	treacherous	OE	OE <b>swicol</b>		19	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	adjective		HDANE LBRUT
<i>swingen (swing)</i>	v	to swing, to deal a blow	OE	OE <b>swingan</b>		15	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>swipe (swipe)</i>	n	strike, blow of a weapon	OE	OE <b>swipu, swypu</b>		4	Obsolete word.	MED	armed hostility	tactical operations	offensive		LBRUT

							Not in HTOED						
<i>swipen</i> ( <i>swipe</i> )	v	to strike, to attack	OE	OE <b>swippan</b>		9	Obsolete word. Not in HTOED	MED	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	LBRUT
<i>tabernacle</i> ( <i>tabernacle</i> )	n	tabernacle	OF	OF <b>tabernacle</b> > Lat. <b>tabernaculum</b>	1297	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	camp		SORFEO
<i>talevace</i> ( <i>talevace</i> )	n	round shield	OF	OF <b>talevas, talvas</b>	c1300	1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		HDANE
<i>teld</i> ( <i>teld</i> )	n	tent	OE	OE <b>teld</b>		30	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	part / accessory		LBRUT
<i>telden</i> ( <i>teld</i> )	v	to set up a tent	OE	OE <b>teldian</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	verb		LBRUT
<i>thein</i> ( <i>thane</i> )	n	thane	OE	OE <b>þein</b>		106	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		HDANE LBRUT
<i>thral</i> ( <i>thral</i> )	n	slave	ON	ON <b>þrǣll</b> > OE <b>þrǣl</b>		4	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	rank	slave		KHORN LBRUT
<i>thral</i> ( <i>thral</i> )	v	to enslave	ME	ME conversion < OE <b>þrǣl</b>	c1275	2	Other use. Historical	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		LBRUT
<i>threpe</i> ( <i>threap</i> )	n	strife	OE	OE <b>þréap</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		SGGK
<i>thringe</i> ( <i>thring</i> )	n	the thick of battle, melee	OE	OE <b>geþring</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	noun		LBRUT
<i>þrum</i> ( <i>thrum</i> )	n	Army, band of soldiers	OE	OE <b>þrymm</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		LBRUT
<i>þurle(n)</i> ( <i>thirl</i> )	v	to pierce	OE	OE <b>þirlian</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	LBRUT
<i>tour</i> ( <i>tower</i> )	n	tower	Lat	Lat. <b>turris</b> > OE <b>torr</b>		120	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	location	part / accessory		LBRUT SGGK SORFEO

<i>traitour</i> ( <i>traitor</i> )	n	traitor	OF	OF <b>traitor</b>	?c1225	6	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	individual		HDANE KHORN SGGK
<i>trecherie</i> ( <i>treacherie</i> )	n	treachery	OF	OF <b>trecherie, tricherie</b>	?c1225	5	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	noun		HDANE SGGK SORFEO
<i>treisoun</i> ( <i>treason</i> )	n	treason	AN	AN <b>treysoun, tresun, treson</b>	?c1225	4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	treason	noun		HDANE SGGK
<i>treue</i> ( <i>truce</i> )	n	truce	OE	OE <b>tréwa</b>		1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	peace	noun		SGGK
<i>trume</i> ( <i>trume</i> )	n	troop	OE	OE <b>truma</b>		9	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	troop		HDANE LBRUT
<i>underfong</i> ( <i>underfong</i> )	v	to entrap, overcome	ME	ME derivative < <b>under + fang</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		KHORN
<i>unwine</i> ( <i>unwine</i> )	n	enemy	OE	OE <b>unwine</b>		2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		LBRUT
<i>vengen</i> ( <i>venge</i> )	v	to take vengeance	OF	OF <b>vengier, venger</b>	1303	1	Other use. Archaic	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		SGGK
<i>vileini</i> ( <i>villainy</i> )	n	villainy	AN	AN <b>vile(i)nie, vilainye, vilanie</b>	?c1225	3	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	noun		SGGK
<i>vileinous</i> ( <i>villainous</i> )	adj	villainous	OF	OF <b>villeneus</b>	?a1366	1	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	hostility	adjective		SGGK
<i>waggen</i> ( <i>wag</i> )	v	brandish a weapon	OE	OE <b>wagian</b>		1	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	offensive	HDANE
<i>wal</i> ( <i>wal</i> ) <sub>1</sub>	n	death, slaughter	OE	OE <b>wæl</b>		65	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	damage	death		LBRUT
<i>wal</i> ( <i>wall</i> ) <sub>2</sub>	n	wall, defensive structure	OE	OE <b>weal</b> < Lat. <b>vallum</b>		76	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	location	part / accessory		KHORN LBRUT
<i>warytre</i> ( <i>warytre</i> )	n	gibbet	OE	OE compound < <b>wearg + trēow</b>		11	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	punishment	noun		LBRUT
<i>wede</i> ( <i>wede</i> )	n	armour, garment	OE	OE <b>wæde</b>		42	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	defensive		LBRUT

<i>welden</i> ( <i>wield</i> )	v	to wield, to brandish	OE	OE mix of <b>wealdan</b> + <b>wieldan</b>		9	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	verb		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>welden</i> ( <i>wield</i> )	v	to wield, to rule	OE	OE mix of <b>wealdan</b> + <b>wieldan</b>		3	In current use	HTE	authority	verb	command		HDANE KHORN LBRUT SGGK
<i>welden</i> ( <i>wield</i> )	v	to conquer	OE	OE <b>onwealdan</b>		82	Obsolete word	MED. HTE witho ut prefix	armed hostility	result	verb		LBRUT
<i>welden</i> ( <i>wield</i> )	v	to command troops	OE	OE mix of <b>wealdan</b> + <b>wieldan</b>		2	Obsolete meaning	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	leadership	LBRUT
<i>weldende</i> ( <i>waldend</i> )	n	ruler, lord	OE	OE derivative < <b>weald</b> + <b>end</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	rank	ruler		LBRUT
<i>wepen</i> ( <i>weapon</i> )	n	weapon	OE	OE <b>wáepn</b>		128	Other use. Historica l	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	offensive		HDANE LBRUT
<i>wepen</i> ( <i>weapon</i> )	v	to arm, to hold a weapon	OE	OE <b>wáepnian</b>		24	Other use. Historica l	HTE	armed hostility	equipment	verb		LBRUT
<i>werre</i> ( <i>war</i> )	n	war	OF	OF ONF <b>werre</b>		13	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		LBRUT SGGK
<i>werren</i> ( <i>war</i> )	v	to wage war	ME	ME conversion < OF <b>werre</b>		2	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	verb	noun		SGGK
<i>wi</i> ( <i>wi</i> )	n	battle	OE	OE <b>wíg</b>		8	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		LBRUT
<i>win</i> ( <i>win</i> )	n	conflict, battle	OE	OE <b>winn</b>		3	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	noun / synonym	noun		LBRUT
<i>win</i> ( <i>nen</i> ) ( <i>win</i> )	v	to conquer, to defeat, to subdue, to win a battle	OE	OE <b>winnan</b>		138	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	result	verb		HDANE KHORN LBRUT

													SGGK
<i>witen (wite)</i>	v	to defend	OE	OE <b>witan</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	defensive	SORFEO
<i>wound (wound)</i>	n	wound	OE	OE <b>wund</b>		18	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound		HDANE LBRUT SGGK SORFEO
<i>wreche (wreche)</i>	n	revenge	ME	ME <b>wreche</b> . Perhaps OE <b>wrǣc</b>		10	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	punishment	noun		HDANE KHORN LBRUT
<i>wrechen (wreak)</i>	v	to take vengeance	OE	OE <b>wrecan</b>		49	In current use	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		LBRUT
<i>wrechen (wreak)</i>	v	to banish, to drive out	OE	OE <b>wrecan</b>		26	Obsolete word	HTE	authority	punishment	verb		HDANE LBRUT
<i>wreier (wrayer)</i>	n	traitor	OE	OE <b>wrǣgere</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	treason	individual		HDANE
<i>wrestlen (wrestle)</i>	v	to engage in combat, to wrestle	OE	OE <b>wrǣstlian</b>		4	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	verb	noun		LBRUT
<i>wunden (wound)</i>	v	to wound, harm	OE	OE <b>wundian</b>		26	In current use	HTE	armed hostility	damage	wound	verb	HDANE LBRUT SGGK
<i>wye (wye)</i>	n	warrior	OE	OE <b>wiga</b>		41	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	armed forces	individual		SGGK
<i>yemen (yeme)</i>	v	to protect	OE	OE <b>gíeman</b>		1	Obsolete word	HTE	armed hostility	tactical operations	verb	defensive	LBRUT



Annex III – Results arranged in hypersemes

III.1. War-related types in [ARMED HOSTILITIES] in Old English

[ARMED HOSTILITY]		WORD CLASS				LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN				CURRENTNESS			
240		adj	adv	n	v	OE	ON	Lat	Unknown origin	In current use	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete word	Other uses
<b>[noun]</b>	<b>19</b>												
[noun]	19	0	0	19	0	19	0	0	0	1	1	17	0
<b>[verb]</b>	<b>5</b>												
[verb]	5	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	1	1	3	0
<b>armed forces</b>	<b>47</b>												
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
individual	29	0	0	29	0	28	1	0	0	4	1	22	2
troop	17	0	0	17	0	17	0	0	0	0	1	16	0
<b>at sea</b>	<b>15</b>												
pirate	6	0	0	9	0	9	0	0	0	2	0	5	2
vessel	9	0	0	6	0	5	1	0	0	3	0	3	0
<b>damage</b>	<b>44</b>												
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0
death	37												
[noun]	13	0	0	12	1	13	0	0	0	1	1	11	0
[verb]	22	0	0	0	22	22	0	0	0	5	2	14	1
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

	individual	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	wound	5													
	[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	[verb]	3	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0
	[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<b>equipment</b>		<b>44</b>													
	[noun]	2	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
	[verb]	4	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0
	defensive	12	0	0	12	0	12	0	0	0	2	3	5	2	0
	mount	5	0	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0
	offensive	18	0	0	18	0	18	0	0	0	7	2	8	1	0
	part / accessory	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0
<b>hostility</b>		<b>4</b>													
	[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
	[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<b>insignia / symbol</b>		<b>5</b>													
	[noun]	5	0	0	5	0	4	0	1	0	0	1	4	0	0
<b>location</b>		<b>6</b>													
	camp	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	defensive	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
	part / accessory	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
<b>peace</b>		<b>3</b>													
	[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0
<b>result</b>		<b>8</b>													
	[noun]	4	0	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0

[verb]	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
[adjective]	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
<b>spoils</b>	<b>1</b>												
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<b>tactical operations</b>	<b>36</b>												
command	1												
[verb]	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
defensive	14												
[noun]	5	0	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	3	1
[verb]	9	0	0	0	9	9	0	0	0	3	0	6	0
offensive	15												
[noun]	6	0	0	6	0	6	0	0	0	0	1	5	0
[verb]	9	0	0	0	9	9	0	0	0	4	0	5	0
escape	6												
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
[verb]	5	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	1	1	3	0
<b>treason</b>	<b>5</b>												
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
[verb]	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
individual	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>172</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>238</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>10</b>

### III.2. War-related types in [AUTHORITY] in Old English

[AUTHORITY]		WORD CLASS				LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN				CURRENTNESS			
47		adj	adv	n	v	OE	ON	Lat	Unknown origin	in current use	obsolete meaning	obsolete word	other uses
<b>verb</b>	<b>4</b>												
rule	3	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
command	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<b>freedom</b>	<b>3</b>												
adjective	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
individual	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
verb	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<b>insignia / symbol</b>	<b>5</b>												
[noun]	5	0	0	5	0	4	0	1	0	0	1	4	0
<b>land</b>	<b>3</b>												
[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
<b>punishment</b>	<b>5</b>												
noun	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
verb	3	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0
<b>rank</b>	<b>30</b>												
adjective	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
individual	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	ruler	21	0	0	21	0	21	0	0	0	2	1	15	3
	slave	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	vassal	5	0	0	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	4	0
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>50</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>6</b>

*III.3. War-related types in [ARMED HOSTILITIES] in Middle English*

[ARMED HOSTILITIES]		WORD CLASS				LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN							CURRENTNESS			
278		adj	adv	n	v	OE	ME	AN	OF	ON	Lat	Unknown origin	In current use	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete word	Other uses
<b>[noun]</b>	<b>12</b>															
[noun]	12	0	0	12	0	6	0	1	4	1	0	0	6	1	5	0
<b>[verb]</b>	<b>5</b>															
[verb]	5	0	0	0	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0
<b>armed forces</b>	<b>32</b>															
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
individual	18	0	0	18	0	14	1	0	1	2	0	0	2	0	14	2
troop	11	0	0	11	0	10	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	10	0
rank	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
<b>booty</b>	<b>2</b>															
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
<b>damage</b>	<b>37</b>															
[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	1
[verb]	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<b>death</b>	<b>23</b>															
[noun]	6	0	0	6	0	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	0
[verb]	14	0	0	0	14	13	1	0	0	0	0	0	6	3	5	0
[adjective]	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

	[adverb]	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	wound	9																
	[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
	[verb]	7	0	0	0	7	6	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	1	1	1	0
<b>equipment</b>		<b>79</b>																
	[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	[verb]	6	0	0	0	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	1
	[adjective]	5	5	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	0
	defensive	20	0	0	20	0	4	0	6	8	1	1	0	6	2	5	7	7
	mount	9																
	[noun]	4	0	0	4	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	1	0
	part / accessory	5	0	0	5	0	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	3
	offensive	28	0	0	28	0	21	0	2	4	1	0	0	15	2	5	6	6
	part / accessory	10	0	0	10	0	7	0	1	2	0	0	0	5	2	3	3	0
<b>hostility</b>		<b>11</b>																
	[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0
	[verb]	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
	[adjective]	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
	[adverb]	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	individual	3	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
<b>insignia / symbol</b>		<b>3</b>																
	[noun]	3	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
<b>location</b>		<b>21</b>																
	[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
	[verb]	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
	[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

camp	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0
defensive	6	0	0	6	0	1	1	1	3	0	0	0	4	1	0	1
part / accessory	6	0	0	6	0	2	0	1	2	0	1	0	5	0	1	0
prison	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
<b>peace</b>	<b>11</b>															
[noun]	7	0	0	7	0	4	0	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	5	0
[verb]	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
[adverb]	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<b>power</b>	<b>2</b>															
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
<b>result</b>	<b>9</b>															
[noun]	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
[verb]	8	0	0	0	8	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	4	0
<b>sea</b>	<b>2</b>															
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
<b>tactical operations</b>	<b>40</b>															
[verb]	31															
defensive	4	0	0	0	4	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0
leadership	4	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	1	0	0
rescuing	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
offensive	22	0	0	0	22	15	1	0	4	0	0	2	9	5	7	1
defensive	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
offensive	7	0	0	7	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	1	3	2	1	1
<b>treason</b>	<b>12</b>															



[noun]	4	0	0	4	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	1	0
[verb]	3	0	0	0	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
[adjective]	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
individual	3	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>278</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>178</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>25</b>

III.4. War-related types in [AUTHORITY] in Middle English

[AUTHORITY]		WORD CLASS				LANGUAGE OF ORIGIN							CURRENTNESS			
74		adj	adv	n	v	OE	ME	AN	OF	ON	Lat	Unknown origin	In current use	Obsolete meaning	Obsolete word	Other uses
<b>[noun]</b>	<b>2</b>															
appointing	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
command	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<b>[verb]</b>	<b>6</b>															
appointing	2	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
command	4	0	0	0	4	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0
<b>freedom</b>	<b>8</b>															
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
[verb]	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
[adjective]	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
[adverb]	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
individual	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
<b>insignia / symbol</b>	<b>5</b>															
[noun]	5	0	0	5	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	3	0
<b>location</b>	<b>10</b>															
[noun]	10	0	0	10	0	7	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	0	6	1
<b>punishment</b>	<b>8</b>															
[noun]	2	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
[verb]	6	0	0	0	6	4	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	2	2

<b>rank</b>	<b>35</b>																
[noun]	4	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	
[adjective]	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
[adverb]	3	0	3	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	
military	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	
individual	25																
ruler	18	0	0	18	0	9	0	3	5	0	1	0	7	3	4	4	
slave	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	
vassal	6	0	0	6	0	3	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>0</b>	