

**HISTORY OF  
ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE:  
COURSE OF  
LECTURES**

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**ALCHEVSK  
2020**

**В.П. КАТКОВА**

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ  
ЛУГАНСКОЙ НАРОДНОЙ РЕСПУБЛИКИ  
ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ  
ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ  
«ДОНБАССКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ ТЕХНИЧЕСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

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**HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Курс лекций

*Рекомендовано Ученым советом ГОУ ВПО ЛНР «ДонГТУ»*

Алчевск  
2020

УДК 811.11  
ББК 81.2 Англ  
К29

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*Рекомендовано Ученым советом ГОУ ВПО ЛНР «ДонГТУ»  
(Протокол № 7 от 26.02.2020)*

**Каткова В. П.**

К29 History of English Language : курс лекций / В. П. Каткова. — Алчевск : ГОУ ВПО ЛНР «ДонГТУ», 2020. — 103 с.

В курсе лекций изложены следующие вопросы: формирование системы английского языка в древнеанглийский период, среднеанглийский и новоанглийский период. Кроме того, представлен ряд таблиц, которые отражают путь формирования фонетической, лексической, морфологической, и грамматической и синтаксической системы английского языка.

Курс лекций предназначен для студентов-филологов, студентов-лингвистов, магистрантов и аспирантов, работающих по направлению «Лингвистика» и «Филология».

УДК 811.11  
ББК 81.2 Англ

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## ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Курс лекций предназначен для студентов языковых вузов, изучающих курс истории английского языка. Лекционный курс составлен с учетом требований изучаемой дисциплины и учебных часов, а также в соответствии с рабочей учебной программой дисциплины.

Главная цель курса лекций ознакомить студентов-филологов и студентов-лингвистов с основными этапами развития и становления английского языка. Кроме того, предусматривается формирование устойчивых знаний по следующим темам: основные вехи развития английского языка; фонетическая система английского языка в хронологической перспективе; этимология английского вокабуляра с учетом исторических событий, происходящих на территории современной Великобритании и т.д.

Курс «История первого иностранного языка» (английский язык) включает 9 лекций, которые охватывают проблемы формирования фонетической, морфологической, лексической, грамматической и синтаксической системы английского языка в хронологической перспективе.

Каждая лекция заканчивается списком вопросов для обсуждения и списком литературы обязательной для прочтения и конспектирования. В конце курса представлены таблицы, которые иллюстрируют изменения в фонетике, морфологии и грамматике английского языка, при этом учтены этапы его формирования.

## OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

### LECTURE 1

***1. The aims of studying the history of English language. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to studying the language. The concept of 'language change'.***

Any language can be considered from different angles. In studying Modern English we regard the language as fixed in time and describe each linguistic level – phonetics, grammar or lexis – synchronically, taking no account of the origin of present-day features. When considered diachronically, every linguistic fact is interpreted as a stage or step in the never-ending evolution of language. In practice, however, the contrast between diachronic and synchronic study is not so marked as in theory.

Through learning the history of the English language the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical. So, one of the aims is to provide the student with a knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present-day English. For example, through centuries writing and spelling was changing in English. At the time when Latin letters were first used in Britain (7<sup>th</sup> c.) writing was phonetic: the letters stood for the same sound. After the introduction of printing (15<sup>th</sup> c.) the written form of the word became fixed, while the sounds continued to change (knight was [knix't]). Another important aim of this course is of a more theoretical nature. While tracing the evolution of the English language through time, the student will be confronted with a number of theoretical questions such as the relationship between statics and dynamics in language, the role of linguistic and extralinguistic factors and so on. These problems may be considered on a theoretical plane within the scope of general linguistics. In describing the evolution of English, they will be discussed in respect of concrete linguistic facts, which will ensure a better understanding of these facts and will demonstrate the application of general principles to language material. One more aim of this course is to provide the student of English with a wider philological outlook. The history of the English language shows the place of English in the linguistic world.

## 2. Concept of 'language change'.

One can distinguish three main types of difference in language: geographical, social and temporal. Language changes imply temporal differences, which become apparent if the same elements or parts of the language are compared at successive historical stages; they are transformations of the same units in time which can be registered as distinct steps in their evolution. For example, the OE form of the Past tense pl Ind. Mood of the verb to *find* – *fundon* became *founden* [fu:ndən] in the 12<sup>th</sup> -13<sup>th</sup> c. and *found* in Mod E. All these changes can be defined as structural or intralinguistic as they belong to the language system. The concept of language change is not limited to internal, structural changes. It also includes temporal differences in the position of the given unit in language space, that is the extent of its spread in the functional varieties of the language. A new feature – a word, a form, a sound – can be recognized as a linguistic change only after it has been accepted for general use in most varieties of the language or in its main variety — the Literary Standard. Most linguistic changes involve some kind of substitution and can therefore be called replacements. They are subdivided into different types or patterns. A simple replacement occurs when a new unit merely takes the place of the old one, e.g. in the word *but*, *feet* the vowels [u] and [e:] have been replaced by [ʌ] and [i:]. Replacements can also be found in the plane of content; they are shifts of meaning in words which have survived from the early periods of history, e.g. *feoh* [feox] had the meaning 'cattle', 'property', its modern descendant is *fee*. Most linguistic changes, however, both in the language system and language space, have a more complicated pattern. Two or more units may fall together and thus may be replaced by one unit, or, vice versa, two distinct units may take the place of one. These types of replacement are defined as *merging* and *splitting*. The modern Common case of nouns is the result of the merging of three OE cases — Nom., Gen. and Acc. Many instances of splitting can be found in the history of English sounds, e.g. the consonant [k] has split into two phonemes [k] and [tʃ]. Linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual. They proceed in imperceptible steps unnoticed by the speakers. The slow rate of linguistic change is seen in the gradual

spread of new features in language space. It is important to note that different parts or levels of language develop at different rates.

It is often said that vocabulary of a language can change very rapidly. This is true only if we compare lexical changes with changes at other linguistic levels, e.g. grammatical. Lexical changes are quite conspicuous and easy to observe, since new items spring into being before our very eyes, though, as a matter of fact, they rarely amount to more than isolated words or groups of words. The system of phonemes cannot be subjected to sudden or rapid changes since it must preserve the oppositions between the phonemes required for the distinction of morphemes. Likewise, the grammatical system is very slow to change. Being the most abstract of linguistic levels it must provide stable formal devices for arranging words into classes and for connecting them into phrases and sentences.

### **The causes of language change.**

Different schools have different answers. In the 19<sup>th</sup> c. the representatives of the romantic trend thought that the history of I-E and esp. of Germanic languages shows their degradation and corruption. Most of Germanic languages lost their inflections, declensions and others. Naturalists thought that any language is a living organism. It is developed just like the human body (Schleicher). Psychologists attributed changes to psychology of people. Sociologists thought that linguistic changes are caused by social conditions and historical events (Meillet). Young-Grammarians school representatives thought that phonetic changes destroy the grammatical system.

### ***3. Proto-Indo-European language and comparative linguistics***

When there are no documents of language to be traced the pre-written history of any language is studied by methods of comparative linguistics. It is 200 years old. It all started with a publication of an article by Franz Bopp (1816). The talk is about the so-called I-E language. It is now well-supported with evidence from many languages that there was a language spoken by people in pre-historic times. It was given a name Proto-Indo-European. There are 2 main problems. Actually, when and where it was spoken. The time can



hardly be accurately dated. It is dated far back 10000 B.C. — 4000 B.C. In the 15<sup>th</sup> thousand B.C. I-E still existed and people spoke it. Why is it so? The most ancient languages are compared like the Hittite, Ancient Greek, Veda. It was found out that the difference between them is so much that the time period between them should be no less than 2000 years. In the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium B.C. P-I-E was dead. 10000 B.C. is the most probable time of existing P-I-E homeland. It is based upon linguistic and archeological facts.

**Linguistic facts:**

- 1) words denoting the sea (the root *mor-* denotes the water area);
- 2) names of the tress;
- 3) names of the rulers;
- 4) names of the devices for cultivating soil (the plough).

**Archeological facts:**

- 1) the crockery, the pots, the burial places;
- 2) people in power were buried with what they possessed;
- 3) tools made of stone and absence of metal;
- 4) evidences of transition from gathering food to cultivating soil;
- 5) megalithic culture. Pre-historic monuments were reconstructed with huge stones.

Marina Gimbutas writes that Indo-Europeans lived north-west of the Caucasus and north of the Caspian Sea as for Southern Urals. This result is supported by many scientists. Other locations have been proposed for I-E homeland:

- Northern Central Europe between the Vistula and the Elbe.
- Modern Turkey.

It was supported by Russians Camkelidze and Ivanov.

**What happened to Latin?**

Various migrations began. Indo-Europeans were driven from their original homeland to many parts of Europe and Asia. So P-I-E developed in different ways in the various parts of the world to each its speakers traveled. At the beginning of historical times languages that derived from it were spoken from Europe in the west to India in the east. P-I-E was the ancestor language of most of the Europe languages and many of those in South Asia.

Its descendants make up the I-E family: Italic (Italian, French, Spanish) group, Balto-Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, Bulgarian, and Ukrainian), Indo-Iranian (Modern Persian, Sanskrit, Hindi), Germanic (English, German, Dutch and Flemish).

#### ***4. Proto-Germanic language, its development from Proto-Indo-European***

Historically, all the Germanic languages originated from one ancestor language. It is called Proto-Germanic. It developed from P-I-E spoken in pre-historic times. Speaking about the date. Archeological findings provide data that I-E tribes came to Europe in 3000-2500 B.C. (Northern part of Europe). Before that time the coasts of the Baltic and the North Seas were inhabited by a different group. I-E newcomers mixed with this group and formed the tribes that later became known as Germanic tribes. The Germanic group of languages developed its specific traits during the first millennium B.C. At about this time the Germanic tribes separated from other west I-E tribes. In the course of many centuries radical developments occurred in the P-I-E spoken by those I-E tribes who lived in Denmark and origins there.

The result of these developments was that P-G became a separate language between the 15<sup>th</sup> – 10<sup>th</sup> centuries B.C. P-G was distinctive in many of its sounds, inflections, stress patterns and vocabulary. The ancient Germans moved further than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. Southern Scandinavia including Jutland peninsula is the probable homeland of P-G. It was only a spoken language. P-G was most probably spoken just before the beginning of the Christian era. The forms of P-G can only be reconstructed. This was done in the 19<sup>th</sup> century by methods of comparative linguistics. The Germans didn't lose touch with other I-E languages. They migrated and these migrations caused new contacts. This was reflected in the speech. The Germanic tribes came into contact with East European tribes, and the languages later formed the Baltic and Slavonic groups. The Germanic tribes also had contacts with Italian tribes that lived in southern Europe.

Thus, Latin language influenced the language of Germanic tribes. These contacts found reflections in the borrowings into the languages of

these nations. Most important are the borrowings into the Finnish language in the beginning of our era. The borrowings were well preserved in the Finnish language. They had the ancient type of morphological structure that can hardly be found in the forms of the verbs in the earliest documents written in Germanic languages. Suffixes and inflections are used in their full forms that were lost by the time the Germans had their first written documents. By the third and the 4<sup>th</sup> centuries suffixes and inflections had undergone the process of reduction.

### ***5. The earliest descriptions of the Germans, the ancient tribes that spoke Germanic languages***

The history is known from the writings of Greek and Roman authors. The earliest paper is written by Pytheas. He lived in the second half of the 4<sup>th</sup> century B.C. Pytheas sailed much. The description of his journeys is not preserved. But something was quoted in the papers of old historians as in Titus Livy and Polybius in the second century B.C. They provided extracts from a paper of Pytheas. It was also mentioned that Old Germanic tribes raided the Hellenic countries of south-eastern Europe, Italy and Gall. In the beginning of our era the Greek historian Strabo wrote about Germans nomads. They moved from forest to forest, built houses, and were engaged in cattle bringing. The great writer Plutarch described Germans as wild nomadic tribes who had constantly been in war. They were not interested in agriculture or in cattle bringing, but only in war. The Roman general Julius Caesar devoted several chapters to the militant Germanic tribes in his "Commentaries on the war in Gall" (1044 B.C.). Caesar fought with them on the Rhine. He took two expeditions against the Germanic tribes who wanted to get hauled on some territories. The Romans defeated the Germans in both expeditions. Caesar wrote about their military tactics, described how they prepared their attacks and so on. Caesar wrote that Germans lived in tribal unions. He also gave a detailed description of the structure of their society and peculiarities of their life.

The next great historian Pliny spent many years in the Roman provinces of Low and High Germany. He was a prominent encyclopedias. He wrote a book called "Natural History". He was the first who enumerated and

classified the military tribes. It was proved by many scientists. According to Pliny there were several Germanic tribes:

**The Vindili.** They lived in the eastern part of the territory inhabited by the Germanic tribes. They consisted of the Goths, the Burgundians and the Vandals. The Vandals first inhabited the territory between the Oder and the Vistula. Later they moved to Northern Africa through Spain. The word vandalism originated from Vandal (means Barbary).

**The Burgundians** came to the continent from the island of Bornholm. It was in the Baltic Sea. Later they moved to the west and settled in south-eastern part of France in the area called Burgundia.

**The Goths** first inhabited the lower coast of the river Vistula. Later they moved to the south and formed powerful tribal unions of Ostrogoths and Visigoths.

**The Ingvaenoes.** They lived in the north-western part of the Germanic territory. They inhabited the Jutland peninsula and the coast of the North Sea. The tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians were formed later of this group.

**The Istaevones.** They lived on the Rhine. Later they formed a very powerful tribal union of Franconians. In the early Middle Ages they were powerful group of West Germans.

**The Herminones** lived in the centre of Germany and later the German nation was formed of these tribes.

**The Hilleviones** were isolated from other Germanic tribes. They inhabited Scandinavia. Modern Scandinavian nations are the descendants of these tribes.

The Vindili spoke eastern Germanic; the Hilleviones spoke northern Germanic, the Ingvaenoes, Istaevones and Herminones — West Germanic.

The Roman historian Tacitus made a detailed description of the life and customs of ancient Germans. Tacitus was a prominent Roman historian. He himself had never been to Germany. Being a Roman senator he got information from military travelers, actions, etc. he also used papers written about the Germans before him. In the time of Tacitus there were constant arm conflicts between the Germans and Romans. Numerous attempts of the Roman generals to conquer the Germanic tribes failed. In the second half of the second century after a short period without wars they began their attacks

again. The ancient Germans had a tribal society. In the head of each tribe there was a chief who was called ‘kuning’. Some modern place-names testify to this social structure of the Germans. The whole tribe had the name of the Chief.

## ***6. Eastern Germanic, Western Germanic and Northern Germanic groups of languages***

### **East Germanic**

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4<sup>th</sup> – 6<sup>th</sup> c. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4<sup>th</sup> c. Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospel from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Parts of Ulfilas’ Gospels — a manuscript of about two hundred pages have been preserved and are kept now in Sweden. It is written on red parchment with silver and golden letters and is known as the Silver Codex. It is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English. The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in place-names, which reveal the directions of their migrations. *Bornholm* and *Burgundy* go back to the East Germanic tribe of Burgundians; *Andalusia* is derived from the tribal name *Vandals*.

### **West Germanic**

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the South. On the eve of their “great migrations” of the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> c. the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians occupied the lower basin of the Rhine. The

Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of Germany. Hence the name High Germans contrasted to Low Germans — a name applied to the West Germanic tribes in the low-lying northern areas. The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch — the language of the Low Countries and the Flemish — the language of Flanders. The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called Dutch, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, Netherlandish. About three hundred years ago the Dutch language was brought to South Africa by colonists from Southern Holland. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. This language has combined elements from the speech of English and German colonists in Africa and from the tongues of the natives. The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG).

Towards the 12<sup>th</sup> c. High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighboring tongues, esp. Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. Yiddish, an offshoot of High German, grew from the High German dialects which were adopted by numerous Jewish communities scattered over Germany in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. These dialects blended with elements of Hebrew and Slavonic and developed into a separate West Germanic language with a spoken and literary form. At the later stage of the great migrations period — in the 5<sup>th</sup> c. — a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, the Saxons, Frisians and the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the English language.

### **North Germanic**

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. They lived on the southern coast of the Scandinavian peninsula and in Northern Denmark. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation

until the 9<sup>th</sup> c. and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called *Old Norse* and *Old Scandinavian*. The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the 9<sup>th</sup> c., when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages. The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance and the relative position of the three languages altered, as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbors. For several hundred years Denmark was the most powerful of the Scandinavian kingdoms, therefore both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish. In the later Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries, Danish, and then Swedish developed into national literary languages. Norwegian was the last to develop into an independent national language. During the period of Danish dominance Norwegian intermixed with Danish, therefore there emerged two varieties of the Norwegian tongue. In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age. In the Faroe Islands the West Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians developed into a separate language called Faroese. It is spoken nowadays by 30000 people. Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements. Their West Scandinavian dialects, at first identical with those of Norway, eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic.

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. The aims of studying the history of English language. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to studying the language.
2. Concept of 'language change'.
3. Proto-Indo-European language and comparative linguistics
4. Proto-Germanic language, its development from Proto-Indo-European
5. The earliest descriptions of the Germans, the ancient tribes that spoke Germanic languages
6. Eastern Germanic, Western Germanic and Northern Germanic groups of languages

- East Germanic
- West Germanic
- North Germanic

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## LECTURE 2

### *1. The runic alphabet. Old English alphabet and pronunciation.*

#### **The runic alphabet**

The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet, not to be found in languages of other groups. The word *rune* originally meant 'secret', 'mystery' and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. The runes were used as letters, each symbol to indicate separate sound. This alphabet is called *futhork* after the first six letters. Runic letters are angular; straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided; this is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in hard material: stone, bone or wood. The shapes of some letters resemble those of Greek or Latin, other have not been traced to any known alphabet, and the order of the runes in the alphabet is certainly original. The number of runes in different OG languages varied. As compared to continental, the number of runes in England was larger: new runes were added as new sounds appeared in English (from 28 to 33 runes in Britain against 16 or 24 on the continent). The main use of runes was to make short inscriptions on objects, often to bestow on them some special power or magic. The two best known runic inscriptions in England are the earliest extant OE written records. One of them is an inscription on a box called the "Franks Casket", the other is a short text on a stone cross near the village of Ruthwell known as the "Ruthwell Cross".

### *2. Old English alphabet and pronunciation*

OE scribes used two kinds of letters: the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet. The bulk of the OE material is written in the Latin script. The use of Latin letters in English differed in some points from their use in Latin, for the scribes made certain modifications and additions in order to indicate OE sounds. The most interesting peculiarity of OE writing was the use of some runic characters, in the first place, the rune called "thorn" which was employed alongside the crossed *d*, *ð* to indicate [th] and [ð]. In the manuscripts one more rune was regularly used — "wynn" for the sound [w]. Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle:

every letter indicated a separate sound. This principle, however, was not always observed, even at the earliest stages of phonetic spelling. Some OE letters indicated two or more sounds, even distinct phonemes. The letters could indicate short and long sounds. In reading OE texts one should observe the following rules for letters indicating more than one sound. The letters *f*, *s* and *[th]*, *[ð]* stand for voiced fricatives between vowels and also between a vowel and a voiced consonant; otherwise they indicate corresponding voiceless fricatives. The letter *Ʒ* stands for [g] initially before back vowels, for [j] before and after front vowels, for [ɣ] between back vowels and for [gʷ] mostly when preceded by *c*: OE *daƷ* [j].

The letter *h* stands for [x] between a back vowel and a consonant and also initially before consonants and for [xʷ] next to front vowels: OE *niht* [xʷ].

The letter *n* stands for [n] in all positions except when followed by [k] or [g]; in this case it indicates [ŋ]: OE *sinƷan*.

### ***3. Common phonetic characteristics of the Germanic languages***

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic.

#### **Word Stress**

It is known that in ancient IE, prior to the separation of Germanic, there existed two ways of word accentuation: musical pitch and force stress. The position of the stress was free and movable, which means that it could fall on any syllable of the word – a root-morpheme, an affix or an ending — and could be shifted both in form-building and word-building. Both these properties of the word accent were changed in PG. Force and expiratory stress became the only type of stress used. In Early PG word stress was still as movable as in ancient IE but in Late PG its position in the word was stabilized. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable, which was usually the root of the word and sometimes the prefix; the other syllables — suffixes and endings — were unstressed. The stress could no longer move either in form-building or word-building.

#### ***4. Consonants. Proto-Germanic consonant shift***

The consonants in Germanic look ‘shifted’ as compared with the consonants of non-Germanic languages. The changes of consonants in PG were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19<sup>th</sup> c. and are often called Grimm’s Law. It is also known as the *First* or *Proto-Germanic consonant shift*. Grimm’s Law had three acts:

1) The IE voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] became Germanic voiceless fricatives [f], [th], [x]

2) IE voiced stops [b], [d], [g] became Germanic voiceless stops [p], [t], [k]

3) PIE aspirated voice stops [bh], [dh], [gh] became PG voiced stops [b], [d], [g] without aspiration.

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19<sup>th</sup> c. by a Danish scholar, Carl Verner. They are known as Verner’s Law. Verner’s Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm’s Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. According to Verner’s Law all the early PG voiceless fricatives [f, th, x] which arose under Grimm’s Law, and also [s] inherited from PIE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless. The voicing occurred in early PG at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme. The sound ‘z’ was further affected in western and northern Germanic: z→r. This process is known as *Rhotacism*. As a result of voicing by Verner’s Law there arose an interchange of consonants in the grammatical forms of the word, termed *grammatical interchange*. Part of the forms retained a voiceless fricative, while other forms – with a different position of stress in Early PG – acquired a voiced fricative. Both consonants could undergo later changes in the OG languages, but the original difference between them goes back to the time of movable word stress and PG voicing.

#### ***5. Changes in the system of vowels in the Germanic languages***

Distinctive characteristics shared by the Germanic languages can be found in the system of vowels. In all IE languages there is a system of vowel

change which is known as *ablaut*. The term is introduced by J. Grimm. “*Ab*” means reducing, “*laut*” — sound. Russian “воз” – “везу”, “братъ” – “беру”. Ablaut can also be called vowel gradation. PIE had a general ablaut system that contrasted the following vowels in the same root. A short [e] could be replaced by a long [e:], a short [o] could be replaced by a long [o:], or it could be omitted. When a syllable had a short [e] it is said to be in the “e-grade” or “full-grade”. When it had no vowel it is said to be in the “zero-grade”. The phonological conditions which controlled ablaut have been partly but not entirely explained. A key factor was the position of the stress. Ablaut was inherited by Germanic from ancient IE. The principal gradation series used in the IE languages — [e~o] — can be shown in Russian examples: *нести~ноша*. This kind of ablaut is called *qualitative*, as the vowels differ only in quality. Alternation of short and long vowels, and also alternation with a “zero” (i.e. lack of vowel) represent *quantitative* ablaut. There may be three grades of quantitative ablaut: full-grade (short vowel), lengthen grade (long vowel) and zero-grade (neutral vowel or loss of vowel).

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. The runic alphabet. Old English alphabet and pronunciation.
2. Old English alphabet and pronunciation.
3. Common phonetic characteristics of the Germanic languages.
4. Consonants. Proto-Germanic consonant shift.
5. Changes in the system of vowels in the Germanic languages.

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## LECTURE 3

### *1. Common grammar characteristics of Germanic languages*

Like other old IE languages both PG and the OG languages had a synthetic grammatical structure, which means that the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position or by auxiliary words. In the early periods of history the grammatical forms were built in the synthetic way: by means of inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion. The principal means of form-building were inflections. The inflections found in OG written records correspond to the inflections used in non-Germanic languages, having descended from the same original IE prototypes. The wide use of sound interchanges has always been a characteristic feature of the Germanic group. In various forms of the word and in words derived from one and the same root, the root-morpheme appeared as a set of variants. The consonants were relatively stable, the vowels were variable.

### *2. Simplification of word structure in Late PG. Role of stem-suffixes in the formation of declensions*

Originally, in Early PG the word consisted of three main component parts: the root, the stem-suffix and the grammatical ending. The stem-suffix was a means of word derivation, the ending — a marker of the grammatical form. In Late PG the old stem-suffixes lost their derivational force and merged with other components of the word, usually with the endings. The word was simplified: the three-morpheme structure was transformed into a two-morpheme structure. The simplification of the word structure and the loss of stem-suffixes as distinct components were caused by the heavy Germanic word stress fixed on the root. Most nouns and adjectives in PG, and also many verbs, had stem-forming suffixes; according to stem-suffixes they fell into groups, or classes: a-stems, i-stems, o-stems. This grouping accounts for the formation of different declensions in nouns and adjectives, and for some differences in the conjugation of verbs.

### ***3. Strong and weak verbs***

The terms strong and weak verbs were proposed by J. Grimm; he called the verbs strong because they had preserved the richness of form since the age of the parent-language and in this sense could be contrasted to weak verbs lacking such variety of form. From the verbs the terms were extended to noun and adjective declensions. The difference between these groups lies in the means of building the principal forms: the Present tense, The Past tense and Participle II. The strong verbs built their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings; they made use of IE ablaut with certain modifications due to phonetic changes and environment. The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, for the device used in building their principal forms is not found outside the Germanic group. They built the Past tense and Participle II by inserting a special suffix between the root and the ending.

### ***4. Vocabulary***

Until recently it was believed that the Germanic languages had a large proportion of words, which have no parallels in other groups of the IE family. Recent research, however, has revealed numerous non-Germanic parallels for words formerly regarded as specifically Germanic. It appears that Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words (or, more precisely, roots) shared by IE languages. They refer to a number of semantic spheres: natural phenomena, plants and animals, terms of kinship and so on. Words which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages; they appeared in PG or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically, they also belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home life. Also, there were some borrowing words from Latin and Celtic languages.

#### *☞ Questions for further discussion*

1. Common grammar characteristics of Germanic languages.

2. Simplification of word structure in Late PG. Role of stem-suffixes in the formation of declensions.

3. Strong and weak verbs.

4. Vocabulary.

☞ *List of literature*

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## LECTURE 4

### *1. Periodisation in the history of the English language, Old English written records.*

#### **Periodisation**

The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or rapid transformations. The commonly accepted, traditional Periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and New English (NE). The following Periodisation of English history is based on the conventional three periods; it subdivides the history of the English language into seven periods differing in linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes.

The **first period**, which may be termed Early Old English, lasts from the West Germanic invasion of Britain till the beginning of writing, that is from the 5<sup>th</sup> to the close of the 7<sup>th</sup> c. It is the stage of the tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders, which were gradually losing contacts with the related continental tongues. The tribal dialects were used for oral communication, there being no written form of English.

The **second historical period** extends from the 8<sup>th</sup> c. till the end of the 11<sup>th</sup>. The English language of that time is referred to as Old English. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects. Towards the end of the period the differences between the dialects grew and their relative position altered. They were probably equal as a medium of oral communication, while in the sphere of writing one of the dialects, West Saxon, had gained supremacy over the other dialects. The language of this period is usually described synchronically and is treated as a more or less stable system.

The **third period**, known as Early Middle English, starts after 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and covers the 12<sup>th</sup>, 13<sup>th</sup> and half of the 14<sup>th</sup> c. It was the stage of the greatest dialectal divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences — Scandinavian and French. The dialectal division of present-day English owes its origin to this period of history. Under Norman rule the official language in England was French, or rather its



variety called Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman; it was also the dominant language of literature.

The **fourth period** — from the later 14<sup>th</sup> c. till the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> — embraces the age of Chaucer, the greatest English medieval writer and forerunner of the English Renaissance. We may call it Late or Classical Middle English. It was the time of the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language and the time of literary flourishing. The main dialect used in writing and literature was the mixed dialect of London. The literary authority of other dialects was gradually overshadowed by the prestige of the London written language.

The **fifth period** is called Early New English, lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare. The first printed book in English was published by William Caxton in 1475. It was a time of great historical consequence: under the growing capitalist system the country became economically and politically unified. Caxton's English of the printed books was a sort of bridge between the London literary English of the ME period and the language of the Literary Renaissance. This period was also a time of sweeping changes at all levels, in the first place lexical and phonetic. The growth of the vocabulary was a natural reflection of the progress of culture in the new, bourgeois society.

The **sixth period** extends from the mid-17<sup>th</sup> c. to the close of the 18<sup>th</sup> c. In the history of the language it is often called “the age of normalization and correctness”, in the history of literature — the “neoclassical” age. It is essential that during the 18<sup>th</sup> c. literary English differentiated into distinct styles, which is a property of a mature literary language. The 18<sup>th</sup> c. has been called the period of “fixing the pronunciation”. The great sound shifts were over and pronunciation was being stabilized. Word usage and grammatical construction were subjected to restriction and normalization.

The English language of the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> c. represents the **seventh period** in the history of English. It is called Late New English or Modern English. The classical language of literature was strictly distinguished from the local dialects and the dialects of lower social rank. The dialects were used in oral communication and, as a rule, had no literary tradition. The 20<sup>th</sup> c. witnessed considerable intermixture of dialects. The local dialects were retreated and displaced by Standard English. The English vocabulary has

grown on an unprecedented scale reflecting the rapid progress of technology, science and culture and other multiple changes in all spheres of man's activity.

## *2. Old English written records*

Our knowledge of the OE language comes mainly from manuscripts written in Latin characters. The first English words to be written down with the help of Latin characters were personal names and place names inserted in Latin texts; then came glosses and longer textual insertions. Among the earliest insertions in Latin texts are pieces of OE poetry. Bede's HISTORIA ECCLESIASTICA GENTIS ANGLORUM (written in Latin in the 8<sup>th</sup> c.) contains an English fragment of five lines known as "Bede's Death Song" and a religious poem of nine lines, "Cadmon's Hymn". It was translated into Kentish dialect. The greatest poem of that time was BEOWULF, an epic of the 7<sup>th</sup> or 8<sup>th</sup> c. It was originally composed in the Mercian or Northumbrian dialect, but has come down to us in a 10<sup>th</sup> c. West Saxon copy. It is valued both as a source of linguistic material and as a work of art; it is the oldest poem in Germanic literature. BEOWULF is built up of several songs arranged in three chapters. It is based on old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons. The author is unknown. Religious poems paraphrase, more or less closely, the books of the Bible — GENESIS, EXODUS (written by Cadmon, probably in Northumbrian dialect).

CHRIST, FATE OF THE APOSTLES tell the life-stories of apostles and saints or deal with various subjects associated with the Gospels. OE poetry is characterized by a specific system of versification and some peculiar stylistic devices. Practically all of it is written in the OG alliterative verse: the lines are not rhymed and the number of stressed syllables being fixed. The style of OE poetry is marked by the wide use of metaphorical phrases or compounds describing the qualities or functions of the thing. OE prose is a most valuable source of information for the history of the language. The earliest samples of continuous prose are the first pages of the ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLES. It was written in West Saxon dialect. By the 10<sup>th</sup> c. the West Saxon dialect had firmly established itself as the written form of English.

### ***3. The historical background of Old English***

#### **Pre-Germanic Britain**

The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5<sup>th</sup> c. of our era. Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles must have been inhabited for at least fifty thousand years. The earliest inhabitants were the Celts. Economically and socially they were a tribal society made up of kinship groups, tribes and clans; they were engaged in agriculture and carried on trade with Celtic Gaul. In the first century B.C. Gaul was conquered by the Romans. Having occupied Gaul Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, in 55 and 54 B.C. The British Isles had long been known to the Romans as a source of valuable tin ore; Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons – to obtain tin, pearls and corn, - and also for strategic reasons, since rebels and refugees from Gaul found support among their British kinsmen. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted nearly 400 years; it came to an end in the early 5<sup>th</sup> c. In A.D. 410, the Roman troops were officially withdrawn to Rome by Constantine. This temporary withdrawal turned out to be final, for the Empire was breaking up due to internal and external causes.

#### **Germanic Settlement of Britain. Beginning of English**

Reliable evidence of that period is extremely scarce. The story of the invasion is told by Bede (673–735), a monastic scholar who wrote the first history of England, *HISTORIA ECCLESIASTICA GENTIS ANGLORUM*. According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in A.D. 449 under the leadership of two Germanic kings, Hengist and Horsa. The invaders came in multitude, in families and clans, to settle in the occupied territories. The first wave of invaders, the Jutes or the Frisians, occupied the extreme south-east: Kent and the Isle of Wight. The second wave of immigrants was largely made up of the Saxons, who had been expanding westwards across Frisia to the Rhine and to what is known as Normandy. The Saxons consolidated into a number of petty kingdoms, the largest and the most powerful of them was Wessex. Last came the Angles from the lower valley of the Elbe and southern Denmark. They made their landing on the east coast and moved up the rivers to the central part of the island. Angles founded large kingdoms which had

absorbed their weaker neighbors: East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria. The invaders certainly prevailed over the natives so far as language was concerned. After the settlement West Germanic tongues came to be spoken all over Britain with the exception of a few distant regions where Celts were in the majority: Scotland, Wales and Cornwall.

### **Events of external history between 5<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> c.**

The period from the 5<sup>th</sup> till the 11<sup>th</sup> c. (which is called Old English in the history of the language) was a transitional period from the tribal and slave-owning system to feudalism. The basic economic unit was the feudal manor, which grew its own food and carried on some small industries to cover its needs. Tribal and clan division was gradually superseded by townships and shires, which were local entities having no connection with kinship. These conditions were reflected in the development of the West Germanic tongues brought to Britain. Four of the kingdoms at various times secured superiority in the country: Kent, Northumbria and Mercia — during the Early OE, pre-written period, and Wessex — all through the period of Written OE. In the 8<sup>th</sup> c. raiders from Scandinavia (the “Danes”) made their first plundering attacks on England. The Struggle of the English against the Scandinavians lasted over 300 years, in the course of which period more than half of England was occupied by the invaders and reconquered again. The Scandinavians subdued Northumbria and East Anglia, ravaged the eastern part of Mercia, and advanced on Wessex. The ultimate effect of the Scandinavian invasions on the English language became manifest at a later date, in the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> c., when the Scandinavian element was incorporated in the central English dialects. Wessex stood at the head of the resistance. Under King Alfred of Wessex, one of the greatest figures in English history, by the peace treaty of 878 England was divided into two halves: the north-eastern half under Danish control called Danelaw and the south-western half united under the leadership of Wessex. The reconquest of Danish territories was carried on successfully by Alfred’s successors, but then the Danish raids were renewed again headed by Sweyn and Canute. The attacks were followed by demands for regular payments of large sums of money. In 1017 Canute was acknowledged as king, and England became part of a great northern empire, comprising Denmark and Norway.

On Canute's death (1035) his kingdom broke up and England regained political independence; by that time it was a single state divided into six earldoms. A most important role in the history of the English language was played by the introduction of Christianity. It gave a strong impulse to the growth of culture and learning. Monasteries were founded all over the country with monastic schools attached. Religious services and teaching were conducted in Latin. Thus due to the introduction of Christianity the English language acquired much influence from Latin.

#### ***4. Phonetic processes in Old English (the system of vowels)***

##### **Changes of stressed vowels in Early Old English**

The development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones: after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place. It may result in the splitting of phonemes and their numerical growth, which fills in the "empty boxes" of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the merging of old phonemes, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together.

##### **Independent changes. Development of monophthongs**

The PG short [a] and the long [a:], which had arisen in West and North Germanic, underwent similar alterations in Early OE: they were fronted, and in the process of fronting, they split into several sounds. The principal regular direction of the change — [a] > [æ] and [a:] > [æ:] — is often referred to as the fronting or palatalisation of [a, a:]. The other directions can be interpreted as positional deviations or restrictions to this trend: short [a] could change to [o] or [ā] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal; the preservation of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable.

##### **Development of diphthongs**

The PG diphthongs — [ei, ai, iu, eu, au] — underwent regular independent changes in Early OE; they took place in all phonetic conditions

irrespective of environment. The diphthongs with the *i*-glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in — *u* were reflected as long diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [ea:].

**Assimilative vowel changes: Breaking and Diphthongization** (see table)

The tendency to assimilative vowel change, characteristic of later PG and of the OG languages, accounts for many modifications of vowels in Early OE. Under the influence of succeeding and preceding consonants some Early OE monophthongs developed into diphthongs. If a front vowel stood before a velar consonant there developed a short glide between them, as the organs of speech prepared themselves for the transition from one sound to the other. The glide, together with the original monophthong formed a diphthong. The front vowels [i], [e] and the newly developed [æ], changed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before [h], before long (doubled) [ll] or [ll] plus another consonant, and before [r] plus other consonants, e.g.: [e] > [eo] in OE *deorc*, NE *dark*. The change is known as breaking or fracture. Breaking produced a new set of vowels in OE – the short diphthongs [ea] and [eo]; they could enter the system as counterparts of the long [ea:], [eo:], which had developed from PG prototypes. Breaking was unevenly spread among the OE dialects: it was more characteristic of West Saxon than of the Anglian dialects. Diphthongisation of vowels could also be caused by preceding consonants: a glide arose after palatal consonants as a sort of transition to the succeeding vowel. After the palatal consonants [kʰ], [skʰ] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element, e.g. OE *scæmu* > *sceamu* (NE shame). In the resulting diphthong the initial [i] or [e] must have been unstressed but later the stress shifted to the first element, which turned into the nucleus of the diphthong, to conform with the structure of OE diphthongs. This process is known as “diphthongisation after palatal consonants”.

**Palatal mutation** (see table)

Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable. The most important series of vowel mutations, shared in varying degrees by all OE languages (except Gothic), is

known as “*i*-Umlaut” or “palatal mutation”. Palatal mutation is the fronting and raising of vowels through the influence of [i] or [j] in the immediately following syllable. The vowel was fronted and made narrower so as to approach the articulation of [i]. Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions which caused palatal mutation, that is [i] or [j], had disappeared in most words by the age of writing; these sounds were weakened to [e] or were altogether lost. The labialized front vowels [y] and [y:] arose through palatal mutation from [u] and [u:], respectively, and turned into new phonemes, when the conditions that caused them had disappeared (cf. *mūs* and *mÿs*). The diphthongs [ie, ie:] were largely due to palatal mutation and became phonemic in the same way, though soon they were confused with [y, y:]. Palatal mutation led to the growth of new vowel interchanges and to the increased variability of the root-morphemes: owing to palatal mutation many related words and grammatical forms acquired new root-vowel interchanges. We find variants of morphemes with an interchange of root-vowels in the grammatical forms *mūs*, *mÿs* (NE mouse, mice), *bōc*, *bēc* (NE book, books), since the plural was originally built by adding *—iz*. (Traces of palatal mutation are preserved in many modern words and forms, e.g. *mouse – mice*, *foot – feet*, *blood – bleed*; despite later phonetic changes, the original cause of the inner change is *i*-umlaut).

### ***5 Phonetic processes in Old English (the system of consonants)***

#### **Treatment of fricatives. Hardening. Rhotacism. Voicing and Devoicing.**

After the changes under Grimm’s Law and Verner’s Law had PG had the following two sets of fricative consonants: voiceless [f, θ, x, s] and voiced [v, ð, γ, z]. In WG and in Early OE the difference between two groups was supported by new features. PG voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives while voiceless fricatives, being contrasted to them primarily as fricatives to plosives, developed new voiced allophones. The PG voiced [ð] (due to Verner’s Law) was always hardened to [d] in OE and other WG languages, e.g. Icel, *gōðr* and OE *zōd*. The two other fricatives, [v] and [γ] were hardened to [b] and [g] initially and after nasals, otherwise they remained fricatives. PG [z] underwent a phonetic modification through the

stage of [ʒ] into [r] and thus became a sonorant, which ultimately merged with the older IE [r]. This process is termed rhotacism. In the meantime or somewhat later the PG set of voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x, s] and also those of the voiced fricatives which had not turned into plosives, that is, [v] and [ɣ], were subjected to a new process of voicing and devoicing. In Early OE they became or remained voiced intervocally and between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants; they remained or became voiceless in other environments, namely, initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants. In all WG languages, at an early stage of their independent history, most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [l]. This process is known as “geminantion” or “doubling” of consonants, e.g. *fuljan* > *fyllan* (NE *fill*). The change did not affect the sonorant [r], e.g. OE *werian* (NE *wear*); nor did it operate if the consonant was preceded by a long vowel, e.g. OE *dēman*, *mētan* (NE *deem*, *meet*).

### **Velar consonants in Early Old English. Growth of New Phonemes**

The velar consonants [k, g, x, ɣ] were palatalized before a front vowel, and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. Thus in OE *cild* (NE *child*) the velar consonant [k] was softened to [kʰ] as it stood before the front vowel [i] — [kild] > [kʰild]; similarly [k] became [kʰ] in OE *spræc* (NE *speech*) after a front vowel but not in OE *sprecan* (NE *speak*).

### **Loss of consonants in some positions**

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was probably nasalized and lengthened, e.g. OHG *fimf* — OE *fif* (NE *five*). It should be also mentioned the loss of consonants in unstressed final syllables. [j] was regularly dropped in suffixes after producing various changes in the root.

**Old English consonant system** (see table).

## **6. Old English dialects**

The language spoken by the Anglo-Saxons at the time of their migration to Britain was probably more or less uniform. Over time, however, Old English developed into four major dialects: Northumbrian, spoken north



of the river Humber; Mercian, spoken in the midlands; Kentish, spoken in Kent (the southeastern part); and West Saxon, spoken in the southwest. All these dialects have direct descendants in modern England, and American regional dialects also have their roots in the dialects of Old English. Modern English spelling owes most to the Mercian dialect, since that was the dialect of London. Most OE literature is not in the Mercian dialect, however, but in the West Saxon, for from the time of King Alfred until the Conquest, Wessex dominated the rest of Anglo-Saxon England politically and culturally. Nearly all Old English poetry is in West Saxon, though it often contains spellings and vocabulary more typical of Mercian and Northumbrian — a fact that has led some scholars to speculate that much of the poetry was first composed in Mercian or Northumbrian and only later “translated” into West Saxon. Whatever the truth of the matter, West Saxon was the dominant language during the period in which most of our surviving literature was recorded.

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. Periodisation in the history of the English language, Old English written records.
2. Old English written records,
3. The historical background of Old English
  - Pre-Germanic Britain
  - Germanic Settlement of Britain. Beginning of English
  - Events of external history between 5<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> c.
4. Phonetic processes in Old English (the system of vowels).
5. Phonetic processes in Old English (the system of consonants).
6. Old English dialects.

☞ *List of literature*

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## LECTURE 5

### *1. The nominal system of Old English*

#### **The Noun**

#### **Grammatical categories. The use of cases**

The OE noun had two grammatical categories: number and case. Also, nouns distinguished three genders, but gender was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes. The category of number consisted of two members: singular and plural. The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative.

**The Nom.** can be defined as the case of the active agent, for it was the case of the subject mainly used with verbs denoting activity; the Nom. could also indicate the subject characterized by a certain quality or state; could serve as a predicative and as the case of address.

**The Gen.** case was primarily the case of nouns and pronouns serving as attributes to other nouns. The meanings of the Gen. case were very complex and can only be grouped under the headings “Subjective” and “Objective” Gen. Subjective Gen. is associated with the possessive meaning and the meaning of origin. Objective Gen. is associated with what is termed “partitive meaning” as in *sum hund scipa* ‘a hundred of ships’.

**Dat.** was the chief case used with prepositions, e.g. on *morzenne* ‘in the morning’

**The Acc.** case was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. Being the direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action and other meanings.

#### **Morphological classification of nouns. Declensions (see table)**

Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables. In the first place, the morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient IE grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. Stem-suffixes could consist of vowels (vocalic stems, e.g. *a*-stems, *i*-stems), of consonants

(consonantal stems, e.g. *n*-stems), of sound sequences, e.g. *-ja*-stems, *-nd*-stems. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a “zero-suffix”; they are usually termed “root-stems” and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e.g. OE *man*, *bōc* (NE man, book). Another reason which accounts for the division of nouns into numerous declensions is their grouping according to gender. OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masc., Fem. and Neut. Sometimes a derivational suffix referred a noun to a certain gender and placed it into a certain semantic group, e.g. abstract nouns built with the help of the suffix *-þu* were Fem. — OE *lenzþu* (NE *length*), nomina agentis with the suffix *-ere* were Masc. — OE *fiscere* (NE fisher ‘learned man’). The division into genders was in a certain way connected with the division into stems, though there was no direct correspondence between them: some stems were represented by nouns of one particular gender, e.g. *ō*-stems were always Fem., others embraced nouns of two or three genders. Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic; monosyllables with a long root-syllable differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable. The majority of OE nouns belonged to the *a*-stems, *ō*-stems and *n*-stems.

### **The Pronoun**

OE pronouns fell under the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups — relative, possessive and reflexive — they were as yet not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

#### **Personal pronouns** (see table)

In OE, while nouns consistently distinguished between four cases, personal pronouns began to lose some of their case distinctions: the forms of the Dat. case of the pronouns of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> p. were frequently used instead of the Acc. It is important to note that the Gen. case of personal pronouns had two main applications: like other oblique cases of noun-pronouns it could be an object, but far more frequently it was used as an attribute or a noun determiner, like a possessive pronoun, e.g. *sunu mīn*.

### **Demonstrative pronouns** (see table)

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE *that*, which distinguished three genders in the sg. And had one form for all the genders in the pl. and the prototype of *this*. They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system: Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and Instr. Demonstrative pronouns were frequently used as noun determiners and through agreement with the noun indicated its number, gender and case.

### **Other classes of pronouns**

**Interrogative pronouns** — *hwā*, Masc. and Fem., and *hwæt*, Neut., — had a four-case paradigm (NE *who*, *what*). The Instr. case of *hwæt* was used as a separate interrogative word *hwȳ* (NE *why*). Some interrogative pronouns were used as adjective pronouns, e.g. *hwelc*.

**Indefinite pronouns** were a numerous class embracing several simple pronouns and a large number of compounds: *ān* and its derivative *ǣniz* (NE *one*, *any*); *nān*, made up of *ān* and the negative particle *ne* (NE *none*); *nānþinȝ*, made up of the preceding and the noun *þinȝ* (NE *nothing*).

### **The Adjective**

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence — if the adjective was a predicative. Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instr. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dat. case expressing an instrumental meaning.

### **Weak and Strong declension** (see table)

Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The formal differences between declensions, as well as their origin, were similar to those of the noun declensions. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG: vocalic *a-*, *ō-*, *ū-* and *i-* and consonantal *n-*. Accordingly, there developed sets of endings of the strong declension mainly

coinciding with the endings of *a*-stems of nouns for adjectives in the Masc. and Neut. and of *ō*-stems — in the Fem., with some differences between long- and short-stemmed adjectives and some remnants of other stems. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives have no parallels in the noun paradigms; they are similar to the endings of pronouns: *-um* for Dat. sg., *-ne* for Acc. sg Masc., [r] in some Fem. and pl endings. The difference between the strong and weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners. The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns. Some adjectives, however, did not conform with these rules: a few adjectives were always declined strong, e.g. *eall*, *maniz*, *ōþer* (NE *all*, *many*, *other*), while several others were always weak: adjectives in the superlative and comparative degrees, ordinal numerals, the adjective *ilca* ‘same’.

### **Degrees of comparison** (see table)

Most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes *-ra* and *-est/-ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

## ***2. The vocabulary and word-building means in Old English***

The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic; except for a small number of borrowings, it consisted of native words inherited from PG or formed from native roots and affixes.

### **Native words**

Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers from different historical periods. The three main layers in the native OE words are:

- a) common IE words;
- b) common Germanic words;
- c) specifically OE words.

Words belonging to the common IE layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship, etc.; this layer includes personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals. Verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of man; adjectives indicate the most essential qualities.

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. Being specifically Germanic, these words constitute an important distinctive mark of the Germanic languages at the lexical level. This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common IE words. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with the sea and everyday life.

The third etymological layer of native words can be defined as specifically OE, that is words which do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words are few, if we include here only the words whose roots have not been found outside English: OE *clīpian* 'call', OE *brid* (NE bird) and several others. However, they are far more numerous if we include in this layer OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England, e.g. OE *wīfman* or *wimman* (NE woman) consists of two roots which occurred as separate words in other OG languages, but formed a compound only in OE.

### **Foreign elements in the OE vocabulary**

Although borrowed words constituted only a small portion of the OE vocabulary — all in all about six hundred words, — they are of great interest for linguistic and historical study. OE borrowings come from two sources: Celtic and Latin.

### **Borrowings from Celtic**

There are very few Celtic loan-words in the OE vocabulary, for there must have been little intermixture between the Germanic settlers and the Celtic in Britain. Though in some parts of the island the Celts population was not exterminated during the WG invasion, linguistic evidence of Celtic influence is meager. Abundant borrowing from Celtic is to be found only in place-names. The OE kingdoms *Kent*, *Deira* and *Bernicia* derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. The name of *York*, the *Downs* and perhaps *London* have been traced to Celtic sources. Various Celtic designations of 'river' and 'water' were understood by the Germanic invaders as proper names: *Ouse*, *Esk*, *Exe*, *Avon*; *Thames*, *Stour*, *Dover* also come from Celtic. Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids; the Celtic component, combined with a Latin or a Germanic component, makes a compound place-name, e.g.: *Celtic plus Latin*: Man-chester, Win-chester, Lan-caster; *Celtic plus Germanic*: York-shire, Corn-wall, Devon-shire, Canter-bury.

### **Latin influence on the OE vocabulary**

Latin words entered the English language at different stages of OE history. Chronologically they can be divided into several layers.

The earliest layer comprises words which the WG tribes brought from the continent when they came to settle in Britain. Contact with the Roman civilization began a long time before the Anglo-Saxon invasion. Early OE borrowings from Latin indicate the new things and concepts which the Teutons had learnt from the Romans. They pertain to war, trade, agriculture, building and home life. Among the Latin loan-words adopted in Britain were some place-names made of Latin and Germanic components, e.g. *Portsmouth*, *Greenport*, *Greenwich*. The next period of Latin influence on the OE vocabulary began with the introduction of Christianity in the late 6<sup>th</sup> c. and lasted to the end of OE. Numerous Latin words which found their way into the English language during these five hundred years clearly fall into two main groups:

- 1) words pertaining to religion;
- 2) words connected with learning.

The Latin impact on the OE vocabulary was not restricted to borrowing of words. There were also other aspects of influence. The most important of

them is the appearance of the so-called “translation-loans” — words and phrases created on the pattern of Latin words as their literal translations. The earliest instances of translation-loans are names of the days of the week found not only in OE but also in other Old Germanic languages. OE *Mōnandæz* (*Monday*) ‘day of the moon’, L *Lunae dies*.

### **3. Word-building means in Old English**

#### **Word Structure**

According to their morphological structure OE words fell into three main types:

- 1) simple words (“root-words”) containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes, e.g. *land*, *zōd*;
- 2) derived words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more affixes, e.g. *be-3innan*;
- 3) compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme, e.g. *mann-cynn*.

#### **Ways of word-formation**

OE employed two ways of word-formation: derivation and word-composition.

##### *Word-derivation*

Derived words in OE were built with the help of affixes: prefixes and suffixes; in addition to these principal means of derivation, words were distinguished with the help of sound interchanges and word stress.

##### *Sound interchanges*

The earliest source of root-vowel interchanges employed in OE word-building was ablaut or vowel gradation inherited from PG and IE. Ablaut was used in OE as a distinctive feature between verbs and nouns and also between verbs derived from a single root. The gradation series were similar to those employed in the strong verbs: *rīdan* *v* – *rād* *n* [i:~a:], NE *ride*, *raid*. Many vowel interchanges arose due to palatal mutation; the element [i/j] in the derivational suffix caused the mutation of the root-vowel; the same root without the suffix retained the original non-mutated vowel, e.g.:

- a) nouns and verbs: *fōd* – *fēdan* (NE *food* – *feed*)



- b) adjectives and verbs: full – fyllan (NE full – fill)
- c) nouns and adjectives: long – lenzþu (NE long, length).

### *Word stress*

The role of word accentuation in OE word-building was not great. Like sound interchanges, the shifting of word stress helped to differentiate between some parts of speech being used together with other means. The verb had unaccented prefixes while the corresponding nouns had stressed prefixes, so that the position of stress served as an additional distinctive feature between them.

### *Prefixation*

Genetically, some OE prefixes go back to IE prototypes, e.g. OE *un-*, a negative prefix. Many more prefixes sprang in PG and OE from prepositions and adverbs, e.g. *mis-*, *be-*, *ofer-*. Prefixes were widely used with verbs but were far less productive with other parts of speech. The most frequent and probably the most productive OE prefixes were: *ā-*, *be-*, *for-*, *fore-*, *3e-*, *ofer-*, *un-*. The prefix modified the lexical meaning of the word, usually without changing its reference to a part of speech, e.g. *spēdi3* – *unspēdi3*. Some prefixes, both verbal and nominal, gave a more special sense to the word and changed its meaning very considerably, e.g.: *weorðan* – *for-weorðan* v, *forwyrð* n (become, perish, destruction). Some prefixes had a very weak of general meaning bordering on grammatical, e.g. *3e-*, the commonest verb orefix, conveyed the meaning of result or completion and was therefore often used as a marker of the Past Participle – *sittan* – *3e-sett*.

### *Suffixation*

Suffixation was by far the most productive means of word derivation in OE. Suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of the word but could refer it to another part of speech. Suffixes were mostly applied in forming nouns and adjectives, seldom — in forming verbs. Etymologically OE suffixes can be traced to several sources: old stem-suffixes, which had lost their productivity, but could still be distinguished in some words as dead or non-productive suffixes; derivational suffixes proper inherited from PIE and PG; new suffixes which developed from root-morphemes in Late PG and OE in the course of morphological simplification of the word. The old stem-suffixes cannot be regarded as means of derivation in OE. Their application in word derivation can be best shown in reconstructed, pre-written forms of

weak verbs. Weak verbs of Class I were originally derived from nominal or verbal roots with the help of the stem-forming suffix *-i/j-*, e.g. *tæł-i-an*, *mōt-i-an*, OE *tellan*, *mētan* – from the roots of OE *talū*, *ʒe-mot*; verbs of Class II were formed with the help of the most productive stem-suffix *-ō-*, or *-ōj-*, e.g.: *hop-ō-jan*, *luf-ō-jan*, OE *hopian*, *lufian* from corresponding nouns *hopa*, *lufu*. Suffixes are usually classified according to the part of speech which they can form. In OE there were two large groups of suffixes: suffixes of nouns and suffixes of adjectives.

Noun suffixes are divided into suffixes of “agent nouns” (“nomina agentis”) and those of abstract nouns. Among the suffixes of “agent nouns” there were some dead, unproductive suffixes, e.g.: *-a*, as in the Masc. *a*-stem *hunta*; *-end*, originally the suffix of the Present Participle, e.g. OE *fīend*. Later it was replaced by *-ere*. OE agent nouns in *-ere* were derived from nouns and verbs: *bōcere*, *fiscere*. The nouns in *-ere* were Masc.; the corresponding suffix of Fem. nouns *-estre* was less common: *spinnestre*. Among suffixes of abstract nouns we can trace a productive suffix *-nes/-nis*: *blindnis*, *beorhtnes*. Another productive suffix, *-ung/-ing*, was used to build abstract nouns from verbs, e.g. *earnian* – *earnung* (NE *earn*, *earning*). A most important feature of OE suffixation is the growth of new suffixes from root-morphemes. To this group belong OE *-dōm*, *-hād*, *-lāc* and some others, e.g. *frēodōm* (NE *freedom*), *cīldhād* (NE *childhood*), *wedlāc* (NE *wedlock*). Adjectives were usually derived from nouns, rarely from verb stems or other adjectives. The most productive suffixes were *-iʒ*, an *-isc*, e.g. *mōdiʒ* ‘proud’ (from *mōd* NE *mood*); *mennisc* ‘human’ (from *man* with the root-vowel [a]).

### **Word-composition**

Word-composition was a highly productive way of developing the vocabulary in OE. As in other OG languages, word-composition in OE was more productive in nominal parts of speech than in verbs.

The pattern “noun plus noun” was probably the most efficient type of all: *mann-cynn* (NE *mankind*). Compound nouns with adjective-stems as the first components were less productive, e.g. *wīd-sáe* ‘ocean’ (wide sea). Compound adjectives were formed by joining a noun-stem to an adjective: *dōm-ʒeorn* (“eager for glory”). The most peculiar pattern of compound

adjectives was the so-called “bahuvruhi type” — adjective plus noun stem as the second component of an adjective, e.g. *mild-heort* ‘merciful’.

#### **4. Old English syntax.**

The syntactic structure of OE was determined by two major conditions: the nature of OE morphology and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language. OE was largely a synthetic language; it possessed a system of grammatical forms which could indicate the connection between words. It was primarily a spoken language, consequently, the syntax of the sentence was relatively simple.

##### **The Phrase. Noun, Adjective and Verb Patterns**

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases. OE noun patterns, adjective and verb patterns had certain specific features which are important to note in view of their later changes.

A noun pattern consisted of a noun as the head word and pronouns, adjectives, numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number and case, e.g. *on þǣm oþrum þrīm dazum* ‘in those other three days’ — Dat. pl Masc.

An adjective pattern could include adverbs, nouns or pronouns in one of the oblique cases with or without prepositions, and infinitives, e.g. *him wæs manna þearf* ‘he was in need of man’.

Verb patterns included a great variety of dependant components: nouns and pronouns in oblique cases with or without prepositions, adverbs, infinitives and participles, e.g. *brin3 þā þīn3* ‘bring those things’.

##### **Word order**

The order of words in the OE sentence was relatively free. The position of words in the sentence was often determined by logical and stylistic factors rather than by grammatical constraints. Nevertheless the freedom of word order and its seeming independence of grammar should not be overestimated. The order of words could depend on the communicative type of the sentence — question versus statement, on the type of clause, on the presence and place of

some secondary parts of the sentence. A peculiar type of word order is found in many subordinate and in some coordinate clauses: the clause begins with the subject following the connective, and ends with the predicate or its finite part, all the secondary parts being enclosed between them. It also should be noted that objects were often placed before the predicate or between two parts of the predicate.

Those were the main tendencies in OE word order.

### ***5. The verbal system in Old English (grammatical categories)***

#### **Grammatical categories of the Finite Verb**

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: sg and pl. The category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1<sup>st</sup>, the 2<sup>nd</sup> and the 3<sup>rd</sup>. The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorical forms, Present and Past. The use of Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and other volitional, conjectural and hypothetical contexts Subj. was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech. The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Present tense were used to indicate present and future actions. The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past. In addition to Mood and Tense we must mention Aspect and Voice.

Until recently it was believed that in OE the category of aspect was expressed by the regular contrast of verbs with and without the prefix *æ-*; verbs with the prefix had a perfective meaning while the same verbs without the prefix indicated a non-completed action, e.g. *feohtan – æfeohtan* ‘fight’ – ‘gain by fighting’. In some recent explorations, however, it has been shown that the prefix *æ-* in OE can hardly be regarded as a marker of aspect, it could change the aspective meaning of the verb by making it perfective, but it could also change its lexical meaning, e.g. *beran – æberan* ‘carry’ – ‘bear a

child'. It follows that the prefix *3e-* should rather be regarded as an element of word-building, a derivational prefix of vague general meaning, though its ties with certain shades of aspective meaning are obvious. It is important to note that in OE texts there were also other means of expressing aspective meanings: the Past or Present Participle. The phrases with Participle I were used to describe a prolonged state or action, the phrases with Participle II indicated a state resulting from a previous, completed action. The category of voice in OE is another debatable issue. The passive meaning was frequently indicated with the help of Participle II of transitive verbs used as predicatives with the verbs *beōn* 'be' and *weorðan* 'become'.

### **Grammatical categories of the Verbals**

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. The Infinitive had no verbal grammatical categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: two forms which roughly corresponded to the Nom. and the Dat. cases of nouns —

*beran* — uninflected Infinitive ("Nom." case)

*tō berenne* or *tō beranne* — inflected Infinitive ("Dat." case)

Like the Dat. case of nouns the inflected Infinitive with the preposition *tō* could be used to indicate the direction or purpose of an action. The uninflected Infinitive was used in verb phrases with modal verbs or other verbs of incomplete predication.

The Participle was a kind of verbal adjective which was characterized not only by nominal but also by certain verbal features. Participle I (Present Participle) was opposed to Participle II (Past Participle) through voice and tense distinctions: it was active and expressed present or simultaneous processes and qualities, while Participle II expressed states and qualities resulting from past action and was contrasted to Participle I as passive to active, if the verb was transitive. Participle II of intransitive verbs had an active meaning; it indicated a past action and was opposed to Participle I only through tense. Participles were employed predicatively and attributively like adjectives and shared their grammatical categories: they were declined as weak and strong and agreed with nouns in number, gender and case.

## 6. *The verbal system in Old English (morphological classification)*

The majority of OE verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. Besides these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as “minor” groups. The main difference between the strong and weak verbs lay in the means of forming the principal parts, or “stems” of the verb. The strong verbs formed their stems by means of ablaut and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs ablaut was accompanied by consonant interchanges. The strong verbs had four stems, as they distinguished two stems in the Past Tense — one for the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> p. sg Ind. Mood, the other — for the other Past tense forms, Ind. and Subj. the weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help of the dental suffix *-d-* or *-t-*; normally they did not interchange their root vowel, but in some verbs suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange. Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way (“preterite-present” verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous.

### **Strong Verbs** (see table)

The strong verbs in OE are usually divided into seven classes. Classes from 1 to 6 use vowel gradation which goes back to the IE ablaut-series modified in different phonetic conditions in accordance with PG and Early OE sound changes. Class 7 includes reduplicating verbs, which originally built their past forms by means of repeating the root-morpheme; this doubled root gave rise to a specific kind of root-vowel interchange.

The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: *-an* for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past sg stem, *-on* in the form of Past pl, *-en* for Participle II.

### **Weak Verbs** (see table)

The number of weak verbs in OE by far exceeded that of strong verbs.

The verbs of Class I usually were *i*-stems, originally contained the element [-i/-j] between the root and the endings. The verbs of Class II were built with the help of the stem-suffix *-ō*, or *-ōj* and are known as *ō*-stems.

Class III was made up of a few survivals of the PG third and fourth classes of weak verbs, mostly *-ǣj*-stems.

### **Minor groups of Verbs** (see table)

The most important group of these verbs were the so-called “preterite-presents” or “past-present” verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms. Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Most of these verbs had new Past Tense forms built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also acquired the forms of the verbals: Participles and Infinitives. In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in Mod E: OE *ā̄*; *cunnan*; *cann*; *dear(r)*, *sculan*, *sceal*; *māzan*, *mǣz*; *mōt* (NE *owe*, *ought*; *can*; *dare*; *shall*; *may*; *must*). Most preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive which followed the preterite-present. In other words they were used like modal verbs, and eventually developed into modern modal verbs.

#### *☞ Questions for further discussion*

1. The nominal system of Old English
  - The Noun
    - a) Grammatical categories. The use of cases
    - b) Morphological classification of nouns.
      - The Pronoun
        - a) Personal pronouns
        - b) Demonstrative pronouns
        - c) Interrogative pronouns
        - d) Indefinite pronouns
      - The Adjective
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        - b) Degrees of comparison
  - 2. The vocabulary and word-building means in Old English
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    - Foreign elements in the OE vocabulary
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3. Word-building means in Old English
  - Word Structure
  - Ways of word-formation
    - a) Word-derivation
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4. Old English syntax.
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5. The verbal system in Old English (grammatical categories)
  - Grammatical categories of the Finite Verb
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6. The verbal system in Old English (morphological classification)
  - Strong Verbs
  - Weak Verbs
  - Minor groups of Verbs

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## MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

### LECTURE 6

#### *1. Economic and social conditions in the 11-12<sup>th</sup> centuries.*

The OE period in the history of the language corresponds to the transitional stage from the slave-owning and tribal system to the feudal system in the history of Britain. In the 11<sup>th</sup> c. feudalism was already well established. According to a survey made in the late 11<sup>th</sup> c. slaves and freemen were declining classes. The majority of the agricultural population were bound to their lord and land. Under natural economy, characteristic of feudalism, most of the things needed for the life of the lord and the villain were produced on the estate. Feudal manors were separated from their neighbors by tolls, local feuds, and various restrictions concerning settlement, traveling and employment. These historical conditions produced a certain influence on the development of the language. In Early ME the differences between the regional dialects grew. Never in history, before or after, was the historical background more favorable for dialectal differentiation. The main dialectal division in England, which survived in later ages with some slight modification of boundaries and considerable dialect mixture, goes back to the feudal stage of British history.

#### *2. The Scandinavian invasions, the Norman Conquest & the way they influenced English.*

##### **Scandinavian invasions**

Since the 8<sup>th</sup> c. the British Isles were ravaged by sea rovers from Scandinavia, first by Danes, later — by Norwegians. By the end of the 9<sup>th</sup> c. the Danes had succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing in England; more than half of England was yielded to the invaders and recognized as Danish territory — “Danelaw”. The new settlers and the English intermarried and intermixed; they lived close together and did not differ either in social rank or in the level of culture and customs. In the areas of the heaviest settlement the Scandinavians outnumbered the Anglo-Saxon population, which is attested by geographical

names. Altogether more than 1,400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavian origin (with the element *thorp* meaning ‘village’, e.g. *Woodthorp*). Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merged with the society around them, but the impact on the linguistic situation and on the further development of the English language was quite profound. The increased regional differences of English in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. must partly be attributed to the Scandinavian influence. Due to the contacts and mixture with O Scand, the Northern dialects had acquired lasting and sometimes indelible Scandinavian features. In later ages the Scandinavian element passed into other regions. The incorporation of the Scandinavian element in the London dialect and Standard English was brought about by the changing linguistic situation in England: the mixture of the dialects and the growing linguistic unification.

### **The Norman Conquest**

The new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042–1066) brought over many Norman advisors and favorites; he distributed among them English lands and wealth to the considerable resentment of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and appointed them to important positions in the government and church hierarchy. He not only spoke French himself but insisted on it being spoken by the nobles at his court. William, Duke of Normandy, visited his court and it was rumored that Edward appointed him his successor. However, the government of the country was still in the hands of Anglo-Saxon feudal lords, headed by the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex. In 1066, upon Edward’s death, the Elders of England proclaimed Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy, he mustered (gathered) a big army by promise of land and, with the support of the Pope, landed in Britain. In the battle of Hastings, fought in October 1066, Harold was killed and the English were defeated. This date is commonly known as the date of the Norman Conquest. After the victory at Hastings, William by-passed London cutting it off from the North and made the Witan of London (the Elders of England) and the bishops at Westminster Abbey crown him king. William and his barons laid waste many lands in England, burning down villages and estates. Most of the lands of the Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of the Norman barons, William’s own possessions comprising about one third of the country. Normans occupied all

the important posts in the church, in the government and in the army. Following the conquest hundreds of people from France crossed the Channel to make their home in Britain. French monks, tradesmen and craftsmen flooded the south-western towns, so that not only the higher nobility but also much of the middle class was French.

### **Effect of the Norman Conquest on the linguistic situation**

The Norman Conquest was not only a great event in British political history but also the greatest single event in the history of the English language. The Norman Conquerors of England had originally come from Scandinavia. First they had seized the valley of the Seine and settled in what is known as Normandy. They were swiftly assimilated by the French and in the 11<sup>th</sup> c. came to Britain as French speakers. Their tongue in Britain is often referred to as “Anglo-French” or “Anglo-Norman”, but may just as well be called French. The most important consequence of Norman domination in Britain is to be seen in the wide use of the French language in many spheres of life. For almost three hundred years French was the official language of administration: it was the language of the king’s court, the church, the army and others. The intellectual life, literature and education were in the hands of French-speaking people.

For all that, England never stopped being an English-speaking country. The bulk of the population spoke their own tongue and looked upon French as foreign and hostile. At first two languages existed side by side without mingling. Then, slowly and quietly, they began to penetrate each other. The three hundred years of the domination of French affected English more than any other foreign influence before or after.

The early French borrowings reflect accurately the spheres of Norman influence upon English life; later borrowings can be attributed to the continued cultural, economic and political contacts between the countries.

### ***3. Changes in the alphabet and spelling in Middle English. Middle English written records (see table)***

The most conspicuous feature of Late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in Late ME

texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different. In the course of ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling; some of them reflected the sound changes which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters by new letters and digraphs.

In ME the runic letters passed out of use. Thorn – þ – and the crossed d – ð, ð – were replaced by the digraph *th*, which retained the same sound value: [θ] and [ð]; the rune “wynn” was displaced by “double u” – *w* – ; the ligatures *æ* and *œ* fell into disuse. After the period of Anglo-Norman dominance (11<sup>th</sup>–13<sup>th</sup> c.) English regained its prestige as the language of writing. Though for a long time writing was in the hands of those who had a good knowledge of French. Therefore many innovations in ME spelling reveal an influence of the French scribal tradition. The digraphs *ou*, *ie*, and *ch* which occurred in many French borrowings and were regularly used in Anglo-Norman texts were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:], and [tʃ]. Other alterations in spelling cannot be traced directly to French influence though they testify to a similar tendency: a wider use of digraphs. In addition to *ch*, *ou*, *ie*, and *th* Late ME notaries introduced *sh* (also *ssh* and *sch*) to indicate the new sibilant [ʃ], e.g. ME *ship* (from OE *scip*), *dg* to indicate [dʒ] alongside *j* and *g*; the digraph *wh* replaced the OE sequence of letters *hw* as in OE *hwæt*, ME *what* [hwat]. Long sounds were shown by double letters, e.g. ME *book* [bo:k], though long [e:] could be indicated by *ie* and *ee*, and also by *e*. Some replacements were probably made to avoid confusion of resembling letters: thus *o* was employed not only for [o] but also to indicate short [u] alongside the letter *u*; it happened when *u* stood close to *n*, *m*, or *v*, e.g. OE *lufu* became ME *love* [luvə].

The letter *y* came to be used as an equivalent of *i* and was evidently preferred when *i* could be confused with the surrounding letters *m*, *n* and others. Sometimes, *y*, as well *w*, were put at the end of a word, so as to finish the word with a curve, e.g. ME *very* [veri], *my* [mi:]; *w* was interchangeable with *u* in the digraphs *ou*, *au*, e.g. ME *doun*, *down* [du:n], and was often preferred finally, e.g. ME *how* [hu:], *now* [nu:]. For letters indicating two sounds the rules of reading are as follows. *G* and *c* stand for [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels and for [g] and [k] before back vowels respectively. *Y* stands for [j] at the beginning of words, otherwise, it is an equivalent of the

letter *i*, e.g. ME *yet* [jet], *knyght* [knix't]. The letters *th* and *s* indicate voiced sounds between vowels, and voiceless sounds – initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants, e.g. ME *worthy* [wurði]. To determine the sound value of *o* one can look up the origin of the sound in OE or the pronunciation of the word in NE: the sound [u] did not change in the transition from OE to ME (the OE for some was *sum*); in NE it changed to [ʌ]. It follows that the letter *o* stood for [u] in those ME words which contain [ʌ] today, otherwise it indicates [o].

**Middle English written records** (see table).

#### ***4. Middle English dialects. The London dialect.***

The dialect division which evolved in Early ME was on the whole preserved in later periods. In the 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> c. we find the same grouping of local dialects: the Southern group, including Kentish and the South-Western dialects (the South-Western group was a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects), the Midland or Central (corresponding to the OE Mercian dialect – is divided into West Midland and East Midland as two main areas) and the Northern group (had developed from OE Northumbrian). And yet the relations between them were changing. The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the London dialect as the prevalent written form of language. The history of the London dialect reveals the sources of the literary language in Late ME and also the main source and basis of the Literary Standard, both in its written and spoken forms. The Early ME written records made in London – beginning with the PROCLAMATION of 1258 – show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon. Later records indicate that the speech of London was becoming more fixed, with East Midland features gradually prevailing over the Southern features.

#### ***5. Phonetic processes in Middle English (the system of vowels)***

##### **Word Stress in ME and Early NE**

In OE stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word, rarely on its second syllable. Word stress in OE was fixed: it never moved in inflection

and seldom in derivation. This way of word accentuation was considerably altered in the succeeding periods. The word accent acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during the ME period. Gradually, as the loan-words were assimilated, the word stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word. It is known as the “recessive” tendency, e.g. *vertu* [ver'tju:] became NE *virtue* [və:tʃə]. In words of three or more syllables the shift of the stress could be caused by the recessive tendency and also by the “rhythmic” tendency. Under it, a secondary stress would arise at a distance of one syllable from the original stress. Sometimes the shifting of the word stress should be attributed not only to the phonetic tendencies but also to certain morphological factors. Thus stress was not shifted to the prefixes of many verbs borrowed or built in Late ME and in Early NE, which accords with the OE rule: to keep verb prefixes unstressed, e.g. *present*. Corresponding nouns sometimes received the stress on the first syllable: NE 'present n – pre'sent v; 'discord n – dis'cord v. The latter pairs of words show that the role of word accentuation has grown: word stress performs a phonological function as it distinguishes a verb from a noun.

### Unstressed vowels

In Early ME the pronunciation of unstressed syllables became increasingly indistinct. As compared to OE, which distinguishes five short vowels in unstressed position [e/i], [a] and [o/u], Late ME had only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [ɪ], e.g. OE *talū* – ME *tale* ['ta:lə] – NE *tale*, OE *bodiz* – ME *body* ['bodi] – NE *body*. The final [ə] disappeared in Late ME though it continued to be spelt as *-e*. When the ending *-e* survived only in spelling, it was understood as a means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to words which did not have this ending before, e.g. OE *stān*, *rād* – ME *stone*, *rode* ['stone], ['rode] – NE *stone*, *rode*. It should be remembered that while the OE unstressed vowels thus were reduced and lost, new unstressed vowels appeared in borrowed words or developed from stressed ones, as a result of various changes, e.g. the shifting of word stress in ME and NE, vocalization of [r] in such endings as *writer*, *actor*, where [er] and [or] became [ə].

### **Quantitative vowel changes in Early ME (see table)**

In Later OE and in Early ME vowel length began to depend on phonetic conditions. The earliest of positional quantitative changes was the readjustment of quantity before some consonant clusters:

1) Short vowels were lengthened before two consonants – a sonorant and a plosive; consequently, all vowels occurring in this position remained or became long, e.g. OE *wild* – ME *wild* [wi:ld] – NE *wild*.

2) All other groups of two or more consonants produced the reverse effect: they made the preceding long vowels short, and henceforth all vowels in this position became or remained short, e.g. OE *cēpte* > ME *kepte* [ˈkeptə] – NE *kept*.

3) Short vowels became long in open syllables, e.g. OE *nama* > ME *name* [na:mə] – NE *name*. In spite of some restrictions no lengthening occurred in polysyllabic words and before some suffixes, OE *bodiz* > ME *body* [ˈbodi] – NE *body*.

### **Development of monophthongs**

The OE close labialized vowels [y] and [y:] disappeared in Early ME, merging with various sounds in different dialectal areas. The vowels [y] and [y:] existed in OE dialects up to the 10<sup>th</sup> c., when they were replaced by [e], [e:] in Kentish and confused with [ie] and [ie:] or [i] and [i:] in WS. In Early ME the dialectal differences grew. In some areas OE [y], [y:] developed into [e], [e:], in others they changed to [i], [i:]; in the South-West and in the West Midlands the two vowels were for some time preserved as [y], [y:], but later were moved backward and merged with [u], [u:], e.g. OE *fyllan* – ME (Kentish) *fellen*, (West Midland and South Western) *fullen*, (East Midland and Northern) *fillen* – NE *fill*. In Early ME the long OE [a:] was narrowed to [o:]. This was an early instance of the growing tendency of all long monophthongs to become closer, so [a:] became [o:] in all the dialects except the Northern group, e.g. OE *stān* – ME (Northern) *stan(e)*, (other dialects) *stoon*, *stone* – NE *stone*. The short OE [æ] was replaced in ME by the back vowel [a], e.g. OE *þæt* > ME *that* [θat] > NE *that*.

### **Development of diphthongs** (see table)

OE possessed a well developed system of diphthongs: falling diphthongs with a closer nucleus and more open glide arranged in two symmetrical sets – long and short: [ea:], [eo:], [ie:] and [ea], [eo], [ie]. Towards the end of the OE period some of the diphthongs merged with monophthongs: all diphthongs were monophthongised before [xt], [x't] and after [sk']; the diphthongs [ie:], [ie] in Late WS fused with [y:], [y] or [i:], [i]. In Early ME the remaining diphthongs were also contracted to monophthongs: the long [ea:] coalesced (united) with the reflex of OE [á:] – ME [ɛ:]; the short [ea] ceased to be distinguished from OE [æ] and became [a] in ME; the diphthongs [eo:], [eo] – as well as their dialectal variants [io:], [io] – fell together with the monophthongs [e:], [e], [i:], [i]. As a result of these changes the vowel system lost two sets of diphthongs, long and short. In the meantime anew set of diphthongs developed from some sequences of vowels and consonants due to the vocalization of OE [j] and [ɣ], that is to their change into vowels.

In Early ME the sounds [j] and [ɣ] between and after vowels changed into [i] and [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowels, e.g. OE *dæz* > ME *day* [dai]. These changes gave rise to two sets of diphthongs: with *i*-glides and *u*-glides. The same types of diphthongs appeared also from other sources: the glide *-u* developed from OE [w] as in OE *snāw*, which became ME *snow* [snou], and before [x] and [l] as in Late ME *smaul* and *taughte*.

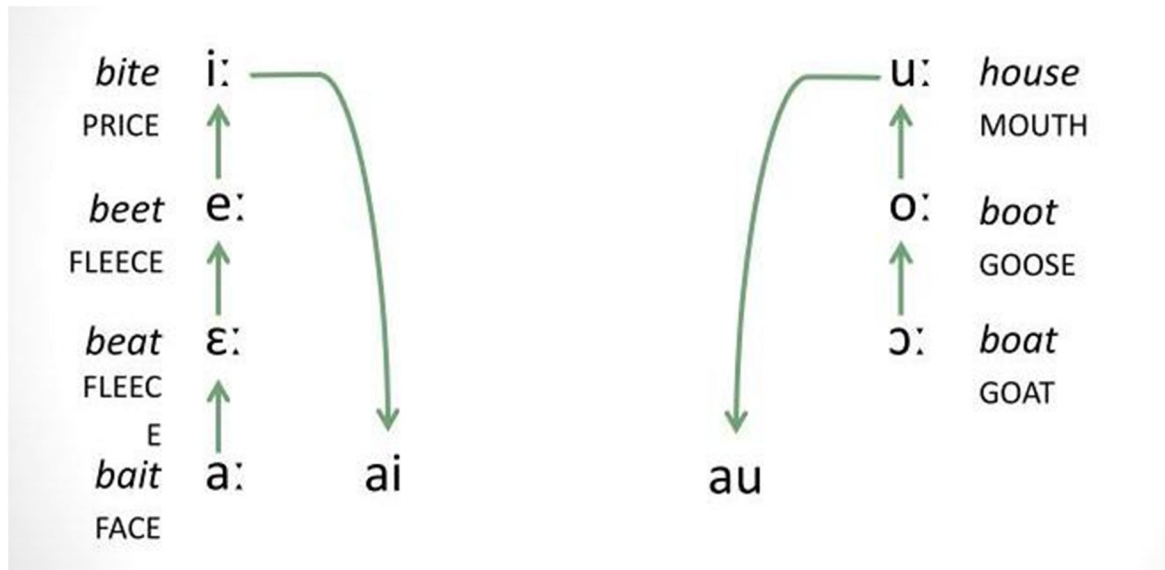
### **6. The Great Vowel Shift**

The Great vowel shift led to radical change in the system of long vowels. These changes didn't find any reflection on English spelling because by the time the GVS took place the English spelling had already been fixed and stabilized and this resulted in the fact that there appeared a great divergence between English spelling and pronunciation. The pronunciation of letters of the Latin alphabet was changed: a > ei, e > i:, d > di:, i.e. the new alphabet, the English alphabet appeared. Due to the GVS a number of new diphthongs appeared [au], [ou], [ai] which were quite different from OE diphthongs.

OE diphthongs were: eo, ea, io, ie.



## The Great Vowel Shift



It took place between 16-17 centuries in all English long vowels and as a result of it **all long vowels acquired new quality**, consequently it is a **qualitative change**. The change consisted in the narrowing (rising) of all long vowels and the highest vowels “i” and “u” changed into diphthongs.

Front vowels	Back vowels
High i: > ai	ū > au
Mid ē (long closed) > i:	ō (closed) > ū
Low ɛ > ē (closed) > i:	o > ou

### **i: > ai**

- Mid.E. li:ke > NE [laɪk]
- Mid.E. ti:me > NE [taɪm]
- Mid.E. ri:se > NE [raɪz]
- Mid.E. si:de > NE [saɪd]
- Mid.E. ki:nd > NE [kaɪnd]
- Mid.E. ki:ld > NE [tʃaɪld]

### **ē (closed) > NE i:**

- Mid. E. metan > [mi:t]
- Mid. E. slepan > N.E. [sli:p]
- Mid. E. metan > N.E. [mi:t]

Mid. E. ken > N.E. [ki:n]  
Mid. E. field > N.E. [fi:ld]  
Mid. E. chief > N.E. [tʃi:f]  
Mid. E. receive > N.E. [ri:vi:v]  
Mid. E. seize > N.E. [si:z]  
Mid. E. se > N.E. [si:]

**ę > i:**

Mid. E. beat [bet] > N.E. [bi:t] (beat)  
Mid. E. seize > N.E. [si:z] (seize)  
Mid. E. speak [spøk] > N.E. [spi:k] (speak)  
Mid. E. lēden [lēden] > N.E. [li:d] (lead)  
Mid. E. sę [sę] > N.E. [si:] (sea)

**ū > au**

Mid. E. hous [hu:s] > N.E. [hause] (house)  
Mid. E. noun [nu:n] > N.E. [naun] (noun)  
Mid. E. how [hu:] > N.E. [hau] (how)  
Mid. E. down [du:n] > N.E. [daun] (down)

**ō (close) > ū**

Mid. E. tōl [to:l] > N.E. [tu:l] (tool)  
Mid. E. mōn [to:l] > N.E. [mu:n] (moon)  
Mid. E. fōd [fo:d] > N.E. f:l] (tood)  
Mid. E. dōn [do:ln] > N.E. [du:] (do)  
Mid. E. tōþ [to:θ] > N.E. [tu:θ] (tooth)  
Mid. E. fōl [fo:l] > N.E. [fu:l] (fool)

**ō (long open) > ou**

Mid. E. bōt [bo:t] > N.E. [bout] (boat)  
Mid. E. lōd [lo:d] > N.E. [loud] (load)  
Mid. E. mōn [mo:n] > N.E. [moun] (moan)  
Mid. E. stōn [sto:n] > N.E. [stoun] (stone)

**ā > ei**

Mid. E. **tāke** [ta:ke] > N.E. [teik] (take)

Mid. E. **nāme** [na:me] > N.E. [neim] (name)

Mid. E. **grāve** [gra:ve] > N.E. [greiv] (grave)

Mid. E. **sāne** [sa:ne] > N.E. [sein] (sane)

### **The Results of the GVS**

The Great Vowel Shift led to radical changes in the system of long vowels. These changes, however, didn't find any reflection in English **spelling** because by the time the GVS took place (16-17 c.c.) the English spelling had already been fixed.

1. This resulted in the fact that there appeared a great **divergence between English spelling and pronunciation** – the first result of GVS.

2. Due to the GVS **the names of the letters of the Latin alphabet changed**: Latin **a** became [ei], Latin **b** – [bi], **c** –[si]. Thus, **the second result** of the GVS was **the appearance of English alphabet** which replaced the Latin alphabet.

3. **The third result** of the GVS is **the appearance of new diphthongs** in English. The new diphthongs differed from the O.E. ones in their quality: in the distribution of the first and the second element of the diphthong. **O.E. diphthongs** were: **ie, io, ea, eo**. Middle/New E. diphthongs were: **au, ou, ei, ai, oi**. In O.E. the first and the second element of the diphthong were either vowels of the same rise (eo, ea) or the second element was a vowel of a lower level (ie, io), while in N.E. the distribution of the first and the second element of the diphthong was quite different: the first element was a vowel of a lower level than the second one.

### ***7. Phonetic processes in Middle English (system of consonants)***

English consonants were on the whole far more stable than vowels. A large number of consonants have probably remained unchanged through all historical periods. Thus we can assume that the sonorants [m, n, l], plosives [p, b, t, d] and also [k, g] in most positions have not been subjected to any noticeable changes. The most important developments in the history of

English consonants were the growth of new sets of sounds, - affricates and sibilants.

**Growth of sibilants and affricates** (see table)

In OE there were no affricates and no sibilants, except [s, z]. The new type of consonants developed from OE palatal plosives [k', g'], which had split from the corresponding velar plosives [k] and [g], and also from the consonant cluster [sk']. The three new phonemes which arose from these sources were [tʃ], [dʒ] and [ʃ]. In Early ME they began to be indicated by special letters and digraphs, which came into use mainly under the influence of the French scribal tradition – *ch, tch, g, dg, sh, ssh, sch*. As a result of these changes – and also as a result of the vocalization of [ɣ] – the consonant system in Late ME was in some respects different from the OE system.

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. Economic and social conditions in the 11-12<sup>th</sup> centuries.
2. The Scandinavian invasions, the Norman Conquest & the way they influenced English.
  - Scandinavian invasions
  - The Norman Conquest
  - Effect of the Norman Conquest on the linguistic situation
3. Changes in the alphabet and spelling in Middle English.
  - Middle English written records
4. Middle English dialects. The London dialect.
5. Phonetic processes in Middle English (the system of vowels)
  - Word Stress in ME and Early NE
  - Unstressed vowels
  - Quantitative vowel changes in Early ME
  - Development of monophthongs
  - Development of diphthongs
6. The Great Vowel Shift
  - The Results of the GVS
7. Phonetic processes in Middle English (system of consonants)
  - Growth of sibilants and affricates

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## LECTURE 7

### *1. Changes in the categories of the noun in Middle English*

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree.

The OE *Gender*, being a classifying feature, disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems. In the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support – the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

The grammatical category of *Case* was preserved but underwent profound changes.

The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four to two in Late ME. Even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Acc. were not distinguished in the pl, and in some classes they coincided in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers. In the strong declension the Dat. was sometimes marked by *-e* in the Southern dialects; the form without the ending soon prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases, Nom., Acc. and Dat. fell together. Henceforth they are called the Common case in present-day English. The Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the plural. In the 14<sup>th</sup> c. the ending *-es* of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions – nouns which were preferably used in the uninflected form (some proper names, names of relationship). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker – it was not distinguished from the Comm. case pl or from the Gen. sg. Several nouns with a weak plural form in *-en* or with a vowel interchange, such as *oxen* or *men*, added the marker of the Gen. case *-es* to these forms: *oxenes*, *mennes*. In the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe.

The other grammatical category of the noun, *Number* proved to be the most stable of the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. In Late ME the ending –es was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl. It underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables:

1) after a voiced consonant or a vowel, e.g. ME *stones* [ˈsto:nəs] > [ˈstounəz] > [ˈstounz], NE *stones*;

2) after a voiceless consonant, e.g. ME *bookes* [ˈbo:kəs] > [bu:ks] > [buks], NE *books*;

3) after sibilants and affricates [s, z, ʃ, tʃ, dʒ] ME *dishes* [ˈdiʃəs] > [ˈdiʃiz], NE *dishes*.

The ME pl ending –en, used as a variant marker with some nouns lost its former productivity, so that in Standard Mod E it is found only in *oxen*, *brethren*, and *children*. The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number has been further reduced to three exceptions in Mod E: *deer*, *sheep*, and *swine*. The group of former root-stems has survived also only as exceptions: *man*, *tooth* and the like.

## 2. Pronominal Declension in ME

Changes in the pronominal declension were different, some pronouns developed a case system, characteristic of nouns. These pronouns are the so-called **noun-pronouns** (he, she, one), these pronouns developed the distinction between nominative and objective (OE Dative case) cases. Other pronouns developed by analogy of the system of adjectives and lost their case distinctions (demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that**), the so-called **adjective pronouns**. They are not declined in Modern English. As to the **personal pronouns** here also OE system was reduced to 2 cases, the Nominative case remained and the Dative case developed into the Objective case (< OE Dative **-um, -m**). In Middle English the Genitive case of the personal pronouns came to be used exclusively in the **possessive** meaning. The genitive idea was lost. So in Mid.E. there developed a new group of pronouns –possessive pronouns < OE Genitive case of the personal pronouns.

### 3. *Changes in the system of the verb in Middle English*

In the system of the verb there were no fundamental changes characteristic of the nominal system of declension. All the grammatical categories peculiar to the Old English verb survived in Middle English: the categories of person, number, tense, voice and mood. Moreover in Middle English some complication of conjugation is observed which was the result of development of analytical forms: **aspect** becomes an essential part of the Middle English conjugation, forming a new category — the category of succession; **future** came to be expressed by the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would* came to be used as auxiliaries forming **analytical moods**; **the passive constructions** were widely used, though we cannot speak of analytical passive as there was no uniform expression of the doer in those constructions. Thus the passive voice did not yet get its final shape in Middle English.

True, the unification characteristic of nouns cannot be observed, and the verbal system still remains rather complex though some changes towards simplification are to be found. One of the main and the most important changes in the system of the verb was **breaking down of the strong verbs system**. In Middle English the number of weak verbs increases. Even in Old English weak verbs were far more numerous than strong verbs. The result was that there was a tendency to make strong verbs correspond to the weak ones. Thus many strong verbs assumed weak forms. The considerable growth of the weak verbs was mainly **due to the French borrowings** which have been attracted to the larger class of weak verbs. Thus, the number of the strong verbs was more and more reduced. Some strong verbs became obsolete and fell in disuse, others became weak. The reverse process — **weak verbs changing into strong ones** — was very rare. Only in exceptional cases originally weak verbs became strong. i.e. formed their past tense and past participle by means of vowel gradation.

O.E. *hringan* (to ring) — weak verb of the first class

O.E. *werian* (to wear) weak verb of the third class

Such strong verbs as O.E. *gewitan* (to know), *faran* (to travel), *hatan* (to call), *beodan* (to order) have disappeared in Middle English.



Such strong verbs as O.E. *helpan* (to help), *steorfan* (to die), *ceorfan* (to curve) became weak. Among the weak verbs the most prominent was the second class which had an inflection (the dental suffix) in the past tense. This type became leading in Middle English forming the so-called **regular conjugation**. The number of verbs belonging to the first weak class has greatly reduced in Middle English.

Another simplification of the verbal system is noted in Middle English. It is manifested in **the reduction of the number of stems in the strong verbs**. In Old English the conjugation of strong verbs was based on four stems from which different forms of the verb were derived: 1) the present tense stem, 2) the preterit singular stem (past tense singular), 3) the preterit plural stem, 4) the past participle stem. In Middle English **the preterit singular stem and the preterit plural stem** were reduced to one stem – **the past tense stem**. This fusion of the two stems into one took place because these forms were no longer differentiated by their stems but by their inflections.

O.E. I – II – III – IV

M.E. I – II – III

Some verbs **preserved the past tense singular** form (which was preserved in the Northern dialects), others — **the past tense plural** form (the Eastern development). The verbs *write*, *drive*, *sing*, *drink* followed the Northern development, while the verbs *bite*, *slide*, *win*, *fling*, *cling* followed the Eastern development.

These simplifications made the English conjugation in Middle English much more regular as compared to that of Old English.

#### ***4. The adjective in Mid.E.***

In ME the adjective lost grammatical categories of case and gender but still preserved the number distinction and the difference between the **weak and strong** forms. In NE the adjective lost its number distinction and this resulted in the **loss** of any **agreement** with its noun. E.g. a **black** bird – **black** birds. The loss of number led to the development of a new type of syntactical relation between the adjective and the noun. **Agreement was replaced by adjoining** (примыкание). This led to the fact that in English it is very

difficult to draw a distinction line between a combination of words and a compound word. Due to this a syntactical combination of adjective plus noun may easily change into a compound word as the positive degree of the adjective coincided with the stem of the adjective. E.g. A black board – a phrase, словосочетание, a **blackboard** – compound word, a black bird – a **blackbird** (грач).

In such cases the **accent (stress)** is the only indicator of the type of word. In NE the adjective has lost the difference between weak and strong forms which was closely connected with the loss of unstressed 'e' in final position. In ME the **adjective and the article** shared the semantic indication of the definite and indefinite object. E.g. in Mid.E. from the work of Chaucer — the younge sonne > NE the young son. ME a younge squire > NE a young squire.

In NE the system of analytical degrees of comparison developed (with the words *more* and *most*). In ME and in early NE the analytical degrees were used side by side with the synthetic ones without any differentiation. Such forms as *wonderfuller* could occur side by side with *more wonderful* depending on the wish of the author. Also forms of double comparison were possible — *more wonderfuller*. Later on, however, owing to the tendency to improve **standard speech** in connection with elaboration of school grammar certain distinction was drawn between analytical and synthetic forms. The former being used with polysyllabic adjectives the latter came to be used only with monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjective.

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. Changes in the categories of the noun in Middle English.
2. Pronominal Declension in ME.
3. Changes in the system of the verb in Middle English.
4. The adjective in Mid.E.

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## LECTURE 8

### *1. Grammatical system in New English period*

#### *1.1. The System of Pronouns in NE*

The most important change in pronouns is that the second person singular of personal pronouns *thou* and its objective case *thee* fall out of use together with its corresponding possessive pronoun *thy* (your) and its absolute form – *thine*. It became obsolete (rare) and as an archaic form acquired definite emotional colouring of solemnity (solemn – adj.) In NE these pronouns are characteristic of poetic **elevated style**.

In the 16-th century the possessive pronoun of the neuter gender *its* was formed. Later on as grammatical **gender** broke down and gender came to be a **semantic category** differentiating living beings from lifeless things the use of the pronoun *his* for neuter gender came in the contradiction with a common system of gender and the pronoun *his* came to denote the sex of a male person. This called forth the appearance of a special neuter pronoun *its*. In the early new English *his* was replaced first by *of it* or *it* and later by *its*.

In the NE period the modern system of the **demonstrative pronouns** which distinguished number was established. In ME demonstrative pronouns were ‘thise’ the plural of the pronoun *Þis* (Mod. E. plural *these*) and the plural form of *Þæt* — *tho* were used. In NE by analogy with the plural of the nouns the form *-se* was added to *tho* > *those*.

#### *1.2. Changes in the System of the Verb in New English*

The evolution of the verbs in Middle E. and in Early N.E. reveals a strong tendency towards greater regularity and order. In New English the process of **breaking down of the strong verbs** becomes even more intensive. A number of **strong verbs** became obsolete (rare); a lot of strong verbs **fell into disuse**. A lot of strong verbs became weak.

Parallel to this the growth of the **number of weak verbs is observed**. The O.E. weak verbs of class III either joined the other classes of weak verbs (e.g. O.E. weak verbs of the 3rd class or passed to the 1st class: OE *libban* >

M.E. 1st class *liven*) or became irregular (O.E. *habban* > Mid.E. *haven* – N.E. *have*).

A considerable growth of weak verbs was observed mainly due to the French borrowings (< Latin): verbs ending in – *ute*, such as *distribute*, *contribute*; verbs in – *ate*, such as *create*, *demonstrate*, *conjugate*, *concentrate*; verbs in – *ish*, such as *finish*, *perish*, *diminish*, *flourish*, *distinguish*.

OE *writan-wrat* (past sg.)-**writon** (past pl.)–written (past participle) > Mid. E. **wrat** – past tense.

The marker of the past tense and Participle II employed by the weak verbs – the dental suffix – d / - t proved to be very productive in all historical periods. This simple and regular way of form-building attracted hundreds of new verbs in M.E and N. E. As mentioned above, many strong verbs began to build weak forms alongside strong ones, the strong forms ultimately falling into disuse.

The evolution of the verb system was not confined to the simplification of conjugation. In ME and NE the verb paradigm expanded owing to the formation of new grammatical categories. A simple comparison of the number of categories in OE with their number in NE and today shows the changes. Leaving out the categories of Number and Person we can say that OE verbs had two grammatical categories: Mood and Tense.. In Modern E. the finite verb has five categories: Mood, Tense, Aspect, Time-Correlation and Voice. All the new forms which have been included into the paradigm of the verb are analytical forms. All the synthetic forms are the direct descendants of OE forms, for no new synthetic forms have been developed since the OE period.

### ***1.3. Development of Analytical Forms***

#### **Development of the Continuous Aspect**

The problem of the formation of the Continuous Aspect is of great complexity and is still a matter of discussion. Constructions composed of the copulative verb **beon/ wesan** and Participle I occur even in O.E. especially in the translations from Latin.

O.E. He wæs lærende (He was teaching)

He wæs sprechende (He was speaking)

He wæs feohtende (He was fighting)

In early Mid.E. progressive forms are distinctly **rare**, their number increases in the course of Mid.E. (since the 16th century). However neither in O.E. nor in Mid.E. these constructions were established as analytical forms as it is the case in N.E.

Unlike O.E. and Mid.E. in N.E. a rapid growth of the **continuous forms** is observed which was probably aided by the simultaneous **development of the gerund** and especially such gerundial constructions as *He was fighting*. In New E. side by side with the construction with participle I (*He was fighting*) parallel construction *He was on fighting* came to be used. The preposition *on* used in the gerundial construction imparted a special meaning showing that the subject is **in the act of doing** something whereas the older descriptive construction with the participle (*He was feohtende*) denoted some general ability characteristic of the subject and therefore expressed the meaning of a **permanent action**.

Gradually the form of the preposition *on* used before the gerund weakened to *a* (*He was a fighting*) and finally these two forms (*He wæs fighting* and *He wæs a fighting*) fused (got blended) into one. Before the fusion took place the construction *He was fighting* was somewhat **ambiguous**: it was not clear whether it showed an action in process or a permanent characteristics, an occupation of the subject. In Modern English there are similar cases, for example, the phrase *She is amusing* has different meanings in such sentences as: *She is amusing her guests*. (an action in progress) and *She is very amusing* (permanent characteristics).

Thus, the new compound analytical form **acquired a new meaning**: the **vividness of the action, the action in process** which led to the development of the meaning of **an action limited in time**, this being one of the characteristic features of the Continuous Aspect in Modern English.

Owing to the fact that the new analytical form acquired a new meaning the older synthetic form which continued to be used side by side with the analytical one acquired a new meaning too. In this way the so-called **Indefinite** and **Continuous forms** came to be differentiated from the point of view of **Aspect**. (the way the action is shown to proceed). **This gave rise to a new category — the category of aspect.**

The category of aspect was formed in Mid.E. on the basis of the free combination of *ben (beon)* + present participle:

Mid.E. *Singinge he was ... al the dai.* (he was singing all the day)

It is worth noting that aspect differentiation existed in O.E. where the verb had 2 aspects: perfective and imperfective.

O.E. writan — писать                      gewritan — написать

singan — петь                                gesingan — спеть

This differentiation, however, was far from being perfect in many respects as the verbal prefix of the perfective aspect at the same time denoted differences in meaning. Therefore the old system of aspect broke down. With the development of the continuous, the aspect came into being again as a grammatical category.

#### *1.4. Development of the future tense*

The grammatical categories of **tense and mood** which existed in O.E. acquired **new categorial forms**. The O.E. present and past forms were supplemented with a special form for the **future tense which appeared in Mid.E.** out of the free combination of the O.E. modal verbs *sculan* and *willan* with the infinitive. This free combination of words was split into two groups: in the first, remaining free, the modal meaning is preserved:

You **shall do** it. — necessity

I **will do** it. — volition

In the second sentence the independent meaning is lost and the fixed word combination is perceived as the **future tense form**.

I **shall go** there

You **will go** there

The category of mood in O.E. was represented by three mood forms, one for each of the moods (indicative, subjunctive and imperative). The subjunctive in O.E. did not show whether the events were possible or contrary to fact .but it had two tense forms — past and present, which in the course of history developed into two subjunctive moods:

I/he **be** present — out of the O.E. present tense form of the subjunctive mood.

I /he **were** present — out of the O.E. past tense form of the subjunctive mood.

The difference between these two subjunctive moods now is in the shade of probability, and not in the tense, the second one denoting events which are contrary to fact.

In addition to that at the end of Mid.E. and the beginning of N.E. two more subjunctive mood forms appeared, making use of the analytical form building means:

I/ he **should be** present — to show events which are probable, though problematic

I **should be** present — to show imaginary events contrary to

He **would be** present — fact.

Here **should** and **would** are the subjunctive mood forms of the O.E. **sculan** and **willan**.

#### **Development of Perfect Forms**

The same may be said about the formation of the analytical **perfect forms** (the category of order). This category was the oldest, It was formed already in Mid.E. from the O.E. free combination **habban**+ **past participle**.

**O.E.** Hie hæfdon hiera cyning aworgenne.

(They had already overthrown their king).

The same idea of order is sometimes still expressed in Modern E. with the help of the combination **to be** +**participle II** going back to the O.E. **beon** + **past participle**.

**The category of voice** appeared out of the free combination of **weorpan/beon** + **past participle**:

**O.E.** ... *he weas ofslæzan* (he was killed)

**Mid.E.** ... *engendered is the flour* (the flower is generated, born )

Thus, the analytical forms of the categories of aspect, perfect (order) and voice developed from free word combinations of O.E. copulative verbs **habban**, **beon/wesan** + **infinitive (participle)**.

The first element was gradually losing its lexical meaning, the second element was losing its grammatical meaning, the whole combination becoming inseparable idiomatic analytical form.

### ***1.5. Development of the Analytical Forms with Do***

In early N.E. analytical descriptive forms with the auxiliary verb *do* developed. These forms were widely used not only in interrogative and negative but also in **affirmative** sentences. In the latter case the forms with *do* were **not** apparently **emphatic**. The analytical forms with *do* were used in early N.E. side by side with the older synthetic ones. Later on the forms with and without *do* began to be differentiated: the forms with *do* began to be used in interrogative and negative constructions while the **affirmative** statements with *do* gradually **fell out of use**. Thus, in early N.E. in negative constructions both forms were possible (with and without *do*):

***I know not* → *I do not know*.**

Even in the 18th century the construction *I know not* was a living form. Later on it was perceived to be erroneous and was used for certain stylistic purposes.

The same is observed in **interrogative sentences** while the affirmative constructions with *do* gradually fall in disuse. Such development of the forms with *do* is accounted for by the fact that in interrogative and negative constructions the forms with *do* had certain advantages over the simple forms without *do*, whereas in **affirmative sentences they did not have any advantages**. The comparison of the following two constructions:

I like not it.            ***and***            ***I do not like it.***

Shows that in the former case the particle *not* inserted between the predicate-verb and the object makes it obscure whether the particle refers to the verb or to the object and the construction may have double interpretation: ***I do not like it*** and ***I like not it (but something else)***. In oral speech this differentiation is realized by intonation, whereas in written speech this semantic differentiation turns to be impossible.

Therefore more distinct means were needed to show this semantic difference which was achieved by means of the **analytical form excluding ambiguity**. Therefore the older construction was supplanted by the new one: ***I do not like it***. In this construction the particle *not* is inserted into the predicate itself which shows that it refers to the verb. Owing to the development of the analytical construction with *do* the older construction



without *do* acquired a new meaning: *I like not it but something else.* in which the negative particle *not* refers undoubtedly to the object.

**The same advantages** that favoured the development of analytical forms are to be observed **in interrogative constructions.** Compare:

Mid.E. *Like you it?*                      and                      *Do you like it?*

The first construction was to some extent ambiguous. The fact is that in English the verb and the noun in many cases were homonymous in form due to the loss of unstressed inflections and due to the breaking down of the Old English system of declension. As a result of these historical changes the first construction was especially ambiguous in cases when both the subject and the object were nouns: *Likes the King the Queen?*

Besides, in the constructions of the type *Like you it?* the predicate-verb and its object appeared to be disconnected syntactically. This was not very convenient as in New E. a rigid and **fixed word order** was established, it having **grammatical value.** In the second construction *Do you like it?* the ambiguity is excluded as the auxiliary verb *do* makes the construction more distinct clearly pointing out the interrogative character of the sentence. On the other hand, the analytical verbal form made it possible to preserve to some extent the habitual common word order characteristic of the English sentence (subject – predicate - object).

#### ☞ *Questions for further discussion*

I Grammatical system in New English period.

1. The System of Pronouns in NE.
2. Changes in the System of the Verb in New English.
3. Development of Analytical Forms / Development of the Continuous Aspect.
4. Development of the future tense.
5. Development of the Analytical Forms with Do.

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## LECTURE 9

### *1. Evolution of the English vocabulary*

In tracing back the history of the English vocabulary two fundamental problems should be taken into consideration:

1. Etymology of words or the historical origin of the vocabulary
2. The importance of various words for the vocabulary, the role which they play, the place they hold in language or **semantic areas** the words belong to; different expressive means, stylistic reference, register the words belong to (whether the words belong to poetical, bookish or neuter style).

### *2. The historical origin of the English vocabulary*

From this point of view, OE words may be divided into 2 groups:

1. borrowings or loan words, sometimes characterized as foreign element of the vocabulary;
2. native element of the vocabulary.

This division is a relative one, this is due to the fact that many loan words having been borrowed from other languages became so much assimilated to the native stock that they assumed morphological and phonetic features of native words (very, table, window, husband). From the point of view of present speech they can hardly be interpreted as foreign words because their behavior is not influenced in any way by their origin. They have become assimilated to the native stock and are no longer perceived as borrowings. The farther away we go into the depth of history, the more difficult it becomes to decide the origin of words, sometimes it is next to impossible to determine whether a word is a borrowing or a native one.

The O.E. vocabulary was in the main homogeneous, the number of borrowings was limited.

### *3. Native Element of English Vocabulary*

Native words may be grouped into 3 groups:

1. **Common Germanic words**, which have corresponding etymological parallels in all Germanic languages:

OE dæg // OHG Dag  
 // Gothic dags  
 // Old Norse dagr

OE mǎnn // OHG Mann  
 // ON maðr < \*mann + r  
 // Gothic manna

OE ān // Gothic ains

OE seon // OHG sehen [ze:n]  
 // ON sja  
 // Gothic saihvan [sehwan] – to see

OE þu // OHG du  
 // Gothic þu  
 // ON þu

OE ic // Gothic ik  
 // OHG ich  
 // ON ek (I)

2. The second group of the native element includes the so-called **West-Germanic words** that have corresponding etymological parallels only in West Germanic languages (OE, Old Saxon, OHG). The number of these words is comparatively limited:

OE fox // OHG fuhs [fu:hs]  
 OE beo(n) // OHG bin  
 OE macian // OHG machen [ma:hen]  
 // OSaxon makojan [makojan]

3. The third group is represented by a few words occurring **only in English**, thus having no etymological parallels in other Germanic languages.

OE cæȝ (key)  
 OE ȝirl (girl)  
 OE boȝ (boy)

These are words with unknown etymology.

#### ***4. Foreign element of English vocabulary***

Among borrowings Latin and Celtic words are distinguished: in OE about 400 Latin words are to be found which were borrowed at various times and in various ways.

A number of Latin loans belonged to the so-called **popular borrowings** in the result of a concrete lively contact between the two peoples. Other words belonged to the so-called **bookish or scientific borrowings**.

**Popular Latin** words were borrowed before the settlement of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons when the Anglo-Saxons lived on the continent and were Romanized.

Therefore they are called **continental borrowings**; they are common to other Germanic languages. To this group also belong some commercial words:

OE ceapian (to sell) < Latin cauponari < caupo (petty) and onis (trader).

OE pund < Latin pondo (pound).

Inch < OE ynche (ynke < Latin uncia)

Mod.E mint < OE mynet < Latin moneta.

Here belong some other cultural terms, connected with food and dishes:

OE cōc < Latin cocus, coqus (cook)

OE cycene < Latin coquina [kokwina]

OE disc < Latin discus

OE cuppe < Latin cuppa (cup).

Some words connected with construction:

OE cealc (chalk) < Latin calx (calceum)

OE tizle < Latin tegula (tile – черепица)

OE pōle < Latin palus (pole – столб)

OE stræt < Latin strata (strata via – мощеная дорога)

The most considerable influence on the English vocabulary was due to the contact with the Romans at the end of 6th century when the English were Christianized (507 – 600). The adoption of a new religion brought into English many ecclesiastical (церковные) terms:

OE deofol < Latin diabolus // Russian дьявол < Greek

OE enzel < Latin angelus

OE munic < Latin monachus // Greek monachos // Russian монах

OE biscop < Latin episcopus // Russian епископ // Armenian episcopos

OE cyrice < Latin < Greek kuriakon (of the Lord) // Arm. Kiraki (the day of the Lord)

### ***5. Middle English and its influence on English vocabulary***

The Middle English period in the English history is marked by two important historical events, which influenced the further development of the English language:

1. The Scandinavian invasion
2. The Norman conquest

In the result of these two events English came into contact with:

- ✓ Scandinavian dialects
- ✓ The French language

As a result of this contact English underwent the influence especially of Scandinavian dialects (Danish and Norwegian). It is very probable that the fusion of English with Scandinavian dialects brought to changes in the grammatical system of English, especially of English morphology.

### **Scandinavian and French influence compared**

In the result of the historically established conditions the English language underwent the influence of Scandinavian and French which were differing from each other by a number of reasons.

1. There was no great social difference between the Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians. This fact favoured the easy and rapid assimilation of the two peoples, whereas the social difference between the Anglo-Saxons and the French was rather strong.

2. There was much in common in the mode of life of Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians, in fact the life of these northern peoples remained the life of earlier Englishmen, their customs, their religion and social order were the same. Just for this reason the fusion of Scandinavians with English was rather peaceful and complete. The French differed from Anglo-Saxons in this respect too.

3. The linguistic relation between the Scandinavian and English was also different as compared with that of English and French. A great number

of words were identical in English and Scandinavian, so that we are unable to tell from which language the word originated.

The consequence was that an Englishman had no difficulty in understanding a Viking. A mutual difference between two languages took place in the course of lively communication. This accounts for the fact that Scandinavian influence is often deep and rather difficult to catch. The difference of Scandinavian and French is clearly reflected in the vocabulary as well as in grammar. Among Scandinavian borrowings we find a great number of words of everyday so that we are unable to tell from which language the word originated.

For instance, **nouns**: man, wife, father, mother, house, life, winter, summer, sorrow, folk.

**Verbs**: will, can, call, cast, meet, bring, think, hear, stand, sit, set, smile, take, ride.

**Adjectives**: full, wise, well, better, best.

**Prepositions**: over, under.

**Pronouns**: they, their, them, mine.

All these words were common in English and in Old Norse (Old North) because they both are Germanic languages. The consequence was that an Englishman would not have any difficulty in understanding a Viking. The mutual influence between English and Norse took place in the course of lively communication. This accounts for the fact that the Scandinavian influence is often deep and rather difficult to catch. The difference of Scandinavian and French influence is clearly reflected in the **vocabulary** as well as in **grammar**. Among Scandinavian borrowings we find side by side with words relating to government and military affairs a great number of borrowings relating to everyday life, the latter prevailing over the former.

Considerable was the Scandinavian influence upon the **English syntax**: with this influence is connected the use of the **auxiliary verbs *should, would*** in the analytical moods as well as the spread of verb-adverb combinations (take up, give in, put up with, the so-called ***phrasal verbs***).

Quite different character had **the French influence** with its reflection both in vocabulary and in grammar. From linguistic point of view those languages were different because people speaking these languages belonged to different strata of the society. This resulted in the fact that the words

borrowed from French reflected tastes and lifestyle, interests of the feudals and are as a whole of aristocratic character. Here belong various titles and terms of feudal rank, words relating to government and military matters, to culture, music, art as well as many words connected with religion.

1) **Words denoting various titles** — baron, duke, count, prince, princess, peer, duke, dutchess.

2) **Words related to government** — to govern, government, parliament, court, court of law.

3) **Words connected with military matters** — army, victory, battle.

4) **Words connected with culture** — art, music, picture, colour, picturesque, pleasure, leisure.

5) **Words related to religion** — religion, prayer, to pray.

6) **Words denoting various crafts** — tailor, butcher, painter (to paint walls), carpenter.

On the other hand, the **French** language had no influence whatsoever on the **grammatical structure** of the English language, some influence may be traced in English word-building. A number of French prefixes and suffixes are found to have penetrated into the English language together with the borrowed word itself.

The suffix **-able** penetrated into English with the words *remarkable*, *passable*, *aimable*. By analogy with them, new words were formed from Anglo-Saxon roots by means of these suffixes: eatable, drinkable, understandable.

The suffix **-ess** entered the English language with the French words *princess*, *actress*, *dutchess* and was later added to the Anglo-Saxon roots: *goddess*, *waitress*, *lioness*.

The prefix **re-** of French origin entered the English language together with such French words as *return*, *refresh*. Later by analogy this prefix came to be added to the **Anglo-Saxon** roots with the meaning of repetition of the action: – redo, reread, rewrite, remake.

**in-, il-, ir-, im-,** — inaccurate, inadequate, inequality; impossible, impassable, illegal, illiterate, illogical; irregular, irrelative, .

## 6. Formation of the National Literary Language

### Spread of London Dialect in the 15th century

In the course of the 15th century the London literary language gradually spread all over the country suppressing local dialects. Spoken English in various parts of Britain gradually approaches literary norm; differences between norm and popular speech tend to become obliterated. The formation of the national language was greatly fostered (favoured) by two events of the late 15th century.

The most significant event of the period was the wars of the Roses (1455–1485) which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. The wars came to an end in the battle of Bosworth, when Richard III was defeated by Henry Tudor who became King of England as Henry VII. The political result of this prolonged struggle was the rise of an absolute monarchy. This meant a high degree of political centralization and thus contributed to centralization in language as well, that is, to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

Another great event was the introduction of printing. Printing was invented in Mayence (Germany) by Johan Gutenberg in 1438. From Mayence printing spread to Strasburg, then to Italy and to the Netherlands. In the town of Bruges, in Flanders, the Englishman William Caxton (1422 – 1491) became acquainted with this art. He published the first English printed book (The Recuyeil of the Histories of Troy) in Bruges. Returning to England, he founded the first English printing office in London in 1476, and in 1477 appeared the first book to be printed in England, namely, *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*.

The spread of printed books was bound to foster the normalization of spelling and grammatical forms. However, within the limits of the recognized norm there existed a possibility of variants and there was greater freedom than in later times. Thus, there were such pronunciation variants as:

Bisie – East Midland dialect,

Busie – Kentish dialect,

East midland variant

Southern variant

than

then

whan

when

geve

give



The forms *fader* and *father* coexisted, the first reflecting an earlier pronunciation, the second – the later change of [d] into [ð].

Social changes of the 16th century created the conditions for a great cultural progress and the growth of a national literature. The 16th century was a time of great literary achievements. The early poetical works of Wyatt and Surrey were followed by the works of Edmund Spenser (1552–1599), the 80s and 90s witness the rise of a great number of dramatists. The greatest of these was William Shakespeare (1564–1616). His contemporaries were: Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593), Benjamin (Ben) Jonson (1573–1637), Philip Massinger (1583–1640), John Fletcher (1579–1625) and many others. This epoch, which historians usually call Elizabethan after queen Elizabeth I, who reigned in 1558–1603, belongs to the period of Early Modern English.

The 17th and 18th centuries witnessed some great social and political upheavals which influenced the language as well. The most outstanding events of the time were the bourgeois revolution of the 17th century, the Restoration of 1660 and the industrial revolution in the 18th century.

Until the early 17 c. English was only spoken in the British Isles. In the 17th c. the English crossed the borders of the island. With the first English settlers in America the language entered the New World. A first attempt of founding an English colony in America was made in 1584, but this brought about no results: most settlers died of famine and epidemics. First a group of puritans crossed into the Netherlands, and in 1620 the famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America in the region which is now the state of Massachusetts. This was the start of English colonies in America which eventually separated from the metropolis and became the United States of America. This was also the beginning of history of English in the New World.

Meanwhile political struggle in Britain became more and more acute and led to civil war, which ended with a puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwealth in 1649.

About the middle of the 18th c. there appears a tendency to limit the freedom of phonetic and grammatical variants within the national language. The influential statesmen considered that the right to set the law in language matters should belong to a narrow circle of educated society people. The idea of a strict norm in language was expressed in a preface appended by

Samuel Johnson (1709–1784) to his famous Dictionary published in 1755. Dr. Samuel Johnson preferred the *regular and solemn* pronunciation to the *cursorial and colloquial*.

### 7. Hybrid Languages

These are dialects arising in the Pacific area and in Africa and based on combining local structure with English vocabulary. The chief hybrid languages are:

- 1) Pidgin English which existed for some time in Eastern China and Japan;
- 2) Beach – la – Mar on the Pacific coast;
- 3) Kroom English in Africa.

The term *Pidgin English* is a changed pronunciation of the phrase Business English. Pidgin English arose in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. It served as a means of communication between the local population and the colonizers in China, Japan, the South Seas, and also in California.

*Beach – la – Mar* is a jargon used in commercial relations in the Pacific area.

*Kroom English* is used in Liberia and Guinea in West Africa. It is a mixed language on an English basis with admixture of Portuguese words.

There is no declension or conjugation in the hybrid languages. There is usually no difference between the singular and the plural of nouns. Beach – la – Mar uses the word *all* to denote plurality. The idea of possession is expressed by the word *belong*, as in *wife belong you* meaning *your wife*. There is no category of tense in verbs. The idea of future is usually expressed by the phrase *by and by*, as in the sentence *brother belong-a me by and by he dead* meaning *my brother will soon die*.

### 8. Enrichment of Vocabulary in the Renaissance Period

The 15th century is marked in Europe by a great cultural movement named the Renaissance. Its homeland was Italy. It meant liberation of cultural life from the pressure of medieval scholastics and rise of free scientific research. This movement was closely connected with the rise of

young bourgeois culture in the epoch of primary accumulation. The chief men of the Renaissance in Italy were Francesco Petrarca (1304–1374) and Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375). In England we may consider Geoffrey Chaucer as a forerunner of the Renaissance. From such cultural centres as **Oxford** and **Canterbury** the movement spread all over the country. Roman and Greek authors became widely known, their language and style were studied.

**Latin**, which in the Middle Ages had been the international language of the church, now became the international language of the **new science**. At the same time, the great **geographical discoveries** had completely altered the outlook of the world. Bold seafarers of the early capitalist epoch had penetrated into remote countries in search of commercial routes. Christopher Columbus, at the head of a Spanish expedition, seeking a sea route to India, discovered America in 1492.

In 1497 the Portuguese **Vasco de Gama** rounded the Cape of Good Hope and discovered a sea route to India. All these new features of Renaissance life had a far-reaching influence on the English language. Lively connection with advanced countries of the time, in the first place with Italy, ties with the new world brought about an influx of loan words from Italian and Spanish, and from American Indian languages.

At the same time, the flourishing of classical philology, study of Greek and Roman authors, and wide use of Latin as an international scholars' language gave English a number of words borrowed from classical languages.

### ***Italian and Spanish words***

*Italian words belong mainly to the sphere of art:*

Finale [fina:li] — финал

Violin — скрипка

Cornice — карниз

Umbrella — зонт

Balcony — балкон

Grotto — пещера, грот

Bandit — бандит

Volcano — вулкан

Gondola — гондола (лодка)

Motto — лозунг, слоган

Rivulet [rivjulet] — ручеёк

*Words borrowed from Spanish belong to different spheres of life:*

Armada [a ma:də] — армада

Renegade [renigeid] — изменник, ренегат

Desperado — сорвиголова

Negro — негр, черный

Sherry — херес (вино)

Alcove [ælkouv] — ниша, альков

Pavan — паван (танец)

Saraband [særæbænd] — сарабанда (танец)

Tornado [to: neidou] — смерч

mosquito — комар

### **Latin Words**

#### **Verbs in — ate:**

Abbreviate [əbrivieit] — сокращать

Aggravate [æggriveit] — усугублять, ухудшать

Exaggerate — преувеличивать

Frustrate — разрушать, расстраивать (планы)

Irritate [iriteit] — раздражать

Separate — разделять, отделять

#### **Verbs in — ute: constitute — составлять**

Attribute — приписывать

Contribute — сотрудничать, вносить вклад (лепту)

Pollute — загрязнять

Prosecute — преследовать

Execute [eksikjut] — исполнять

Persecute [pə:sikjut] — преследовать

#### **Adjectives in – ant, - ent:**

Arrogant — надменный

Poignant [poinjənt] — резкий, острый, едкий, пикантный, мучительный

Reluctant — неохотный, вынужденный

Transparent — прозрачный

Expedient [ikspi:djənt] — подходящий, надлежащий, целесообразный

Evident — явный, очевидный

Obedient — покорный, послушный

Patient — терпеливый

Lenient — снисходительный

**Adjectives in – ior:**

Superior — высший, старший, лучший, превосходный

Inferior — подчиненный, младший

Interior — внутренний

Senior — старший

Junior — младший

Minor — мелкий, незначительный

**Nouns in – ent:**

Accident — несчастный случай

Incident — случай, происшествие

Occident — запад (поэтич.)

Orient — восток

Crescent [kresent] — полумесяц

***Greek words yielded English a number of terms of science:***

Anarchy [ænəki] — анархия

Aristocracy аристократия

Democracy — демократия

Geography — география

Geometry — геометрия

Physics — физика

**A number of words — loans from German:**

Kindergarten детский сад

Waltz — вальс

***Words from India:***

Bungalow дом, хижина

Dinghy [dɪŋi] — шлюпка (надувная)

Coolie — кули, носильщик, грузчик (Китай, Индия, Индонезия)

Kowtow [kautau] — низкий поклон (в знак уважения)

***Persian words:*** caravan — караван

***Turkish words:*** giaour [giaur]

***North American words:***

Cannibal — каннибал  
Canoe [kənu:] — каноэ  
Colibri — колибри (птица)  
Hammock [hæmək] — гамак  
Maize — кукуруза  
Potato — картофель  
Mahogany — красное дерево  
Tobacco — табак

***South American words:***

Buccaneer [bakəniə]  
Caoutchuk — каучук  
Cauman — кайман  
Condor [kondo:] — кондор (птица из семейства грифов)  
Guano [gwənu] — ящерица, гуана  
Jaguar [dʒæɡjuə] — ягуар  
Puma [pjumə] — пума  
Tapir [teipə] — тапир (животное с хоботком)

***Words borrowed from Russian:***

Borzoï — борзая (собака)  
Czar (tsar) [za:] — царь  
Glasnost — гласность  
Knout [naut] — кнут  
Kolkhoz — колхоз  
Perestroika — перестройка  
Soviet — совет  
Sputnik — спутник  
Verst [və:st] — верста

☞ *Questions for further discussion*

1. Evolution of the English vocabulary.
3. Native Element of English Vocabulary.
4. Foreign element of English vocabulary.
5. Middle English and its influence on English vocabulary:  
– Scandinavian and French influence compared.

6. Formation of the National Literary Language.
7. Hybrid Languages.
8. Enrichment of Vocabulary in the Renaissance Period.

☞ *List of literature*

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3. Пузанова, Н. А. Становления синонимических рядов в истории английского языка / Н. А. Пузанова. — Когнитивные исследования языка, 2010. — № 6. — С. 339–340.

## TABLES

### Системе гласных и согласных в древнеанглийском языке

#### Гласные и дифтонги

a	ā	æ	ǣ	e	ē	i	ī	o
[ɑ]	[ɑ:]	[æ]	[æ:]	[e]	[e:]	[i]	[i:]	[o]
ō	u	ū	y	ȳ	ea	eo	ie	
[o:]	[u]	[u:]	[y]	[y:]	[æa]	[eo, eo]	[i]	

#### Согласные

b	c	cz/cg	d	ð	f	ff	z/g	h	l	m
[b]	[k, ʃ]	[tʃ]	[d]	[θ, ð]	[f, v]	[f:]	[g, ɣ, j, dʒ]	[h, ɣ, x]	[l]	[m]
n	p	r	s	ss	sc	t	p	þþ	p/w	x
[n]	[p]	[r]	[s, z]	[s:]	[ʃ, sk]	[t]	[θ, ð]	[θ:]	[w]	[ks]

Некоторые сокращения, которые использовались в Древнеанглийских рукописях

7	þ	-	g/ȝ	poñ
and/ond	þæt	-m or -n	ge-ȝe-	bonne
				eg. sūne = sumne



## Руны

1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
ƿ	feoh	f	богатство	ᚱ, ᚲ	beorc	b	береза
ᚋ	ūr	ū	дикий бык	ᚑ	eh	e	конь
ᚦ	þorn	θ	колючка	ᚖ	man	m	человек
ᚱ, ᚲ	ōs	ō	бог	ᚗ	lagu	l	вода, лук
ᚱ	rād	r	чпряжь	ᚘ	ing	ng	Инг*
ᚕ	cēn	k'	факел	ᚙ, ᚛	ēvel	ē	родина
ᚕ	gyfu	g'	дар	᚛	dæg	d	день
ᚱ	wynn	w	радость, луг	᚞	āc	ā	дуб
᚞	hægl	h	град	᚟	æsk	æ	ясень
᚛	nȳd	n	нужда	ᚠ, ᚡ	ȳr	ȳ	топориче
ᚗ	is	i	лед	ᚢ	ior	io	змея
ᚠ, ᚡ	jēr	j	год	ᚣ	ēar	ēa	прах, могила?
ᚢ, ᚣ	eoh	ē	тис	ᚤ, ᚥ	calc	c	мел?
ᚢ	peorð	p	кобыла	ᚦ	stān	st	камень
ᚣ, ᚤ, ᚥ	eolx	x	лось, тростник	ᚧ	gweorð	g	костер?
ᚣ	sigel	s	солнце	ᚨ, ᚩ	gār	g	копьё
ᚤ	tīr	t	Тир*				

## Breaking and Diphthongization in OE

Conditions		Change illustrated		Examples		
		Early OE	OE	Other OG languages and OE dialects	WS	NE
Breaking	before <i>l + l</i> or <i>l + other consonants</i>	æ	ea	Gt alls Merc all North ald	eall  eald	<i>all</i>  <i>old</i>
	<i>h</i> <i>h + other consonants</i>	æ: æ e	ea: ea eo	OHG nâh Gt ahtau OHG fehtan	neah eahta feohtan	<i>near</i> <i>eight</i> <i>fight</i>
	<i>r + other consonants</i>	e æ	eo ea	OHG herza OHG arm Gt hardus	heorte earn heard	<i>heart</i> <i>arm</i> <i>hard</i>
Diphthongisation	sk'	e	ie	OHG skild OHG scal	sciold, scyld	<i>shield</i> <i>shall</i>
	after k'	æ	ea	Gt skadus	sceal sceadu	<i>shade</i>
		e æ	ie ea	cerasus (L) loan-words castra (L)	cieres, cyrs ceaster	<i>cherries</i>  <i>chester</i> (camp)
	j	æ: e	ea: ie	OHG jâr Gt giban	Ʒear Ʒiefan	<i>year</i> <i>give</i>

## Palatal Mutation in OE

Change illustrated		Examples		
Vowels prior to palatal mutation	Mutated vowels	Gt or OE (without palatal mutation)	OE (palatal mutation)	NE
æ		Gt mats	mete	<i>meat</i>
a	e	OE sala, Gt saljan	sellan	<i>sale, sell</i>
o		Gt sandjan	sendan	<i>send</i>
a:	æ:	OE lâr, Gt laisjan OE ān	lâran âniƷ	'teaching', 'teach' <i>one, any</i>

Change illustrated			Examples	
Vowels prior to palatal mutation	Mutated vowels	Gt or OE (without palatal mutation)	OE (palatal mutation)	NE
o o:	e e:	OE dohtor OE bōc OE dōm Gt gadōmjan	dehter bēc  dēman	<i>daughter</i> <i>book, books</i> <i>doom</i> <i>deem</i>
u	y	OE full Gt fulljan	fyllan	<i>full</i> <i>fill</i>
u:	y:	OE mūs	mȳs	<i>mouse, mice</i>
ea eo	ie	OE eald OE feor	ieldra fierra	<i>old, elder</i> <i>far, farther</i>
ea: eo:	ie:	OE zelēafa Gt galaubjan OE þeod	zelīefan elþiediz	<i>belief,</i> <i>believe</i> <i>‘tribe’, ‘of a tribe’</i>

### Old English Consonants

Place of articulation		Labial, labiodental	Forelingual (dental)	Mediolingual (palatal)	Back lingual (velar)
Manner of articulation		Губной (губно-зубной)	Переднеязычный (зубной)	Среднеязычный (небный)	Заднеязычный (задненебный)
Noise Consonants	plosive voiceless	p p:	t t:	k' k':	k k:
	voiced	b b:	d d:	g':	g g:
	fricative - voiceless	f f:	θ θ: s s:	x' x':	x x: (h)
	voiced	v	ð z	γ' (j)	γ
Sonorants		m m: w	n n: r l	j	(ŋ)

## Quantitative Vowel Changes in Late Old English and Early Middle English

Phonetic conditions	Change illustrated	Examples		
		OE	ME	NE
Before homorganic consonant sequences: sonorant plus plosive ( <i>ld, nd, mb</i> )	Vowels become long	cild findan climban cold feld fundon gold	child [tʃi:ld] finden [ˈfi:ndən] climben [ˈkli:mbən] cold [ko:ld] field [fe:ld] founden [ˈfu:ndən] gold [go:ld]	<i>child</i> <i>find</i> <i>climb</i> <i>cold</i> <i>field</i> <i>found</i> <i>gold</i>
Before other consonant sequences	Vowels become short	fiftiȝ fēdde mētte wīsdōm	fifty [ˈfifti] fedde [ˈfeddə] mette [ˈmettə] wisdom [ˈwɪzdəm]	<i>fifty</i> <i>fed</i> <i>met</i> <i>wisdom</i>
In open syllables	Vowels become long and more open	mete stelan macian talu nosu stolen yfel duru	mete [ˈmɛ:tə] stelen [ˈstɛ:lən] maken [ˈma:kən] tale [ˈta:lə] nose [ˈno:zə] stolen [ˈsto:lən] yvel, evel [i:], [e:] doore [ˈdo:rə]	<i>meat</i> <i>steal</i> <i>make</i> <i>tale</i> <i>nose</i> <i>stolen</i> <i>evil</i> <i>door</i>

### Middle English Vowels

Monophthongs					Diphthongs				
Short	i	e	a	o	u	ei	ai	oi	au
Long	i:	e:	ɛ:	a:	ø:	o:	u:	au	ou

[ø]: as in *stone*

### Development of Old English Diphthongs in Early Middle English

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
ea:	ɛ:	ēast	eest [ɛ:st]	<i>east</i>
æ:	ɛ:	rēad stræt	reed [rɛ:d] street [stre:t]	<i>red</i> <i>street</i>
eo:	e:	dēop	deep [de:p]	<i>deep</i>
e:	e:	cēosan hē	chesen [ˈtʃe:zən] he [he:]	<i>choose</i> <i>he</i>

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
ie:	i: e:	līhtan hīeran	lighten [ˈli:xˈtən] heren [ˈhe:rən]	<i>lighten</i> <i>hear</i>
i: e:	i: e:	rīsan cēpan	risen [ˈri:zən] kepen [ˈke:pən]	<i>rise</i> <i>keep</i>
ea æ	a a	earm bæc	arm [arm] back [bak]	<i>arm</i> <i>back</i>
eo e	e e	heorte bedd	herte [ˈhertə] bed [bed]	<i>heart</i> <i>bed</i>
ie  i e	i e i e	nieht, niht hierde, hyrde hit (see <i>bedd</i> above)	night [nixˈt] herd [herd] it [it]	<i>night</i> <i>'shepherd'</i> <i>it</i>

### Development of Sibilants and Affricates in Early Middle English

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
k'	tʃ	cild tācan	child [tʃi:ld] techen [ˈtetʃən]	<i>child</i> <i>teach</i>
g'	dʒ	ecʒe brycʒe	edge [ˈedʒə] bridge [ˈbridʒə]	<i>edge</i> <i>bridge</i>
sk'	ʃ	fisc scēap	fish [fiʃ] sheep [ʃe:p]	<i>fish</i> <i>sheep</i>

### Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling

Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants
Single letters	
<i>a</i> [a] <i>y</i> , as well as <i>i</i> [i] <i>o</i> [o] or [u]	<i>c</i> [s] or [k] <i>f</i> [f] <i>g</i> [dʒ] or [g] <i>j</i> [dʒ] <i>k</i> [k] <i>s</i> [s] or [z] <i>v</i> (often spelt as <i>u</i> ) [v] <i>y</i> [j]

Digraphs	
<i>ee</i> [e:] or [ɛ:] <i>ie</i> [e:] <i>oo</i> [o:] <i>ou</i> [u:] or [ou] <i>ow</i> [u:] or [ou]	<i>ch, tch</i> [tʃ] <i>dg</i> [dʒ] <i>gh</i> [x] or [xʰ] <i>qu</i> [kw] <i>th</i> [θ] or [ð] <i>sh, sch, ssh</i> [ʃ] <i>wh</i> [hw]

## THE NOUN

### Morphological Classification of Nouns in Old English

*Division according to stem*

Vocalic stems				Consonantal stems		
Strong declension <sup>1</sup>				<i>n</i> -stems (weak declension)	Root-stems	Other minor stems: <i>r</i> -, <i>s</i> -, <i>nd</i> -
<i>a</i> -stems <b><i>and their</i></b> <i>ja</i> -stems <i>wa</i> -stems	<i>ō</i> -stems <b><i>variants</i></b> <i>jō</i> -stems <i>wō</i> -stems	<i>i</i> -stems	<i>u</i> -stems			

*Division according to gender*

MN	F	MNF	MF	MNF	MF	MNF
----	---	-----	----	-----	----	-----

*Division according to length of the root vowel*

short long	short long	short long	short long			
---------------	---------------	---------------	---------------	--	--	--

<sup>1</sup> Vocalic stems are also called the “strong” declension; one of the consonantal stems – the *n*-stems – is termed the “weak” declension.

**DECLENSION OF NOUNS**  
**Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems)**

<i>a</i> -stems					
Singular					
	short-stemmed	long-stemmed	<i>ja</i> -stems	<i>wa</i> -stems	
M	N	N	M	N	
<i>Nom.</i>	fisc	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
<i>Gen.</i>	fisc <b>es</b>	scip <b>es</b>	dēor <b>es</b>	end <b>es</b>	cnēow <b>es</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	fisc <b>e</b>	scip <b>e</b>	dēor <b>e</b>	end <b>e</b>	cnēow <b>e</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	fisc	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
Plural					
<i>Nom.</i>	fisc <b>es</b>	scip <b>u</b>	dēor	end <b>as</b>	cnēo(w)
<i>Gen.</i>	fisc <b>a</b>	scip <b>a</b>	dēor <b>a</b>	end <b>a</b>	cnēow <b>a</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	fisc <b>um</b>	scip <b>um</b>	dēor <b>um</b>	end <b>um</b>	cnēow <b>um</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	fisc <b>as</b>	scip <b>u</b>	dēor	end <b>as</b>	cnēo(w)
	(NE <i>fish</i> )	(NE <i>scip</i> )	(NE <i>deer</i> )	(NE <i>end</i> )	(NE <i>knee</i> )

**Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems)**

Singular					
<i>ō</i> -stems		<i>i</i> -stems		<i>u</i> -stems	
short-stemmed	long-stemmed	short-stemmed	short-stemmed	long-stemmed	long-stemmed
F		M	F		
<i>Nom.</i>	talu	wund	mete	sunu	feld
<i>Gen.</i>	tale	wunde	met <b>es</b>	sun <b>a</b>	feld <b>a</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	tale	wunde	mete	sun <b>a</b>	feld <b>a</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	tale	wunde	mete	sun <b>u</b>	feld <b>a</b>
Plural					
<i>Nom.</i>	tal <b>a, -e</b>	wund <b>a, -e</b>	met <b>e, -as</b>	sun <b>a</b>	feld <b>a</b>
<i>Gen.</i>	tal <b>a (-ena)</b>	wund <b>a (-ena)</b>	met <b>a</b>	sun <b>a</b>	feld <b>a</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	tal <b>um</b>	wund <b>um</b>	met <b>um</b>	sun <b>um</b>	feld <b>um</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	tal <b>a, -e</b>	wund <b>a, -e</b>	met <b>e, -as</b>	sun <b>a</b>	feld <b>a</b>
	(NE <i>tale</i> )	(NE <i>wound</i> )	(NE <i>meat</i> )	(NE <i>son</i> )	(NE <i>field</i> )

### Consonantal Stems

Singular					
n-stems (weak declension)			root-stems		
	M	N	F	M	F
<i>Nom.</i>	nama	ēare	tun3e	fōt	mūs
<i>Gen.</i>	<b>naman</b>	<b>ēaran</b>	<b>tun3an</b>	<b>fōtes</b>	<b>mÿs, mūse</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	<b>naman</b>	<b>ēaran</b>	<b>tun3an</b>	<b>fēt</b>	<b>mÿs</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	<b>naman</b>	<b>ēaran</b>	<b>tun3an</b>	fōt	mūs
Plural					
<i>Nom.</i>	<b>naman</b>	<b>ēaran</b>	<b>tun3an</b>	<b>fēt</b>	<b>mÿs</b>
<i>Gen.</i>	<b>namena</b>	<b>ēarena</b>	<b>tun3ena</b>	<b>fōta</b>	<b>mūsa</b>
<i>Dat.</i>	<b>namum</b>	<b>ēarum</b>	<b>tun3um</b>	<b>fēt</b>	<b>mūsum</b>
<i>Acc.</i>	<b>naman</b>	<b>ēaran</b>	<b>tun3an</b>	<b>fēt</b>	<b>mÿs</b>
	(NE <i>name</i> )	(NE <i>ear</i> )	(NE <i>tongue</i> )	(NE <i>foot</i> )	(NE <i>mouse</i> )

### Declension of Nouns in the Late 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries

Main Declension			Variant forms and deviations
<i>Singular</i>			
Comm. case	<i>fish, end(e) tale, sun(e), etc. wolf, hous(e), etc.</i>		lady/ladys, fader/faderes
Gen. case	<i>fishes, endes, tales, sunes, etc. wolves, houses, etc.</i>		
<i>Plural</i>			
Comm. case	<i>fishes, endes tales, sunes, etc. wolves, houses, etc.</i>		hors/horses/horsen, thing/thinges, eyen/eyes
Gen. case	<i>fishes, endes tales, sunes wolves, houses, etc.</i>		
Minor Groups			
<i>Singular</i>			
Comm. case	<i>foot, mous(e), ox</i>		
Gen. case	<i>footes, mousse, oxen</i>		
<i>Plural</i>			
Comm. case	<i>feet, mis(e), oxen</i>		brothers/brethren children/children
Gen. case	<i>feetes, mices, oxen(es)</i>		



## THE VERB

### Weak Verbs in Old English

Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II (with prefix <b>3e-</b> )	NE
I	<i>-an/-ian</i>	<i>-de/-ede/-te</i>	<i>-ed/-d/-t</i>	<i>stir tame deem keep tell think</i>
	(a) styrian	styrede	styred	
	(b) temman	temede	temed	
	(c) dēman	dēmde	dēmed	
	(d) cēpan	cēpte	cēped	
	(e) tellan	tealde	teald	
(f) þyncan	þūhte	þūht		
II	<i>-ian</i>	<i>-ode</i>	<i>-od</i>	<i>look</i>
	lōcian	lōcode	lōcod	
III	<i>-an</i>	<i>-de</i>	<i>-d</i>	<i>live have</i>
	libban habban	lifde hæfde	lifd hæfd	

### Strong Verbs in Old English

Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Participle II (with prefix <b>3e-</b> )	NE
1	wrītan	wrāt	writon	writen	<i>write</i>
2	(a) cēosan	cēas	curon	coren	<i>choose</i>
	(b) būzan	bēaz	buzon	bozen	<i>bow</i>
3	(a) fīndan	fand	fundon	funden	<i>find</i>
	(b) helpan	healp	hulpon	holpen	<i>help</i>
	(c) feohtan	feaht	fuhton	fohten	<i>fight</i>
4	beran	bær	báeron	boren	<i>bear</i>
5	(a) cweðan	cwæð	cwædon	cweden	'say'
	(b) sittan	sæt	sáeton	seten	<i>sit</i>
6	scacan	scōc	scōcon	scacen	<i>shake</i>
7	(a) hātan	hēt (heht)	hēton	hāten	'call',
	(b) 3rōwan	3rēow	(hehton) 3rēowon	3rōwen	'name' grow

### Conjugation of Verbs in Old English

	Strong		Weak	
<i>Infinitive</i>	findan (NE <i>find</i> )	beran <i>bear</i>	dēman <i>deem</i>	lōcian <i>look</i>
<b>Present Tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Singular 1 <sup>st</sup>	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
2 <sup>nd</sup>	fintst	bir(e)st	dēmst	lōcast
3 <sup>rd</sup>	fint	bir(e)þ	dēmþ	lōcaþ
Plural	findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Singular	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
Plural	finden	beren	dēmen	lōcien
<i>Imperative</i>				
Singular	find	ber	dēm	lōca
Plural	findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<i>Participle I</i>	findende	berende	dēmende	lōciende
<b>Past Tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Singular 1 <sup>st</sup>	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
2 <sup>nd</sup>	funde	bære	dēmdest	lōcodest
3 <sup>rd</sup>	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
Plural	fundon	bæron	dēmdon	lōcodon
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Singular	funde	bære	dēmde	lōcode
Plural	funden	bæren	dēmden	lōcoden
<i>Participle II</i>	(æe)fundon (æe)boren		(æe)dēmed	(æe)lōcod

### Conjugation of Preterite-Presents in Old English

	cunnan (NE <i>can</i> )	sculan (NE <i>shall, should</i> )
<b>Infinitive</b>		
<b>Present Tense</b>		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1 <sup>st</sup>	cann	sceal(l)
2 <sup>nd</sup>	canst	scealt
3 <sup>rd</sup>	cann	sceal(l)
Plural	cunnon	sculon
<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cunne	scule, scyle

Plural	cunnen	sculen, scylen
Participle I	-	- <sup>1</sup>
<b>Past Tense</b>		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1 <sup>st</sup>	cūðe	sceolde
2 <sup>nd</sup>	cūðest	sceoldest
3 <sup>rd</sup>	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðon	sceoldon
<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðen	sceolden
Participle II	cunnen, cūð	-

<sup>1</sup> These verbs had no Participle I; some preterite-presents built Participle I from the

<sup>2</sup> Present Tense stem, e.g. OE *mazan*, *mæz*, Participle I – *mæzende* (NE *may*).

## ADJECTIVE

### Declension of Adjectives

Singular						
Strong (pure <i>a</i> - and <i>ō</i> -stems)				Weak		
	M	N	F	M	N	F
<i>Nom.</i>	blind	blind	blind	blinda	blinde	blinde
<i>Gen.</i>	blindes	blindes	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Acc.</i>	blindne	blind	blinde	blindan	blinde	blindan
<i>Instr.</i>	blinde	blinde	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Plural						
<i>Nom.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e	All genders blindan		
<i>Gen.</i>	blindra	blindra	blindra	blindra, -ena		
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindum	blindum		
<i>Acc.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e	blindan		
<i>Instr.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindum	blindum		
	(NE <i>blind</i> )					

## Comparison of Adjectives in Old English

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Suffixation	soft wēriȝ	softra wēriȝra	softost wēriȝost	<i>soft</i> <i>weary</i>
Suffixation plus vowel interchange	ȝlæd lonȝ eald  <i>also:</i>	ȝlædra lonȝra ieldra ealdra	ȝlædost lenȝest ieldest ealdost, ealdest)	<i>glad</i> <i>long</i> <i>old</i>
Suppletion	ȝōd lȝtel micel	bettra lāssa māra	bet(e)st lāest māest	<i>good</i> <i>little</i> <i>much</i>

## PRONOUNS

### Declension of Personal Pronouns

First person					
Case	Dual			Plural	
Singular					
<i>Nom.</i>	ic	wit			wē
<i>Gen.</i>	mīn	uncer			ūre, ūser
<i>Dat.</i>	mē	unc			ūs
<i>Acc.</i>	mec, mē	uncit			ūsic, ūs
Second person					
<i>Nom.</i>	þū	ȝit			ȝē
<i>Gen.</i>	þīn	incer			ēower
<i>Dat.</i>	þē	inc			ēow
<i>Acc.</i>	þēc, þē	incit, inc			ēowic, ēow
Third person					
Singular				Plural	
	M	F	N	All genders	
<i>Nom.</i>	hē	hēo, hīo	hit	hīe, hī, hȝ, hēo	
<i>Gen.</i>	his	hire, hierē	his	hira, heora, hiera, hyra	
<i>Dat.</i>	him	hire, hierē	him	him, heom	
<i>Acc.</i>	hine	hīe, hī, hȝ	hit	hīe, hī, hȝ, hēo	

**Declension of sē, sēo, þæt  
(Demonstrative pronouns)**

Case	Singular			Plural
	M	N	F	All genders
<i>Nom.</i>	sē, se	þæt	sēo	þā
<i>Gen.</i>	þæs	þæs	þære	þāra, þæra
<i>Dat.</i>	þæm, þām	þæm, þām	þære	þām, þæm
<i>Acc.</i>	þone	þæt	þā	þā
<i>Instr.</i>	þȳ, þon	þȳ, þon	þære	þæm, þām

**Principal Middle English Written Records**

Approximate Dating	Groups of Dialects					
	Kentish	South, Western or West Midland	London	Midland or East Midland	Northern	Scottish
12 <sup>th</sup> c.				THE PETERBOROUGH CHRONICLE		
13 <sup>th</sup> c.	Kentish Sermons POEMA MORALE	ANCREME RIWLE Layamon: BRUT	PROCLAMATION of Henry III Political Poems	ORMULUM; HAVELOK THE DANE	THE PROSE RULE OF ST BENEDICT	
14 <sup>th</sup> c.	Dan Michael AYENBITTE OF INWIT	Robert of Gloucester, a versified CHRONICLE SIR GAWAINE AND THE GREEN KNIGHT and other poems by the same author Higden: translation of POLYCHRONICON	Romance of Chivalry: RICHARD COEUR DE LION and others; Wyclif's works; Langland PIERES THE PLOWMAN; Chaucer's works Gower's works	Adam Davy's poems Romances of Chivalry; Miracle Plays	CURSOR MUNDI; Richard Rolle of Hampole: THE PRICK OF CONSCIENCE	J. Barbour: BRUCE; Henry the Minstrel: WALLACE

Approximate Dating	Groups of Dialects					
	Kentish	South, Western or West Midland	London	Midland or East Midland	Northern	Scottish
15 <sup>th</sup> c.			Hoccleve's poems Lydgate poems Th. Malory: MORTE D'ARTHUR	York Plays		James I: KING'S QUHAIR

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УЧЕБНОЕ ИЗДАНИЕ

**Виктория Павловна Каткова**

**HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Курс лекций

В авторской редакции

Художественное оформление обложки

Н. В. Чернышова

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Заказ № 305. Формат 60x84 <sup>1</sup>/<sub>16</sub>.

Бумага офс. Печать RISO.

Усл. печат. л. 6 Уч.-изд. л. 5,2

Издательство не несет ответственность за содержание  
материала, предоставленного автором к печати.

Издатель и изготовитель:

ГОУ ВПО ЛНР «ДонГТУ»

пр. Ленина, 16, г. Алчевск, ЛНР, 94204

(ИЗДАТЕЛЬСКО-ПОЛИГРАФИЧЕСКИЙ ЦЕНТР, ауд. 2113, т/факс 2-58-59)

Свидетельство о государственной регистрации издателя, изготовителя  
и распространителя средства массовой информации

МИ-СГР ИД 000055 от 05.02.2016